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The Impact of Met-expectation of Organizational Justice on Attitudinal and Behavioral
Outcomes of Intercollegiate Athletics Coaches

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ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study were to examine coaches' perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice regarding current resource distribution systems in intercollegiate athletics in terms of sport types (high profile sports vs. low profile sports) and gender of players (male participant sports vs. female participant sports) and the impacts of direct or indirect organizational justice on coaches' attitudinal (job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment toward organization and supervisor) and behavioral (organizational citizenship behavior for organization and supervisor) outcomes through the mediating effects of met expectations, outcome satisfaction, and social exchange relationships (perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange) via a multifoci perspective. The data were collected through online surveys of 260 coaches among 1,200 coaches contacted at NCAA Division I, II, and III institutions. The survey questionnaire consisted of demographics, organizational justice, met expectations, outcome satisfaction, leader-member exchange (LMX), perceived organizational support (POS), job satisfaction, employee commitment (organizational commitment and supervisor commitment), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB to benefit an organization and OCB to benefit a supervisor).

Descriptive statistics were incorporated to provide demographic information of the sample and means and standardized deviations for each construct. Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated and reported for the components of each measurement scale to verify internal consistency. MANOVA were utilized to explore differences of perceptions of organizational justice in terms of gender of sport and type of sport. Finally, SEM was incorporated to examine

the measurement model by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and to test the proposed structural model of this study.

The results of this study provided some important information. First, coaches of all groups based on gender of sports and type of sports reported below the scale's midpoint and there were no significant differences among the groups. Second, the proposed mediating effects of met expectation of organizational justice were not supported. Third, procedural justice indirectly influenced attitudinal outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational commitment), while distributive justice did not directly or indirectly influence those outcomes. Finally, procedural justice eventually influenced organizational citizenship behaviors through the mediating effects of POS and coaches' job satisfaction and commitment.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

This chapter consists of six sections that introduce important facets of this research: (a) Statement of the Problem, (b) Purpose Statement, (c) Definitions of the Variables, (d) Theoretical Framework, (e) Hypotheses, and (f) Significance of the Study.

Statement of the Problem

Organizational justice relates to the perceived fairness of employees or members in an organization (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003). The concept of organizational justice is extremely relevant in the sport setting, especially in intercollegiate athletics considering the increasing interest in fairness between women's and men's sports based on Title IX legislation (Mahony & Pastore, 1998). For instance, given budget limitations, athletic directors must make difficult decisions regarding resource allocation among teams. Student athletes and coaching staffs, as stakeholders who are mostly influenced by the resource allocation decisions made by the athletic directors will perceive the decisions to be fair or unfair. In making internal judgments as to whether their teams are treated fairly or unfairly, the student athletes and coaches may compare themselves to other teams on the basis of the availability of scholarships, facilities, or medical support (i.e., distributive justice: Deutsch, 1975; Homans, 1961; Leventhal, 1976), the process adopted by the athletic directors to make the final decisions (i.e., procedural justice: Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993), or the approach incorporated by the athletic directors to inform the teams of his/her final decisions (i.e., interactional justice: Bies & Moag, 1986). Although the interest in fairness issues among teams in terms of gender and type of sport in intercollegiate athletics has increased, little research has been conducted on the concept of organizational justice in this context, and this body of research has numerous limitations. First,

previous research has been primarily limited to the examination of distributive justice, and there is a strong need to investigate other dimensions (procedural justice and interactional justice) of the concept. Second, the research of distributive justice is also limited to understanding the perceptions of stakeholders, such as administrators and coaches (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b), athletic directors (Mahony, Hums, & Riemer, 2002; Mahony, Hums, & Riemer, 2005; Patrick, Mahony, & Petrosco, 2008), athletic board chairs (Mahony et al., 2002; Mahony et al., 2005), senior women administrators (Patrick et al., 2008), students (Mahony, Riemer, Breeding, & Hums, 2006), and student-athletes (Kim, Andrew, Mahony, & Hums, 2008). Third, the majority of the previous distributive studies have used hypothetical scenarios regarding resource distributions among teams, so the findings could be more closely related to the preferred principles of the stakeholders in distributing resources from the distributor's point of view than the actual perceptions of them. Fourth, although Jordan et al. (2007) examined the relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction of women's basketball coaches, effects of organizational justice on attitudinal or behavioral outcomes have not actively been investigated in the context of intercollegiate athletics. Finally, although coaches are one of the most influenced stakeholders by decisions regarding resource distribution among teams, no study has exclusively examined coaches' perspectives regarding the current resource distribution system that impacts their respective teams.

Purpose Statement

Based on the limitations of the previous studies regarding the concept of organizational justice within the context of intercollegiate athletics, the purposes of this study are to a) explore coaches' perceptions of fairness on the basis of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice regarding current resource distribution systems in intercollegiate athletics in terms of type of sport (high profile sport vs. non-high profile sport) and gender of sport (male participant sport vs. female participant sport) and b) examine the impact of met expectations of organizational justice on coaches' attitudinal outcomes (outcome satisfaction, job satisfaction, and affective commitment toward an organization and a supervisor) and behavioral outcomes (organizational citizenship behavior for an organization and a supervisor) through mediating effects of social exchange relationships (perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange) via a multifoci perspective.

Definitions of the Constructs

- **Distributive Justice:** the perceived fairness of outcomes, such as pay selection and promotion decision (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).
- **Procedural Justice:** the perceived fairness of the process or the procedure to allocate the outcomes to members in the organization (Leventhal, 1980; Lind & Tyler, 1988).
- **Interactional Justice:** the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment elements emphasizing the human side of organizational practice (Bies & Moag, 1986; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

- **Met Expectation:** “discrepancy between what a person encounters on this job in the way of positive and negative experiences and what he expected to encounter” (Porter & Steers, 1973, p. 152).
- **Leader-Member Exchange (LMX):** the quality of the relationship between a leader and a follower (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). Scandura, Graen and Novak defined the Leader-Member Exchange phenomenon as “ a) a system of components and their relationships, b) involving both members of a dyad, c) involving interdependent patterns of behavior, d) sharing mutual outcome instrumentalities, and e) producing conceptions of environments, cause maps, and values” (1986, p. 580).
- **Perceived Organizational Support (POS):** employees’ beliefs regarding how much an organization values their contribution and effort and cares about their well being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986).
- **Outcome Satisfaction:** employee satisfaction with the outcomes of decisions related to pay, promotion and performance appraisal (Colquitt, Colon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001).
- **Job Satisfaction:** a reflection of people’s attitudes about their jobs (Chelladurai, 2006).
- **Employee Commitment:** a psychological attachment toward the organization for which an employee works (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Affective commitment toward a supervisor or an organization in this study will be interpreted as a coach’s emotional attachment and loyalty to his or her athletic director or athletic department (Meyer & Allen, 1991).
- **Organizational Citizenship Behaviors:** “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p. 4).

Theoretical Framework

The conceptual framework of this study is based on recent organizational justice research in the field of management (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007), which argues for a multifoci model of organizational justice. Figure 1 shows the Target Similarity Model proposed by Lavelle et al. (2007).

Specifically, the newly proposed model suggests the outcomes of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice should be considered via the organizational entity typically responsible for altering these individual justice perceptions. For example, since interactional justice is typically altered by a supervisor's ability to convey information to his/her employees, outcomes of interactional justice are more likely to be related to the supervisor than the organizational itself.

Based on the idea of the Target Similarity Model, the conceptual framework of the current study was developed. The proposed conceptual model consists of seven constructs: (a) organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice), (b) leader-member exchange (LMX), (c) perceived organizational support (POS), (d) outcome satisfaction, (e) job satisfaction, (f) employee commitment (organizational commitment and supervisor commitment), and (g) organizational citizenship behavior (OCB to benefit an organization and OCB to benefit a supervisor). Figure 2 shows the direct and indirect paths between the variables of the proposed conceptual framework for this study.

The proposed model describing direct relationships in outcomes of organizational justice can be broken into four stages. The first stage is that in which recipients perceive organizational justice. The second, as a social exchange stage, includes both POS and LMX. The third stage

consists of organizational and supervisor commitment. The final stage is where the recipients of organizational justice exhibit OCB as a behavioral outcome of their perception received via the two social exchange stages.

In addition, this study incorporates met expectations of organization members. The concept allows for the analysis of organizational justice perceptions within the context of individual expectations from organization members. The proposition of such a concept is supported by Wanous (1992), who argued that met expectations of organization members may moderate the resulting degree of attitudinal outcome (e.g., organizational commitment).

Research Hypotheses

Kulik, Lind, Ambrose and MacCoun (1996) argued that demographic characteristics should impact each person's perception of justice through self-interest or different emphases. In other words, even if people are working at the same company, each person's unique background (e.g., age, gender, race, or education) can have various impacts on the perceptions of justice. In this study, two demographic variables (gender of sport and type of sport) will be used to examine differences among different groups. Past research has investigated differences in terms of gender (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b; Mahony et al., 2006) and revenue versus non-revenue sports (Mahony & Pastore, 1998). In classifying type of sport, this study will use the terms "high profile sports" for football and men's and women's basketball, and "non-high profile sports" for other sports, instead of "revenue sports" and "non-revenue sports" even though there is no difference between the two classification methods. The reason to use high profile and non-high profile sports instead of revenue and non-revenue sports is that not all football and men's and women's basketball teams operate with a profit in NCAA Division I, II and III. However, those

sports are the most often exposed to the public by media and become the center of public interest compared to other sports. In turn, the amount of resource allocations for these three teams is traditionally larger than those of other sports, and coaches in intercollegiate athletics make internal perceptions of fairness based on the resources they receive.

H1a: Coaches of male participant sports will report significantly higher levels of distributive justice than coaches of female participant sports based on their current resource distribution system in collegiate athletics.

H1b: Coaches of male participant sports will report significantly higher levels of procedural justice than coaches of female participant sports based on their current resource distribution system in collegiate athletics.

H1c: Coaches of male participant sports will report significantly higher levels of interactional justice than coaches of female participant sports based on their current resource distribution system in collegiate athletics.

H2a: Coaches of high profile sports will report significantly higher levels of distributive justice than coaches of non-high profile sports based on their current resource distribution system in collegiate athletics.

H2b: Coaches of high profile sports will report significantly higher levels of procedural justice than coaches of non-high profile sports based on their current resource distribution system in collegiate athletics.

H2c: Coaches of high profile sports will report significantly higher levels of interactional justice than coaches of non-high profile sports based on their current resource distribution system in collegiate athletics.

In the proposed model, POS, outcome satisfaction, and LMX are directly influenced by the three dimensions of organizational justice. First, each dimension of organizational justice has shown positive associations with POS in past research (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Roch & Shanock, 2006). In terms of whether the level of organizational justice can be used to predict POS, Ambrose and Schminke (2003) examined the impact of three dimensions of organizational justice on POS, and found that all three dimensions significantly influenced POS. However, procedural justice had stronger effects on POS than distributive justice and interactional justice. Secondly, many studies consistently support that distributive justice is the most important predictor of outcome satisfaction among the three dimensions of organizational justice. For example, Fong and Shaffer (2003) found that distributive justice contributed the most to satisfaction with pay raise/administration, followed by interactional justice and procedural justice. McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) examined the impact of distributive justice and procedural justice after controlling for five variables (gender, salary, tenure, age, and job title) on pay level satisfaction. The results revealed that distributive justice contributed the most to pay level satisfaction, followed by procedural justice. Finally, the findings of six empirical studies concerning the relation between interactional justice and LMX confirmed that interactional justice has a stronger correlation with LMX than the two other relationships have with each other (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Murphy, Wayne, Liden, & Erdogan, 2003; Roch & Shanock, 2006; Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005; Wayne et al., 2002). Cropanzano et al. (2002) examined the impact of three dimensions of organizational justice and demographics (age, gender, and ethnicity) on perceived LMX. The

results of the regression analysis revealed that only interactional justice was a significant predictor of LMX.

In addition to the direct relationships between organizational justice and outcome satisfaction, POS, and LMX, the relationships could be mediated through met expectations of organizational justice. According to the concept of met expectations (Porter & Steers, 1973; Wanous, 1992), if there is more congruence between the employees' expectations and experiences regarding their organizations or jobs, the employees are more likely have higher levels of attitudinal outcomes such as job satisfaction. In other words, even though an employee somehow feels unfair toward a certain treatment in an organization, if the unfair outcome has been expected by him or her, the level of outcome dissatisfaction could be somewhat attenuated by met expectations. Based on the findings of the previous research, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H3a: Distributive justice will have a stronger impact on the level of outcome satisfaction than procedural justice and interactional justice.

H3b: Procedural justice will have a stronger impact on the level of perceived organizational support than distributive justice and interactional justice.

H3c: Interactional justice will have a stronger impact on the level of leader-member exchange than distributive justice and procedural justice.

H4a: Met expectations of distributive justice will mediate the relationship between distributive justice and outcome satisfaction.

H4b: Met expectations of procedural justice will mediate the relationship between procedural justice and perceived organizational support.

H4c: Met expectations of interactional justice will mediate the relationship between interactional justice and leader-member exchange.

Previous studies have also found indirect relationships among the variables in the proposed model. First, indirect relationships between the three dimensions of organizational justice and the variables in stage three through the variables in stage two are supported by previous literature. In terms of the mediating effects of outcome satisfaction, Tremblay and Roussel (2001) found that outcome satisfaction mediated the relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction. DeConinck and Stilwell (2004) also found that outcome satisfaction mediated the relationship between distributive justice and organizational commitment. Additionally, Masterson et al. (2002) found that procedural justice had an indirect relationship with job satisfaction and organizational commitment via POS. Finally, Tekleab et al. (2005) found that LMX mediated the relationship between interactional justice and job satisfaction. Based on the findings of previous research, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H5: Outcome satisfaction will mediate the relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction.

H6a: Perceived organizational support will mediate the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction.

H6b: Perceived organizational support will mediate the relationship between procedural justice and affective organizational commitment.

H7a: Leader-member exchange will mediate the relationship between interactional justice and job satisfaction.

H7b: Leader-member exchange will mediate the relationship between interactional justice and affective supervisory commitment.

Furthermore, the indirect relationships between organizational justice and OCB via the variables in stage two or stage three are also supported by previous research. First, in terms of the mediating effects of POS, Masterson et al. (2002) found that procedural justice had indirect relationships with job satisfaction and organization-directed OCB, via POS. Moorman, Blakely, and Niehoff (1998) also found a mediating effect of POS on procedural justice and three OCB dimensions (interpersonal helping, personal industry, and loyal boosterism). Olkkonen and Lipponen (2006) found that organizational identification, consisting of affective and cognitive identification, had a mediating effect between two dimensions of organizational justice (distributive justice and procedural justice) and extra-role behaviors for the organization. Schappe (1998) also found that affective organizational commitment mediated the relationship between organizational justice and OCB. Finally, Masterson et al. (2000) found that interactional justice had an indirect relationship with job satisfaction and supervisor-directed OCB via LMX.

Lavelle et al. (2007) proposed *The Target Similarity Model*, based on the findings of the aforementioned literature. The model proposed an indirect relationship between organizational justice and OCB via two phases of social exchange relationships. Phase 1 consists of POS, LMX, perceived supervisor support (PSS), team member exchange (TMX) and perceived team support (PTS), while phase 2 includes organizational commitment and identification, supervisor commitment and identification, and coworker commitment and identification. Olkkonen and Lipponen (2006) found a mediating effect of organizational identification on the relationship

between organization-focused justice (e.g., distributive justice and procedural justice) and extra-role behavior for an organization, while work-unit identification mediated the relationship between supervisor-focused justice (e.g., interactional justice) and extra-role behavior for a work-unit. Although the findings did not directly support a mediating effect of supervisor commitment between interactional justice and OCB toward a supervisor in the currently proposed model, the findings support the relationship indirectly, because they support the target-specific social exchange relationship proposed by Lavelle et al. (2007).

H8a: Affective organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization.

H8b: Affective organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization.

H9a: Affective supervisory commitment will mediate the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the supervisor.

H9b: Affective supervisory commitment will mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the supervisor.

Figure 3 summarizes the hypotheses of the current study.

Significance of the Study

There are four major contributions of the current study to the sport management literature based on the limitations of past research on organizational justice in intercollegiate athletics. First, as mentioned earlier, previous organizational justice research in intercollegiate athletics has been primarily limited to distributive justice, while the current study will extend the previous

studies by including two other dimensions of organizational justice. Second, this study will attempt to investigate the impact of the perceived fairness regarding resource allocations among athletic programs on coaches' psychological attitudes and behaviors, while most of the past studies were limited to understanding the perceptions of stakeholders. Third, the concept of met expectation will be incorporated in examining the impact of organizational justice as a mediator between perceived fairness and its outcomes. The concept has rarely been studied in the business and sport management literature. The concept of met expectations regarding organizational justice has yet to be conceptually developed and empirically tested and this study will be the first study to introduce the concept to our collective understanding of organizational justice in the field. Finally, a multifoci model of organizational justice based on the latest research in the field (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007) will be utilized in developing a conceptual framework for this study. This study will be the first study to empirically test the proposed model in sport management.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

As discussed earlier, the main purposes of the current study are to explore coaches' perceptions of fairness with regard to resource distribution among teams in intercollegiate athletics in terms of type of sport (high profile sport vs. non-high profile sport) and gender of sport (male participant sport vs. female participant sport) and to examine the consequences (e.g., outcome satisfaction, POS, LMS, job satisfaction, employee commitment, and OCB) of the perceived fairness. In order to investigate the consequences of the perceived fairness, a conceptual framework for the current study has been created based on the latest research in the field (Lavelle et al. 2007). The model, originally proposed by Levelle et al. (2007), suggests the outcomes of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice should be considered via the organizational entity typically responsible for altering these individual justice perceptions. For example, since procedural justice is typically altered by an organization's methods or processes of decision-making, outcomes of procedural justice are more likely to be related to the organization than the supervisor who informs the final decision. In addition, the current study incorporates the concept of met expectations to examine the mediating effect of the concept between organizational justice and its outcomes. The proposition of such a concept is supported by Wanous (1992), who argued that met expectations of organization members may moderate the resulting degree of attitudinal outcomes (e.g., organizational commitment).

The chapter is designed to introduce the constructs identified in the conceptual framework of this dissertation and to provide a synopsis of the previous studies related to the constructs in both the field of sport management and organizational behavior. In order to meet its

purpose, the current chapter consists of two main sections. The first section introduces the concept of organizational justice with its three dimensions (e.g., distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) and the past research regarding organizational justice in sport organizations. The second section introduces other related constructs in this study such as met expectations and other outcomes of organizational justice. The proposed outcomes of organizational justice include (a) leader-member exchange, (b) perceived organizational support, (c) outcome satisfaction, (d) job satisfaction, (e) commitment (e.g. organizational commitment and supervisor commitment), and (f) organizational citizenship behavior.

Organizational Justice

The study of fairness or justice in business organizations has increased significantly in recent years (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001) since Adams' (1965) studies of distributive justice, the perceived fairness of recipients toward outcomes, such as pay (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003). Although a number of studies were subsequently published on the basis of Adams' equity theory, his equity theory and other distributive models (Crosby, 1976; Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1976a) in early studies failed to fully explain people's various reactions to perceived injustice. The limitations of those early models led researchers to search for other justice principles to augment justice research (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). As a result, procedural justice was introduced by Thibaut and Walker in 1975 to expand the concept of distributive justice. Procedural justice is the perceived justice of the process or procedure of outcomes when management makes a decision (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003). By the same token, interactional justice, the concept of the perceived justice from the methods and the attitudes that management

takes toward recipients in the workplace, also emerged later as an expansion of procedural justice (Bies & Moag, 1986).

Four-type model proposed by Greenberg in 1993 has begun to gain great attention and support from researchers (Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler, & Schminke, 2001). Greenberg's four-type model consists of distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice. Greenberg defined informational justice as the perceived fairness of the social accounts, justifications, and explanations provided when management makes an allocation decision, and he also defined interpersonal justice as the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment, such as respect and dignity (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Essentially, Greenberg's model dichotomizes the construct of interactional justice in the three-type model. While the three-type model representing distributive, procedural, and interactional justice is mostly used for the study of organizational justice, it is very important to recognize that there has been the debate regarding the distinction between procedural justice and interactional justice (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005) since some researchers have seen interactional justice as a) an interpersonal component of procedural justice (Cropanzano & Rundall, 1993; Folger & Bies, 1989), b) a social dimension of both distributive and procedural justice (Greenberg, 1993b), or c) conceptually similar (Tyler & Blader, 2000). Since the three-type model is the most popular (Cropanzano et al., 2001) conceptualization of organizational justice, it will be incorporated for the present study.

Distributive Justice

Distributive justice relates to the perceived fairness of outcomes, such as pay selection, promotion decision, and the relation of these justice perceptions to dependent variables, such as quality and quantity of work (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Distributive justice was

originally based on Adams' (1965) Equity Theory, which suggests the means to distribute resources in an organization should be based on the ratio of one's contributions to that organization (Colquitt, Colon, Ng, & Porter, 2001). While Adams' original theory only considered the equity principle to define fairness, two other principles, equality and need, have been identified by Deutsch (1975) and Homans (1961) as principles that influence resource distribution and allocation.

Equity is the notion that each member or group that has contributed the most to the organization should receive the greatest distribution and allocation of resources among other groups. In intercollegiate athletics, the principle of equity or contribution can be interpreted through (a) productivity (Tornblom & Jonsson, 1985), (b) effort (Tornblom & Jonsson, 1985), (c) ability (Tornblom & Jonsson, 1985), and (d) revenue generation (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994a)

Equality refers to the idea that each individual or each group should be able to gain the same distribution. It consists of equality of results, an equal distribution over the long term, equality of opportunities, an equal chance to receive resources, and equality of treatment, which means that all distributions are equal in a given situation (Tornblom & Jonsson, 1985). This principle is more commonly adopted when the relationship among members or subunits is cooperative and the cohesion and a sense of a common fate of the organization is high among them (Tornblom & Jonsson, 1985). Sports teams in Division III with less emphasis on productivity (winning) and revenue generation would be more likely to adopt equality principles than Division I schools with a higher competition level (Mahony & Pastore, 1998).

The need principle means that an individual or group that lacks necessary resources needs to receive more of the share of resources than others (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994a). This

principle is more commonly used when the goals of the organizations are personal growth of each member and survival of the group (Deutsch, 1975). Since one of the goals of intercollegiate sports is the growth of student athletes through attending sporting events, this principle acts importantly in intercollegiate athletics. The findings of previous research (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b; Mahony et al., 2002) on distributive justice are consistent with the idea that need is the most prominent principle among these three principles.

Distributive justice has been supported by researchers as a powerful predictor of a recipient's performances (Colquitt et al., 2001). For instance, if a student-athlete on an intercollegiate athletic team feels particular outcomes are unfair, the perception of the injustice should affect the student's emotions, cognition, and eventually his or her behavior or performance on the team (Adams, 1965; Austin & Waler, 1974).

Procedural Justice

Procedural justice is the notion of perceived fairness of the process or the procedure to allocate outcomes to members in an organization (Leventhal, 1980; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Even though the early research on the notion of fairness mainly focused on distributive justice, researchers (Blau, 1964; Deutsch, 1975; Leventhal, 1976) also noticed that individuals could be impacted by procedures or information of allocations. Thibaut and Walker (1975) compared two legal procedures in order to examine the ability of making a fair decision between the adversarial system and the inquisitorial system. In the study, they found that participants (disputants) felt more fair perceptions from adversarial procedures limiting a third party's control and allowing disputants to represent their opinions. Although the concept of procedural justice was introduced by Greenberg and Folger (1983) to organizational researchers for the first time, the perception of

fairness of Thibaut and Walker (1975) is considered to be the birth of the concept of procedural justice (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005).

According to Leventhal in 1980, six rules need to be followed to ensure procedural justice. The procedures should (a) be consistent across person and time, (b) be kept separated from a decision maker's personal interests or preferences during allocation, (c) ensure accurate information in making the decision, (d) have the formulated system to correct or change the flaws and wrongness, (e) ensure the need and opinion of all parties or members affected by the decision, and (f) consider the fundamental morality and ethics of the members. While distributive justice is more related to particular outcomes, procedural justice emphasizes more global reactions toward the organization, such as organizational commitment (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). For instance, although particular outcomes were not fairly distributed among athletic teams, if a student-athlete or a coach still felt the procedure to make the allocation decisions was fair, a student-athlete or a coach could develop a high level of organizational commitment despite the perception of unfair outcomes.

Interactional Justice

As an extension of distributive justice, interactional justice emphasizes the human side of organizational practice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Bies and Moag (1986) introduced the concept by focusing on the importance of the quality of interpersonal treatment of the management in progress. While procedural justice influences the perceiver's reaction and attitude toward the organization itself, interactional justice impacts the perceiver's reaction and attitude toward the supervisor, because it is related to the ways of communication with recipients and management, such as politeness, honesty, and respect (Bies & Moag, 1986; Cropanzano &

Prehar, 1999; Tyler & Bies, 1990). Regarding sports teams, the communication between coaches and athletic directors can be interpreted as interactional justice. However, there has been some disagreement on the distinction between procedural justice and interactional justice (Cohen & Spector, 2001).

Organizational Justice in Sport

The pioneering study by Hums and Chelladurai (1994a) was the first to apply the concept of organizational justice to the field of sport management. The purpose of the study was to create a distributive justice scale that would assess the perspectives of male and female coaches and administrators in the current resource allocation system of U.S. intercollegiate athletics. Hums and Chelladurai adopted the conceptual model of distributive justice (Tornblom & Jonsson, 1985), which consists of three principles: equality, contribution, and need. Based upon the conceptual model, they proposed eight sub-principles under the three principles for their sport setting study. The principle of equality included the sub-principles of (a) equality of treatment, (b) equality of results, and (c) equality of opportunity. The contribution principle was comprised of (a) productivity, (b) spectator appeal, (c) ability, and (d) effort. However, they did not propose any sub-principles to the principle of need.

The researchers utilized a three-step process in their development of an instrument of distributive justice. The steps consisted of (a) development of scenarios, (b) pilot study, and (c) confirmatory study. For the first step, 48 scenarios depicting distribution and retribution situations involving money, facilities, and support service were created by the researchers. They chose situations involving money, facilities, and support services because these situations are deemed to create the most critical resource allocation issues within athletic departments. A panel

of experts consisting of six athletic administrators, six coaches, and four professors reviewed the 48 situations for content validity and chose 24 scenarios for a pilot study.

The pilot study was conducted as the second step in the development process in order to select the best 12 scenarios for use in the final confirmatory study. For the pilot study, the researchers used a stratified random sampling system to create a total sample of 120 participants, representing variety in gender (10 men and 10 women), NCAA division (Division I, II, and III), and position (administrator and coach).

Once the 24 scenarios were skimmed down to 12, the final step, the confirmatory study, was conducted. The total sample for the confirmatory study consisted of 600 recipients, representing variety in gender (50 men and 50 women), NCAA division, and departmental position. The response rate was 55% (328 of 600).

Reliability of the developed instrument was measured in two ways. First, Pearson correlations between two scenarios within a distributive situation and eight allocation cells were calculated. The results showed all relationships to be significant ($p < .05$), rating from .28 to .87, for a mean of .66. Secondly, test-retest was conducted. The researchers mailed 100 shorter surveys to randomly selected subjects who had responded to the longer version. Fifty six recipients responded to the shorter version. Correlations between responses to the longer and shorter versions were calculated. All 48 correlations were found to be significant ($p < .05$), ranging from .31 to .86, with a mean of .64. Only seven of these correlations were lower than .50. The results of the two reliability checks indicated that the reliability of the instrument was satisfactory.

Undoubtedly, the study of Hums and Chelladurai (1994a) made a significant and

important contribution to the literature concerning perceptions of distribution in athletic departments by introducing the concept of organizational justice to the field of sport management. However, there were some limitations in the study. First, the study was limited to examining only distributive justice, which represents one of the three dimensions of organizational justice. It is necessary, however, to include other aspects of organizational justice in order to fully understand the participants' psychological attitudes because procedural justice and interactional justice could influence the participants' internal judgment as well as distributive justice. Additionally, the researchers did not develop sub-principles for need, although detailed sub-principles for equality and equity were developed.

Secondly, the instrument developed in the study was designed to assess the perspectives of stakeholders regarding which principle of distributive justice should or would be applied in artificial decision-making scenarios in intercollegiate athletics. Strictly speaking, asking subjects what should be used to make decisions in the distribution or retribution scenarios does not measure their real perceptions of fairness toward outcomes. This approach led the researchers to depart from investigating the original meaning of distributive justice, which refers to the stakeholders' perceived fairness concerning the current and real resource distribution process in organizations. As a result, even though the researchers adopted the concept of organizational justice to understand resource allocation systems in intercollegiate athletics, which is still a valuable pursuit, they failed to measure the concept through their use of an approach that focused on scenarios. Due to the limitations outlined here, a series of studies (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b; Mahony et al., 2002, 2006), using the instrument as a basic tool, have had the same limitations.

Although the importance of understanding organizational justice has been highlighted by several organizational behavior scholars (which is not surprising considering the increasing interest in the fairness or lack thereof between women's and men's sports based on Title IX legislation), there still have been far too few studies concerning organizational justice in athletic organizations since 1994.

The study of organizational justice in sport organizations can be categorized by stakeholders who took part in those studies and sport settings studied. First, researchers examined various stakeholders, such as student athletes (Kim, Andrew, Mahony, & Hums, 2008), student non-athletes (Mahony et al., 2006), administrators (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b), coaches (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b; Whisenant & Smucker, 2006, 2007), athletic directors and athletic board chairs (Mahony et al., 2002, 2005), employees in a university recreation department (Jordan, Turner, & DuBord, 2007; Jordan, Turner, & Pack, 2009), and administrators in U.S. National Governing Bodies (NGBs; Dittmore, Mahony, Andrew, & Hums, 2009). In terms of the sport setting, intercollegiate sports (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994a, 1994b; Kim et al., 2008; Mahony et al., 2002; 2006, Mahony, Hums, & Riemer, 2005) and interscholastic sports (Whisenant, 2005; Whisenant & Jordan, 2006; Whisenant & Smucker, 2006, 2007) have been the two most popular research settings, even though a university recreation department (Jordan et al., 2007; Jordan et al., 2009), U.S. NGBs (Dittmore et al., 2009) and a sporting goods company (Mahony et al., 2006) were also studied as contexts. With regard to the organizational justice research on intercollegiate athletics in the United States, distributive justice has been the most widely examined principle among the three dimensions. The reason for this focus is likely because the distribution of resources in this setting has been controversial, particularly since the

passage of Title IX of the Education Amendments in 1972, which was originally created in order to provide fair and equal opportunities and outcomes in any education activity or program regardless of gender.

The majority of these organizational justice studies have focused on *perceptions* of organizational justice, and distributive justice in particular, while only a few studies have attempted to examine the *outcomes* of justice in sport organizations. Studies of outcomes of organizational justice in sport organizations are important because they have the potential to support the rationale for exploring the variable of organizational justice in a sport setting. For example, if empirical studies consistently demonstrate that organizational justice is not related to important individual-level outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust, perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior, the need to explore perceptions of organizational justice would be considerably diminished (Cropanzano, Bowen & Gilliland, 2007). For the purpose of this dissertation, the review of research related to organizational justice in sport will be dichotomized into studies examining the perceptions of justice and studies exploring the outcomes of justice.

Perceptions of Organizational Justice

As mentioned previously, the most popular organizational justice topic in sport-management literature is that of exploring the distributive justice perceptions of various stakeholders, including coaches (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b; Whisenant & Smucker, 2006), administrators (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b; Dittmore et al, 2009), athletic directors (Mahony et al., 2002, 2005), athletic board chairs (Mahony et al., 2002, 2005), and students (Jordan et al., 2007; Mahony et al., 2006; Whisenant, 2005). Hums and Chelladurai (1994b), using their

distributive justice instrument on intercollegiate athletics (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994a), explored the fairness of distribution principles of male and female coaches and administrators by examining three athletic resources: money, facility use, and support services. Among 600 coaches and administrators surveyed, 328 participated in the study (males = 46.3% and females = 53.7%; Division I = 30.8%, Division II = 35.7% and Division III = 33.5%; administrators = 17.7%, coaches = 40.2% and people who identified themselves as both administrators and coaches = 42.1%; response rate: 55%). The instrument was composed of two sets of six scenarios regarding distribution and retribution of money, facilities and support services. The researchers asked subjects to rate eight sub-principles of distributive justice for each scenario and choose the most appropriate sub-principle that the subjects would implement in each scenario.

The results of MANOVAs to examine the impact of gender, division level, and position on sub-principles showed only gender had a significant impact in this case. Therefore, repeated measures ANOVAs were used to examine the relationship between gender and the principles. In addition, chi-square analyses were incorporated to find preferred choices of sub-principles in the distributive situation based on the frequency. The results indicated that the need and equality principles were most highly rated throughout all levels by both males and females. However, male coaches tended to give more weight to the equity principles, while female coaches tended to give more importance to the equality principles. In addition, coaches and athletic administrators at Division I institutions preferred the equity principle based on productivity and spectator appeal more than those at Division II and Division III schools. The results indicated that Division I institutions were more likely to care about winning and revenue generation associated with productivity and spectator appeal. Overall, the most important findings of the

study were that the male and female coaches and athletic administrators at all Division levels viewed equality of treatment, need, and equality of results as most fair, while equality of opportunity and all sub-principles of contribution were almost totally rejected by all subjects in terms of gender, division, and position.

The population of the study consisted of coaches and administrators at NCAA Division I, II, and III institutions. In general, administrators are neither recipients influenced by resource allocation among teams nor decision-makers who can have an impact in determining which team will receive money, facilities, or medical support in intercollegiate athletics. Therefore, it was somehow problematic to choose administrators as participants in this study. In terms of coaches, it would have been interesting to compare how coaches of revenue sports and those of non-revenue sports would answer the survey, or how coaches of male teams and female teams would react in the distribution and retribution scenarios.

Mahony and Pastore (1998) later examined the NCAA revenue and expense reports from 1973 to 1993 given the findings of Hums and Chelladurai (1994b) that equality of treatment, need, and equality of results principles of distributive justice were highly rated by all groups (e.g., gender, division, and position) of the NCAA administrators and coaches. The purpose of the study was to determine how those distributive justice principles affected the resource allocation decisions made by intercollegiate athletic administrators from 1973 to 1993. In addition, this study attempted to examine the impact of various legislation and court cases by examining the NCAA records.

Descriptive statistics were used to show the trends and ratios according to each NCAA division level and gender in four categories: revenue, available teams, participation opportunities,

and expenses during the period time from 1973 to 1993. The results showed that the portion of revenue generated by women sports had increases from 9.81% in 1973 to 22.32% in 1993. In addition, there had been an increase in the number of women sports (86.07%), and in the number of women athletes (112.04%) during the period. Mahony and Pastore (1998) concluded that those changes were mainly caused by legislation and court decisions that had an impact on the distribution of resources and opportunities for women sports than a belief of gender equity in intercollegiate athletic organizations in the United States. Their conclusion could be supported by their finding that the actions of athletic administrators were not congruent with the self-reported perspectives from the Hums and Chelladurai (1994b) study. The data indicated that Division I institutions favored revenue sports (football and men's basketball) when distributing financial resources, suggesting they use the equity principle (e.g., revenue production and spectator appeal) when deciding where to invest the bulk of the university's athletic resources. The researchers also found that schools increased women's sports budgets while maintaining rapid increases in budgets for revenue sports by decreasing support for men's non-revenue sports during the study period. Unfortunately, decreasing financial support for men's non-revenue sports was not consistent with the need and equality principles that Division I school administrators previously rated as most fair (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b).

Given the inconsistency between the findings of Hums and Chelladurai (1994b) in their study of resource allocation fairness perceptions, and the findings of the actual resource distribution, especially in NCAA Division I, which was investigated by Mahony and Pastore (1998), Mahony et al. (2002) then examined the fairness perspectives of athletic directors and athletic boards at Division I and Division III institutions. The primary purpose of this study was

to understand the relationship between the perception of justice and its distributions, by surveying athletic directors and athletic board chairs, thus providing advice to their athletic programs regarding compliance, gender equity, and budget. The athletic directors and athletic board chairs in their study purportedly had more impact and power in budgetary decision-making processes than the participants in Hums and Chelladurai's (1994b) study. Additionally, Mahony et al. (2002) took the investigation to a new level by asking participants not only what they believed to be fair, but also what factors they would use to determine resource allocation in certain scenarios.

The Instrument of Distributive Justice (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994a) was utilized as a data collection tool, and Mahony et al. (2002) made a few instrumentation changes for this study. First, the revenue production sub-principle under the principle of equity was added to the investigation, and the equality of percentage sub-principle under the principle of equality was added as well. Second, multiple items were used to define the principle of need: a) need to be successful, b) need to survive (women's team), and c) need to survive (men's team), while the previous study used need as a principle that lacked sub-principles. Third, Mahony et al.'s (2002) study only focused on financial resources, while the previous study considered distribution and retribution situations of money, facilities and support services.

Mahony and his colleagues (2002) used the entire population as a sample, which included all the athletic directors and athletic board chairs at NCAA I-A and III schools participating in men's football. Among 660 subjects, 261 subjects responded [athletic directors = 140 (53.4%); athletic board = 121 (46.4%); female = 28 (11%); male = 233 (89%)]. The overall response rate was 40%. The researchers asked the participants to rate the 12 sub-principles of distributive

justice for distribution and retribution scenarios in terms of both what would be fair, and what would be likely.

In terms of fairness of principles, the results of six MANOVAs indicated that all four groups consistently reported need to be the most fair principle used in the determination of both the distribution and retribution scenarios, which supported prior research (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b). Although equality of treatment often was rated the highest fair option, it was comparatively lower than previous research by Hums and Chelladurai (1994b). In retribution scenarios, Division I athletic directors showed neutral views for both revenue production and spectator appeal, which was consistent with the previous study. In terms of likelihood of use, all three need sub-principles were again rated highest, and there was an overall consistency between the fairness of the principles and the likelihood of their use in the study.

Athletic directors and athletic boards in the same divisions did not differ in their identifications of the fairness of the principles and the likelihood of their use. Furthermore, athletic directors and athletic board members often considered equality of treatment and equality of results to be unfair principles. While Division I schools were more likely to prefer the equity principle over the equality principle, Division III schools were more likely to prefer equality of treatment when determining resource distribution.

In order to overcome the limitations of previous studies, Hums and Chelladurai (1994b) surveyed athletic directors and athletic board members, who have more power when it comes to actually determining resource allocation among teams. However, the results of two studies (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b, Mahony et al., 2002) consistently found that equality of treatment and need principles were considered to be the most fair -- even in a likelihood of use survey

(Mahony et al., 2002). The consistency of these findings may have been influenced by the scenarios asking not what one perceives to be true, but what one would or should do. The primary purpose of studying organizational justice is to understand the recipients' perceptions of the fairness of their treatment and to address issues that could have a negative impact on an organization whose sports stakeholders hold negative attitudes due to their sense of injustice.

Most of the previous research (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b; Mahony et al, 2002) on distributive justice in intercollegiate athletics has consistently found that the need principle is generally considered the most fair principle to use in making resource distribution decisions. Therefore, Mahony et al. (2005) went on to explore how athletic directors and athletic boards define "need," and which types of need had the greatest impact on the decision making process. In order to find out what "need" meant to the decision makers, four research questions were asked: Which sport teams do the decision makers believe have the most need? What factors do the decision makers believe make one team's needs greater than another's? Are there differences in perceptions of need by position? Are there differences among divisions in their perception of needs?

The new questions were asked along with some demographics for this research, including: Which of your athletic teams currently has the greatest financial need in terms of men's teams, women's teams, and overall, respectively? Why do the teams named in the previous question have the greatest financial needs? All of the athletic directors and athletic board chairs at NCAA I-A and III schools participating in men's football were surveyed for this study. Among the 660 possible subjects, 261 participated [athletic directors = 140 (53.4%); athletic board = 121 (46.4%); female = 28, (11%); male = 233 (89%)], resulting in a 40% response rate.

The results of the first question showed that football was considered to be the team with the greatest financial need among men's teams by respondents from both divisions, followed by track -- although no sport came close to football at the Division III level. With regard to women's sports, basketball, track, and softball were fairly evenly recognized. Overall, male teams were considered to have more need than female teams. The results of the second question identified three sub-principles of need in intercollegiate athletics: a) a lack of resources for the sport team, b) the high costs associated with the sport team, and c) the level of resource needed by the sport team to ensure competitive success. Athletic directors and athletic board members showed similar views for financial need. Finally, differences regarding need sub-principles were found between the Division I and Division III respondents. For example, Division I respondents were more likely to identify the reasons for a sport having great financial need to be relative to the team's competitive success, whereas Division III respondents were more likely to identify the high costs related to certain sports teams to be a more effective indicator of need.

This more recent study simply included two questions with regards to what "need" means to the decision-makers in intercollegiate athletics. However, the findings of the two simple questions greatly contributed to the literature by further defining sub-principles for need. Based on the findings of the study, future studies should attempt to investigate the need principle including the three sub-principles identified by Mahony et al. (2005).

After having focused on the perspectives of stakeholders with more influence over resource distributions and their execution in each university (e.g., athletic directors and athletic board members), Mahony et al. (2006) next examined the perspectives of student-athletes and other students as stakeholders affected by resource distribution decisions. In this study, two

student groups were asked to either respond to hypothetical situations in intercollegiate athletics for study one, or in a sport business (using the New Balance Company as an example) for study two.

The study utilized an instrument entitled the Principles of Distributive Justice in Athletics (PDJA) scale, which was developed by the researchers based on the instrument used by Hums and Chelladurai (1994a) with a few changes added. For example, the word “just” was replaced with “fair,” and the scale was changed from a 7-point Likert-type scale to a 5-point Likert-type scale. The instrument presented six scenarios and asked participants to rate nine sub-principles of distributive justice and to choose a single option as the most fair for each given situation.

The nine sub-principles were as follows: three of equality (equality of treatment, equality of result, and equality of opportunity), five of equity (revenue production, effort, spectator appeal, productivity, and ability), and one of need. Mahony et al. (2006) surveyed 150 intercollegiate student athletes and undergraduate students enrolled in sport management classes for each study. For both studies, 150 participants were equally divided into five groups: a) male non-athletes, b) male revenue sport athletes, c) male non-revenue sport athletes, d) female non-athletes, and e) female athletes. Participants in study 1 were not included in study 2.

In terms of the perspectives of students, the results of a series of MANOVAs indicated that equality of treatment and need are rated as the most fair principles for deciding resource allocation, as were most often chosen as the fairest options for all the given scenarios. These findings are consistent with those of Hums and Chelladurai (1994b), but inconsistent with Mahony et al. (2002), because Mahony et al. (2002) found that the need principle was rated higher than equality of treatment.

Further analysis revealed that male students were more likely to prefer the equity principle, particularly in revenue production, while female students generally preferred equality of treatment, which is consistent with the findings of Hums and Chelladurai (1994b). Equality of treatment and need principles were supported by both groups, even though the levels of the support differed significantly between the two groups.

In terms of study two in the corporate sport setting, the results were similar to those from the college setting -- equality of treatment and need were again considered by the participants to be the most fair principles by which to decide resource allocation. There was no significant difference in results in study two between genders.

Overall, the principles of equality and need were selected as the fairest methods of deciding resource distribution in both settings. The study also examined gender and athletic participation differences, and found that equality and need principles were again supported by all groups as well as different sport settings.

Mahony et al.'s (2006) study is meaningful as the first organizational justice study to examine the perceptions of the real recipients of resource allocations in intercollegiate athletics, student athletes. However, this study was limited again in that the researchers asked what students would or should do in distribution or retribution scenarios, rather than examining the students' perceived fairness of certain practices. In this study, Mahony et al. (2006) attempted to test a different sport setting from that of intercollegiate athletics by replacing the athletic director as the decider with the director of New Balance. The students had never worked for New Balance and had no idea how the organization was structured and operated. In addition, the original instrument (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994a) was developed based on intercollegiate

athletics after consulting with sport management experts; therefore, it had not been validated for use with a corporate business like New Balance. Finally, the researchers used a sole sub-principle for need instead of using the three sub-principles found by Mahony et al. (2005)

All of the studies discussed above assessed the perspectives of stakeholders in artificial decision-making scenarios in intercollegiate athletics, but Kim et al. (2008) were the first to examine the perceptions of student athletes under real situations in intercollegiate athletics. The purpose of Kim et al.'s study was to examine student athletes' perceived outcome fairness under their athletic department's current resource distribution system based on gender and sport type (revenue vs. non-revenue sports).

The researchers created a Distributive Justice in Intercollegiate Athletics Scale on the basis of prior work (Mahony et al. 2002; 2006), which consisted of ten sub-principles for the three principles of distributive justice. The four sub-principles for equity included (a) revenue generation, (b) effort, (c) productivity, and (d) ability. The three sub-principles for equality included (a) treatment, (b) results, and (c) opportunities. Finally, the three sub-principles for need included (a) lack of resources, (b) high costs, and (c) competitive success. Among 463 distributed questionnaires to student athletes in a large Division I-A, Midwestern University, 169 questionnaires were returned (36% response rate), and 159 (34%) were usable for the study. The majority of the student athlete respondents were female ($n = 101$; 63%) and non-revenue sport athletes ($n=139$; 87.4%).

The results of Kruskal-Wallis tests found no significant interaction effects of gender and sport type and no main effects of gender on perceived outcome fairness. However, the results of the third Kruskal-Wallis test indicated significant main effects for type of sport on perceived

fairness on the basis of equality [$\chi^2(1) = 5.780, p = .016$] and need [$\chi^2(1) = 6.372, p = .012$], but not on the basis of equity [$\chi^2(1) = 1.358, p = .244$]. Post-hoc analysis of descriptive statistics revealed that student athletes in revenue sports had significantly higher ratings of the principles of equality and need than student athletes in non-revenue sports did. These findings suggested the differences in fairness perceptions are more likely to be related to the status of sport than the gender of the athletes in the sport. This finding is consistent with prior research suggesting that male non-revenue athletes are more likely to be treated like women's sports in the distribution of resources (Mahony & Pastore, 1998) and are more likely to perceive distributive justice in a manner similar to those athletes (Mahony et al., 2006).

Even though Kim et al.'s study examined the student athletes' perception of fairness in the current resource distribution system, there were some limitations to the study. First, the study was limited to the examination of distributive justice. Second, there were unequal sized sample sub-groups (e.g., male athletes vs. female athletes and revenue sports vs. non-revenue sports), which necessitated the use of Kruskal-Wallis tests, the non-parametric equivalent of Analysis of Variance. Therefore, the researchers should aggressively recruit more athletes from those groups to use parametric statistics for future study. Finally, the study was limited to one school in Division I-A, so it is difficult to generalize the findings to other institutions.

Jordan et al. (2007) explored the perceptions of fairness of basketball head coaches based on gender and level of competition (Division I vs. Division III) in intercollegiate athletics. Jordan and his colleagues surveyed 600 men's and women's basketball head coaches from 150 Division I and 150 Division III institutions. Among the 600 subjects invited, 213 participated in the

survey, resulting in a 35.5% response rate [men's basketball = 137 (64.0%); women's basketball = 63 (36.0%)] and [Division I = 110 (51.0%); Division III = 103 (49.0%)].

There were no interaction effects of gender of sports and level of competition on any of three dimensions [$F(3, 207) = 1.340, p = .262$]. However, the MANOVAs with follow up ANOVAs results indicated that gender main effects on procedural justice [$F(1, 207) = 8.436, p = .004$] and interactional justice [$F(1, 207) = 5.322, p = .022$], while competition level did not have main effects on any of three dimensions.

The perceptions of fairness of stakeholders under real situations were also examined in different contexts of sports, such as interscholastic sports and a university recreation department, even though research is limited on these topics. Whisenant (2005) explored the impact of gender, ethnicity, grade level, and referent sport on three organizational justice dimensions (procedural justice, distributive justice, and interpersonal justice) toward coaches' behaviors.

478 student athletes from six high schools completed the surveys [male = 294 (61.5%); female = 184 (38.5%)]. The top three sports for male students were football [$n = 139$ (47.3%)], basketball [$n = 49$ (16.7%)], and baseball [$n = 31$ (10.5%)], while the top three sports for female students were volleyball [$n = 46$ (25%)], softball [$n = 30$ (16.3%)], and track [$n = 23$ (12.5%)].

The results of independent sample t-tests indicated significant gender differences in distributive justice and perceptions of interactional justice ($p < .05$). Boys had a significantly higher perception of distributive justice than girls, while girls had a significantly higher perception of interactional justice than boys. The results of Tamhane's T2 Post Hoc analyses revealed significant differences between freshmen participants and both sophomores and juniors in procedural justice, and between freshmen and sophomores in interpersonal justice ($p < .05$).

Freshmen perceived significantly lower levels of procedural and interpersonal justice than others in both cases. Additionally, student athletes who played football showed significantly lower levels of procedural justice than student athletes in track ($p < .05$).

This study uniquely used coaches' behaviors as target outcomes perceived by student athletes for fairness. The most important and critical limitation of this study is the lack of theoretical background to justify why gender, grade level, referent sport and ethnicity of students should influence their perceptions of the fairness of coaching behaviors. In other words, the author should have provided more justification for the examination of the research hypotheses.

Whisenant and Smucker (2006) surveyed high school coaches of women's teams to examine the impact of the coaches' gender and the gender of the coaches' athletic directors on three dimensions of organizational justice. One thousand two hundred male and female coaches of girls' high school sports in Texas were surveyed. A stratified random sampling technique was used to provide equal representation from each of the five divisions of eight competitive sports: basketball, cross-country, golf, soccer, softball, swimming, track, and volleyball. The response rate was 16.8% [male = 104 (51%); female = 98 (49%)].

The results of independent sample t-tests showed coaches under male athletic directors reported significantly higher perceptions of distributive and procedural justice than coaches under female directors ($p < .05$). However, the coaches' gender did not have a significant impact on any of the three types of organizational justice, even though the male coaches reported higher means in each of three dimensions than the female coaches did. This study only examined the main effects of its independent variables, such as the sex of the coach and the sex of the athletic director, on perceptions of organization justice via six separate t-tests. However, interaction

effects between the two independent variables could have been examined had factorial ANOVA been used to analyze the data.

Jordan et al. (2007) explored the perceptions of fairness of student employees based on employee gender, tenure of employment, and type of supervision in a university recreation department. Jordan and his colleagues surveyed 250 student workers at a recreation department in a mid-sized university in the southeast United States. Among the 250 subjects invited, 203 participated in the survey, resulting in an 81.2% response rate [males = 96 (47.3%); females = 107 (52.7%)].

The MANOVA results indicated that gender had no main effect on the three dimensions of organizational justice. However, both tenure and type of supervision did have main effects. Follow-up studies revealed that student employees who were in their first year of employment indicated higher perceptions of procedural justice than student employees who worked more than one year. In terms of supervision, student employees who were supervised by professional staff showed higher perceptions of fairness than student employees who were supervised by peers on all three dimensions of organizational justice.

Jordan et al. (2009) again examined the perceptions of fairness of student employees in a large university in the Midwestern in the U.S. Like Jordan et al.'s (2007) study, Jordan et al. (2009) explored the perception of fairness on the basis of employee gender, tenure of employment, and type of supervision. 494 active student workers were asked to fill out the online questionnaire and 152 participated in the survey, resulting in a 30.8% response rate [males = 69 (45.4%); females = 81 (53.3%), and N/A = 2 (1.3%)].

In terms of gender and type of supervision, the results showed there were no differences among the three dimensions of organizational justice, which was consistent with the findings of Jordan et al. (2007). In terms of tenure, the results showed that student workers in their first year of employment reported significantly lower perceptions of procedural justice than those who were in their second year of employment. However, the findings were contrary to the findings of Jordan et al. (2007), which indicated that student workers in their first year of employment reported higher perceptions of procedural justice than student employees who worked more than one year.

In general, the two previous studies (Jordan et al., 2007; Jordan et al., 2009) provide additional information on organizational justice in sport; however, more work is clearly needed. The researchers of both studies only cited a handful of sport management articles, which are certainly not enough to adequately represent the field as a whole. In addition, more information is needed regarding the instruments they used, preferably with some sample questions available. The researchers of both studies used the Organizational Justice Index developed by Rahim, Magner, and Shapiro (2000) to measure general perceived fairness in the work environment. For future studies, it will be worthwhile to measure perceptions of organizational justice in more specific outcomes, such as resource distribution (Mahony et al., 1994b, 2002, 2006) or coaching behaviors (Whisenant, 2005, 2006).

Dittmore et al. (2009) explored the perceptions of fairness of administrators in 39 U.S. National Governing Bodies (NGBs) of Olympic sports regarding financial resource allocation among NGBs on the basis of budget size, membership size, and success in Olympics of the NGB by using three scenarios. In their study, procedural justice was utilized as a covariate to control

for the potential moderating effects of procedural justice on distributive justice. In addition, the study examined which allocation principles had been mostly used in resource distribution among Olympic sports. The population of the study included 74 executive directors and presidents from the 39 NGBs which were controlled by USOC. Thirty-seven administrators participated in the survey, yielding a 51.4% response rate [small budget = 19 (55.9%); large budget = 15 (44.1%); small membership = 17(50%); large membership = 17 (50%)]. Median split methods were used to categorize sports based on budget and membership size.

The results of MANCOVA based on budget size, membership size, position, and competitive success revealed that budget size and membership size were statistically significant in scenarios 1 and 2, and competitive success in scenario 3 was significant ($\alpha < .05$). In terms of scenario 1, which concerned the distribution for funding from private donators, the small budget group reported higher scores for need due to lack of resources and need to be competitively successful than the group with the large budget. In addition, the small membership group had higher score for need to be competitively successful than the group with large memberships. With regard to scenario 2, which depicted the unused travel-value-in, the large budget group reported significantly higher scores for equity of membership size than the small budget group, while the small budget group reported significantly higher scores for need to be competitively successful than the large budget group. The small membership reported higher scores for need due to lack of resource and need to be competitively successful than the group with the large memberships. Regarding scenario 3 concerning the free promotion of sports through a USOC produced television show, the group without Olympic medals reported significantly higher scores for equality of treatment than the group with Olympic medals, while the group with

Olympic medals reported significantly higher scores for equity of membership size than the group without Olympic medals. The results also revealed that administrators of NGBs thought need to be competitively successful was the most important principle in distributing resource among seven principles, followed by equality of treatment, and the administrators believed equity based on medals won was most used in reality.

Dittmore et al. (2009) attempted to explore the perception of fairness regarding resource distribution among NGBs supported by the USOC. Although the research represented the first study utilizing the concept of organizational justice for the context of Olympic sport in the sport management literature, it was also limited to understanding perceptions of fairness rather than related outcomes. Therefore, there is strong need for future studies to explore outcomes of the perceived fairness in the Olympic sports.

Outcomes of Organizational Justice in Sport Organizations

Along with the efforts of organizational behavior researchers to explore the dimensions of organizational justice, researchers have also studied the positive and negative effects of organizational justice on employees in organizations since Folger, Rosenfield, Grove and Corkran's study of "the fair process effect" in 1979 (Greenberg & Colquit, 2005). However, few researchers have made a concerted effort to explore the outcomes of organizational justice in sport organizations.

Whisenant's (2005) study of high school students examined the relationship between perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice of their coaches' behaviors and their subsequent intentions to continue sport participation. Four hundred seventy eight student athletes completed the surveys [male = 294 (61.5%); female = 184 (38.5%)]. The top three sports

for male students were football [$n = 139$ (47.3%)], basketball [$n = 49$ (16.7%)], and baseball [$n = 31$ (10.5%)], while the top three sports for female students were volleyball [$n = 46$ (25%)], softball [$n = 30$ (16.3%)], and track [$n = 23$ (12.5%)].

The results of a Pearson's correlation coefficient showed that distributive justice ($r = .234$, $p < .05$), procedural justice ($r = .165$, $p < .05$) and interpersonal justice ($r = .258$, $p < .05$) had statistically significant linear relationships with students' intentions to continue their sport participation -- thus supporting a positive relationship between organizational justice and sport commitment. However, the portion of variance in the intention explained by distributive ($R^2 = 0.05$), procedural ($R^2 = 0.03$), and interpersonal ($R^2 = 0.07$) justice was relatively low. However, for this study, multiple regression analysis could have strengthened the design by examining which dimension of organizational justice comparatively contributed the most in encouraging student athletes to continue to participate in their sport of choice.

Whisenant and Jordan (2006) examined the relationship between student athletes' perceived fairness and subsequent team performance by comparing the athletes' perceptions of fairness toward their coaches' behavior between teams with a winning season and teams with a losing season. From six high schools, 324 student athletes participated in the study [male = 228 (71%); female = 95 (29%); winning teams = 205 (63%); losing teams = 118 (37%)]. The most referent team among students was football (41%), followed by basketball (18%), volleyball (12%), soccer (10 %), softball (10%), and baseball (9%).

The results of independent t-tests showed that team performance was significantly impacted only by procedural justice, [$t(232, 2) = 2.148$, $p < .05$]. The student athletes on winning teams had significantly higher levels of perceived procedural justice than did the students on

losing teams. The only significant difference in terms of gender was seen in perception of interpersonal justice, [$t(196, 3) = -2.065, p < .05$]. Girls had a mean interpersonal justice perception of 5.78, while boys had a mean of 5.47. Based on their findings, the researchers concluded that fair coaching behaviors influenced team performance. The findings of the research were consistent with the findings of Cohen-Charash and Spector's (2001) study conducted in non-sport setting.

Whisenant and Smucker (2007) surveyed high school coaches of women's teams in order to examine the relationships between the three dimensions of organizational justice and the coaches' subsequent job satisfaction. The researchers measured organizational justice using the modified scale developed by Colquitt (2001) and measured job satisfaction using two different instruments: the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969) for five facets of job satisfaction, and Job Satisfaction in General (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989) for general job satisfaction. A total of 1,200 male and female coaches of girls' high school sports in Texas were surveyed. Response rate was 16.8% [male = 104 (51%); female = 98 (49%)].

The findings of Pearson correlations for all the coaches showed significant linear relationships between all three dimensions of justice and supervision, promotion, and general job satisfaction ($p < .01$), while only procedural justice and interpersonal justice were correlated with work itself. The perception of procedural justice was also associated with pay ($p < .05$). For men, the Pearson correlations showed significant linear relationships between all three dimensions and supervision, promotion, and general job satisfaction ($p < .01$), while other satisfactions were not found to be significantly related to any of the organizational justice dimensions. For women, the Pearson correlations also showed significant linear relationships between all three dimensions of

justice and supervision, promotion, and general job satisfaction ($p < .01$). Satisfaction with work itself was correlated with procedural and interpersonal justice, and satisfaction with co-workers was correlated with distributive justice ($p < .05$).

This study was limited by the choice of statistical analysis. Even though the authors collected enough data to incorporate multiple regression to examine which dimensions of organizational justice comparatively contribute most to certain aspects of job satisfaction or job satisfaction overall, they used Pearson correlations and were only able to conclude that there were some positive relationships between organizational justice and job satisfaction.

Jordan et al. (2007) explored the perceptions of fairness of basketball head coaches based on gender and level of competition (Division I vs. Division III) in intercollegiate athletics. 213 participated among 600 men's and women's basketball head coaches from 150 Division I and 150 Division III institutions.

The results of multiple regressions, controlling for gender of team and level of competition indicated that 28.5% of the variance in job satisfaction was explained by interactional justice [$\beta = .29, p < .01$] and distributive justice [$\beta = .17, p < .05$]. The study was well-designed and based on previous research regarding the relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction.

Jordan et al. (2007) studied 250 student workers at the recreation department in a mid-sized American university in the southeast to examine the relationships between distributive, procedural and interactional justice, and overall job satisfaction. Among the 250 subjects, 203 participated in the survey, resulting in an 81.2% response rate [males = 96 (47.3%); females = 107 (52.7%)].

The results of multiple regressions indicated that 33.1% of the variance in job satisfaction was explained by the three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive justice contributed most, followed by interactional justice). In terms of gender differences, 46.1% of the variance in job satisfaction of male student workers ($n = 96$) and 26.9% of the variance in job satisfaction of female student workers ($n = 107$) was explained by perceived organizational justice. A recreation department is a very unique sector of sport organizations. The study was well-designed and based on previous research regarding the relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction.

Jordan et al. (2009) studied 494 student employees at the recreation department in a large American university in the Midwestern to examine the relationships between three dimensions of organizational justice, and perceived organizational support (POS). Among the 494 subjects, 152 participated in the online survey.

The results of multiple regressions indicated that 58.4% of the variance in POS was explained by the three dimensions of organizational justice. Among the three dimensions, distributive justice contributed most, followed by procedural justice and interactional justice. A recreation department is a very unique sector of sport organizations. As a follow-up study of Jordan et al. 2007), the study was also well-designed and based on previous research regarding the relationship between organizational justice and POS.

Met Expectation

The concept of met expectation was introduced for the first time to organizational behavior research by Porter and Steers (1973). Porter and Steers considered the concept as a “discrepancy between what a person encounters on this job in the way of positive and negative

experiences and what he expected to encounter” (1973, p. 152). Researchers (Porter & Steers, 1973; Wanous, 1992) proposed if there is more congruence between the employees’ expectations and experiences regarding their organizations or jobs, the employees are more likely to report higher job satisfaction. Interestingly, based on their arguments on the effect of met expectation on job-related outcomes, lowering employees’ expectations may be a method to help employees experience less dissatisfaction with their jobs.

Little empirical research has been conducted using the concept of met expectation although the concept was introduced more than thirty years ago. Wanous, Poland, Premack, and Davis (1992) conducted a meta analysis to examine the effects of met expectation on attitudinal or behavioral outcomes with new comers. Wanous et al. (1992) confirmed Porter and Steers’ (1973) conceptualization by finding that met expectation was positively associated with job satisfaction ($r = .39$), organizational commitment ($r = .39$), intention to stay ($r = .29$), and job performance ($r = .11$). More importantly, the results of the meta analysis showed that the unmet expectation would negatively influence employees’ attitudes like job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and eventually performance.

Young and Perrewé (2000) examined the mediating effects of met expectation in mentoring situation. Young and Perrewé (2000) proposed that the positive relationships between a mentor/protégé’s assessment of a protégé/mentor’s career and social support behaviors and a mentor/protégé’s perceptions of relationship effectiveness and trust in the protégé/mentor would be mediated by a mentor/protégé’s level of met expectation. The results indicated that when a protégé showed more career support behaviors, a mentor perceived the higher level of met expectation, and then the mentor perceived higher levels of relationship effectiveness and the

trust. In other hand, a protégé perceived higher levels of met expectation when a mentor provided more social support behavior. Then, the perceived met expectation influenced the protégé's perception of relationship effectiveness and trust. Young and Perrewé (2004) also examined the direct relationship between expectations of mentoring and perceptions of social and career support in terms of the mentor and protégé. The results indicated expectations of social support influenced the protégé's perceived career and social support. From the mentor's perspective, the expectation of reciprocal social support only influenced the perceived reciprocal social support and the expectation of reciprocal career support only had impact on the perceived reciprocal career support. The results of their two expectation studies confirmed that met expectations could play a critical role in the perceptions of social and career support.

Little research has adopted the concept of met expectation in the field of sport management. Baker (2007) attempted to examine the effects of protégés' met expectations of the mentoring relationship on relationship effectiveness, trust, and job satisfaction of sport management faculty members in North America. The results of the study found mediating effects of met expectation between role behaviors received and relationship effectiveness and trust. The results also found met expectations directly influenced protégés' job satisfaction. For example, when a protégé perceived a higher level of met expectation in the mentoring relationship, he or she also reported higher job satisfaction.

Antecedents of Organizational Justice

Kulik et al. (1996) insisted that demographic characteristics can impact each person's perception of justice through self-interest or different emphases. In other words, when employees are working at the same company or organization, each person's unique background (e.g., age,

gender, race, or education) can have various impacts on perceptions of justice, even if the jobs have similar duties. For example, Leventhal and Lane (1970) found males' major interest in terms of reward allocation was protecting their own share, while females were primarily interested in retaining everyone's welfare as a group. In fact, previous organizational justice studies in intercollegiate athletics have compared perceptions of justice in terms of gender (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b; Mahony et al., 2005; Mahony et al., 2006) and type of sports (e.g., revenue vs. non-revenue sports) of participants (Mahony et al., 2005). For instance, one could reasonably expect to find differences in fairness perceptions between those participating on revenue sport teams as compared to those participating on non-revenue sport teams based on the results of Mahony and Pastore's (1998) study analyzing the NCAA revenue and expense reports from 1973 to 1993. The results of the study indicated there was a large disparity in resource distribution, and Division I institutions favored revenue sports (e.g., football and men's basketball) when distributing financial resources.

Consequences of Organizational Justice

Outcomes of organizational justice can be identified by examining (a) leader-member exchange, (b) perceived organizational support, (c) outcome satisfaction, (d) job satisfaction, (e) commitment (e.g., organizational commitment and supervisor commitment), and (f) organizational citizenship behavior.

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

Definition of LMX

Scandura et al. (1986) defined the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) phenomenon as “ a) a system of components and their relationships, b) involving both members of a dyad, c)

involving interdependent patterns of behavior, d) sharing mutual outcome instrumentalities, and e) producing conceptions of environments, cause maps, and values” (p. 580). As a subset of social exchange theory, LMX is based on the vertical dyadic linkage (VDL) between the leader and a follower of an organization, as proposed by Dansereau et al. (1975). According to Graen and his colleagues (Dansereau, Cashman & Graen, 1973; Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975), VDL refers to the notion that a leader develops heterogeneous and unique interpersonal relationships with each follower in a work group. Dansereau et al. (1975) and Graen and Cashman (1975) additionally proposed the concept of negotiating latitude, which is the degree to which a leader allows group members to identify their role development. Furthermore, Dansereau et al. (1975) underlined negotiating latitude as a key construct in evolving the quality of the relationship between a leader and a follower.

Graen (1976), who argued that the unique relationship between a leader and each of his or her followers must be analyzed separately, developed the theoretical base of the LMX model on the basis of role theory. Graen’s LMX model was not concerned with the relationship between a leader and his or her group members as a whole, but in the relationship between a leader and each individual follower. Until Graen’s LMX model, earlier theories had attempted only to understand general leader behaviors in the belief that a leader treats all group members in much the same way. According to Graen, a leader evaluates his or her followers and categorizes them into two groups: the in-group and the out-group. The leader then shows different behaviors toward each group member, depending on the leader’s perception of their category. For example, the members of the in-group receive more independence in their roles or jobs and more information and attention from the leader. Because of the high quality of exchanges, the in-

group members repay their leader with more contributions and responsibilities that go beyond their formal job descriptions to help success of the group as a whole (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). As a result, in-group followers are expected to perform better and are more satisfied than the followers of the out-group (Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984).

Social exchange theory (Emerson, 1962) explains how dyadic relations between a leader and his or her followers develop within a work group, and how the leader and followers exchange valued resources through communication as partners. According to Blau (1964), exchanges between partners can be classified into one of two possible exchanges: social and economic exchanges. This distinction is critical in understanding the nature of the low quality exchanges of the out-group and the high quality exchanges of the in-group with the leader in the LMX model. According to Blau's distinction, low quality exchanges between the leader and the out-group members are considered economic exchanges because the exchanges are limited to formal and routine tasks assigned by the employment contract based on lack of trust, interaction, support, and reward, whereas high quality exchanges between the leader and the in-group followers are considered social exchanges because the exchanges extend beyond the employment contract as they are based on a higher level of trust, interaction, support, and rewards (Liden & Graen, 1980).

Developmental Phases of LMX

Graen and Scandura (1987) proposed a three-phase model of LMX development: (1) role-taking, (2) role making, and (3) role-routinization. Role-taking is the stage at which a leader begins to evaluate the behaviors or performance of a follower and makes a decision regarding the time and effort worth investing in the follower. Given limited information, certain characteristics

of the leader and follower play critical roles in developing the exchange relationship; demographic and personality similarities enhance the likelihood of affection, attraction, and trust building between the follower and the leader, and eventually influence the leader's perception of the follower's behaviors and performance (Bauer & Green, 1996). Graen and Scandura asserted that the exchange in this phase remains more economically based (1987).

The second phase in developing LMX is role-making. Role-making is a continuous process that occurs in the development of the exchange relationship between two parties (Bauer & Green, 1996). At this stage, the leader and certain subordinates develop their dyadic relationship to a high quality exchange relationship (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Conversely, if the relationship does not proceed to the role-making stage, the exchange remains based on the economic level (Bauer & Graen, 1996). In the role-making stage, the leader's trust in the follower develops from a cognitive to a concrete conception -- as the leader's trust is put into action at this stage (Bauer & Green, 1996).

Role routinization is the last phase in LMX development. After the first two developmental phases, the behaviors of the leader and the follower have become more predictable (Graen & Scandura, 1987). At this stage, the high quality of the exchange relationship creates and affirms affective trust beyond behavioral trust between the two parties, and the relationship turns into one of mutual respect, loyalty, and liking (Bauer & Green, 1996).

Dimensions of LMX

Various sub-dimensions of LMX have been identified by Graen and his colleagues since Graen (1976) first identified competence, interpersonal skill, and trust as its initial sub-dimensions. The most recent list of the construct's sub-dimensions includes: competence,

motivation, trust, understanding, assistance and support, latitude, authority, information, influence in decision making, communication, confidence, consideration, talent, delegation, innovativeness, expertise and control, among many others.

Additionally, Graen and Scandura combined related sub-dimensions and presented two higher-order dimensions of LMX: quality and coupling (1987). The dimension of quality refers to the attitudes presented in the exchange relationship between a leader and a follower (e.g., loyalty, support, and trust). The dimension of coupling, on the other hand, refers to the behavioral aspects of the relationship (e.g., influence, delegation, latitude, and innovativeness).

Consequences of LMX

Several studies (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen et al., 1982; Wayne & Green, 1993) examine the relationship between LMX and employee performances (e.g., employees' in-role and extra-role performance). Other important outcomes in an organization have been found to be associated with LMX, such as subordinate turnover (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982), subordinate satisfaction (Graen et al., 1982; Scandura & Graen, 1984), and affective organizational commitment (Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998). A meta-analysis conducted by Gerstner and Day (1999) found LMX had significantly positive relationships with members' objective performance, satisfaction with supervision, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, while it had significantly negative correlations with role conflict and turnover intentions, indicating that employees who perceive high levels of interactional relationships with their leaders would have also high levels of positive work experience, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In addition, Ilies, Nahrgang, and Morgeson (2007) reviewed the articles examining the relationship between LMX and OCB with a meta-analytic approach, and

found that LMX showed significantly positive correlations with overall OCB ($\rho = .37$) and, more meaningfully, that LMX had stronger relationships with individual targeted OCBs ($\rho = .38$) than with organizational targeted OCBs ($\rho = .31$).

Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

Definition and Development of POS

Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to employees' beliefs regarding how much an organization values their contribution and effort and cares about their well being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). In other words, POS represents the employees' perception of their organization's commitment toward them (Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). POS and leader-member exchange (LMX) are based on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960), emphasizing the norm of reciprocity, which forces people to feel an obligation to react positively and repay others for favorable treatments (e.g., pay increase and promotion).

The social exchange theory also argues that discretionary treatments, rather than treatments restricted by circumstances, are more valued by recipients because the recipients perceive discretionary treatments as indications of being valued and respected by others (Blau, 1964; Cotterell, Eisenberger, & Speicher, 1992; Gouldner, 1960). Based on this theory, Eisenberger et al. (1986) proposed that employees would perceive different degrees of POS according to the various aspects of treatments experienced at the hands of the organization. For example, if the employees repeatedly experience indications that the organization does not value their effort and contribution or care about their well-being, the employees have a low level of POS and refuse to react positively to the organization as a result.

According to organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995), there are three psychological phases necessary to produce beneficial outcomes of POS both for employees (e.g., increased job satisfaction) and the organization (e.g., decreased turnover or increased performance). First, on the basis of social exchange theory, employees should feel obligated to repay the organization for favorable treatment. Second, caring and respect indicated by the organization should satisfy their employees' socio-emotional needs in order to encourage employees to incorporate organizational membership and role status into their social identity. Third, POS should reinforce employees' beliefs that increased performance will be recognized and rewarded by the organization. According to Eisenberger et al. (1986), employees are more likely to personify the organization than not; as a result, the organization is perceived to possess humanlike characteristics during the process.

Antecedents of POS

Researchers have proposed and tested a variety of constructs related to POS. With respect to the antecedents of POS, fairness (Shore & Shore, 1995), supervisor support (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski & Rhoades, 2002), and organizational rewards and job conditions (Shore & Shore, 1995), were the most common favorable treatments hypothesized and shown to be associated with POS. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) conducted a meta-analysis, using 73 studies of POS, to review articles regarding antecedents and consequences of POS. The researchers analyzed 173 assessments based on five categories of favorable treatment: (a) fairness, (b) supervisor support, (c) organizational reward and job conditions, (d) relative contributions of fairness, supervisor support, and organizational rewards and job conditions, and (e) employee characteristics. The results indicated that fair treatment was the strongest predictor

of POS, followed by supervisor support, and rewards and favorable job conditions. On the other hand, demographics (e.g., education, gender, age, and salary) were found to have a weak relationship with POS.

Consequences of POS

In terms of the consequences of POS, Eisenberger and his colleagues examined the relationships between POS and possible outcomes, such as performance (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006), commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990), employee retention (Eisenberger et al., 2002), and job satisfaction (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli & Lynch, 1997). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) also examined the consequences of POS in their meta-analyses, using 163 assessments based on seven outcome variables: (a) organizational commitment, (b) job related affect, (c) job involvement, (d) performance, (e) strains, (f) desire to remain, and (g) withdrawal behavior. The results indicated that POS strongly predicted job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, turnover intention, positive mood at work, and desire to remain with the organization. In addition, POS had moderate relationships with job involvement, strain and withdrawal behaviors and had weak relationships with continuous commitment and turnover (2002).

Outcome Satisfaction

Although there is no consensus concerning the number of facets of job satisfaction (Gruneberg, 1979), researchers all seem to agree that job satisfaction consists of a variety of facets, such as satisfaction with pay, supervision, co-workers, work tasks, and promotion opportunities (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Among the five facets of job satisfaction proposed by Smith et al., pay satisfaction and satisfaction with promotion opportunity could be

classified as outcome satisfaction. In fact, outcome satisfaction in organizational behavior research, especially in organizational justice research, has been measured by examining employee satisfaction with the outcomes of decisions related to pay, promotion, and performance appraisal (Colquitt, Colon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Because distributive justice, among all the dimensions of organizational justice, specifically focuses on the employee's perceived fairness toward the outcomes (e.g., promotion and reward) in the organization, outcome satisfaction has been studied as an important outcome variable in organizational justice research (Colquitt et al., 2001). Because the subjects of the present study will be coaches of intercollegiate athletics in the United States, coaches' pay satisfaction and coaches' satisfaction with support (e.g., budget) for their teams by their athletic departments will be considered representative of outcome satisfaction.

Pay Satisfaction

The most popular way to measure outcome satisfaction is to measure pay satisfaction of employees. Pay satisfaction refers to the "amount of overall positive or negative affect (or feelings) that individuals have toward their pay" (Miceli & Lane 1991, p. 246). Although two different models of determining pay satisfaction were proposed by Lawler (1971), and Dyer and Theriault (1976), both models were based on the same theories of equity (Adams, 1965) and discrepancy (Katzell, 1965; Locke, 1968).

First, Lawler (1971) defined pay satisfaction as the congruence between the perceived pay received and the perceived pay deserved, and stated that when the perceived amount of pay deserved is equal to or greater than the perceived amount of pay received, employees are satisfied with their pay. When the perceived amount of pay received is less than the perceived

amount of pay deserved, however, employees are dissatisfied with their pay. By adopting the concept of social comparison from equity theory, Lawler's model went beyond the early discrepancy theory. Lawler also proposed five factors that influence employees' perception of what they deserve to be paid. The factors were (a) perceived personal input, (b) perceived job demand, (c) perceived non-monetary outcomes, (d) perceived inputs and outcomes of referent others, and (e) wage history.

Dyer and Theriault (1976) also proposed their model based on the discrepancy and equity theories, but they modified Lawler's model by adding administrative variables, such as the employees' perceived discrepancy between the importance that should be and is placed on salary criteria, perception of supervisor's accuracy of assessment of one's performance, supervisor's influence on decisions to increase salary, and employees' understanding of criteria used in the increase decisions.

Antecedents and Consequences of Pay Satisfaction

A number of variables related to pay satisfaction were hypothesized and tested in the literature as possible antecedents (e.g., demographics, actual pay or organizational justice) or consequences (e.g., turnover, job satisfaction and commitment) of pay satisfaction (Fong & Shaffer, 2003; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Porter & Steer, 1973). Williams, McDaniel, and Nguyen (2006) conducted a meta-analysis using 203 studies to examine antecedents and consequences of pay satisfaction. In terms of the antecedents of pay satisfaction, Williams et al. identified five possible antecedents: (a) employee perceptions of pay policies and administration (e.g., contingency reward); (b) perceived input (job-related inputs and non-job-related inputs); (c) perceived job characteristics; (d) perceived input and outcomes of referent others (e.g., internal

and external comparisons); and (e) actual pay and pay raises received. Williams et al. found perceived input and outcomes of referent others were the strongest predictors of pay satisfaction, followed by perception of pay policies and administration. They also found moderate relationships with perceived job characteristics, actual pay, and pay raises received and weak relationships with non-job-related perceived inputs (e.g., age, gender, and marital status) and job-related perceived input (e.g., education and experience).

Regarding the consequences of pay satisfaction, turnover intention and voluntary turnover showed a moderately negative relationship with pay satisfaction, while job performance had a weak positive relationship with pay satisfaction.

Instrumentation

There are two approaches to measure pay satisfaction. The first approach is to use the pay subscale of general job satisfaction measurements as a uni-dimensional construct. The other approach is to use a scale developed to measure pay satisfaction as a multi-dimensional construct.

First, Job Descriptive Index (JDI), developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin in 1969, is the most frequently employed scale to assess job satisfaction (DeMeuse, 1985). The JDI consists of five facets of a job - work itself, pay, promotion, coworkers, and supervision, measured via 72 items. The subscale for pay satisfaction includes nine items. Second, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) based on the job satisfaction model at the University of Minnesota (Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1964), is also often used to assess the pay satisfaction level of employees. The original scale has 100 items for 20 aspects of six dimensions: achievement, comfort, status, altruism, safety, and autonomy. Among the 20 aspects, the subscale for compensation has been used to measure pay satisfaction.

Lastly, the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire (PSQ) was developed by Heneman and Schwab (1985). While the JDI and MSQ only focus on pay level as one-dimensional construct, the modified PSQ includes four dimensions: pay level, benefits, raise, and structure/administration with 18 items.

Satisfaction with Team Outcomes

Studies regarding outcome satisfaction in the business literature have mostly focused on understanding individual employees' level of satisfaction toward the outcomes that he or she receives from organizations as the result of their input. However, in the domain of intercollegiate athletics, outcome satisfaction can also be measured by examining the athletes or coaches' level of satisfaction toward the outcomes that their teams receive as a whole.

Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) attempted to understand athlete satisfaction by proposing seven facets of athlete satisfaction equivalent to job satisfaction in business. The seven facets were performance, improvement, leadership, teammates, support staff, administration and community support. Administration included three sub-facets of budget, scholarship, and facilities and equipment, which are the outcomes that athletes and coaches receive as a team. As research in business utilizes pay satisfaction to measure outcome satisfaction, the administration facet was utilized to measure outcome satisfaction in intercollegiate athletics.

Job Satisfaction

Definition of Job Satisfaction

What is job satisfaction? To put it simply, job satisfaction is how much people enjoy their jobs. However, there are numerous definitions of job satisfaction provided in the literature. A large number of researchers in industrial/organizational psychology and organizational behavior

have studied job satisfaction as an important attitudinal outcome construct of employees in a work environment, and they have also attempted to define the concept. For instance, Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction to be “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience” (p. 1300). Dawis and Lofquist (1984) also defined job satisfaction as “a pleasurable affective condition resulting from one’s appraisal of the ways in which the experienced job situation meets one’s needs, values, and expectations” (p. 72).

Although there are various definitions of the construct, the essence of all these definitions is that job satisfaction is a reflection of people’s attitudes about their jobs (Chelladurai, 2006).

According to Chelladurai (2006), an attitude contains “a cognitive component (i.e., a belief about the target entity), an emotional component (i.e., a degree of like or dislike for the target entity), and a behavioral component (i.e., the tendency to act in specific ways toward the target entity)” (p. 264).

Spector (1997) addressed three important reasons why researchers or practitioners should care about job satisfaction. First, based on the humanitarian perspective, job satisfaction can work as an indicator of the emotional well-being of employees in an organization. Job satisfaction shows whether employees are treated fairly and with respect. Second, job satisfaction relates to employees’ negative or positive behaviors, according to their level of satisfaction, which eventually influences organizational function. Third, job satisfaction can serve as an indicator of organizational function among departments. For example, if there are different levels of job satisfaction between different departments in the organization, the discrepancy would indicate potential troubles in the organization.

Theories of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most frequently studied topics in management (Spector, 1997). Due to its popularity in management and related fields, numerous theories concerning job satisfaction, along with numerous definitions, have been identified and proposed by researchers. Among the theories, three of the most well-known will be discussed here: Herzberg's two factor theory, Locke's value-based theory, and Lawler's facet model.

1) Herzberg's two factor theory

Herzberg and his colleagues (Herzberg 1966; Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959) developed the Two Factor Theory when they found that there are a certain set of factors called motivators, which are directly related to employees' satisfaction, and another set of factors called hygiene factors, which are related with employees' dissatisfaction in the work place. According to this theory, the presence of the motivators as intrinsic factors (e.g., challenge, achievement, recognition and autonomy) creates satisfaction, while the absence of these factors leads people to remain in a neutral state. On the other hand, hygiene factors function as extrinsic motivational factors (e.g., company policy, job security, salary and fringe benefits), and do not provide positive satisfaction, but instead cause people to remain or become neutral, while the absence of these factors causes dissatisfaction.

Herzberg's theory has been criticized by researchers (Tietjen & Myers, 1998) for a number of reasons. One of the criticisms has been that, according to the theory, every employee working at the same job and holding the same level of motivators and hygiene factors is expected to show the same level of job satisfaction. In other words, the theory fails to recognize that

everyone reacts differently to their job. In turn, everyone's satisfaction level should differ, regardless of motivators and hygiene factors.

2) Locke's value-based theory of satisfaction

Locke (1976) argued that each individual has a different view of the value of each of the possible outcomes (such as salary, prestige, coworker, location, or working conditions) of a job. For example, some sport managers may place a higher value on their salary and, therefore, look for a job that pays more, while some managers may place less importance on their salary than the outcomes of prestige or location, and stay at the same job because they find that certain factors make up for the lack of financial support. In other words, Locke argued that what an individual considers to have value has a stronger impact on his or her level of satisfaction than what the individual considers to have less value.

According to this theory, the notion of discrepancy also plays a critical role in determining the level of job satisfaction, as well as the individual's perceived value. According to Locke, job satisfaction is influenced by the extent to which the individual receives what the individual desires. Therefore, the individual's level of job satisfaction depends both on his or her perceived value of certain factors, and the discrepancy between what is desired and what is received. Based on this theory, it could be hypothesized that, when a job factor is more valuable to an individual and there is a notable discrepancy between what the individual desires and what the individual receives, a high level of dissatisfaction will occur.

3) Lawler's Facet satisfaction model

Lawler (1973) proposed that job satisfaction is a function between the amount of job-related rewards that an individual perceives that they deserve and the perceived amount of job

rewards that the individual actually receives. Again, the notion of discrepancy is vital in understanding an employee's level of job satisfaction. Lawler's approach is based on Adams' (1965) equity theory. When the perceived amount that should be received and the perceived amount actually received are balanced, satisfaction occurs. On the other hand, employees feel dissatisfaction when they perceive that the amount received is insufficient.

According to this theory, several factors influence employees' perceptions of what should be received and what is actually received. In terms of perceptions of what should be received, perceived personal job input (e.g., an individual's skill, training, effort, experience, and knowledge), perceived input and outcomes of referent others, and perceived job characteristics (e.g., the difficulty and responsibility of the job) are critical determinants. In terms of perceptions of what an individual actually receives, perceived input and outcomes of referent others and actual outcomes received are the determinants.

Antecedents and Consequences of Job Satisfaction

As the most popular topic in industrial/organizational psychology, the antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction have been thoroughly studied. With respect to the antecedents of job satisfaction, researchers have examined employees' personality (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002), environmental and genetic factors (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, & Abraham, 1989) and job characteristics (Loher, Noe, Moeller, & Fitzgerald, 1985), as well as several theories discussed earlier.

In terms of the consequences of job satisfaction, both researchers and practitioners have shown interest because the consequences of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are closely related to an organization's effectiveness. A large number of studies have found predictive

relationships between job satisfaction and performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985), turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986), and absenteeism (Scott & Taylor, 1985). In addition, the effects of job satisfaction have been found to make a difference in various vocations, such as salespersons (Brown & Peterson, 1993), nurses (Irvine & Evans, 1995), and in many different cultural contexts (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001).

Job Satisfaction in Intercollegiate Athletics

Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) stated that there has been little research performed in an attempt to understand the athletes' experience of satisfaction in intercollegiate athletics. As an effort to assess athletes' reactions to their experience, Chelladurai and Riemer defined athlete satisfaction to be "a positive affective state resulting from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the athletic experience" (p. 135), and therefore proposed a classification of athlete satisfaction based on three criteria: (1) outcomes vs. processes, (2) personal vs. team effects, and (3) task vs. social aspects. The classification consisted of seven facets, including performance, improvement, leadership, teammates, support staff, administration, and community support. Although some of the facets of athlete satisfaction were similar to those of employees' job satisfaction, others, such as playing time, strategy selection, the organization's loyalty and scholarship opportunities represented the uniqueness of measuring athlete satisfaction in intercollegiate athletics (Chelladurai, 2006).

Chelladurai and Ogasawara (2003) defined coaches' satisfaction to be "a positive affective state resulting from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the coaching experience" (p.62), based on the former definition of athlete satisfaction provided by Chelladurai and Riemer in 1997. Chelladurai and Ogasawara identified

11 facets of satisfaction in coaching, including: supervision, coaching job, autonomy, facilities, media and community support, pay, team performance, amount of work, colleagues, athletes' academic performance, and job security. Although some facets of coaching satisfaction were similar to those of normal job satisfaction, the facets of facilities, media and community support, and athletes' academic progress were unique to coaching intercollegiate athletics (Chelladurai, 2006).

Employee Commitment

Employee commitment is a psychological attachment toward the organization for which an employee works (Allen & Meyer, 1990). A long-established distinction between attitudinal commitment, defined as “the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization” (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982, p. 26), and behavioral commitment, defined as “the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem” (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 26) had been the most popular model to understand employee commitment until two more recent approaches were introduced (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The majority of research (e.g., Buchanan, 1974; Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977) on employee commitment in the field of organizational behavior has been conducted on the basis of this attitudinal/behavioral distinction. In fact, Mathieu and Zajac (1991) conducted a meta-analysis of organizational commitment and its related constructs based on two types of organizational commitment, and they found over 200 articles over a 20 year period from 1967 to 1986.

The first approach to deviate from the two-type model identified forms of commitment that described the relationships between employees and organizations. The second approach

worked to recognize which of an organization's entities employees are attached to (e.g., organization, union, or co-workers). Becker (1992) used the terms "bases of commitment" for the first approach and "foci of commitment" for the second approach. In this literature review, the two approaches will be discussed separately.

Bases of Employee Commitment.

Among several classifications of employee commitment, a three-component model (Meyer & Allen, 1991) has been the most frequently used model in contemporary research on employee commitment. After Meyer and Allen reviewed the various existing definitions of employee commitment, they identified three different themes: affective orientation, cost-based, and obligation / moral responsibility. They redefined each theme as affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment, respectively.

In the context of intercollegiate athletics, affective commitment could be interpreted as an athlete's emotional attachment and loyalty to his or her team. Continuance commitment would be the result of awareness of potential costs or drawbacks related to leaving the team. Finally, normative commitment would be the athlete's feeling of moral obligation to remain with the team.

Another classification of employee commitment frequently used in the present literature is O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) three-component model. The model consists of compliance, identification and internalization. O'Reilly and Chatman asserted that compliance occurs "when attitudes and behaviors are adopted not because of shared beliefs, but simply to gain specific rewards," identification occurs "when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a

satisfying relationship,” and internalization occurs “when influence is accepted because the induced attitudes and behavior are congruent with one’s own value” (1986, p. 493).

Antecedents of Commitment

In the literature of organizational behavior there are numerous variables hypothesized and tested as antecedents of organizational commitment, such as: demographics (e.g., age, gender, education, and organizational tenure) (Tansky, Gallagher, & Wetzel, 1997), locus of control (Reed, Kratchman & Strawser, 1994); perceived organizational support (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001), organizational justice (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001), and transformational leadership (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004).

Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002) conducted a meta-analysis to review the relationships between antecedents and three dimensions of organizational commitment based on four categories of antecedents: demographics, individual difference, work experience, and alternative/investment. They found that demographic variables (e.g., age and tenure) showed weak associations with all three dimensions of organizational commitment. Work experiences were found to be stronger predictors of organizational commitment than demographics.

Consequences of Commitment

Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that three dimensions of organizational commitment should have different impacts on various work-related outcomes, like in-role performance, turnover, absenteeism and extra-role performance. In terms of intention to leave the organization and actual turnover, Allen and Meyer (1996) found that affective commitment had the strongest relationship with turnover, but that the other two dimensions were also significantly related to

the variable. Absenteeism (Gellatly, 1995; Hackett, Bycio, & Hausdorf, 1994), in-role performance (Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995), and extra performance (Organ & Ryan, 1995) were also tested based on Meyer and Allen's (1991) arguments.

Meyer et al. (2002) reviewed the consequences of organizational commitment in their meta-analysis based on five categories: turnover and withdrawal cognition, absenteeism, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and stress and work-family conflict. Regarding turnover and withdrawal cognition, all three commitments had negative correlations. Affective commitment was the strongest, followed by normative and continuous commitment. In terms of job performance (in-role performance) and organizational citizenship behavior (extra-role performance), affective commitment and normative commitment were positively correlated, while continuous commitment was negatively associated with job performance, and was not found to have a significant impact on organizational citizenship behavior.

Foci of Employee Commitment.

Reichers (1985) proposed the concept of foci of commitment by insisting employees' commitment to their workplaces consisted of multiple commitments (e.g., to top management, to work group, and to immediate supervisor) rather than just commitment to the organization. Becker, Billing, Eveleth, and Gilbert (1996) found that the employees could differentiate between commitment to the organization as a whole and commitment to their supervisors, indicating that the concept of foci commitment was empirically supported.

Recently, several studies have attempted to empirically support the foci model, suggesting that employee commitment should be considered via the organizational entity responsible for creating employees' perceptions. Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003)

examined the relationship between different sources of support (perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support using LMX) and foci commitments (commitment to the organization and commitment to the supervisor), and found that LMX predicted commitment to the supervisor, while it did not predict commitment to the organization as a whole. Their findings could be explained based on the foci model, since LMX describes that the quality of the relationship between an organization and its employees is more likely to be related to the employees' relationship to their supervisors than to the organization itself.

Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) also found that employees' attitudinal or behavioral outcomes could be much better predicted when employee commitment toward a specific entity was examined rather than examining the commitment to the organization in general. In other words, specific commitment to a certain entity is more closely related to employees' behaviors. These findings were consistent with the findings of Lavelle, Knovsky, and Brockner (2005), which showed that commitment to the organization was a better predictor of organizational citizenship behaviors beneficial for the organization, while commitment to work groups was a better predictor of organizational citizenship behavior beneficial for the work group.

Consequences of Commitment

Becker et al. (1996) also found that employees' commitment to their supervisors was a better predictor of job performance than their commitment to the organization. Vandenberghe, Bentein, and Stinglhamber (2004) found similar results. These results indicate that there is a direct effect of commitment to the supervisor concerning job performance, while there was only an indirect effect of commitment to the organization concerning job performance via commitment to the supervisor.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Definition and Conceptual Development of OCBs

The two pioneering studies of Organ and his colleagues (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983) were the first to identify the term “Organizational Citizenship Behavior.”

Organ formally defined OCB as:

Individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person’s employment contract with the organization: the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable. (1988, p. 4)

The early concept of OCBs was based on the notion that employees’ job satisfaction could influence organizational effectiveness through behaviors that managers cannot technically require (Motowidlo, 2000). Organ (1988) stated that the definition of OCB does not necessarily exclude behaviors that are tangibly rewarded, and also admitted that OCBs, in the long run, could influence the organization’s impressions and evaluations of its employees. Therefore, employees could potentially receive tangible rewards from the organization in exchange for non-required behavior. In fact, similar studies (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000) found that managers subconsciously or deliberately used the OCBs of their subordinates to evaluate their performance.

Ever since the concept of OCBs was introduced in 1983 by Organ and his colleagues, related concepts have been proposed by researchers in more recent decades (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). These related concepts include pro-social organizational behavior (POB; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), extra-role behavior (ERB; Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean-Parks, 1995), civic organizational behavior (Graham, 1991), and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Among the related frameworks, contextual performance is most relevant to the study of OCBs.

While the original concept of OCBs stemmed from the notion that job satisfaction might influence organizational effectiveness, the concept of contextual performance emerged from the concern that selecting scholars or practitioners traditionally has focused not on activities related to the social and psychological context of work, but on activities that specifically contribute to an organization's productivity. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) identified these former activities as 'task performance' and the latter activities as 'contextual performance.' Organ (1997) admitted that the original concept of OCB ignored the idea of contextual performance, and defined OCB as being "behavior that contributes to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that support task performance" (p. 91).

Dimensions of OCBs

As employee commitment was distinguished according to the bases and foci of commitment in the previous sections, OCBs can also be classified into two groups based on the types of OCBs and targets of OCBs. The former has been the most dominantly used approach to classify the concept in the literature, while only a few studies (Ilies et al., 2007; Lee & Allen, 2002; McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Williams & Anderson, 1991) have adopted the latter.

Dimensions of OCBs based on Types

Researchers (Organ, 1988; Smith et al., 1983; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) have suggested several taxonomies of OCBs. The two-factor model, proposed by Smith et al. (1983), was the first to measure the concept of OCB types. The model consisted of two dimensions of OCBs: altruism and generalized compliance. Altruism represents behaviors that help other members of an organization (e.g., helping others who have heavy workloads), while generalized compliance refers to behaviors such as obedience to the rules and policies of the organization.

Organ (1988) categorized the OCBs into five dimensions: altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, and conscientiousness. Organ's definition of altruism was narrower than Smith et al.'s (1983), even though it was very similar. Sportsmanship was defined as a willingness to bear unavoidable trouble (e.g., remaining silent about trivial inconveniences in the work place). Civic virtue was defined as responsible involvement or participation in governing activities that stem from the employees' recognition of being a part of their team. Courtesy refers to behaviors considering others' feelings (e.g., consulting with coworkers before taking actions). Conscientiousness, a narrowed concept of Smith et al.'s (1983) generalized compliance, refers to voluntary acts of creativity and innovation to enhance one's work tasks

Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) proposed a two-dimensional model of contextual performance that incorporated Organ's (1988) categories: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. In their model, interpersonal facilitation included the dimensions of altruism and courtesy outlined in Organ's (1988) study, and job dedication included the dimensions of sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness.

Dimensions of OCBs Based on Targets

Williams and Anderson (1991) proposed a target-based distinction of OCBs, consisting of individual targeted OCBs (OCBI) and organizational targeted OCBs (OCBO), and McNeedy and Meglino (1994) similarly argued that OCBs directed to the organization or individuals in the organizations should be distinguished and studied separately. According to Williams and Anderson (1991), OCBO refers to citizenship behaviors that provide direct benefits to the organization, while OCBI represents citizenship behaviors that do not provide direct benefits to the organization, but instead contribute indirect benefits to the organization through individuals who are primary beneficiaries of OCBI.

Antecedents of OCBs

Despite its relatively short history compared to other constructs of organizational behavior, the concept of OCBs has received a lot of attention by practitioners and researchers since 1993 because of the assumption that utilizing the concept can beneficially influence individual or organizational effectiveness (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). For that reason, a large number of studies, particularly regarding OCBs' related antecedents, have been conducted to identify ways to increase the level of employees' OCBs (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). The studies identifying OCBs' antecedents have examined the impacts of (a) employees' characteristics: demographics (e.g., tenure and gender), attitudinal variables (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational justice), and dispositional variables (e.g., personality and affectivity); (b) leaders' characteristics (e.g., transformational leadership and LMX); and (c) other work related characteristics (e.g., characteristics of task and organization).

A meta-analysis performed by Organ and Ryan (1995) found that raw weighted average correlations between job satisfaction and the OCBs of helping and generalized compliance were .24 and .22, respectively. They also found that the raw weighted correlation between organizational justice and helping was .19. However, previous studies have found that the five dimensions of personality have not shown strong relationships with OCBs and that demographics have not been found to be significant predictors of OCB, which indicates that employees' demographic and dispositional characteristics are weaker predictors of OCBs than their attitudinal characteristics (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Furthermore, research has consistently found that leadership behaviors and job characteristics are strongly and positively associated with OCB (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Based on the view of targets of OCBs, McNeedy and Meglino (1994) suggested that job cognition variables would be associated with OCBO but not with OCBI. In fact, Skarlicki and Lathan (1996) found that the perception of fairness was more related to OCBO than OCBI. A multi-foci model of organizational justice (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007) proposed that the outcomes of perceived fairness should be considered via the organizational entity typically responsible for altering these individual justice perceptions, and their model also involved constructs which originated from social exchange theory, such as LMX and POS. Consistent with this view, Lavelle et al. (2005) found that commitment to the organization was a better predictor of OCBO than commitment to the work groups, and vice versa. Ilies et al. (2007) also found that LMX had a stronger relationship with OCBI ($\rho = .38$) than with OCBO ($\rho = .31$).

Consequences of OCBs

In terms of the consequences of OCBs, researchers have been primarily interested in two major topics: the impact of OCBs on supervisors' performance appraisals and reward decisions and the impact of OCBs on organizational performance and success. The meta-analysis conducted by Podsakoff et al. (2000) found that OCBs are positively correlated with supervisors' performance evaluations and decisions concerning their subordinates and, more importantly, have a considerable influence over the supervisors' judgment. According to Organ's (1988) definition of OCBs, OCBs were conceptually believed to provide benefit to an organization in the long run, but had never been empirically tested until Karambayya conducted the first empirical study on the topic in 1990 (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Podsakoff et al. summarized the results of four studies (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Walz & Niehoff, 1996) and found that OCBs explained, on average, 19% and 18% of variances in performance quantity and quality, respectively.

Summary of Literature Review

The literature review is composed of two sections. The first part introduced the concept of organizational justice and the current status of organizational justice study in sport management. The second section provided general information of various constructs that this study will use in order to investigate associations with organizational justice.

The concept of organizational justice, otherwise known as employees' or members' perceived fairness of an organization, has become more relevant and important in the setting of athletics, especially considering the increasing interest in fairness between women's and men's sports based on Title IX legislation. However, there have been far too few studies on the effects

of organizational justice, despite its increasing importance. To date, several studies have extended the literature on organizational justice in sports by examining various perceptions and related outcomes of organizational justice.

The most popular sport setting of the study was intercollegiate student athletes on the basis of distributive justice. Several researchers examined the perceptions of fairness of various stakeholders, such as coaches and administrators (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b), athletic directors and athletic boards (Mahony et al., 2002, 2005), college students (Mahony et al., 2006), and student athletes (Kim et al., 2008; Mahony et al., 2006). In general, the studies consistently found the principles of need and equality were perceived to be the most fair among all stakeholders over equity, even though equity was used the most during resource distribution in intercollegiate athletics (Mahony & Pastore, 1998). Furthermore, studies indicated that males showed higher levels of equity than females.

The organizational justice studies in intercollegiate athletics discussed above have several limitations. First, the majority of studies have explored the distributive justice of stakeholders with the use of hypothetical scenarios, which departs from the original concept of organizational justice. Second, many of the studies have been limited to the examination of distributive justice, so there is a strong need to examine other dimensions of organizational justice for future research.

Other sport settings, such as interscholastic athletics (Whisenant, 2005; Whisenant & Smucker, 2006), a university recreation department (Jordan et al., 2007) and Olympic organizations (Dittmore et al., 2009), also have been studied to examine the stakeholders' perceived fairness, but there is a strong need to continue with such research that examines other sport settings (e.g., professional sport organizations) and other participants (e.g., volunteers).

More studies are needed to examine other related consequences of organizational justice in sport management settings, such as organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, especially in intercollegiate athletics. Therefore, this study attempts to include various concepts which can influence perceived fairness and be affected by perceived fairness in an intercollegiate athletic setting. The concepts consist of met expectation as well as antecedents (e.g., demographic characteristics) and attitudinal (e.g., leader-member exchange, perceived organizational support, outcome satisfaction, job satisfaction, and employee commitment) or behavioral (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior) consequences. The literature review provided general information regarding those constructs, such as definitions, developments, antecedents, and consequences.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter consists of three sections to describe the methods employed for this study: (a) Participants and Procedures, (b) Instrumentations, and (c) Data Analysis.

Participants and Procedures

The population of this study consisted of head and assistant coaches employed at NCAA Divisions I, II, and III institutions that minimally participated in the sports of football, men's basketball, and women's basketball. In drawing the sample from the population, a stratified random sampling method was utilized to select random samples of equal size in terms of level of division, gender of sport, and type of sport. Coaches who were in charge of two or more sports or both men's and women's teams for a certain sport, and also served as an athletic director were excluded from the current study. Therefore, a total sample of 1,200 participants were selected to represent variety in gender of sport (male participant sport and female participant sport), NCAA division (Divisions I, II, and III), and type of sport (high-profile sport and low-profile sport). Table 1 shows specific numbers of samples from each demographic category.

This study incorporated an internet survey to collect data from the sample. E-mail addresses for 1,200 coaches from Division I (28 schools), Division II (48 schools), and Division III (57 schools) were obtained through their institutes' Web sites. In collecting data using an internet survey, pre-notification emails were sent to the coaches one week prior to the date of the survey. Kent and Turner (2002) found pre-notification had a significant impact on increasing response rates from intercollegiate coaches. One week later after the pre-notification, an e-mail containing a link to the online survey along with related instructions was sent to the selected

coaches. E-mail reminders were sent three times, seven days apart, to the selected subjects.

Instrumentation

The survey questionnaire for the current study consisted of 74 items, including demographics and the following eight constructs: (a) organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice), (b) met expectations, (c) outcome satisfaction, (d) leader-member exchange (LMX), (e) perceived organizational support (POS), (f) job satisfaction, (g) employee commitment (organizational commitment and supervisor commitment), and (h) organizational citizenship behavior (OCB to benefit an organization and OCB to benefit a supervisor). Demographic information collected included the sport coached by the respondent, gender of sport, gender of coach, level of NCAA division, coaching experience, coaching role (a head coach or assistant coach), ethnicity, and nationality.

Organizational Justice

Organizational justice consists of three dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. 17 items for three dimensions of organizational justice in the context of intercollegiate athletics were created based on Colquitt's (2001) scale. Since Colquitt's scale was developed base on four dimensional model breaking interactional justice into informational and interpersonal justice, his original scale consisted of 20 items for four dimensions of organizational justice. However, this study combined the two dimensions to examine interactional justice because this study adopted a three dimensional model. In his study, the reported Cronbach alphas (α) for distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice were .93, .93, .92, and .90, respectively. The scale of the current study for the context of intercollegiate athletics included four items for distributive justice, seven items for procedural

justice, and six items for interactional justice, respectively. The items were measured with seven point Likert scales anchored by Strongly Disagree (1) and Strongly Agree (7). The sample items with modification for distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice include the following: “My team’s budget reflects what my team contributed to the school,” for distributive justice, “I am free to express my opinions regarding resource allocation” for procedural justice, and “My athletic director explained how the resource allocation decisions were made” for interactional justice. Table 2 shows all items used to measure the three dimensions of organizational justice in this study.

Met Expectation

A scale for met expectations was developed by the researcher for the current study based on the three dimensions of organizational justice. The met expectation scale included two items for distributive justice, three items for procedural justice, and four items for interactional justice. The items were developed with seven point Likert scales anchored by Strongly Disagree (1) and Strongly Agree (7). The sample items for met expectations were “My team’s overall funding was what I expected it to be” for distributive justice, “The opportunity to express my views regarding budget were as I expected” for procedural justice, and “The athletic director’s concern for my team’s resource allocation was what I expected it to be” for interactional justice. All nine items of met-expectations of each dimension of organizational justice are listed in table 3.

Outcome Satisfaction

Four items were created to examine outcome satisfaction of each coach regarding his/her team’s athletic funding. The items based on Chelladurai and Riemer’s (1997) satisfaction typology examine the levels of satisfaction for budget, facility, academic and medical support.

The items included: “I am satisfied with the physical facility provided to my team,” “I am satisfied with the medical personnel provided to my team,” “I am satisfied with the academic support (i.e., tutor, counselor) provided to my team,” and “I am satisfied with the funding provided to my team.” Likert scales anchored by Strongly Disagree (1) and Strongly Agree (7) were used to assess satisfaction level of their outcomes.

Leader-member Exchange (LMX)

Scandura and Graen’s (1984) seven items were employed with modification to assess the quality of exchange between coaches and athletic director. The reported Cronbach alpha (α) of the scale was .86. The seven items included: “How often do you know where you stand with your athletic director in terms of her/his satisfaction with what you do?,” “How well do you feel that your athletic director understands your problems and needs?,” “How well do you feel that your athletic director recognizes your potential?,” “What are the chances your athletic director would be personally inclined to help you solve professional problems in your work?,” “To what extent can you count on your athletic director to “bail you out” when you really need it?,” “I have enough confidence in my athletic director that I would defend and justify her/his decisions if he/she were not present to do so,” and “How would you characterize your working relationship with your athletic director?” Seven point Likert scales were also utilized to assess the construct.

Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

POS for coaches were assessed by the short form of POS scale with eight items suggested by Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997). Eisenberger et al.’s (1997) reported Cronbach alpha (α) was .86 in their study. The scale includes the following sample items: “My athletic department cares about my opinions,” “My athletic department really cares about my

well-being,” and “My athletic department is willing to help me if I need a special favor.” The eight items were assessed by using seven point Likert scales anchored by Strongly Disagree (1) and Strongly Agree (7). All eight items of POS are listed in table 4.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction as a coach in intercollegiate athletics was measured by using one of the most popular job satisfaction scales, developed by Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998). The scale includes five items: “Most days I am enthusiastic about my work,” “I feel satisfied with my present job,” “Each day at work seems like it will never end (reverse code),” “I find real enjoyment in my work,” and “I consider my job rather unpleasant (reverse code).” The reported reliability (Cronbach alpha) was .88. The items were assessed by using seven point Likert scales anchored by Strongly Disagree (1) and Strongly Agree (7).

Affective Commitment

Organizational commitment toward the coach’s athletic department and athletic director was measured by the scale developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993). Among the three subsets of employee commitment (affective, continuance, and normative), affective commitment with six items ($\alpha = .85$) was utilized for this study because most previous research explored affective commitment as a consequence of organizational justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). The sample items with modification for affective commitment toward an athletic department are as follows: “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my coaching career with my athletic department,” “I really feel as if my athletic department’s problems are my own,” “I feel a strong sense of ‘belonging’ to my athletic department.” On the other hand, the sample items for affective commitment to an athletic director are as follows: “I

feel ‘emotionally attached’ to my athletic director,” “I feel like ‘my athletic director is part of my family’,” and “My athletic director has a great deal of personal meaning for me.” The items for both foci of commitments were measured by using seven point Likert scales anchored by Strongly Disagree (1) and Strongly Agree (7). Table 5 displays the items of affective commitment toward athletic department and athletic director utilized for this study.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

The scales with 14 items of OCB for an athletic director and an organization were created for the context of intercollegiate athletics. OCB for an athletic director included seven items and sample items are “I assist my athletic director with his/her work (when not asked),” “I go out of way to help new colleagues adjust,” and “I pass along information to colleagues.” In addition, sample items of OCB for an organization are “I attend other sporting events to cheer other teams in my school,” “I voluntarily participate in community services,” and “I stand up to protect the reputation of my school.” The items for OCBs for both an organization and athletic director were measured by using seven point Likert scales anchored by Strongly Disagree (1) and Strongly Agree (7). Table 6 shows the items of OCB for athletic department and athletic director.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using SPSS version 17.0 for descriptive statistics and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and AMOS 17.0 for structural equation modeling (SEM). First, descriptive statistics were incorporated to provide demographic information of the sample. Second, SEM was incorporated to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in order to examine the measurement model, including the three dimensions of organizational justice, met expectations of organizational justice, outcome satisfaction, leader-member exchange, perceived

organizational support, job satisfaction, affective commitment toward athletic department, affective commitment toward athletic director, organizational citizenship behaviors for an organization, and organizational citizenship behaviors for an athletic director were conducted. To examine the measurement model fit, the chi-square per degree of freedom ratio (χ^2/df), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) were employed. Third, descriptive statistics (e.g., means and standardized deviation) and Cronbach alpha coefficients (α) of each construct of the study were calculated and reported for the components of each measurement scale to verify internal consistency. Fourth, MANOVA were utilized to test hypotheses 1 and 2, which explore potential differences of perception of organizational justice in terms of Gender of Sport (male participant sport vs. female participant sport) and Type of Sport (high profile sport vs. non-high profile sport). Finally, SEM was employed to test hypotheses 3 through 9 in the proposed model of the current study. In analyzing data, the same fit indices used for CFA (χ^2/df , RMSEA, and CFI) were utilized to assess the proposed model.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter consists of five sections to report the results of this study: (a) Demographics, (b) Descriptive Statistics, (c) Measurement Model, (d) Reliability and Correlation, (d) MANOVA, and (e) Structural Model.

Demographics

Among 1,200 distributed questionnaires to coaches at NCAA Division I, II, and III institutions, 270 coaches completed the questionnaires, and 28 coaches replied to decline to participate in the study. Therefore, the overall response rate was 23%, which compares favorably to a recently published study that sampled a similar population (Choi, Sagas, Park, & Cunningham, 2007). Among the 270 returned questionnaires, 260 were usable for the study (ten coaches were coaching both men and women's teams for a sport or multiple sports, or serving as an athletic director as well as a coach at their institution). Table 7 summarizes the frequencies and percentages of the participants in terms of division, gender of sport, and profile of sport. The majority of the respondents were from Division III institutions ($n = 113$; 43.5%), female participant sports ($n = 153$; 58.8%), and low-profile sports ($n = 166$; 63.8%). Tables 8 and 9 denote the frequencies and percentages of the participants according to the type of sport and the ethnicity of the participants. Among 14 varied sports, basketball ($n = 70$; 26.9%) was the sport in which the respondents of this study coached the most, followed by soccer ($n = 36$; 13.9%), volleyball ($n = 31$; 11.9%), and football ($n = 24$; 9.2%). In terms of ethnicity, the majority of the respondents were Caucasian ($n = 222$; 85.4%).

Descriptive Statistics

Table 10 shows the means and standard deviations of the three dimensions of organizational justice, met-expectation of the three dimensions of organizational justice, outcome satisfaction, perceived organizational support (POS), leader-member exchange (LMX), job satisfaction, commitment toward athletic department, commitment toward athletic director, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) for athletic department, and OCBs for athletic director in terms of type of sport, gender of sport, and the sample as a whole. For the entire sample, the means for the three dimensions of organizational justice ranged from 3.64 (distributive justice) to 4.60 (interactional justice), and the means for met-expectation for three organizational justice dimensions ranged from 4.48 (distributive justice) to 4.94 (interactional justice). With regard to the outcomes of the dimensions of organizational justice, the means for the outcome variables ranged from 4.38 (commitment toward athletic department) to 6.45 (OCBs for athletic department). According to these data, all of the means for each construct were above the mid-point of the scale (4.00), with the exception of distributive justice. Interestingly, in terms of distributive justice, all of the means from every group based on type of sport and gender of sport were below the middle of the scale. On the other hand, the level of job satisfaction approached six out of seven, which indicates coaches were highly satisfied with their current coaching jobs. The coaches also reported high scores for both OCBs toward the athletic department (6.45) and athletic director (6.07).

Measurement Model

In order to examine the adequacy of the proposed constructs, structural equation modeling using AMOS 17 was utilized and global fit indexes such as the chi-square per degree

of freedom ratio (χ^2/df), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) were employed for the current study. Table 11 shows the values of the global fit indexes of the original model, and Table 12 illustrates the results of the CFA, including each index and factor loading for the initial measurement model. According to Carmines and McIver (1981), a chi-square per degree of freedom ratio in the range of 2 to 3 indicates reasonable fit, and a value closer to 1 indicates a better fit. Therefore, the chi-square per degree of freedom ratio of 1.96 in the original measurement model indicated a reasonable fit. In terms of RMSEA, since values less than .06 indicate close fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999) and values less than .08 indicate reasonable fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993), the value of .061 from the original model is indicative of a reasonable fit. Recommended CFI values by Bentler (1990) are above .90, but the value of the original model was .847.

A rule of thumb for factor loading (λ) values is .7 or higher since values below .7 negatively influence Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Fornell, Tellis, & Zinkhan, 1982). However, Bagozzi and Yi (1988) recommended values over .5 for both factor loading and AVE. In general, meeting or exceeding .50 of AVE indicates that the construct is likely represented well by the items as a whole (Fornell & Larker, 1981; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). The results of the CFA including all eight constructs indicated seven items had factor loading values below .5, and these items were eliminated from further analysis. Those items were: “I feel free to express my opinions regarding resource allocation” and “I can influence how the resource distribution is determined” for procedural justice, “I am satisfied with the physical facility provided to my team,” “I am satisfied with the medical personnel provided to my team,” and “I am satisfied with the academic support (i.e., tutor, counselors) provided to my team” for outcome

satisfaction, “If given the opportunity, my athletic department would take advantage of me” for perceived organizational support (POS), “Each day at work seems like it will never end” for job satisfaction and “I voluntarily participate in community services” for organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) for athletic department, and “I help my athletic director recruit for other sports” for OCBs for athletic director. For outcome satisfaction, three items regarding facility usage, medical support, and academic support were not effective items to measure the construct, as illustrated by subpar Cronbach alpha scores ($\alpha = .67$), which fall below the recommended benchmark of .70 and indicate low reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Therefore, a single item measure for outcome satisfaction with athletic funding was utilized for further analysis. In addition, although the items “Coaches can appeal an allocation decision” for procedure justice and “I attend other sporting events to cheer other teams in my school” for OCBs for athletic department had λ values above .5 (.535 and .527, respectively), the items were also eliminated because the relatively low factor values of the items compared to other items.

Multivariate normality was assessed by examining absolute value of skewness and kurtosis of the data. According to Kline (2005), the absolute value of skewness should be under 3.0 and the value of kurtosis should be under 10. The values ranged from -1.56 to .298 for skewness and ranged from -1.210 to 3.145 for kurtosis. Therefore, all values of the items met their requirements.

Discriminant validity was assessed by examining correlations among the proposed concepts after the low loading items were dropped. According to the correlation results from AMOS, the correlations between procedural justice and interactional justice and met-expectation of procedural justice and met-expectation of interactional justice were .912 and 1.003,

respectively. The true correlations between those highly related constructs were calculated after purging errors of measurement by using the bootstrapping method in AMOS. If the confidence interval of the paired correlation does not include the value of 1, discriminant validity between the two constructs could be supported (Torkzadeh, Koufteros, & Pflughoeft, 2003). The results showed that the confidence interval of the correlation (.813 - .951) between procedural justice and interactional justice did not include 1, while the confidence interval of the correlation (.979 - 1.028) between met-expectation of procedural justice and met-expectation of interactional justice included 1. Therefore, the results indicated that discriminant validity between procedural justice and interactional justice existed, whereas discriminant validity between met-expectation of procedural justice was not supported. As a result, for further analysis, a two dimensional conceptualization of organizational justice incorporating distributive justice and procedural justice was used since a model to categorize organizational justice into distributive justice and procedural justice has been also often used in the literature (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005).

There were two high modification index (MI) values, which prompted the addition of two residual correlations between certain items since MI indicates misfits of the hypothesized model (Byrne, 2006). The first correlation was the link between items 3 and 4 for procedural justice (MI = 112.5), and the second correlation was between two items from commitment to athletic department and commitment to athletic director (MI = 63.6). The two items of procedural justice were “Resource allocation procedures are applied consistently across all sports” and “Resource allocation procedures are free of bias across all sports,” and these items were highly correlated ($r = .840$) with each other. According to Byrne (2006), a high level of overlap between two items causes correlation errors. In terms of the second link between the paralleled items “I really feel

as if my athletic department's problems are my own" and "I really feel as if my athletic director's problems are my own" for foci commitments to athletic department and athletic director, the parallel items could cause correlation errors. As a result, the two correlations were added in the final measurement model.

The results of the revised measurement model are summarized in Tables 13 and 14. The results showed that the indexes of the revised model were improved (e.g., $\chi^2/df = 1.853$, RMSEA = .057, and CFI = .910), and all factor loading values (λ) were above .50. Additionally, the results indicated the hypothesized factor structure fitted the data well. The values of AVE for OCB for athletic department and athletic directors were less than .5, which did not meet the value recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Hair et al. (1998). Factor loadings (λ) above .5 are considered to be quality items (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The remaining items for both OCBs did not have any very high factor loading items (e.g., $\lambda = .8$ or $.9$) to improve AVEs, but showed moderate values from upper .5 to under .8. Therefore, it was determined to use five and six item scales for further analysis, even though AVEs for both scales were below .5.

Reliability and Correlations

The reliabilities of each variable (except outcome satisfaction) and the correlations among the variables are reported in Table 15. Reliability of a single item measurement for outcome satisfaction was .79 when it was calculated using the formula proposed by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Cronbach coefficients of the remaining constructs ranged from $\alpha = 0.77$ [organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) for athletic department] to $\alpha = 0.96$ [commitment to athletic director and perceived organizational support (POS)]; therefore, all coefficients exceeded the recommended benchmark of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In terms of correlations

among the variables, all variables showed significant associations ranging from $r = 0.16$ [distributive justice and OCBs for athletic department] to $r = 0.88$ [commitment to athletic director and leader-member exchange (LMX)].

2X2 (Type of Sport vs. Gender of Sport) MANOVA for H1 – H2

With regard to Hypotheses 1 and 2, the results of multivariate tests indicated significant main effects for type of sport [Wilks' Lambda = .955, $F(2, 255) = 6.032$, $p < .01$] and gender of sport [Wilks' Lambda = .967, $F(2, 255) = 4.36$, $p < .05$], and a significant interaction effect between type of sport and gender of sport [Wilks' Lambda = .961, $F(2, 255) = 5.165$, $p < .01$] on procedural justice and distributive justice. Therefore, tests of between subject effects were conducted to examine the differences separately. The results of the univariate tests indicated no significant effects for type of sport [$F(1, 256) = .394$, $p = .531$], gender of sport [$F(1, 256) = .547$, $p = .460$], or their interaction [$F(1, 256) = .510$, $p = .460$] for distributive justice. However, in terms of procedural justice, significant main effects for type of sport [$F(1, 256) = 10.182$, $p < .01$] and the interaction of type of sport and gender of sport [$F(1, 256) = 4.875$, $p < .05$] were observed, while main effects for gender of sport were not significant [$F(1, 256) = 3.867$, $p = .05$]. Since significant interaction effects of the two variables existed, Figure 4 was constructed in order to depict the interaction effects of type of sport and gender of sport. The results indicated that the effect of gender on procedural justice was different for the high profile sport and low profile sport. More specifically, the mean of procedural justice for male coaches in high profile sports was higher than the mean of procedural justice for female coaches in high profile sports.

Structural Model Testing for H3- H9

After testing the measurement model via CFA, the structural model incorporating two dimensions of organizational justice, outcome satisfaction (measured via a single item), leader-member exchange (LMX), perceived organizational support (POS), job satisfaction, commitment toward athletic department and athletic director, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) for athletic department and athletic director was used to test the hypothesized relationships among the constructs. The fit indices for the structural model [χ^2/df (2880.388/1403) = 2.053, RMSEA = .064, and CFI = .885] indicated acceptable fit.

First, H3a and 3b concerned the relationships between two dimensions of organizational justice and variables at the social exchange stage. Based on a multi-foci model of organizational justice, it was hypothesized that distributive justice would be a stronger predictor of outcome satisfaction than procedural justice (H3a). By the same token, it was hypothesized that procedural justice would be a stronger predictor of perceived organizational support (POS) than distributive justice (H3b).

The path coefficients between distributive justice and outcome satisfaction ($\beta = 1.076, p < .01$) and between procedural justice and POS ($\beta = .333, p < .05$) were significant, but the path coefficients between procedural justice and outcome satisfaction ($\beta = -.007, p = .938$) and between distributive justice and POS ($\beta = -.034, p = .577$) were not significant. Therefore, hypotheses 3a and 3b were supported. Figure 5 depicts the results of hypothesis 3.

In order to test H4 through H9, which analyzed the potential for mediating effects, a popular method proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986) was employed. Baron and Kenny's (1986) method could be described as a three-step process in SEM. First, the path between the

independent variable and the dependent variable is tested and should be significant (hereafter referred to as “path C”). Second, the path between the independent variable and the proposed mediating variable (hereafter referred to as “path A”) and the path between the proposed mediator and the dependent variable (hereafter referred to as “path B”) are tested. Third, the direct path between the independent variable and the dependent variable while the path A and Path B are estimated (hereafter referred to as “path C*”). In this step, if path C* is not significant, there is a full mediating effect. Alternatively, if path C* is significant, the Chi-square change between the models with path C* and without path C* should be examined. If the Chi-square change is not significant, a full mediating model should be accepted rather than a partial mediating model. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), paths A and B must be significant to confirm the mediating effect.

H4a and H4b tested the potential mediating effects of met-expectation of organizational justice between organizational justice and outcome variables such as outcome satisfaction and perceived organizational support (POS). The first analysis explored the distributive justice → met-expectation of distributive justice → outcome satisfaction link (H4a) according to Baron and Kenny’s (1986) method. First, path C, the distributive justice → outcome satisfaction link, was significant ($\beta = 1.06$; $p < .01$). Second, path A, the distributive justice → met-expectation of distributive justice link, was significant ($\beta = .716$; $p < .01$), but path B, the met-expectation of distributive justice → outcome satisfaction link, was not significant ($\beta = .046$; $p = .533$). Therefore, H4a was rejected.

The second analysis explored the procedural justice → met-expectation of procedural justice → POS link (H4b) according to Baron and Kenny’s (1986) method. First, path C, the

procedural justice → POS link, was significant ($\beta = .306; p < .01$). Second, path A, the procedural justice → met-expectation of procedural justice link, was significant ($\beta = .763; p < .01$), but path B, the met-expectation of procedural justice → POS link, was not significant ($\beta = .062; p = .473$), which indicates there was no mediating effect of met-expectation between procedural justice and POS. Therefore, H4b was rejected. Figure 6 shows the results of hypothesis 4.

H5 and H6 tested the influence of organizational justice on attitudinal outcomes of organizational justice through outcome satisfaction and perceived organizational support (POS). H5 explored the distributive justice → outcome satisfaction → job satisfaction link. First, path C, the distributive justice → job satisfaction link, was not significant ($\beta = -.026; p = .615$). Second, path A, the distributive justice → outcome satisfaction link, was significant ($\beta = 1.09; p < .01$), but path B, the outcome satisfaction → job satisfaction link, was not significant ($\beta = .028; p = .640$). Therefore, H5 was rejected.

Based on the multi-foci model, POS was proposed to mediate the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction (H6a) and commitment toward athletic department (H6b). H6a explored the procedural justice → POS → job satisfaction link. First, path C, the procedural justice → job satisfaction link, was significant ($\beta = .281; p < .01$). Second, path A, the procedural justice → POS link, was significant ($\beta = .305; p < .01$), and path B, the POS → job satisfaction link, was significant ($\beta = .200; p < .01$). In the next step, path C* was not significant ($\beta = .112; p = .091$), which indicates a full mediating effect of POS between procedural justice and job satisfaction. Therefore, H6a was supported. Figure 7 depicts the results of hypothesis 5 and hypothesis 6a.

H6b explored the procedural justice $\rightarrow$ POS $\rightarrow$ commitment toward athletic department link. First, path C, the procedural justice $\rightarrow$ commitment toward athletic department link, was significant ($\beta = .523$; $p < .01$). Second, path A, the procedural justice $\rightarrow$ POS link, was significant ($\beta = .308$; $p < .01$), and path B, the POS $\rightarrow$ commitment toward athletic department link, was significant ($\beta = .531$; $p < .01$). In the next step, path C* was not significant ($\beta = .091$; $p = .245$), which indicates a full mediating effect of POS between procedural justice and commitment toward athletic department. Therefore, H6b was supported. Figure 8 shows the results of hypothesis 6b.

As mentioned earlier, H7a and H7b, which dealt with the relationship between interactional justice and outcome variables were not able to be tested because there was lack support of discriminant validity between procedural justice and interactional justice due to high correlations between the two dimensions of organizational justice.

H8 tested the potential mediating effects of commitment toward athletic department between perceived organizational support (POS) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) for athletic department (H8a) and job satisfaction and OCBs for athletic department (H8b). H8a explored the POS $\rightarrow$ commitment toward athletic department $\rightarrow$ OCBs for athletic department link. First, path C, the POS $\rightarrow$ OCBs for athletic department link, was not significant ($\beta = .049$; $p = .276$). Second, path A, the POS $\rightarrow$ commitment toward athletic department link, was significant ($\beta = .589$; $p < .01$), and path B, the commitment toward athletic department $\rightarrow$ OCBs for athletic department link, was significant ($\beta = .308$; $p < .01$). In the next step, path C* was not significant ($\beta = -.041$; $p = .441$), which indicates no mediating effect of commitment toward athletic department between POS and OCBs for athletic department. According to Kenny, Kashy,

and Bolger (1998), path C is not required because the path is implied if path A and path B are met. Therefore, H8a was supported.

H8b explored the job satisfaction → commitment toward athletic department → OCBs for athletic department link. First, path C, the job satisfaction → OCBs for athletic department link, was significant ($\beta = .387; p < .01$). Second, path A, the job satisfaction → commitment toward athletic department link, was significant ($\beta = .549; p < .01$), and path B, the commitment toward athletic department → OCBs for athletic department link, was significant ($\beta = .282; p < .01$). In the next step, path C* was not significant ($\beta = .143; p = .076$), which indicates a full mediating effect of commitment toward athletic department between job satisfaction and OCBs for athletic department. Therefore, H8b was supported. Figure 9 depicts the results of hypothesis 8.

H9 tested the potential mediating effects of commitment toward athletic director between leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) for athletic director (H9a) and job satisfaction and OCBs for athletic director (H9b). H9a explored the LMX → commitment toward athletic director → OCBs for athletic director link. First, path C, the LMX → OCBs for athletic director link, was significant ($\beta = .093; p < .01$). Second, path A, the LMX → commitment toward athletic director link, was significant ($\beta = 1.08; p < .01$), and path B, the commitment toward athletic director → OCBs for athletic director link, was significant ($\beta = .137; p < .05$). In the next step, path C* was not significant ($\beta = -.031; p = .657$), which indicates a full mediating effect of commitment toward athletic director between LMX and OCBs for athletic director. Therefore, H9a was supported.

H9b explored the job satisfaction → commitment toward athletic director → OCBs for athletic director link. First, path C, the job satisfaction → OCBs for athletic director link, was significant ($\beta = .261$; $p < .01$). Second, path A, the job satisfaction → commitment toward athletic director link, was not significant ($\beta = .114$; $p = .166$), indicating no mediating effect of commitment toward athletic director between job satisfaction and OCBs for athletic director. Therefore, H9b was rejected. Figure 10 shows the results of hypothesis 9.

Since the results indicated that met expectation did not have mediating effects between organizational justice and the respective outcome variables in Hypothesis 4, the variables for met expectation of distributive justice and procedural justice were removed from the original proposed model, and Figure 11 was created as the finalized model of the current study based on all results. The final model shows the results of this study confirmed the relationships between organizational justice and its relevant outcomes based on the target-specific social exchange relationship proposed by Lavelle et al. (2007). For example, the organizational citizenship behaviors toward the athletic director were influenced not by perceived organizational support but by leader-member exchange through commitment to the athletic director.

Since the concept of met-expectation was dropped, the measurement model and the structural model without the concept were tested. The results were $\chi^2 = 2191.76$, $df = 1091$, $\chi^2/df = 2.007$, RMSEA = .062, and CFI = .903 for the measurement model and $\chi^2 = 2503.307$, $df = 1163$, $\chi^2/df = 2.152$, RMSEA = .067, and CFI = .886 for the structural model. The value of CFI for the structural model was less than .90, so a Relative Normed Fit Index (RNFI) was calculated to compare structural model to the best attainable measurement model. The RNFI value was .971,

which indicated reasonable fit since the recommended value is over .90 (Mulaik, James, Van Alstine, Bennett, Lind, & Stilwell, 1989).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This study attempted to examine intercollegiate athletics coaches' perceived fairness of their current resource allocation system and the psychological and behavioral outcomes of these perceptions. At the time of writing, past research primarily examined distributive justice, the perceived fairness toward athletic funding, of stakeholders such as athletic directors, administrators, or students, but coaches have not been exclusively studied yet in the context of intercollegiate athletics regarding athletic funding, although they are important stakeholders who can make huge impact on each team's performance. In addition, previous studies have not examined the consequences of perceived fairness in allocation in the context of intercollegiate athletics. Organizational behavior researchers have extended their interest to dimensions of organizational justice rather than distributive justice and outcomes of organizational justice, since the construct of organizational justice is considered one of the most important antecedents influencing organizational members' attitudes and behaviors (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). As a result, there is a strong need to examine other dimensions of organizational justice [e.g., procedural justice (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993) and interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986)] and the outcomes of organizational justice in the context of sports, especially in intercollegiate athletics.

In order to examine the outcomes of perceived fairness, the conceptual framework was based on a multifocal model of organizational justice (Lavelle et al., 2007), which prescribes that the outcomes of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice should be considered through the organizational entity typically responsible for altering the perceptions of

these outcomes. This study also adopted the concept of met expectation as a mediating variable between the three dimensions of organizational justice and their effect on the attitudes and behaviors of collegiate coaches. The concept of met-expectation allows for analysis of organizational justice perceptions within the context of organization members' individual expectations (Wanous, 1992).

Because this is the first organizational justice study regarding current resource distribution system among teams to empirically examine all three dimensions of organizational justice and outcomes of perceived fairness in intercollegiate athletics, the primary goals of the present study were to examine: (a) coaches' perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice regarding their current resource distribution systems in intercollegiate athletics in terms of sport types (high profile sports vs. low profile sports) and gender of players (male participant sports vs. female participant sports); and (b) the impacts of direct or indirect organizational justice on coaches' attitudinal (job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment toward organization and supervisor) and behavioral (organizational citizenship behavior for organization and supervisor) outcomes through the mediating effects of met expectations, outcome satisfaction, and social exchange relationships (perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange) via a multifoci perspective.

The results of this study yielded insight into: (a) the perceptions of fairness of the coaches toward their current resource distribution systems among athletic teams in intercollegiate athletics, and b) the important relationships between perceived fairness and its attitudinal and behavioral outcomes for collegiate coaches. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss implications of the findings of the current study. Therefore, this chapter consists of seven sections: (a)

Coaches' Perceptions of Fairness (Hypothesis 1 and 2), (b) The Direct Relationship between Organizational Justice and Social Exchange Variables (Hypothesis 3), (c) Met-expectation (Hypothesis 4), d) Direct and Indirect Relationship between Organizational Justice and Attitudinal and Behavioral Variables (Hypothesis 5 through 9), (e) Practical and Theoretical Implications, (f) Overall Conclusion, and (g) Limitations and Future Research.

Coaches' Perceptions of Fairness

The results of this study's descriptive statistics indicated the coaches perceived their outcome levels of athletic funds to be slightly unfair, as illustrated by their reporting of fairness perceptions below the mid-point of the scale (distributive justice: 3.64/7). In fact, all of the means for distributive justice for each group based on type of sport and participant gender were below the scale's mid-point. The results could be explained somehow by the fact that collegiate sports have been influenced by a recent economic downturn (Carey, 2009). Many schools have been forced to make budget cuts to their athletic departments as a result of this severe economic depression (Ratcliffe, 2009). All sport teams, including revenue-generating sports such as football and men's basketball, have explored ways to reduce expenses. For example, the University of Miami (Florida) made a 3.5 percent budget cut for every sport, and its football team plans to use buses for away games to the University of South Florida and the University of Central Florida in 2009 instead of airplanes, which has been the only mode of transportation for its football team last ten years (CBS, 2009). The efforts to reduce expenses for athletic departments have occurred not only at the University of Miami, but also at most institutions across the nation. Most sport teams have not received the same level of funding they received in the immediate past, and these reductions may have impacted their need to be competitively

successful. In turn, coaches may have perceived unfairness regarding their team's resource allocations.

Regarding distributive justice, two hypotheses were advanced. Hypothesis 1a proposed that coaches of male participant sports would report significantly higher levels of distributive justice than coaches of female participant sports based on their current resource distribution system in collegiate athletics. Hypothesis 2a proposed that coaches of high profile sports would report significantly higher levels of distributive justice than coaches of non-high profile sports based on their current resource distribution system in collegiate athletics. Although it was expected that coaches in male participant sports and high profile sports would show higher levels of distributive justice because revenue sports (e.g., football and men's basketball) typically receive more financial support than non-revenue sports in the typical resource distribution system (Mahony & Pastore, 1998), the results revealed no significant main and interactional effects of sport type and participant gender in the category of distributive justice. The finding shows that no matter what kind of sports the coaches are associated with, the coaches perceived their levels of athletic funding to be equally unfair. The findings of the current study were not consistent with the findings of Kim et al. (2008) examining fair perceptions of student-athletes regarding athletic funding. They found that the students generally perceived their levels of athletic fund to be fair and there were significant main effects of type of sport on need and equality principles of distributive justice, whereas the coaches perceived their levels of athletic funding to be equally unfair, and there were no main and interaction effects of type of sport and gender.

Adams' equity theory (1965) might explain why the results of this study showed all groups reporting below the scale midpoints for distributive justice and found no differences among the groups in distributive justice. Distributive justice was developed on the basis of Adams' equity theory. The theory suggests that an employee in an organization compares his/her job inputs and outcomes with others, thus making internal judgments as to whether or not the employee has been treated fairly by the organization. If he/she perceives inequity, he/she tries to correct the situation by adopting one of the six following alterations: a) change inputs; b) change outcomes; c) distort perceptions of self; d) distort perceptions of others; e) choose a different referent; or f) leave the field. In the process of making internal judgments, the employee may use four different referents: a) *self-inside*, the employee's experiences in a different position inside the same organization; b) *self-outside*, the employee's experiences in a position at a different organization; c) *other-inside*, the employee's perception of other workers inside the same organization; and d) *other-outside*, the employee's perception of others from a different organization (Smucker & Kent, 2004a; 2004b).

In the context of intercollegiate athletics, other-inside, self-outside, and other-outside can be mostly used by coaches when comparing their input-output ratios to those of other coaches. In terms of other-inside comparisons, coaches could compare their teams' input-output ratios with other teams within their own university. For example, coaches of revenue generating sports may perceive their level of athletic funding to be unfair if they felt they did not receive enough athletic funding in comparison to the revenues they generated to their schools. In other words, coaches of revenue generating sports may perceive their resource allocations to be unfair because they share their generated revenue with other non-revenue generating sport teams.

Coaches could compare their input-output ratio not only with ratios of other teams in their own athletic departments (other-inside), but also with their previous experiences (self-outside) and the ratios of other sport teams (other-outside) in different universities. Among those three comparisons, past research suggests the ratio of other sport teams (other-outside) in different universities will be the most important factor in determining their perception of fairness. Previous studies (Capelli & Sherer, 1988; Ronen, 1986) indicated that people would seek external referents rather than internal referents for their financial outcomes (e.g., pay). In other words, people are more likely to compare their situation with others outside of their organizations rather than with others within their organizations. Therefore, the coaches of football and men's basketball teams look for external referents and compare their situations with football and men's basketball teams at other universities (rather than comparing themselves with the women's softball teams at their own universities). If the teams at other institutions receive more support than their own teams, the coaches are likely to perceive inequity even if their teams receive more support in their own institutions than any of those institutions' other teams. For instance, football coaches at the University of Miami might perceive inequity if they found that football teams at other institutions still use flights for all away games even though the football team at the University of Miami received more support than any other teams at their institution.

With regard to procedural justice, coaches generally perceived the processes used to determine their teams' financial resources (procedural justice: 4.41/7) and their personal treatment when they were informed of the decision by their athletic directors (interactional justice: 4.60/7) to be moderately fair, as evidenced by mean fairness perception values over the mid-point of the scale. In fact, all coaches from each group based on sport type and participant

gender perceived moderate fairness by reporting above the mid-point of the scale for procedural justice and interactional justice for each group. This indicated that athletic departments have developed relatively fair processes to assign resource allocations among teams and athletic directors also have used relatively fair manners to inform the final decisions to each team.

In terms of procedural justice, two hypotheses were advanced. Hypothesis 1b proposed that coaches of male participant sports would report significantly higher levels of procedural justice than coaches of female participant sports based on their current resource distribution system in collegiate athletics. Hypothesis 2b proposed that coaches of high profile sports would report significantly higher levels of procedural justice than coaches of non-high profile sports based on their current resource distribution system in collegiate athletics. It was expected that procedural justice would have main and/or interactional effects concerning sport type and participant gender. MANOVA results revealed significant main and interactional effects of sport type and participant gender for procedural justice. As hypothesized, mean procedural justice perceptions for male coaches in high profile sports were higher than mean procedural justice perceptions for female coaches in high profile sports. The finding shows that football and men's basketball, which usually have more financial support than other teams, showed higher levels of fairness perceptions toward the procedures that athletic departments followed to make final decisions regarding resource allocations among sports teams.

The interactional effects of sport type and participant gender were consistent with the findings of previous research. Mahony and Pastore (1998) examined resource distribution data of NCAA programs from 1973 to 1993, and found that revenue generating sports, such as men's basketball and football, had been more favorably supported by athletic departments than non-

revenue generating sports. Mahony and Pastore also predicted that this situation would continue. Even though distributive justice can be perceived using different referents, perceptions of procedural justice are more likely to stimulate referents that are internal to the organization (Folger & Knovsky, 1989). In fact, the items used to measure procedural justice (e.g., that resource allocation procedures are based on accurate information and that the outcome arrived at by the resource allocation process is appealable) allow coaches to focus on whether the information and the process for resource allocation are internally fair or not. Given modern resource distribution systems, where the lion's share of athletic department funding is directed to football and men's basketball, it is not surprising to see that coaches of high profile, male participant sports showed higher levels of perceived procedural justice than any other group, since the coaches likely compared their resource allotment to other teams within their institutions. Although there were differing perceptions of fairness toward the process used to make resource allocations among groups, and the current allocation pattern is expected to continue in the future, the findings of descriptive statistics showed athletic departments have actively worked toward promoting fairness because the coaches in all groups generally perceived the process of resource allocation among athletic teams as a fair process. However, there was also room for improvement for teams, especially in non-revenue sports. Since procedural justice is considered the most important dimension of organizational justice in influencing members' attitudinal outcomes like job satisfaction, which may eventually have impact on performance of coaches (Colquitt et al., 2001; Lind & Tyler, 1988), it is very critical for athletic departments to remain fair in dealing with resource allocations among teams.

The Direct Relationship between Organizational Justice and Social Exchange Variables

Hypotheses 3a and 3b tested the relationships between two dimensions of organizational justice and outcome variables, such as outcome satisfaction, perceived organizational support (POS), and leader-member exchange (LMX) at the social exchange stage. First, hypothesis 3 proposed that distributive justice has a stronger impact on the level of outcome satisfaction than procedural justice and interactional justice. The results revealed that only perceived fairness toward athletic funding itself influenced the coaches' levels of satisfaction with the outcomes. This result was consistent with the findings of DeConick and Stilwell (2004), who also found that distributive justice significantly influenced outcome satisfaction and that procedural justice did not. However, many previous studies (Colquitt et al., 2001; Fong & Schaffer, 2003; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Roch & Shanock, 2006) in the organizational behavior literature consistently found that procedural justice showed moderate associations with outcome satisfaction, although distributive justice was the most consistent predictor. Although these studies found moderate relationships between procedural justice and outcome satisfaction, the results of the present study did not find any significant associations between procedural justice and outcome satisfaction. In other words, the coaches' satisfaction levels with their athletic funding were increased when they perceived that the funding outcome was fair, but the satisfaction levels were not influenced whether they perceived the process used to make the allocation decision to be fair or not.

With respect to the relationship between procedural justice and perceived organizational support (POS), hypothesis 3b proposed that procedural justice would have a stronger impact on the level of perceived organizational support than distributive justice and interactional justice

since procedural justice focuses on the process or procedures formed by organizations. The results of this study revealed that procedural justice was a strong predictor of POS, while distributive justice did not impact POS at all. The results were consistent with previous literature that suggests procedural justice should have a stronger association with POS than the other two dimensions of organizational justice on the basis of social exchange theory (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Eisenberger, 2002). The coaches felt that their athletic departments provided a supportive environment when they perceived that resource allocation decisions were made according to the results of an unbiased process or when they perceived that they could express their views during the decision-making process.

Interestingly, the results showed that procedural justice was also a good predictor of leader-member exchange (LMX), while distributive justice was not shown to have any impact on LMX. Regarding the relationship between procedural justice and LMX, past research (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001) has supported a positive relationship, so these results were not very surprising or unexpected. However, the results could be explained by the fact that the current study showed an extremely high correlation ($r = .88$) between procedural justice and interactional justice and even failed to show discriminant validity between met expectations for procedural justice and interactional justice ($r = 1.00$), which indicated that the participants in the study may not have clearly distinguished interactional justice from procedural justice and, in fact, almost recognized them as one dimension. For the reason, procedural justice, which the participants acknowledged as interactional justice, could have a relatively high impact on LMX in the current study. The coaches perceived that they had high quality relationships with their athletic directors when they perceived that the process of making allocation decisions was fair. In turn, it was

found that these high quality relationships between athletic directors and coaches have the potential to increase organizational success (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Lavelle et al., 2007; Masterson et al., 2000). There has been some disagreement on the distinction between procedural justice and interactional justice (Cohen & Spector, 2001). Although the most popular model of organizational justice is a three dimensional model representing distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Cropanzano et al., 2001), the results of the present study were more supportive of a two dimensional model with distributive justice and procedural justice rather than the three dimension model.

Met Expectation

The results of this study's descriptive statistics indicated that coaches' expectation levels for distributive justice (4.48/7) and procedural justice (4.82) had generally been met because coaches of each comparison group (sport type and participant gender) reported met-expectation scores above the mid-point of the scale. Regarding distributive justice, coaches of each group did not perceive their outcome level to be fair, but the findings showed that coaches were receiving what they expected for their athletic fund. Based on the concept of met expectation (Wanous, 1992), this study proposed hypothesis 4a, which stated that met expectations of distributive justice would mediate the relationship between distributive justice and outcome satisfaction. Similarly, hypothesis 4b stated that met expectations of procedural justice would mediate the relationship between procedural justice and perceived organizational support. However, in this study both propositions were rejected. The results revealed that the met expectation of organizational justice did not have mediating effects on these relationships. In testing Hypothesis 4a and 4b, both direct relationships between met-expectation of both dimensions of

organizational justice and two outcomes were not significant. These findings indicated that the coaches' perception of fairness could influence outcome satisfaction and POS alone, and that met expectation had no mediating effect. In other words, although the coaches had expectations for the amount of their athletic funding and actually received what they expected, their perception of fairness was based on their actual experience in athletic departments rather than on the congruence between their expectations and their experiences. Their actual experience alone was found to influence outcome satisfaction, POS, and LMX, which eventually influences attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003).

The results could be explained by the argument made by Irving and Montes (2009) based on their findings regarding the relationship of met-expectation and employees' attitudes. Irving and Montes (2009) found that actual experience contributed more to employees' satisfaction than met-expectation. According to Irving and Montes, expectation is just one of comparisons that determine employee reactions and impact of experience gets stronger if there is more than one referent. In the current study, as previously discussed, the employee may use different referents such as self-inside, self-outside, other-inside, or other-outside which came from his/her real experience (Smucker & Kent, 2004a; 2004b). Perhaps coaches engage in multiple comparisons in making internal judgments regarding their athletic fund. In turn, the impact of met-expectation has been minimized because met-expectation was one of standards to make the judgments based on their real experiences in athletics.

The Relationship between Organizational Justice and Attitudinal and Behavioral Variables

Organizational justice has a critical impact on members' psychological and behavioral outcomes (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Hypotheses 5 through 9 were formulated based on the Target Similarity Model (Lavelle et al., 2007) to test the direct or indirect relationships between organizational justice and various outcomes. These hypotheses predicted the potential mediating effects of outcome satisfaction and perceived organizational support (POS) at the social exchange stage between two dimensions of organizational justice and attitudinal outcome variables (e.g., job satisfaction, commitment to athletic department, and commitment to athletic director) and also predicted the potential mediating effects of attitudinal outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction and commitment) between outcome satisfaction and POS at the social exchange stage and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Hypotheses 5 and 6 examined whether distributive justice and procedural justice have direct or indirect impacts on attitudinal outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Hypothesis 5 proposed that outcome satisfaction mediates the relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction. However, the results revealed that outcome satisfaction did not mediate the relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction. This finding was inconsistent with the findings of Tremblay and Roussel (2001) and DeConinck and Stilwell (2004), who found mediating effects for outcome satisfaction between distributive justice and job satisfaction. In fact, the results of the mediating effect test based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) method indicated that distributive justice and outcome satisfaction did not have any direct or indirect impact on job satisfaction. In the mediation test, the relationships between distributive

justice and job satisfaction and between outcome satisfaction and job satisfaction were not significant. This indicated that coaches' attitudes to their coaching jobs are not influenced by how coaches perceive fairness toward athletic funding or how much coaches are satisfied with athletic funding.

Hypothesis 6 proposed that perceived organizational support would mediate the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction (H6a) and that perceived organizational support would mediate the relationship between procedural justice and affective organizational commitment (H6b). Hypothesis 6 was supported; the results revealed that procedural justice perceptions indirectly influenced job satisfaction (H6a) and organizational commitment (H6b) via perceived organizational support (POS), which indicated a full mediating effect for POS. Masterson et al. (2002) also found POS to have mediating effects between procedural justice and employees' attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational commitment). A direct relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction was anticipated to be significant, but it was not found to be significant in the current study. In the process of making coaches' reactions to their jobs and organizations, the perceived fairness of the procedures initially influenced the perception of the quality relationship between coaches and athletic departments and then the perceived quality of the relationship eventually influenced coaches' satisfaction with their jobs and emotional attachment to their organizations. However, it does not mean that the coaches who perceived the procedure to be fair would necessarily have high levels of satisfaction with their coaching jobs because the direct relationship was not supported.

The results of hypotheses 5 and 6 were supported by most organizational justice studies (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Colquitt et al., 2001; Lind & Tyler, 1988) that examined outcomes of perceived fairness. These studies insisted that procedural justice should be a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than distributive or interactional justice. Although several previous studies found indirect (Tremblay & Roussel, 2001; DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004) and direct (Jordan et al., 2008; Jordan et al., 2009) influences of distributive justice on job satisfaction, distributive justice did not show any impact on job satisfaction in the current study. In general, organizational justice researchers (Austin & Walster, 1974; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Lynd & Tyler, 1988) have argued that distributive justice should be more likely to influence an employee's satisfaction with certain events or outcomes (like pay increase or promotion), while procedural justice should be more likely to influence an employee's attitude toward his/her job or organization. The findings of the current study also show coaches' attitudes toward their jobs and athletic departments are more likely to be influenced by how they feel about the procedures athletic departments followed to reach the final conclusion rather than the resources received from the athletic department.

As discussed, a direct relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction was not supported, although it was almost significant ($\beta = .112$; $p = .091$). These unanticipated results could have been caused by any of several factors. First, the survey items created to examine the coaches' perception of fairness were about athletic funding overall rather than a specific inquiry concerning the salary of the coach. Most other organizational justice studies have examined the members' perceived fairness regarding their individual outcomes (like promotion or salary) rather than the perceived fairness of the team's outcome. The relationship between procedural

justice and job satisfaction could have been weakened because the current study asked coaches about their perception regarding athletic funding as the outcome of the whole team rather than individual outcomes. Second, the results could have been affected by the high level of job satisfaction of the participants in this study (5.99/7). Previous studies (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1991; Parks & Parra, 1994) examining job satisfaction have continuously found that sport industry personnel are more influenced by intrinsic factors (like the nature of the work or achievement) than extrinsic factors (like pay or promotion) compared to personnel in other industries. As a result, the studies found that sport managers report relatively high levels of job satisfaction, although they showed low levels of outcome satisfaction (Smucker & Kent, 2004a). Chelladurai and Ogasawara (2003) also reported high levels of job satisfaction from Division I (7.66/9) and Division II (7.62/9) coaches. In the current study, the object of procedural justice was resource distribution among an athletic team, which is an extrinsic item with supposedly less influence on coaches' job satisfaction level. Therefore, the direct link between procedural justice and job satisfaction could have become weak in this study.

Hypotheses 8 and 9 concerned the potential mediating effects of attitudinal outcome variables between outcome satisfaction and perceived organizational support (POS) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) for organization and supervisor. Hypothesis 8 proposed that affective organizational commitment would mediate the relationship between POS and OCBs directed toward the organization (H8a) and that affective organizational commitment would mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs directed toward the organization (H8b). The results revealed that affective organizational commitment mediated the

relationship between POS and OCBs for that organization (H8a) and also fully mediated the relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs for that organization (H8b).

Previous studies have respectively found impacts of POS (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002), job satisfaction (Organ & Ryan, 1995), and employee commitment (Schappe, 1998) on OCBs for an organization. The results of the current study also confirmed the findings of the previous studies, but the findings of the current study show that coaches' perceived the support levels from athletic departments and the levels of satisfaction with their jobs influenced their organization beneficiary behaviors as mediated by coaches' levels of emotional attachment to athletic departments when all variables are collectively included in a model. In this study, levels of perceived support and job satisfaction did not directly influence organization beneficiary behaviors. The perceived support and job satisfaction initially influenced the levels of attachment to athletic departments and then the reactions to their organizations positively influence their behaviors.

Hypothesis 9 proposed that affective supervisory commitment would mediate the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) directed toward the supervisor (H9a) and that affective supervisory commitment would mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs directed toward the supervisor. The results showed that commitment to an athletic director fully mediated the relationship between LMX and OCBs for that athletic director (H9a). However, there was no mediating effect of commitment to an athletic director on the relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs for that athletic director (H9b).

Previous studies have respectively found impacts of LMX (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002), job satisfaction (Organ & Ryan, 1995), and employee commitment (Schappe, 1998) on OCBs. When three predictor variables were included for the current study, job satisfaction did not show direct or indirect impact on OCBs for a supervisor, while LMX indirectly influence OCBs for a supervisor through commitment to a supervisor. Schappe (1998) also found no significant impact of job satisfaction on OCBs, while employee commitment was a significant predictor of OCBs. The findings of this study show that coaches' quality levels of relationships with athletic directors influence their supervisor beneficiary behaviors through coaches' levels of emotional attachment to athletic director. In this study, the quality levels did not directly influence supervisor beneficiary behaviors, but through their commitments to athletic directors.

In general, the results of this study confirmed the propositions based on the Target Similarity Model (Lavelle et al., 2007). The results from hypotheses 6 through 9 regarding multifocal commitments and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) as outcomes of organizational justice were consistent with those of previous studies (Malatesta & Byrne, 1997; Masters et al., 2002; Moorman et al., 1998; Olkkonen & Lipponen, 2006; Schappe, 1998). Malatesta and Byren (1997) revealed that interactional justice was the most important predictor of supervisory outcomes (e.g., supervisory commitment and supervisor-directed OCBs) while procedural justice was the most important predictor of organizational outcomes (e.g., organizational commitment and organization-directed OCBs). Masterson et al. (2002) found that procedural justice had indirect relationships with job satisfaction and organization-directed OCBs via POS. Moorman et al. (1998) also found mediating effects for POS between procedural justice and three types of OCBs (interpersonal helping, personal commitment, and loyal

boosterism). The results of the current study also suggest that intercollegiate athletics coaches' sense of procedural justice concerning resource allocation among teams can eventually influence organizational citizenship behaviors through the mediating effects of POS and coaches' job satisfaction and commitment.

Practical and Theoretical Implications

Four main findings provide numerous practical and theoretical implications for athletic departments and academic research in the field of organizational behavior: (a) even coaches of football and men's basketball, which receive the most financial support of all athletic teams, reported below the scale's midpoint, and there were no significant differences among the groups based on sport type and participant gender for distributive justice; (b) the met expectation of organizational justice did not mediate the relationships between coaches' perception of fairness and the outcome variables; (c) perceptions of procedural justice indirectly influenced attitudinal outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational commitment), while distributive justice did not directly or indirectly influence those outcomes; (d) perceptions of procedural justice can eventually influence organizational citizenship behaviors through the mediating effects of perceived organizational support (POS) and coaches' job satisfaction and commitment.

Previous research has consistently found that all three dimensions of organizational justice have associations with the attitudinal and behavioral outcomes of an organization's members even though each dimension might have differing levels of influence on those outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2001). The results of the current study confirmed these relationships. Descriptive statistics revealed that athletic departments still have room to improve their coaches' perceptions of fairness in all three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive justice =

3.64, procedural justice = 4.41, and interactional justice = 4.60). These results indicate that athletic departments should put more effort into ensuring that each team experiences fair treatment during the resource distribution process and thereby increase the levels of perceived fairness, which will eventually improve organizational performance.

With regard to distributive justice, it could be assumed that the more we receive, the more we feel that the outcomes were fair, but the current study found that, despite the fact that football and men's basketball teams received the most financial supports from their athletic departments, the coaches of those sports perceived their athletic funding to be inequitable. The perceived inequity of the coaches could be caused by the fact that football and men's basketball generate the most revenue in intercollegiate athletics and often have to share their revenue to support other sport teams. It is also possible that the coaches compare their athletic funding with that received by teams in different universities and then perceive inequity because their athletic funding was less than that received by others, particularly if their performances are better than those who are given more resources (Adams, 1965; Smucker & Kent, 2004a; 2004b). The results show that the amount spent matters as much as the method of spending when it comes to increasing the perceived fairness level of distributive justice. In order to increase the levels of the perceived fairness, athletic departments should understand what each team wants. For example, Mahony et al. (2005) identified three types of need found in athletic teams. According to Mahony et al. (2005), teams felt that need existed when they lacked resources, had high program costs, and required additional resources to build a competitively successful team. Athletic departments should identify the needs of each team and be able to meet those needs in order to increase positive perceptions of distributive justice.

In terms of procedural justice, athletic departments can increase their coaches' perceived level of justice by utilizing Leventhal's six rules to determine resource allocation among teams. Leventhal (1980) proposed six rules to ensure optimal procedural justice perceptions in an organization. The six rules stated that procedures should: (a) be consistent across person and time; (b) be kept separate from a decision maker's personal interests or preferences; (c) ensure accurate information when making decisions; (d) have a formulated system to correct or change any flaws; (e) ensure that the needs and opinions of all parties or members affected by the decision are met and heard; and (f) consider the fundamental morality and ethics of the members.

One of the most important findings of the current study was that procedural justice is the best predictor of psychological attitudes such as job satisfaction and commitment. Based on the findings, athletic departments could expect the greatest enhancement in these outcomes of organizational justice if they are able to positively affect coaches' perceived fairness levels concerning the procedures to make final allocation decisions by utilizing Leventhal (1980) six rules for fair. So to speak, the perceived fair and transparent procedures that athletic departments incorporated to make decisions regarding resource allocations should be a more important predictor of positive attitudes of coaches than what were provided to their teams. Therefore, athletic departments should focus on positively influencing procedural justice perceptions of processes to make decisions regarding resource allocation among teams in order to enhance coaches' job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment to their institution. In intercollegiate athletics, developing high levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment is critical for athletic departments to keep their successful coaches. In reality, winning football or basketball coaches in collegiate sports are often recruited by other athletic

departments for more extrinsic reward, but not every athletic department can make a counteroffer to make the successful coaches stay. In this case, the long-term relationship between the coaches and the athletic departments through the enhancement of job satisfaction and organization commitment plays a crucial role for the coaches to stay with their current institutions. The high levels of job satisfaction and affective commitment could make those coaches decide to stay with their current institutions since they have strong emotional relationships that supersede extrinsic rewards. Therefore, the finding that procedural justice positively influences psychological attitudes is a very important message to athletic departments.

In this study, it was also found that coaches' sense of procedural justice concerning resource allocation among teams can eventually influence organizational citizenship behaviors. In this process, perceived organizational support (POS) and coaches' job satisfaction and commitment mediate the relationship between procedural justice and OCBs. In other words, the method incorporated to make resource allocation decisions can influence the coaches' level of job satisfaction and commitment to the athletic department via POS, which will eventually influence other behavioral factors for the organization, such as organizational citizenship behaviors. For example, coaches who have a positive perception of fairness to the processes used to make outcome decisions are more likely to provide assistance to their athletic directors and departments through the enhanced psychological attitudes of the coaches such as job satisfaction and emotional commitment. Therefore, these results again suggest that athletic departments should focus on positively influencing procedural justice perceptions regarding resource allocations among teams in order to promote behaviors in coaches that can potentially enhance their teams' overall performance in the highly competitive world of intercollegiate athletics.

Given a limited budget, it is not an easy task for athletic departments to provide each team with sufficient financial resources, but the procedure of resource allocation utilized by athletic departments should be fair and transparent to each team, because what really impacts coaches' psychological well-being and behaviors is their perceived fairness toward the procedure used to determine the outcome rather than the outcome itself.

In addition to the aforementioned practical applications of the current study for athletic departments, important scholarly contributions were made. First, the current study attempted to create a scale of organizational justice in intercollegiate athletics. The creation and validation of the scale should assist research on the issue of justice in intercollegiate athletics. Second, this study attempted to examine three dimensions of organizational justice rather than distributive justice, although only distributive and procedural justice were used for further analyses due to a discriminant validity issue between procedural and interactional justice. Dimensions other than distributive justice had been somewhat overlooked to study fairness issues in intercollegiate athletics since there was only little research (Jordan et al., 2007) in the sport management literature. Finally, this study also empirically confirmed the relationship between organizational justice and these outcomes based on the target-specific social exchange relationship proposed by Lavelle et al. (2007).

Overall Conclusion

The results of this study did not fully support the hypotheses based on the current resource distribution system where football and men's basketball typically receive more financial support than non-revenue sports (Mahony & Pastore, 1998). The results revealed no significant main and interactional effects of sport type and participant gender on the perceived fairness

toward levels of athletic fund, but there were significant interactional effects of sport type and participant gender on the perceived fairness toward the procedures to make the final decisions on the athletic fund. This suggests that the coaches from men's high profile sports had higher fair perception in the category of procedural justice.

The results of the current study did not support the hypotheses regarding potential mediating effects of organizational justice between organizational justice and outcome variables on the basis of Porter and Steers' (1973) conceptualization. No mediating effects of met were found in any of the relationships. However, the results found the direct relationships between distributive justice and outcome satisfaction and procedural justice and POS and LMX, which are consistent with the findings of the related literature (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004; Eisenberger, 2002) based on social exchange theory.

In this study, between the two dimensions of justice examined, procedural justice turned out to be an important predictor of coaches' attitudes and behaviors. The results revealed that only procedural justice influenced coaches' levels of job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment through POS, although other research also found indirect (DeConinck & Stilwell, 2004; Tremblay & Roussel, 2001) and direct (Jordan et al., 2008; Jordan et al., 2009) impact of distributive justice on job satisfaction. Therefore, athletic departments should put more effort into ensuring that each team experiences fair treatment during the resource distribution process and in turn the efforts could have positive impact on coaches' attitudes.

Limitations and Future Research

The current study provided a unique contribution to the literature of sport management by exploring the consequences of organizational justice perceptions of collegiate coaches with respect to their current resource distribution systems. However, the limitations of the current study provide many opportunities for further research on the topic of organizational justice in the field of sport management.

First, this study was originally designed to include all three dimensions of organizational justice to examine fairness perceptions and their related outcomes for collegiate coaches, but the data related to interactional justice was not subjected to inferential statistics due to the lack of discriminant validity between the concepts of procedural justice and interactional justice. Therefore, this study was limited to analyzing only distributive and procedural justice. Since each dimension of organizational justice is expected to show different levels of associations with certain outcome variables (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001), a study examining all three dimensions of organizational justice may enhance our understanding of potential impacts on outcome variables. Future studies should include all three dimensions of organizational justice to examine their effects on outcome variables. For instance, Kim et al.'s (2008) studies dealing with student-athletes were limited to exploring perceptions of distributive justice; future research should consider all three dimensions of organizational justice.

Second, the measurements used for the present study were primarily adapted from the non-sport related literature. There might be limits to the generalizability of these measurements to intercollegiate athletics programs. If so, new scales that are specifically designed for sport settings must be created in order to reach a better understanding of how the concepts of

organizational behavior apply to sport organizations. The current study contributed to this cause by developing new scales for organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior in intercollegiate athletics. However, there were also limitations of the new scales. For example, the current study utilized Colquitt (2001)'s scale in order to create a new scale representing three dimensions of organizational justice, but Colquitt's scale did not include additional sub-principles of distributive justice such as equality and need identified and used by the previous studies (Kim et al., 2008; Mahony et al., 2002; 2005; 2006) other than equity. In fact, Kim et al. (2008) created Distributive Justice in Intercollegiate Athletics (DJIA) based on those three sub-principles. Future study should include the all of three sub-principles of distributive justice in order to reach a better understanding of the concept of organizational justice in the sport context. Although the newly developed scales for the current study could be used in future studies, the results of this study showed that there were discriminant validity issues with the scales developed to determine organizational justice and construct validity issues with the scales developed to determine organizational citizenship behaviors. These issues must be addressed before the scales undergo further use.

Third, future research could examine perceived fairness toward different foci (e.g., playing times of individual players) rather than monetary distribution, or could examine outcomes of organizational justice in intercollegiate athletics other than those that are attitudinal or behavioral in nature. For example, Whisenant and Smucker (2006) examined the relationship between high school student-athletes' perceived fairness concerning their coaches' behavior and subsequent team performance. In addition, Whisenant (2005) examined the relationship between high school student-athletes' perceptions of three dimensions of justice concerning their coaches'

behaviors and their subsequent intention to continue sport participation. The psychological attitude of athlete satisfaction (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997) could be studied according to its relationship with perceived fairness and intention to continue sport participation.

Fourth, future research should expand this study by examining issues of organizational justice not only in intercollegiate and high school athletics, but also in other contexts such as Olympic and professional level sports. Dittmore et al. (2009) investigated the perceived fairness of 39 National Governing Bodies (NGBs) toward Olympic financial resource allocation, supported by the United States Olympic Committee (USOC), and also explored the perceived fairness of the executive directors and the administrators of the NGBs toward their financial resource with the use of three hypothetical scenarios. Dittmore et al.'s (2009) study was limited to examining only distributive justice controlling for effect of procedural justice as a covariate; there is a strong need to examine both the outcomes of perceived fairness and other dimensions of organizational justice in the context of Olympics.

In the context of professional sports, payroll disparity exists among professional athletes based on their abilities. Future studies should explore the perceived fairness of professional athletes concerning their salaries and examine what influences the perception of unfair payroll disparity on professional sport teams. Several studies have examined the relationship between payroll and team performance (Hall & Zimbalist, 2002; Mizak & Anthony, 2004). However, those studies have examined the relationship based on economic perspectives rather than the concept of organizational justice. Therefore, there is a need to examine this relationship by assessing the extent to which athletes' psychological attitudes and behavioral outcomes are influenced by their perceived fairness of the disparity.

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Table 1: Numbers of samples from division, gender of sport, and type of sport

Category	Division		Gender of Sport		Type of Sport	
	I	400	Male	600	High-profile	600
	II	400	Female	600	Low-profile	600
	III	400				

Table 2: Items for Organizational Justice

Dimension	Item
Distributive Justice	1. My team's budget is consistent with the effort we put forth. 2. My team's budget is sufficient for what we need to do. 3. Given my team's record, my team's budget is justified. 4. My team's budget reflects what my team contributed to the school.
Procedural Justice	1. I feel free to express my opinions regarding resource allocation. 2. I can influence how the resource distribution is determined. 3. Resource allocation procedures are applied consistently across all sports 4. Resource allocation procedures are free of bias across all sports. 5. Recent resource allocation procedures were based on accurate information. 6. Our procedures uphold ethical and moral standards. 7. Coaches can appeal an allocation decision.
Interactional Justice	1. I feel my athletic director and I communicate well with each other. 2. My athletic director explained how the resource allocation decisions were made 3. The explanation provided by my athletic director concerning how resource allocation decisions were made was reasonable 4. I was treated in an appropriate manner by my athletic director 5. My athletic director was candid in communicating all resource allocation information 6. The information and decisions regarding the resource allocations were delivered in a timely manner.

Table 3: Items for Met-Expectation

Dimension	Item
Distributive Justice	1. My team's overall funding was what I expected it to be. 2. My team's budget is what I expected it to be.
Procedural Justice	1. The opportunity to express my views regarding budget were as I expected. 2. My influence over my team's resource allocations was what I expected it to be. 3. Overall, the process for setting my team's budget was what I expected it to be.
Interactional Justice	1. The athletic director's concern for my team's resource allocation was what I expected it to be. 2. Overall, I was treated as I expected to be treated. 3. During the budgeting process, my team was treated as I expected it to be treated. 4. I received feedback regarding our budget when I expected feedback.

Table 4: Items for Perceived Organizational Support

	Item
POS	1. My athletic department would forgive an honest mistake on my part. 2. My athletic department shows concern for me. 3. My athletic department is willing to help me if I need a special favor. 4. Help is available from my athletic department when I have a problem. 5. My athletic department strongly considers my goals and values. 6. My athletic department really cares about my well-being. 7. My athletic department cares about my opinions. 8. If given the opportunity, my athletic department would take advantage of me.

Table 5: Items for Foci Commitment

Item	
Athletic Department	1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my coaching career with my athletic department. 2. I really feel as if my athletic department's problems are my own. 3. I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my athletic department. 4. I feel "emotionally attached" to my athletic department. 5. I feel like "part of the family" in my athletic department. 6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. 7.
Athletic Director	1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my coaching career working with my athletic director. 2. I really feel as if my athletic director's problems are my own. 3. I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my athletic director 4. I feel "emotionally attached" to my athletic director. 5. I feel like "part of the family" with my athletic director. 6. My athletic director has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Table 6: Items for Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Item	
Athletic Department	1. I attend other sporting events to cheer other teams in my school. 2. I voluntarily participate in community services. 3. I keep abreast of news and changes in my athletic department. 4. I represent my school favorably in public. 5. I defend my athletic department when other colleagues complain about it. 6. I stand up to protect the reputation of my school. 7. I conserve and protect my school's property.
Athletic Director	1. I assist my athletic director with her/his work (when not asked). 2. I go out of way to help new colleagues adjust. 3. I am personally interested in other coaches' success. 4. I pass along information to colleagues. 5. I take time to listen to other coaches' problems and worries. 6. I stand up to protect the reputation of my school. 7. I help my co-workers when they seem overwhelmed.

Table 7: Participants from Each Division, Gender of Sport, and Profile of Sport

Category	Division	Gender of Sport		Profile of Sport	
I	55 (21.2%)	Male	107 (40.8%)	High-profile	94 (36.2%)
II	92 (35.3%)	Female	153 (59.2%)	Low-profile	166 (63.8%)
III	113 (43.5%)				

Table 8: Frequency and Percentage of Participants by Type of Sport

	Frequency	Percent
Basketball	70	26.9%
Soccer	36	13.9%
Volleyball	31	11.9%
Football	24	9.2%
Baseball	23	8.9%
Softball	21	8.1%
Tennis	13	5.0%
Lacrosse	11	4.2%
Field Hockey	10	3.9%
Hockey	9	3.5%
Wrestling	6	2.3%
Gymnastics	3	1.2%
Golf	2	0.8%
Swimming	1	0.4%

Table 9: Frequency and Percentage of Participants by Ethnicity

	Frequency	Percent
Caucasian	222	85.4%
African-American	17	6.5%
Hispanic/Latino	6	2.3%
Native American	3	1.2%
Pacific Islander	2	0.8%
Asian	2	0.8%
Other	7	2.7%
N/A	1	0.4%

Table 10: Means and Standard Deviations of Constructs by Type of Sport and Gender of Sport.

	Type of Sport						Gender of Sport			
	Total		High Profile		Low Profile		Male		Female	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SE</i>
Distributive Justice	3.64	1.63	3.74	1.70	3.58	1.60	3.57	1.69	3.68	1.60
Procedural Justice	4.41	1.46	4.72	1.46	4.23	1.43	4.60	1.36	4.27	1.51
Interactional Justice	4.60	1.47	4.85	1.46	4.45	1.46	4.82	1.28	4.44	1.57
Met-Expectation (DJ)	4.48	1.60	4.73	1.65	4.33	1.55	4.52	1.73	4.45	1.51
Met-Expectation (PJ)	4.82	1.33	5.12	1.30	4.65	1.32	4.93	1.38	4.75	1.30
Met-Expectation (IJ)	4.94	1.33	5.16	1.35	4.81	1.30	5.06	1.28	4.85	1.36
Outcome Satisfaction	4.72	1.32	4.85	1.33	4.64	1.31	4.66	1.32	4.76	1.32
POS	5.43	1.37	5.58	1.40	5.35	1.34	5.53	1.17	5.37	1.49
LMX	4.97	1.40	5.14	1.36	4.88	1.42	5.02	1.27	4.94	1.49
Job Satisfaction	5.99	.95	6.09	.95	5.97	.95	6.01	.99	5.97	.90
OCO	4.86	1.48	4.93	1.48	4.82	1.48	4.81	1.39	4.89	1.54
OCA	4.38	1.71	4.57	1.59	4.28	1.76	4.61	1.59	4.22	1.77
OCBO	6.45	.63	6.60	.60	6.36	.64	6.45	.60	6.44	.65
OCBA	6.07	.74	6.22	.66	5.98	.78	6.00	.72	6.11	.76

LMX= Leader-Member Exchange, POS = Perceived Organizational Support,
OCO = Commitment toward Athletic Department, OCA = Commitment toward Athletic Director, OCBO
= Organizational Citizenship Behaviors for Athletic Department, and OCBA = Organizational Citizenship
Behaviors for Athletic Director.

Table 11: Summary of the Results of the Original Measurement Model

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI
5286.097	2684	1.969	.061	.847

Table 12: Summary of the Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses for Constructs (Original)

Construct		Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha (α)	Construct Validity	Factor Loading	AVE
Organizational Justice	Distributive Justice	4	.888	.888	.776 - .841	.664
	Procedural Justice	7	.839	.847	.454 - .827	.452
	Interactional Justice	6	.904	.901	.699 - .856	.604
Met Expectation	Met-Expectation (DJ)	2	.928	.929	.906 - .956	.867
	Met-Expectation (PJ)	3	.850	.848	.753 - .869	.651
	Met-Expectation (IJ)	4	.893	.898	.734 - .908	.690
Outcome Satisfaction POS		4	.669	.627	.363 - .905	.393
		8	.932	.965	.427 - .922	.783
LMX Job Satisfaction		7	.940	.940	.738 - .901	.694
		5	.773	.811	.365 - .838	.478
Commitment	OCO	6	.926	.929	.611 - .919	.692
	OCA	6	.959	.960	.719 - .952	.804
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	OCBO	7	.753	.783	.445 - .694	.343
	OCBA	7	.796	.840	.477 - .724	.431

Note: LMX= Leader-Member Exchange, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, OCO = Commitment toward Athletic Department, OCA = Commitment toward Athletic Director, OCBO = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors for Athletic Department, and OCBA = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors for Athletic Director.

Table 13: Summary of the Results of the Final Measurement Model

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI
2450.067	1322	1.853	.057	.910

Table 14: Summary of the Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses for Constructs (Final)

Construct	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha (α)	Construct Validity	Factor Loading	AVE
Distributive Justice	4	.888	.889	.786 - .836	.666
Procedural Justice	4	.871	.842	.690 - .845	.573
Met-Expectation (DJ)	2	.928	.929	.913 - .950	.868
Met-Expectation (PJ)	3	.850	.850	.763 - .849	.654
POS	7	.955	.975	.651 - .923	.849
LMX	7	.940	.941	.734 - .898	.694
Job Satisfaction	4	.820	.835	.714 - .843	.562
OCO	6	.926	.930	.611 - .918	.691
OCA	6	.959	.961	.719 - .952	.804
OCBO	5	.751	.780	.582 - .696	.416
OCBA	6	.804	.839	.574 - .728	.467

Note: LMX= Leader-Member Exchange, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, OCO = Commitment toward Athletic Department, OCA = Commitment toward Athletic Director, OCBO = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors for Athletic Department, and OCBA = Organizational Citizenship Behaviors for Athletic Director.

Table 15: Correlations among Constructs and Cronbach Alphas

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	DJ	(.89)										
2	PJ	.62**	(.87)									
3	MDJ	.67**	.52**	(.93)								
4	MPJ	.61**	.70**	.80**	(.85)							
5	LMX	.41**	.64**	.41**	.63**	(.94)						
6	POS	.42**	.70**	.44**	.63**	.82**	(.96)					
7	OCO	.33**	.56**	.39**	.58**	.72**	.71**	(.93)				
8	OCA	.34**	.61**	.39**	.57**	.88**	.74**	.78**	(.96)			
9	JS	.22**	.40**	.22**	.37**	.40**	.45**	.57**	.38**	(.82)		
10	OCBO	.18*	.41**	.31**	.45**	.44**	.42**	.63**	.51**	.40**	(.75)	
11	OCBA	.14*	.33**	.27**	.34**	.34**	.35**	.53**	.40**	.29**	.87**	(.80)

Note: DJ= Distributive Justice, PJ. = Procedural Justice, MDJ = Met Expectation of Distributive Justice, MPJ = Met Expectation of Procedural Justice, LMX= Leader-Member Exchange, POS = Perceived Organizational Support, OCO = Commitment toward Athletic Department, OCA = Commitment toward Athletic Director, JS = Job Satisfaction, OCBO = OCBs for Athletic Department, and OCBA = OCBs for Athletic Director. *p < .05. ** p < .01.

Table 16: Summary of Results (Hypothesis 3 through 9)

Hypothesis	Proposition	Results
3	a Distributive justice will have a stronger impact on the level of outcome satisfaction than procedural justice and interactional justice	Accepted
	b Procedural justice will have a stronger impact on the level of perceived organizational support than distributive justice and interactional justice	Accepted
4	a Met expectations of distributive justice will mediate the relationship between distributive justice and outcome satisfaction	Rejected
	b Met expectations of procedural justice will mediate the relationship between procedural justice and perceived organizational support	Rejected
5	Outcome satisfaction will mediate the relationship between distributive justice and job satisfaction	Rejected
6	a Perceived organizational support will mediate the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction	Accepted
	b Perceived organizational support will mediate the relationship between procedural justice and affective organizational commitment	Accepted
8	a Affective organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization	Accepted
	b Affective organizational commitment will mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the organization	Accepted
9	a Affective supervisory commitment will mediate the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the supervisor	Accepted
	b Affective supervisory commitment will mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior directed toward the supervisor.	Rejected

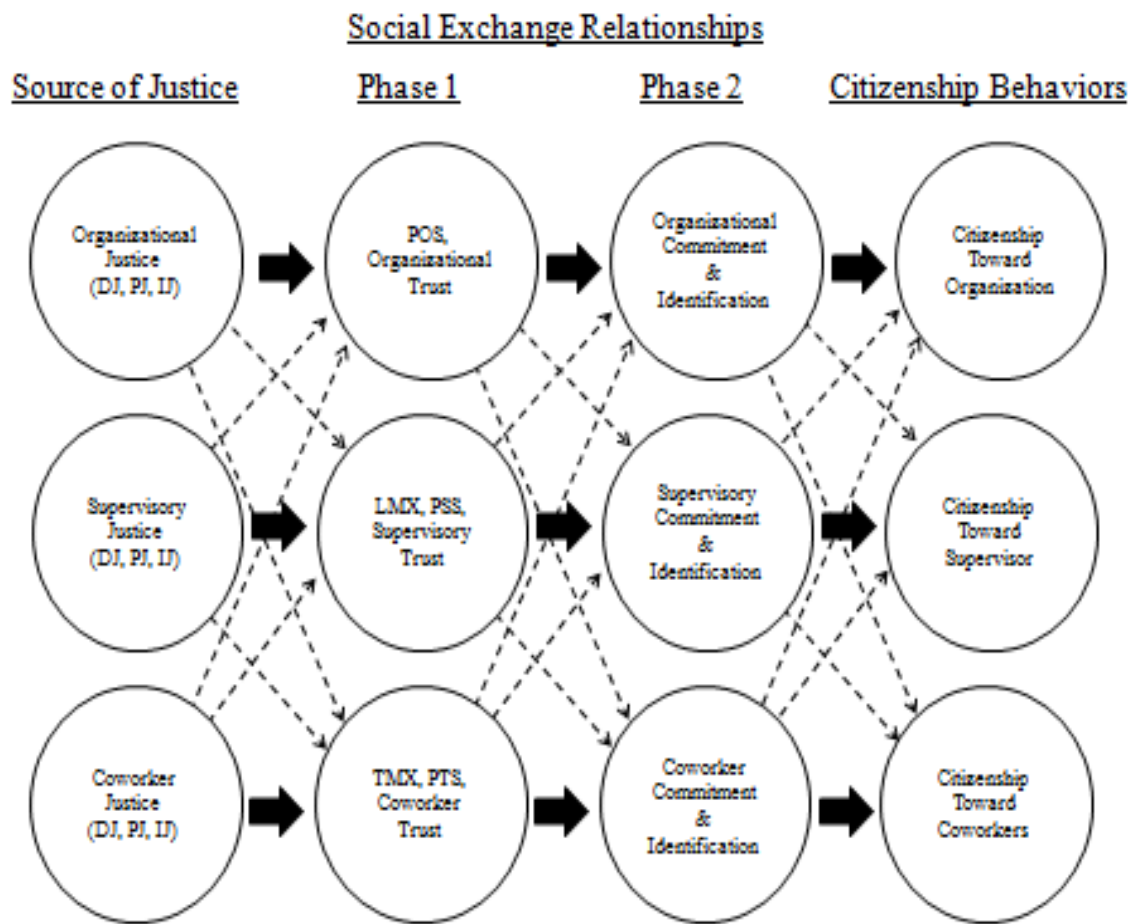


Figure 1: Target Similarity Model

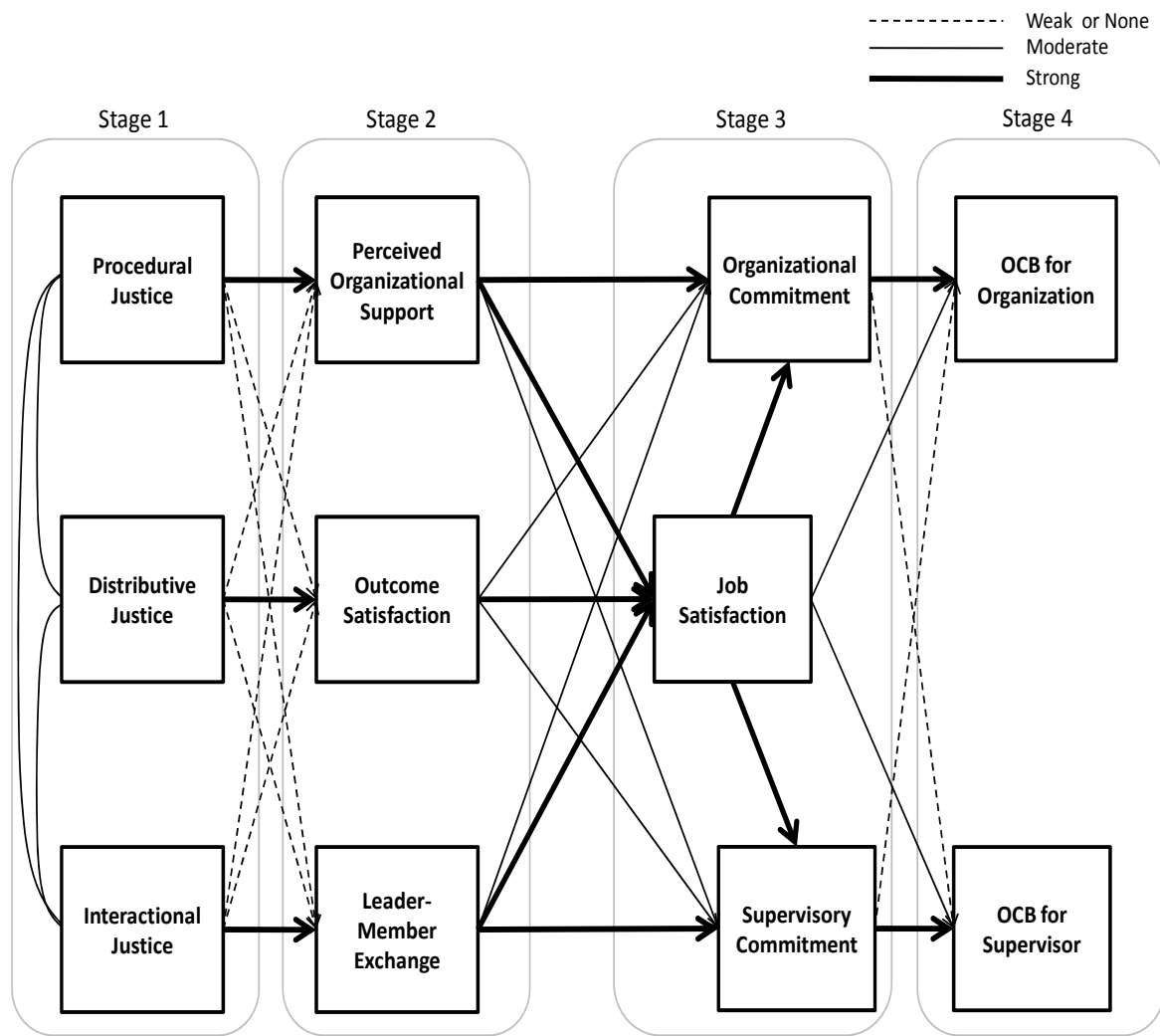


Figure 2: A Proposed Model of Outcomes of Organizational Justice

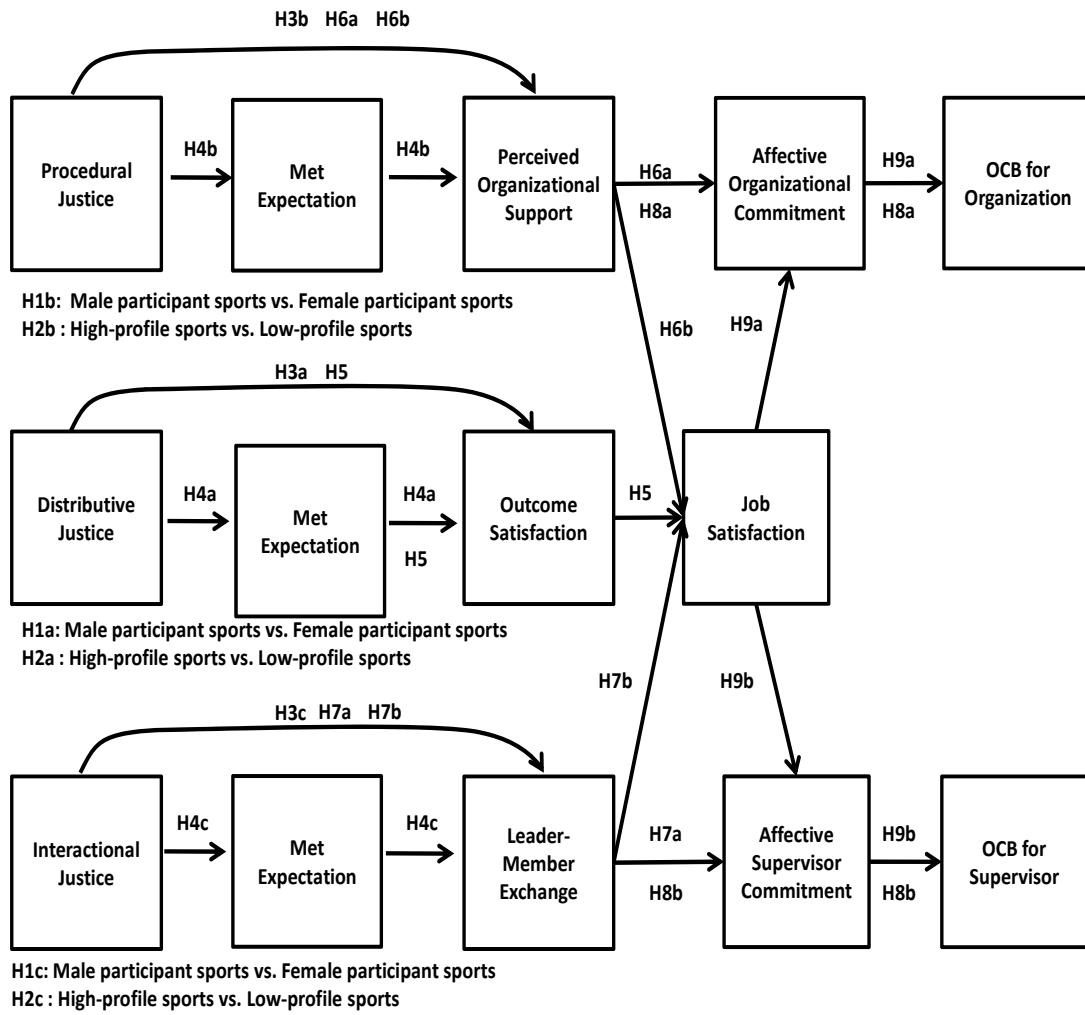


Figure 3: Hypotheses

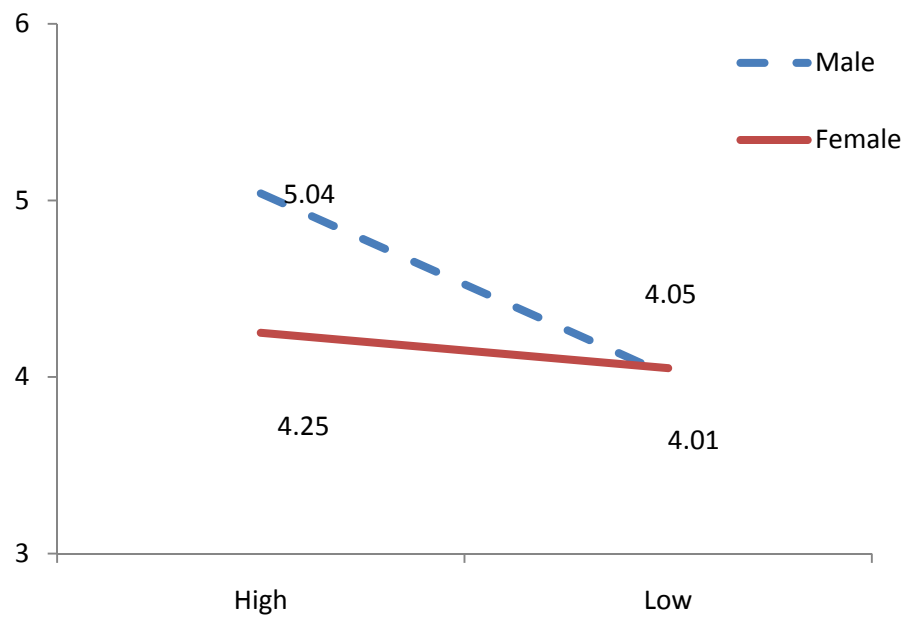


Figure 4: Interaction Effect between Profile of Sport and Gender of Sport on Procedural Justice

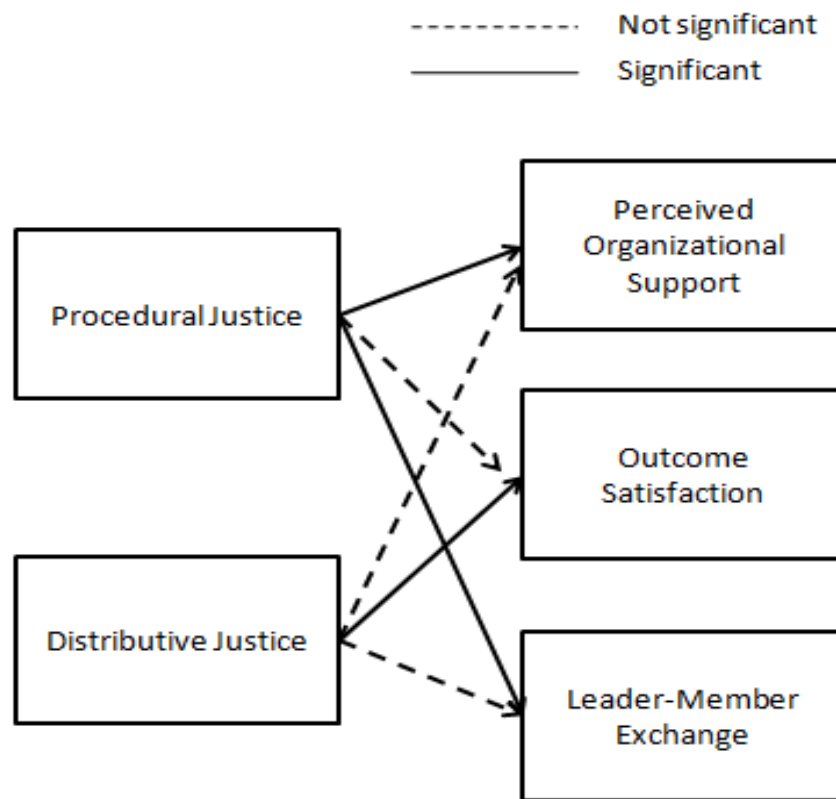


Figure 5: Influence of Organizational Justice on Outcome Variables at Social Exchange Stage

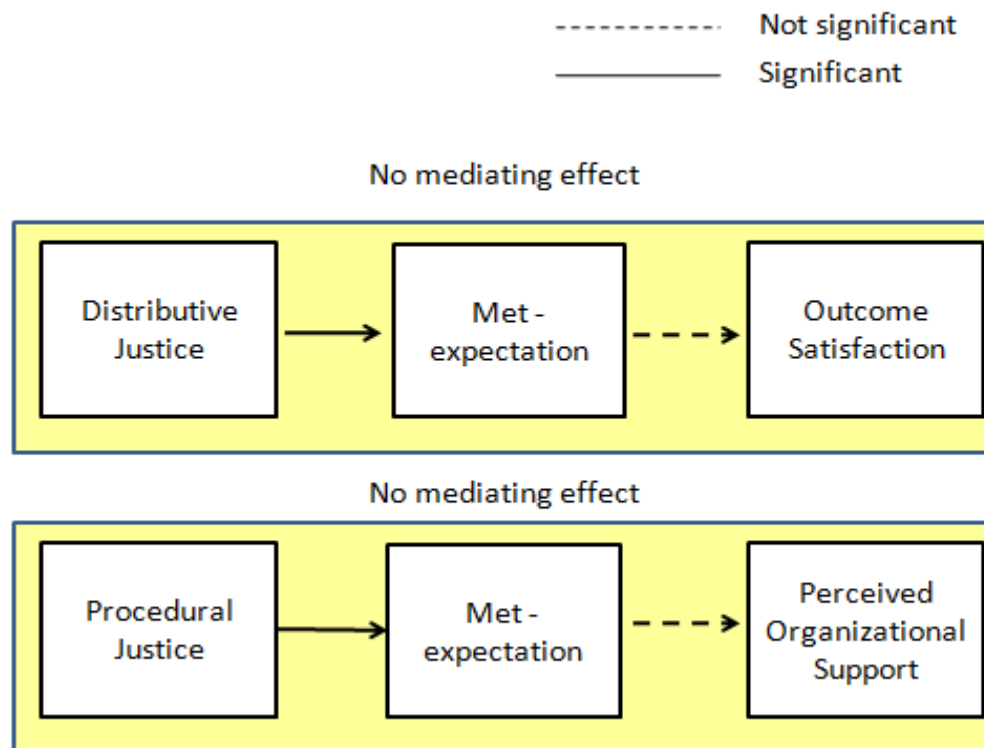


Figure 6: Mediating Effect of Met-expectation between Organizational Justice and Outcome Satisfaction and POS at Social Exchange Stage

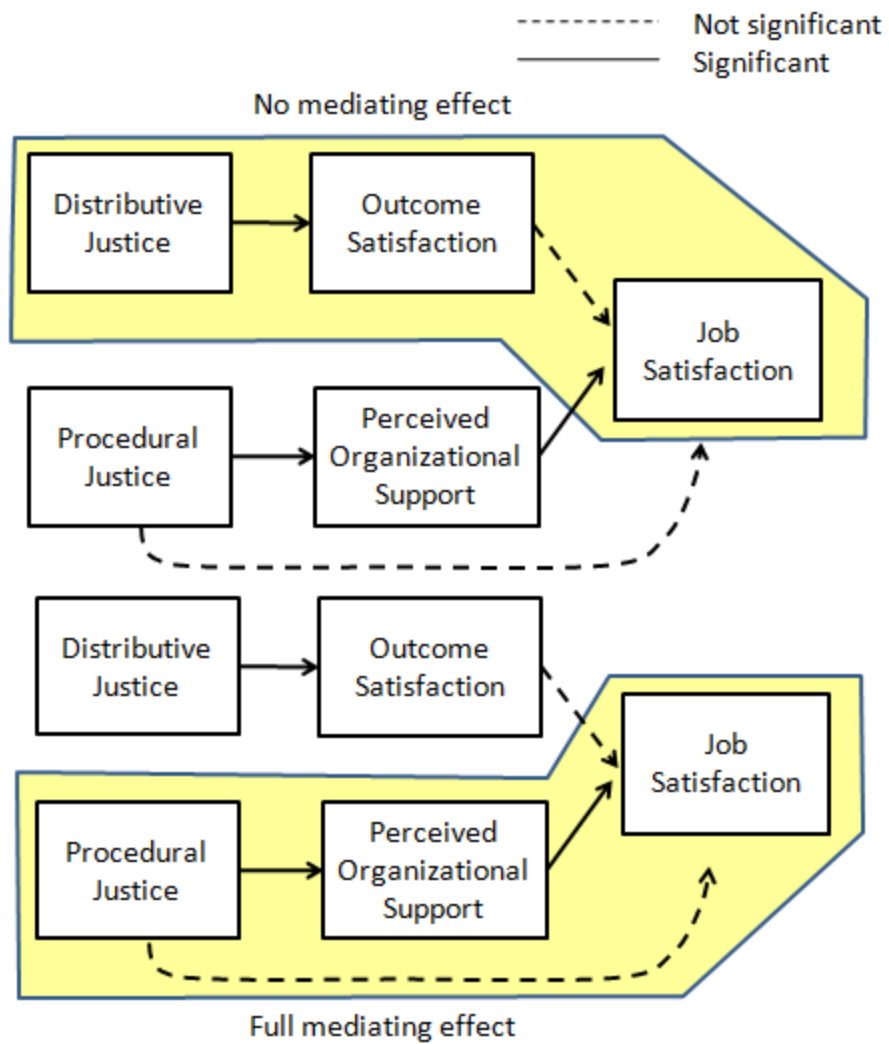


Figure 7: Impact of Organizational Justice on Job Satisfaction via Outcome Satisfaction and
 POS

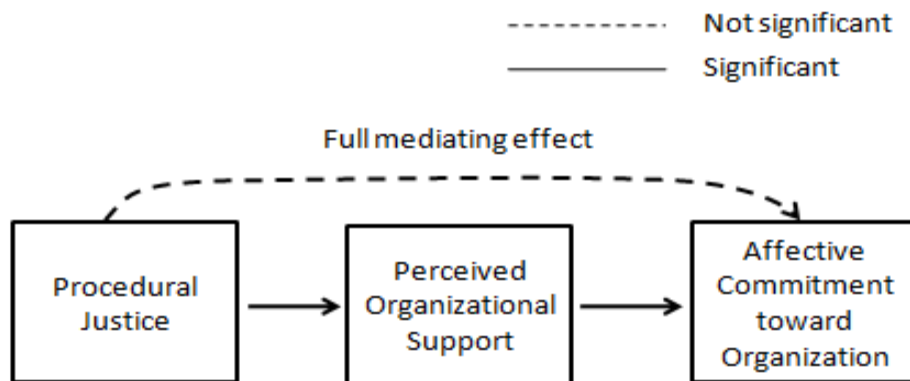


Figure 8: Impact of Organizational Justice on Affective Organizational Commitment via POS

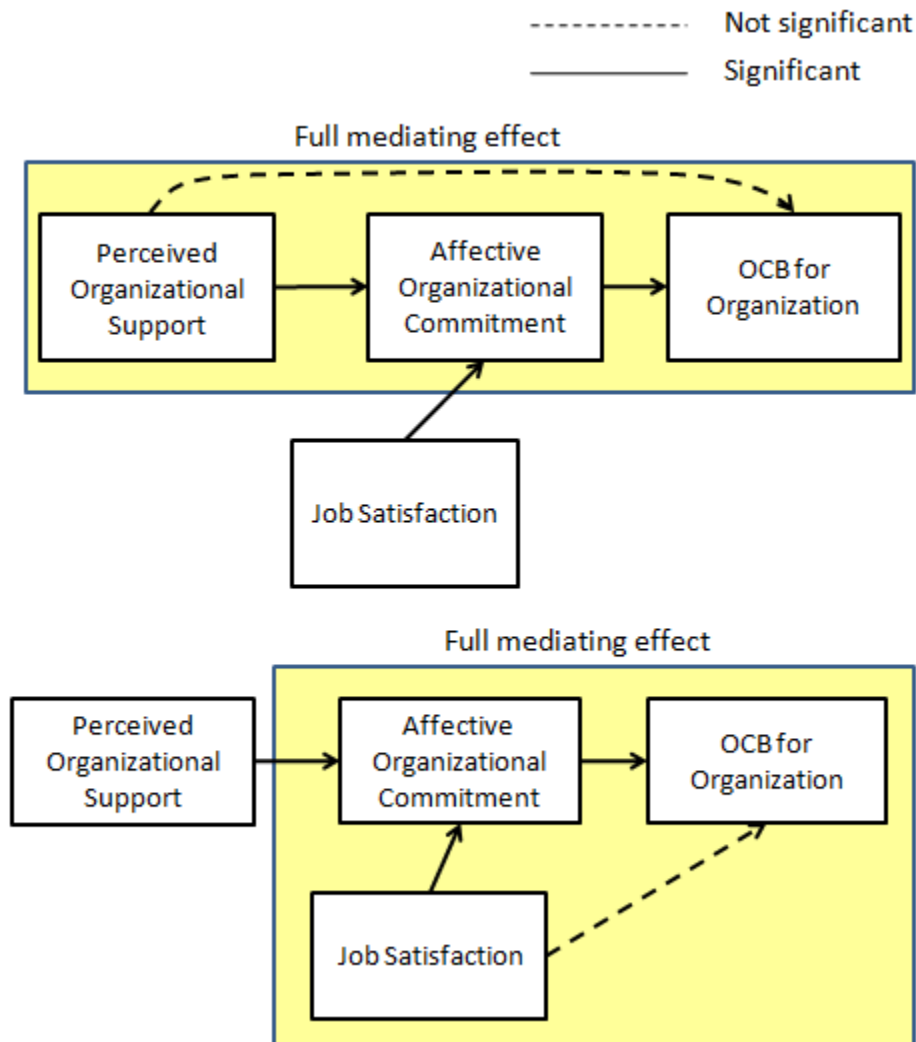


Figure 9: Influence of POS and Job Satisfaction on OCBs for Organization through Affective Organizational Commitment

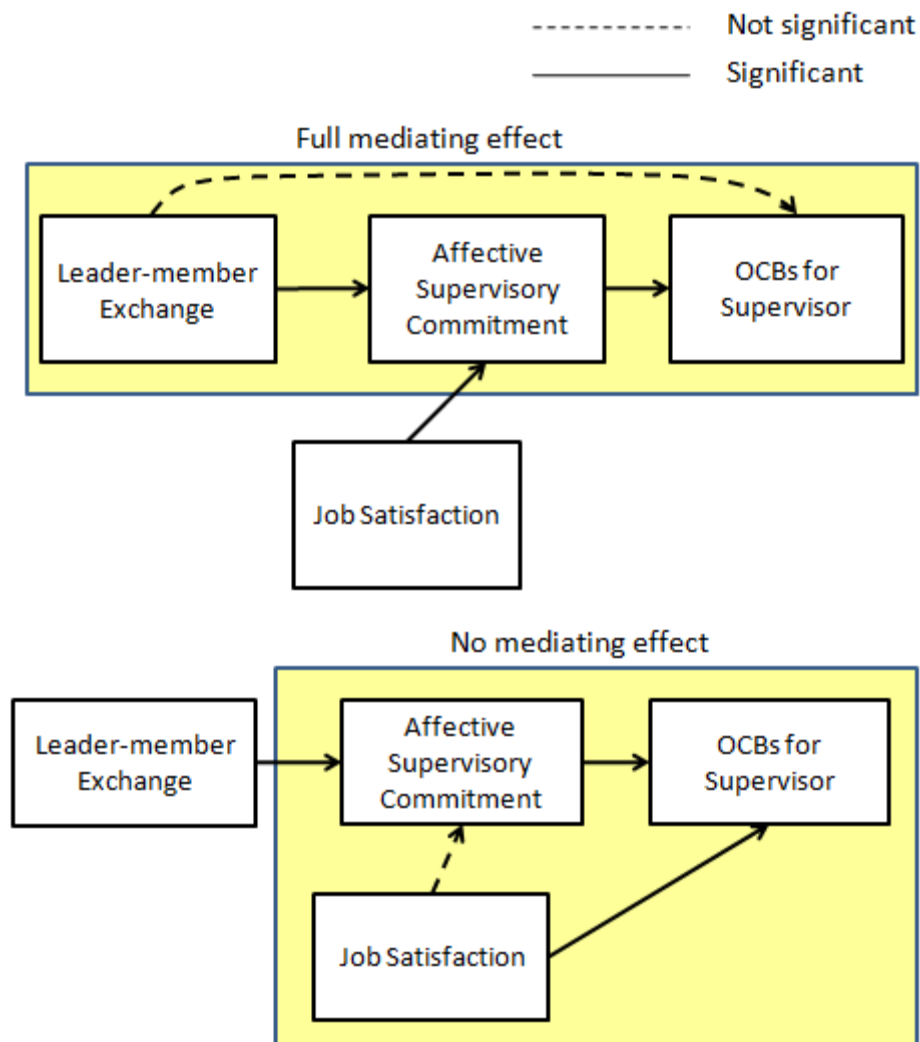


Figure 10: Influence of LMX and Job Satisfaction on OCBs for Supervisor through Affective Supervisory Commitment

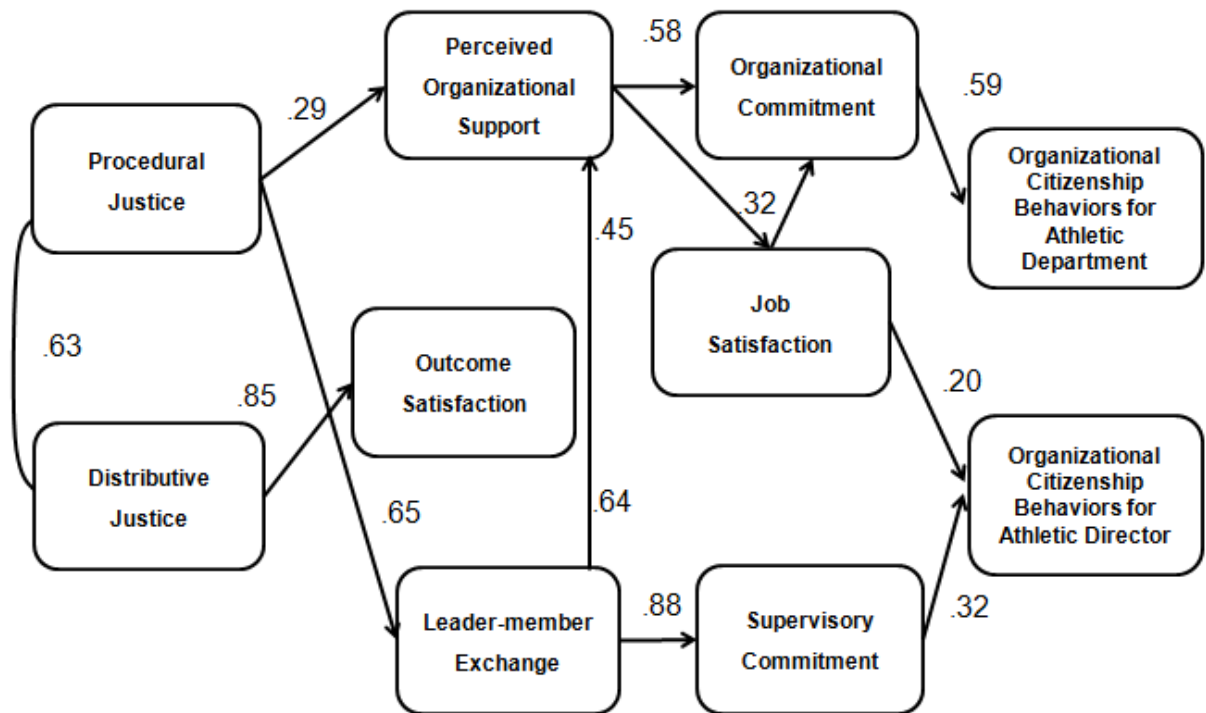


Figure 11: Final Model

APPENDIX A

Intercollegiate Athletics



Organizational Justice

* Every organization has a budget allocation process. Every team routinely has to operate within the constraints of that budget. For each of these items, please circle the most appropriate description of how you and your team deal with the budget issues on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) scale.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. My team's budget is consistent with the effort we put forth.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I feel free to express my opinions regarding resource allocation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. My team's budget is sufficient for what we need to do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I can influence how the resource distribution is determined.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I feel my athletic director and I communicate well with each other.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Resource allocation procedures are applied consistently across all sports.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Resource allocation procedures are free of bias across all sports.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. My athletic director explained how the resource allocation decisions were made.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. The explanation provided by my athletic director concerning how resource allocation decisions were made was reasonable.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Recent resource allocation procedures were based on accurate information.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Our procedures uphold ethical and moral standards.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. I was treated in an appropriate manner by my athletic director.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. My athletic director was candid in communicating all resource allocation information.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Given my team's record, my team's budget is justified.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Coaches can appeal an allocation decision.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. The information and decisions regarding the resource allocations were delivered in a timely manner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. My team's budget reflects what my team contributed to the school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Met-Expectation

* The following items relate to your expectations concerning your team's resource allocations. Specifically, the items relate to your initial expectations and the outcomes of resource allocation decisions, the procedures involved in making resource allocations, and how those final resource allocation decisions were communicated to you. Please note the following questions are in the form of rating scales, ranging from the lowest score of 1 (strongly disagree) to the highest score of 7 (strongly agree). Please circle one number for each item.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. My team's overall funding was what I expected it to be.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The opportunity to express my views regarding budget were as I expected.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The athletic director's concern for my team's resource allocation was what I expected it to be.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. My team's budget is what I expected it to be.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Overall, I was treated as I expected to be treated.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. My influence over my team's resource allocations was what I expected it to be.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. During the budgeting process, my team was treated as I expected it to be treated.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Overall, the process for setting my team's budget was what I expected it to be.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. I received feedback regarding our budget when I expected feedback.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Outcome Satisfaction

* Please note the following questions are in the form of rating scales, ranging from the lowest score of 1 (strongly disagree) to the highest score of 7 (strongly agree). Please circle the one number for the levels of outcome satisfactions related to resource distribution in intercollegiate athletics.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I am satisfied with the physical facility provided to my team.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I am satisfied with the medical personnel provided to my team.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I am satisfied with the academic support (i.e., tutor, counselors) provided to my team.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I am satisfied with the funding provided to my team.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Leadership Interaction

* Please note the following questions are in the form of rating scales, ranging from the lowest score of 1 to the highest score of 7. Please circle the one number for each level of leader member exchange

For the following question, 1 = Never, 3 = Seldom, 5 = Usually, and 7 = Always.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. How often do you know where you stand with your athletic director in terms of her/his satisfaction with what you do?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

* For the following question, 1 = Not at all, 3 = Some but not enough, 5 = Well enough, and 7 = Completely.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. How well do you feel that your athletic director understands your problems and needs?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

* For the following question, 1 = Not at all, 3 = Some but not enough, 5 = Well enough, and 7 = Fully.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. How well do you feel that your athletic director recognizes your potential?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

* For the following question, 1 = No chance, 3 = Might or might not, 5 = Probably, and 7 = Certainly.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. What are the chances your athletic director would be personally inclined to help you solve professional problems in your work?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

* For the following question, 1 = No chance, 3 = Might or might not, 5 = Probably, and 7 = Certainly.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. To what extent can you count on your athletic director to "bail you out" when you really need it?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

* For the following question, 1 = Probably not, 3 = Maybe, 5 = Probably, and 7 = Certainly.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I have enough confidence in my athletic director that I would defend and justify her/his decisions if he/she were not present to do so.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

* For the following question, 1 = Extremely Ineffective and 7 = Extremely effective.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your athletic director?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Organizational Support

* Please circle the one number for each level of perceived organizational support. **1 (strongly disagree)** to the **highest score of 7 (strongly agree)**.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. My athletic department would forgive an honest mistake on my part.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. My athletic department shows concern for me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. My athletic department is willing to help me if I need a special favor.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Help is available from my athletic department when I have a problem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. My athletic department strongly considers my goals and values.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. My athletic department really cares about my well-being.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. My athletic department cares about my opinions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. If given the opportunity, my athletic department would take advantage of me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Job Satisfaction

* Please note the following questions are in the form of rating scales, ranging from **the lowest score of 1 (strongly disagree)** to the **highest score of 7 (strongly agree)**. Please circle the one number for each level of job satisfactions.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☒	☐	☐
2. I feel satisfied with my present job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Each day at work seems like it will never end.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I find real enjoyment in my work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I consider my job rather unpleasant.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Affective Commitment toward Athletic Department

* Please note the following questions are in the form of rating scales, ranging from **the lowest score of 1 (strongly disagree)** to the **highest score of 7 (strongly agree)**. Please circle the one number for each level of commitment toward your organization.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my coaching career with my athletic department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I really feel as if my athletic department's problems are my own.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my athletic department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I feel "emotionally attached" to my athletic department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I feel like "part of the family" in my athletic department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Affective Commitment toward Athletic Director

* Please note the following questions are in the form of rating scales, ranging from **the lowest score of 1 (strongly disagree)** to the **highest score of 7 (strongly agree)**. Please circle the one number for each level of commitment toward your athletic director.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my coaching career working with my athletic director.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I really feel as if my athletic director's problems are my own.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my athletic director.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I feel "emotionally attached" to my athletic director.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I feel like "part of the family" with my athletic director.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. My athletic director has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

* Please note the following questions are in the form of rating scales, ranging from the lowest score of 1 (strongly disagree) to the highest score of 7 (strongly agree). Please circle the one number for each level of organizational citizenship behavior for your organization and athletic director.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I attend other sporting events to cheer other teams in my school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. I assist my athletic director with her/his work (when not asked).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. I voluntarily participate in community services.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. I go out of way to help new colleagues adjust.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. I keep abreast of news and changes in my athletic department.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. I am personally interested in other coaches' success.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. I pass along information to colleagues.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I represent my school favorably in public.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. I take time to listen to other coaches' problems and worries.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. I defend my athletic department when other colleagues complain about it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. I help my athletic director recruit for other sports.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. I stand up to protect the reputation of my school.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. I conserve and protect my school's property.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. I help my co-workers when they seem overwhelmed.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Demographics

*** The sport you are coaching:**

*** Gender of sport:**

☐ Male participant sport

☐ Female participant sport

*** Years of experience with your current team as a coach:**

*** Your coaching role:**

☐ Head coach

☐ Assistant/Associate coach

*** Your gender:**

☐ Male

☐ Female

*** Division:**

☐ Division I

☐ Division II

☐ Division III

*** Your nationality:**

*** Ethnicity/Race (Check One):**

☐ African-American

☐ Hispanic/Latino

☐ Asian

☐ Native American

☐ Asian-American

☐ Pacific Islander

☐ Caucasian

☐ Other

Any Comments

VITA

Seungmo Kim was born on September 14, 1974 in Seoul, South Korea. He received a B.E. in Industrial Engineering in 1999 at the Kon-Kuk University, Seoul, South Korea. He received a M.A. in Sport and Exercise Management at the Ohio State University, Columbus, OH in 2005. Seungmo came to the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN to pursue his doctorate in Exercise and Sport Sciences with a specialization in Sport Management in 2006. At the University of Tennessee, he taught Human Resource Management in Sport Organizations and Orientation to Sport Management as well as various physical activity classes. He received a Ph.D. in Exercise and Sport Sciences with a minor in Statistics in December of 2009.