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Slowing the Coaching Carousel: The Benefits of Person-Organization Fit

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The following is an examination of the importance Person-Organization Fit (PO Fit) can play in the policies and procedures of sport organizations, specifically with coaches in intercollegiate athletic departments. Three hundred three randomly selected members of coaching staffs at the NCAA Division I, II, and III levels participated in the study. Hierarchical regressions and mean difference tests were determined in order to test three hypotheses. Specifically, perceptions of PO Fit, turnover intention, job satisfaction, and affective commitment were tested. In all, the authors found there were particular variables of PO Fit that predicted turnover intention, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. Furthermore, these variables changed based on the gender of the team. Coaches of male teams were found to have higher mean scores of PO Fit variables, but coaches of female teams had higher job intention. The discussion focuses both on possible reasons for such differences and also on important takeaways for coaches and athletic administrators alike. Limitations and suggestions for future research are provided.

Keywords: job intention, commitment, job satisfaction, turnover

Person-Organization Fit (PO Fit) is a construct that provides an explanation for how well an employee matches or fits in with his or her organization. Kristof (1996) positioned the variable to demonstrate the compatibility between employee and organization. Chatman (1991) defined the construct as “The congruence between patterns of organizational values and patterns of individual values” (p. 459). As such, the construct is purported to help scholars understand the degree of shared values between the employee and the organization. In turn, the value congruence between employee and organization might serve as a function to predict various employee outcome variables (i.e., turnover intentions, commitment, job satisfaction). This scholarship examines the impact of PO Fit in relation to turnover intentions, commitment, and job satisfaction.

To give a concrete example of the impact of having high levels of Person-Organization fit, consider Coach Rich Rodriguez and his job changes from West Virginia to Michigan to Arizona. While Rodriguez’ teams at West Virginia University finished in the top 10 of the Coaches’ Poll in three straight years, Rodriguez’ tenure ended relatively prematurely in part because of a poor fit with administration (Bartel, 2013). Such a departure had financial ramifications for Rodriguez, the University of Michigan, and West Virginia University; because of a \$4 million liquidation damages clause in his contract at West Virginia, Rodriguez paid West Virginia \$1.5 million and the University of Michigan paid \$2.5 million (Karcher, 2009). After three tumultuous seasons at the University of Michigan that included losing, poor interactions with administration and fans, NCAA sanctions, and backlash from players, Rodriguez was fired. One year later, he was hired as the head football coach at the University of Arizona. (Brett, 2014; Gimino, 2014). After winning the Pac-12 South division title in 2014 and the Pac 12 Coach of the Year award, Rodriguez was lauded for his on-field success (Gimino, 2014).

The recent career arc of Rich Rodriguez provides a relevant popular press foundation for further exploring the role of PO Fit for college coaches and their respective athletic departments. However, it is important to examine PO Fit by including coaches from all three NCAA Divisions and not solely with “high profile” sports. Kim and Andrew (2013) argued for the importance of coaches’ perceptions of organizational justice based on whether a coach is a coach of a high profile sport or low profile sport. We believe looking at an organization through PO Fit is similar to looking at organizational justice in that both measure how an individual perceives it is treated within an organization. Kim and Andrew (2013) specifically examined at how coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams differed in their perceptions of their environment. To date, literature points to a consistent issue with employee turnover within NCAA athletics (O’Connor & Bennie, 2006; Raedeke, Warren, & Granzyk, 2002) but there is currently a void in examining how such turnover intentions may vary between coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams. Kim and Andrew (2013) hypothesized that coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams would differ in their ratings of organizational and distributive justice because of how resource distribution differs between male and female sports. Additionally, Kim and Andrew (2013) indicated a need for further research examining distinctions between coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams.

The current study examines PO Fit with coaches from all three NCAA Divisions (I, II, and III). In order to understand the methodological approach undertaken in this study, it is important to not only briefly describe the structure of each of the three divisions but to also detail

the impact “high profile” sports may have in explaining differences in PO Fit between coaches. At the Division I level, there are approximately 350 institutions. Division I institutions “generally have the biggest student bodies, manage the largest athletics budgets and offer the most generous number of scholarships” (“About NCAA”, 2015, para. 2). At the Division II level, the 300 member institutions have fewer athletics scholarships to distribute to their student-athletes and their athletics departments typically operate with smaller budgets than their Division I counterparts (“About NCAA”, 2015). The Division III level is larger in terms of institutions and student-athletes than both the Division I and Division II levels. There are nearly 450 Division III institutions providing opportunities for 170,000 student-athletes. Student-athletes at the Division III level are not allowed to receive scholarships based on athletic merit. Generally, Division III athletics departments and their student-athletes are more fully integrated into the general campus community (“About NCAA”, 2015).

While it is important to understand the basic distinctions between the NCAA divisions, it is also important to detail why coaches of male teams may face different pressures than coaches of female teams. Specifically, the role in the athletics department of a coach of a male team may differ from the role of a coach of a female team. The NCAA itself has acknowledged the unique power of football and men’s basketball to generate publicity for the institution (NCAA, 2014). The athletics department often serves as the “front porch” for many colleges and universities and is used as a tool to attract students and increase publicity for the university (Bass, Schaeperkoetter, & Bunds, 2015). Further, we argue the role of a coach is likely to be different for different sports. Another such distinction is whether the coach instructs a male team or a female team. Overall, a coach who is involved with a sport that has high expectations for visibility, revenue production, or entertainment – such as popular male sports (NCAA, 2014) – is likely to face different job pressures than a coach who is not involved with such sports. For instance, a football coach at a Division I institution may coach a team that generates more publicity than the coach of a Division III football team (“About NCAA”, 2015). However, we surmise that the distinction between men’s and women’s sports is similar across NCAA divisions because coaches are comparing their fit within their respective athletics department. This position is supported by past scholarship involving coaches at different NCAA levels (cf. Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). As such, it is appropriate to compare the PO Fit of coaches of male teams to coaches of female teams while grouping together NCAA divisions. Thus, we posit that in respect to other coaches within an athletics department, coaches of male teams will face different expectations than coaches of female teams. Moreover, we hypothesize there could be differences between coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams that could be explained by PO Fit variables.

PO Fit variables between coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams may differ due to distinct job expectations (e.g. generating revenue, providing entertainment for fans, resource allocations, etc.) (Kim & Andrew, 2013). Kim and Andrew (2013) found coaches of male teams had higher perceptions of procedural justice than coaches of female teams. We argue such a research line is important for laying the foundation for further exploration of value differences between coaches and their organizations, particularly in regards to coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams of intercollegiate sport programs.

Finally, the purpose of this study is two-fold. First, we hope to build on the theoretical underpinnings of PO Fit as it pertains to coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams at the NCAA level. The second purpose of this study is to provide practical advice for both coaches and athletic administrators so that employees are more satisfied with their jobs, more committed,

and have less turnover intentions. To do so, the relationship between coaches' PO Fit levels and various employee outcome variables were examined. Past empirical evidence supports a possible connection between PO Fit and commitment (Cable & DeRue, 2002), lower employee turnover (Amos & Weathington, 2008), and job satisfaction (Cable & DeRue, 2002). In the literature review, studies are reviewed that suggested PO Fit may improve an organization by having employees' values aligned with the organization's values. Further, specific variables related to organizational behavior outcomes (i.e., commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention) will be discussed. Based on the theoretical knowledge of the variables, hypotheses were created and empirically tested in order to better understand why many coaches leave their job. Additionally, hypotheses address if PO Fit can be used to ward off turnover intentions and to improve job satisfaction and commitment. Thus, we propose the following hypotheses:

H1: Perceptions of greater PO Fit will significantly predict turnover intention, job satisfaction, and organizational (affective) commitment levels of coaches.

H2: There will be differences among the relationships between PO Fit and the corresponding degree of turnover intention, job satisfaction, and commitment for coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams.

H3: The differences in job environments across different teams will demonstrate differences between the groups of coaches of male teams and female teams with regards to PO Fit, turnover intention, job satisfaction, organizational identification, and commitment variables.

Literature Review

The literature review covers several critical areas as it relates to the current examination. First, the large amount of turnover in the coaching profession is discussed. Second, a general explanation of PO Fit and how it is related to values and priorities ensues. Then, past scholarship that supports hiring coaches based upon PO Fit is reviewed. Lastly, the proposed outcome variables and related variables are discussed. These variables include organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover, and identity. Each variable is individually reviewed.

Coaches' Turnover

Before delving into the underpinnings of PO Fit, it is important to illustrate the far-reaching ramifications PO Fit can have on athletic departments, based largely on the high turnover rates in NCAA coaching positions. Knight, Rodgers, Reade, Mrak, and Hall (2015) noted the influence of the work environment on coaches' turnover intentions. This is an important topic due to the occurrence of high turnover in the coaching ranks (O'Connor & Bennie, 2006; Raedeke, Warren, & Granzky, 2002). Turnover has been found to be detrimental to the organization (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000; Watrous, Huffman, & Pritchard, 2006) and specifically harmful to sport organizations (Inglis, Danylchuk, & Pastore, 1996). Thus, it would be beneficial for coaches to find an organization where they feel comfortable and thus have low turnover intentions. This thought is supported via previous research that explores turnover from coaches' points of view (i.e., Raedeke et al., 2002; Wang & Callahan, 1997). As an example of coaches' turnover, Harrison, Lapchick, and Janson (2009) examined the turnover of intercollegiate football coaches. Between 2003 and 2008, over three-fourths of the BCS schools

and over half of the FCS schools replaced just their football head coach. This rate indicates there may not be enough consideration given in the hiring process to ensure the future employee/coach fits the culture.

Coaches leave or are terminated for a variety of reasons, including leaving for a better organization, leaving for personal reasons, getting fired for poor on-field performance, or leaving because of an off-field scandal (Hambrick, Bass, & Schaeperkoetter, 2014). A common reason for dismissal involves winning percentage or lack thereof. Out of the men's basketball and football coaches fired at Division I institutions, their average win percentage was 51%, and there have been 68% of schools who replaced their head football coach in a five-year span (Holmes, 2011). As a university increases revenue expenditures in athletics, the performance expectations are subsequently increased (Padilla & Baumer, 1994). Poor recruiting and/or contract pressures pose several indicators of why winning percentage might be lower than what is expected. Langelett (2003) put forth a model indicating a top 10 recruiting class will translate into a highly ranked football team over a four-year period.

Several research studies examined job commitment and job satisfaction at either the Division III level or at a level that combines data from Division I, Division II, and Division III. In a study exploring Division III coaches' ratings of the impact of athletic director leadership styles on job commitment, it was found that transformational leadership was related to organizational outcomes and job satisfaction (Burton & Peachy, 2009). Combining responses from Division I, Division II, and Division III coaches, Dixon and Sagas (2007) examined job satisfaction in relation to organizational support and work-family conflict. It was found that administrators who reduce family-work conflict and support their coaches positively impact both job satisfaction and overall life satisfaction. In a separate study measuring both Division I and Division III coaches' commitment to their university, Turner and Chelladurai (2005) found employees who were invested into the organization and perceived lesser employment opportunities elsewhere were less likely to leave; their organizational commitment was related to turnover intention. Furthermore, organizational commitment did not differ significantly between the Division I coach and Division III coach subgroups (Turner & Chelladurai, 2005). Such findings indicate that, while the financial models across NCAA Division I, II, and III levels may differ, it is still practical to group together Division I, Division II, and Division III coaches.

PO Fit

PO Fit is the "compatibility between people and the organizations in which they work" (Kristof, 1996, p. 1). Instilling a PO Fit mindset in the organization's hiring process might help to ensure a more lasting and dually beneficial relationship between the employee (coach) and the organization (Caplan, 1987; Edwards, 1991; Pastore, Inglis, & Danylchuk, 1996). Additionally, understanding this dynamic should empower both coaches and organizations to be aware of what specifically to look for in the job search and hiring process. A good fit between the person and the organization during hiring processes is associated with the quality of employment once the hiring process is complete (Saks & Ashforth, 2002). A lack of PO Fit might produce negative consequences for organizations in that turnover rates could increase and as a result increase costs associated with hiring and training new employees (Inglis et al., 1996).

Relatedly, fit is then the congruence between the workplace environment and the employee (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). The degree by which people are matched to a job depends on their motives, needs, and the specific requirements of the job itself (Hackman & Oldham,

1980). Such a match, or fit, is important because “achieving high levels of PO Fit through hiring and socialization is often touted as the key to retaining a workforce with the flexibility and organizational commitment necessary to meet these competitive challenges” (Kristof, 1996, p. 1). Another perspective of PO Fit is described as the organization satisfying the needs, desires, and wants of the employee and the employee satisfying the demands and abilities of the organization (Caplan, 1987; Edwards, 1991). Munchinsky and Monahan (1987) further defined PO Fit as value congruence, goal congruence, needs-supplies fit, and demands-abilities fit. In turn, employees are more likely to remain with an organization if there is compatibility between the work climate of the organization and the person’s values and needs (Ambrose, Arnaud, & Schminke, 2008; Crosset, Filo, & Berger, 2011; Cullen, Parboteeah & Victor, 2003; Schminke, Ambrose, & Neubaum, 2005; Sims & Kroeck, 1994). In this light, PO Fit (i.e., the congruence of goals) may serve as a retention factor for organizations. Such identification of retention factors may allow for the facilitation of a proper environment for coaches to feel comfortable, thus promoting retention (Pastore et al., 1996).

The PO Fit process is designed to maximize productivity by effectively optimizing efficiency from both the person and the organization (Saks & Ashforth, 2002). With this premise in mind, and with the effective implementation of PO Fit practices, the relationship between the person and the organization should be mutually beneficial. It is also important to note using PO Fit in the hiring process is not just based on assessing ability and demands, but it is also relevant for matching the future employee’s values with the values of the organization (Cable & Judge, 1996). In line with these ideas, Boxx, Odom, and Dunn (1991) asserted that value congruence should be seen as the primary component of PO Fit.

Hiring Coaches Based Upon PO Fit

Companies and organizations obviously want their future employees to be productive, but the organization needs to make sure its own values align with the values of the employees. As an example, Silva, Hutcheson, and Wahl (2010) found a desire to stay with the organization positively correlated with alignment of values during a PO Fit hiring process. Next, Kristof (1996) surmised there are four different means of operationalization for PO Fit used by professionals today to understand a possible connection. The first and most frequently used operationalization is congruence between individual and organizational values (Posner, 1992). The second operationalization used is goal congruence with organizational leaders and the organization as a whole (Vancouver, Millsap, & Peters, 1994). With goal congruence, the organization must hire employees whose goals align with the goals of the organization. The third operationalization consisted of a needs-supplies perspective whereby fit is viewed as the match of individual preferences and organizational systems and structures (Turban & Keon, 1993). The needs-supplies perspective is a mutually beneficial partnership for both parties and will help provide a longer tenure for the employees. The last operationalization considered describes PO Fit as an alignment between the facets of an individual and the organizational environment (Burke & Tescza, 1982). Environment is an important factor for all employees to be comfortable, specifically with coaching (Knight et al., 2015).

Chelladurai, Inglis, & Danylchuk (1984) developed a scale to measure the priorities and values of intercollegiate athletics department employees and how those affect an organization’s development of goals. For the purposes of this study, five important subscales (Entertainment, Financial, Value of Athletes, Prestige, Achieved Excellence) are compared to three chosen

dependent variables (satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention). The subscales each reflect a value that might be held by a coach or administrator of college athletics. In turn, the difference of priority placed on each value can be used as a proxy for level of PO Fit (Chatman, 1991). First, the entertainment subscale denotes how much one values and prioritizes the entertainment aspect of sport. Chelladurai et al. (1984) asserted that different scholars argued whether or not entertainment is and should be an objective of athletics programs. Thus, there might be differences among coaches. Next, the financial subscale examines the value placed on a sport's ability to generate revenue. In the breakdown of the objectives and organizational goals of an athletics program, Chelladurai et al. (1984) asserted, "An institution may view its athletic team as a means of generating revenue for the benefit of the athletic program and the university as a whole" (p. 76). The value of athletes' dimension represents how athletes' growth is prioritized. In regards to the value of the athlete's personal growth, there is a strong link between athletics and "psychological growth, social development, and emotional adjustment" (Chelladurai et al., 1984, p. 76).

The next subscale is prestige, and it is related to the notoriety sport teams can bring to a university. Within this point, Chelladurai et al. (1984) argued that universities use athletics as a tool to enhance their prestige. Lastly, the excellence dimension is focused on the value placed on a sports' ability to represent the university with outstanding performances. Acknowledging there is debate over whether or not athletes and teams have already achieved excellence by mastering a sport, the authors indicate, "Pursuit of excellence is indeed the most often cited and the most emphasized objective of intercollegiate athletics" (Chelladurai et al., 1984, p. 76). As PO Fit is essentially value congruence (Chatman, 1991), Chelladurai et al.'s (1984) scale can be adapted to serve as a means to measure PO Fit as the given constructs can be operationalized to be values held by coaches and administrators. Further, the context (i.e., college sport) of Chelladurai et al.'s (1984) measure makes it particularly relevant.

Several other scholars have also researched the impact of PO Fit on organizations. For instance, Silva et al. (2010) hypothesized employees' perceptions of organizational strategy predicted their commitment to their organization and their intentions to stay with the organization. Moreover, these authors suggested that organizational decision-making based on PO Fit and value alignment can positively benefit the organization. Rynes (1987) discussed the notion that if pay were structured based purely on organizational culture and goals, an employee's alignment with pay would actually be a reflection of the person's fit with the organization itself. Thus, PO Fit hiring processes might help to ensure greater productivity and increase the tenure for coaches hired.

Other Variables Related to PO Fit

Organizational commitment. Turner and Chelladurai (2005) remarked that Meyer and Allen (1991) offer the most accepted definition of organizational commitment. They created a three-component conceptualization- affective, normative, and continuance of organizational commitment. Affective commitment is "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment in the organization because they want to do so" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). The other components include normative commitment (i.e., obligation) and continuance (i.e., cost of leaving the organization) (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Organizational commitment has

been found to have a positive impact on value congruence (i.e., PO Fit) (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Caldwell, Herold, & Fedor, 2004; Goodman & Svyantek, 1999).

Job satisfaction. Defined, job satisfaction is "...the feelings a worker has about his or her job or job experiences in relation to previous experiences, current expectations, or available alternatives" (Balzer et al., 1997, p. 10). For the purposes of this study, job satisfaction is simply the concept of contentment that an employee may or may not derive from their employment. Past research has found values related to the job (i.e., PO Fit) aided coaches' satisfaction with their job (Smucker & Whisenant, 2005). Other scholars also found a positive link between value congruence (i.e., PO Fit) and job satisfaction (e.g., Adkins & Caldwell, 2004; Amos & Weathington, 2008; Cable & DeRue, 2002; Goodman & Svyantek, 1999).

Turnover. Organizational turnover is an important topic in management literature due to its potentially serious negative outcomes (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000; Watrous et al., 2006). Some of these negative outcomes are related to declining productivity and low morale in organizations (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000). The dysfunction disrupts the efficiency of the organization (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000), and thus affects organizational performance (Watrous et al., 2006). Ivancevich (as cited in Abbasi & Hollman, 2000) provided a study that estimated the costs associated with involuntary and voluntary turnover in American industry to be approximately \$11 billion annually. The costs associated with turnover include both visible and hidden costs, such as disruption of workflow, vacancy costs, and erosion of morale. Abbasi and Hollman (2000) explained that some of the hidden costs could be related to the tendency for the most skilled employees to be the most likely to leave due to their acquired mobility from their skill and talent being highly coveted by other organizations. When employees leave, their human capital and learned skills leave with them, which often result in output delays (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000). Turnover also causes high costs because of the expenses associated with recruiting and training new employees, and turnover disrupts the workflow of the sport organization (Inglis et al., 1996). Relatedly, past scholars noted the negative correlation between value congruence (i.e., PO Fit) and turnover or quitting intentions (Amos & Weathington, 2008; Cable & DeRue, 2002; Caldwell et al., 2004).

Identity. Social identity is the phenomenon in which an individual realizes he or she belongs to a social group, thus placing emotional significance with the association (Heere & James, 2007). Tajfel (1978) described social identity theory as an individual's self-concept, which is taken from the knowledge of inclusion within the social group along with the importance of the emotional attachment with the membership. Organizational identity is a form of social identity (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Ashforth and Mael (1989) explained that organizational identity is a perception of membership to an organization, essentially when one feels they belong to the organization. Further, while related, organizational identity is distinctly different than organizational commitment (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Cable and DeRue (2002) found a strong link between organizational identity and PO Fit. They posited that employees who noted a 'fit' with their organization were likely to share in the same values as the organization.

Overall, this literature on PO Fit, coaching turnover, job satisfaction, and the expenses associated with the hiring process provides a base for exploring how coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams may have different variables that contribute to PO Fit. A better understanding of such relationships will build on the theoretical underpinnings of PO Fit, could potentially fill a void in the literature regarding differing values for coaches and can provide practical advice for coaches and administrators looking to build better employer-employee relationships while simultaneously decreasing the costs associated with high turnover.

Method

Participants

Following Institutional Review Board approval, we explored the issue of PO Fit among intercollegiate athletics coaches by randomly selecting 1,000 members of coaching staffs (including head coaches, associate head coaches, assistant coaches, and directors of operations) from NCAA Divisions I, II, and III institutions. Random sampling was achieved by selecting every third coach's email in a given staff directory. Each coach was contacted with a pre-notification message regarding the study's intention and timeline. Of these, 167 emails failed to connect to the targeted subject and were dropped from the study. Of the remaining 833 potential subjects, 580 responded and filled out the survey items for an overall response rate of 69.63%. From there, however, an additional 277 subjects were dropped from consideration for failing to complete more than one instrument within the survey. This left the study with a usable response rate of 36.37%. There were 303 ($N = 303$) total participants with 175 ($n = 175$) coaches of male teams, 121 ($n = 121$) coaches of female teams, and 7 ($n = 7$) coaches who coached teams with both genders represented. Of the participants who identified their gender, 228 ($n = 228$) were males and 72 ($n = 72$) were female. Considering a vast majority of male teams are coached by males and the number of females coaching female teams is dwindling (Lapchick, Agusta, Kinkopf, & McPhee, 2012), the discrepancy between the gender of the participants was expected. Additionally, the racial makeup of the sample population consisted of 29 ($n = 29$) ethnic minority participants and 274 ($n = 274$) White participants.

Instrumentation

Person-organization fit. To obtain a measure of PO Fit, the Values and Priorities in Intercollegiate Athletics Scale (Chelladurai et al., 1984) was utilized and adapted to assess the responding coaches. The scale was designed to assess perceptions of priorities through salient stakeholders of intercollegiate athletics programs. For the current study, the construct values (each construct composed of four single items) of financial, entertainment, value of athlete, university prestige, and overall excellence were included. For each construct, two sets of items were presented to the coach. One set was contextualized within the coach's perspective (i.e. "It is very important to me that my sport attracts spectators from on-campus", or "It is crucial to me that my team/athletes be ranked high among the universities/teams in the nation"). A second set attempted to ascertain the same variables through the coach's perceptions of the athletics department/university's perspective (i.e. "Our athletic director constantly reminds us that our athletes need to be able to enjoy the competitive experience" or "It is essential to the university that my sport is able to enhance the prestige of the university"). All items were scored on a Likert-type scale from 1 (lowest level of agreement) to 7 (highest level of agreement). The reliability results for the instrument were calculated within the current analysis and were found to be acceptable with Cronbach's α ranging from .72 to .85.

Turnover intention. The measure of the coaches' intention to remain in the job was obtained through three items from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983). These items included "I would prefer another, more ideal, job than this coaching job," "I have had thoughts about changing universities since I have been here," and "I plan on remaining at this university for the rest of my career." The items

were scored on a Likert-type scale from 1 (lowest level of agreement) to 7 (highest level of agreement). The first two items were reverse scored. This created the norm that a higher score indicated a higher intention of staying at one's current organization. These items also showed acceptable reliability as calculated within the current analysis with Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$.

Affective commitment. The dependent variable of affective commitment was assessed through six items of the affective commitment instrument of Allen & Meyer (1990). The affective commitment scale was calculated in the current analysis and had a high reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$). The scale was comprised of statements like "This university has a great deal of personal meaning for me" and "I do not feel 'emotionally-attached' to this university." Responses were recorded on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (I completely disagree with this statement) to 7 (I completely agree with this statement). This same scale has been used in past research connecting affective commitment to perceptions of external prestige (Carmeli & Freund, 2009), supervisor and organizational commitment (Vandenberghe & Bentein, 2009), and in sport sponsorship purchase intentions (Lings & Owen, 2007).

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured via one item that read "Overall, I am satisfied with my job at this university". This item was taken from Cammann et al. (1983).

Organizational identity. The scale that measured organizational identity was from Mael and Ashforth's (1992) work. Four items were chosen and adapted to measure organizational identity. Those items read "I am very interested in what others think of this university", "When I talk about the university I work at, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'", "My university's successes are my successes", and "When someone praises my university, it feels like a personal compliment". The scale provided a satisfactory reliability level as calculated within the current analysis (Cronbach's $\alpha = .72$). Organizational identity served as a control variable in the analysis due to the variable's strong connection with PO Fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002).

Other measures. Other variables were measured via demographics or self-report information. Participants were asked if they were a head coach or an assistant coach. Additionally, participants were asked to provide their racial ethnicity, their gender, years at the university, years as a coach, and the gender of the athletes they coached. These items were used as controls in an attempt to isolate the unique variance of the PO Fit variables.

Analysis

For the first proposed hypothesis, a set of hierarchical regressions was constructed to examine the PO Fit impact on the dependent variables of turnover intention, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. To assess PO Fit, all items were summed within the constructs, giving five variables (i.e. financial, entertainment, value of athlete, prestige, excellence) through the coach's perspective and the same five through the university's perspective as perceived by the coach. Each of the five was also aggregated to provide an overall total score for each. Second, another round of variables were created by finding the absolute value of the differences between what coaches felt their universities valued and prioritized and what the coaches valued and prioritized. These created six additional variables (i.e. financial difference, entertainment difference, value of athlete difference, etc.) including an overall difference.

The initial round of regressions was then performed. The variance associated with gender of the coach, race of the coach, years the coach has been in the profession, years the coach has been at the university, position of the coach (i.e. head coach, assistant coach, etc.), gender of athletes coached, and organizational identity (Mael & Ashforth, 1995) was isolated via a

multiple regression analysis. The initial block had the control variables and the second block had the PO Fit variables to isolate the unique variance that PO Fit provided. Restated, these variables were controlled for and removed from the analysis. Controlling these variables helped the researchers isolate the unique variance of the PO Fit variables. In the final block, the PO Fit variables (i.e. financial difference, entertainment difference, value of athlete difference, etc.) were included. This regression was run three times for the dependent variables of turnover intention, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. Turnover intentions were reverse scored. Thus, the prediction of turnover intention signifies a significant desire to stay at the current organization. In an attempt to address the second hypothesis, the same regressions, with the same controls, save for gender of athlete coached, were conducted – but separately for coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams.

For the third hypothesis, in an attempt to examine differences between groups of coaches and their values and connection to the university, mean differences between coaches of male and female teams were examined via a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA). For this analysis, tenure at university, NCAA Division, and sport type (individual vs. team) were controlled for. Values and priority variables (i.e., PO Fit) and work outcomes (i.e., turnover intentions, job satisfaction, university identity, affective commitment) served as the dependent variables, and coaches of male teams and coaches of female teams served as the independent variables.

Results

In the overall sample of coaches from the first set of regressions examining turnover intention, PO Fit variables were found to contribute a significant amount of variance for each dependent variable. The results of the regressions indicated that PO Fit variables explained 3.6% of unique variance ($R^2\Delta = .036$, $F\Delta(5,290) = 3.70$, $p < .01$) with turnover intention as the dependent variable. Further, the financial difference variable ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .01$) showed significant predictability. Thus, H1 is partially supported in regards to turnover intention, as significant unique variance was explained and lower financial differences predicted turnover intention. When examining affective commitment to the university as the dependent variable, PO Fit variables again proved to provide a significant amount of unique variance with 3.6% explained ($R^2\Delta = .036$, $F\Delta(5,290) = 5.13$, $p < .01$). Smaller differences in financial values ($\beta = -.10$, $p < .05$) and in value of athletes ($\beta = -.13$, $p < .01$) were significant and predicted affective commitment. As such, H1 is again partially supported for affective commitment. In addition, when job satisfaction was the dependent variable PO Fit variables explained 6.3% of the unique variance ($R^2\Delta = .063$, $F\Delta(5,290) = 5.22$, $p < .01$). Again, smaller financial differences ($\beta = -.12$, $p < .05$) and smaller differences in value to athletes ($\beta = -.12$, $p < .05$) predicted job satisfaction. Hence, H1 is also partially supported for job satisfaction as the dependent variable.

In examining the second hypothesis for differences between coaches of male teams and female teams, the data suggested mixed findings towards the value orientation differences between coaches of the different teams. When predicting turnover intention as the dependent variable, for coaches of female sports, the PO Fit variables did not add a significant amount of variance ($R^2\Delta = .040$, $F\Delta(5,109) = 1.56$, $p = .18$). However, coaches of male teams reported small financial differences ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .05$) as a predictor of turnover intention. Further, for coaches of males, PO Fit variables explained a unique 4.5% of the variance ($R^2\Delta = .045$, $F\Delta(5,163) = 2.70$, $p < .05$). These results indicate support for H2 as coaches of males and female

teams showed differentiating effects of PO Fit on turnover intentions. Regarding the extent to which each felt an affective commitment to their university, for coaches of female teams only small differences in value of athletes ($\beta = -.18, p < .05$) was a significant predictor. In this instance the PO Fit variables did provide a unique amount of variance ($R^2\Delta = .051, F\Delta(5,109) = 2.45, p < .05$). For males, smaller differences in financial values ($\beta = -.15, p < .01$) predicted affective commitment and further the PO Fit variables proved to add a unique amount of variance ($R^2\Delta = .035, F\Delta(5,163) = 3.41, p < .01$). Again, H2 is supported as there were differences between the groups of coaches with regards to PO Fit's effect on affective commitment. Lastly, when examining job satisfaction as the dependent variable, for coaches of females, smaller differences in financial values ($\beta = -.21, p < .05$) were found to be a predictor. Moreover, the PO Fit variables did provide a significant amount of unique variance ($R^2\Delta = .116, F\Delta(5,109) = 3.85, p < .01$). For coaches of males, no PO Fit variables were found to be a predictor of job satisfaction. Although, PO Fit variables did provide a significant amount of unique variance ($R^2\Delta = .053, F\Delta(5,163) = 2.56, p < .05$). Hence, H2 is supported for job satisfaction.

For the third hypothesis the results of the MANCOVA produced equally interesting results. There was a significant multivariate finding between coaches of male teams and female teams, (*Wilks' λ* = .89, partial $\eta^2 = .057, p < .05$). The follow up analysis of variance revealed that entertainment value to coach ($F(2, 296) = 3.58, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .024$), financial value to coach ($F(2, 296) = 3.71, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .024$), university prestige value to coach ($F(2, 296) = 3.20, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .021$), and excellence value to coach ($F(2, 296) = 4.98, p < .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .033$) prevailed as significant. Thus, coaches of male teams valued the significant PO Fit variables more than coaches of females. Additionally, turnover intention ($F(2, 296) = 6.42, p < .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .042$) was significant. These results indicate partial support for H3. Again, these results signify the importance of the PO Fit variables to coaches of male teams, and because the job turnover intention variable was reverse scored, females appear to be more likely to stay in their current position (i.e., coaches of male teams are more likely to leave than coaches of female teams). There were no differences between coaches regarding commitment to the university, identifying with the university, job satisfaction, and how they valued athletes' experiences. However, coaches of male teams reported higher values via mean scores, in financial, entertainment, university prestige, and excellence variables. Conversely, coaches of female teams had higher mean scores of job intention (i.e., they are more likely to remain at the university). Specific results are located in Table 1. These findings suggest a potentially significant difference between the impact that PO Fit has upon coaches of male and female athletics teams.

Table 1
Significant Mean Differences

PO Fit Variable	Males		Females	
	<i>M</i>	<i>S. D.</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>S. D.</i>
Entertainment*	22.72	4.86	21.17	4.78
Financial*	17.30	6.15	15.17	6.36
University Prestige*	20.77	4.38	19.10	4.56
Excellence**	24.78	3.78	23.38	4.68
Job Intention**	13.90	5.07	15.08	5.56

*values significant at the .05 level
 **values significant at the .01 level

Discussion

Overall, the analysis of data provides some relevant results, as it appears there are particular variables that predict turnover intention, satisfaction, and commitment. While a plethora of research examined coaching from various sociological views (e.g., Cunningham & Sagas, 2002; Cunningham & Sagas, 2003; Cunningham & Sagas, 2004; Cunningham, Sagas, & Ashley, 2001; Raedeke et al., 2002) this research is unique in that it categorizes the coaching profession in terms of the gender of the team and not of the coach. Similar to the other studies, differences in turnover intention, job satisfaction, and commitment were found. This work continues the line of research that explains coaches should not be lumped into one group; it appears coaches are not homogenous – at least based upon the gender they coach. Rather they have a diverse set of values. The effects of the variables change depending upon the gender of the team. Further, coaches of male teams appear to put greater value into PO Fit variables and other related variables, but coaches of female teams appear to have lower turnover intentions.

With the first hypothesis, PO Fit was thought to predict turnover intentions, job satisfaction, or affective commitment. Indeed, financial differences were found to predict the turnover intention of coaches. Specifically, the smaller the difference between the perception of coaches that the university valued a team's ability to contribute revenue and the extent to which the coaches valued generating revenue for the university, the more likely the coaches were to remain in their current position. This is not a surprising result given that previous scholars noted coaches' emphasized financial support (Knight et al., 2015) or general support from administration (Knight et al., 2015; Rundle-Thiele & Auld, 2009). This finding increases the applicability of PO Fit as a retention factor that has been supported by previous research (Ambrose et al., 2008; Crosset et al., 2011; Cullen et al., 2003; Schminke et al., 2005; Sims & Kroeck, 1994). Affective commitment was predicted by smaller differences in financial and value of athletes' variables. Finally, job satisfaction was predicted by smaller differences in financial variables and smaller differences in value of athletes' variables. Much like affective commitment, these two variables appear to tug at coaches' emotional connection/satisfaction.

In terms of the second hypothesis, it was surmised that there would be differences between coaches of male teams and female teams and was generally found to be true. One of the biggest implications of the data suggests that smaller financial priorities are the largest, and potentially the only, PO Fit motivator for coaches of male sports to commit to a university and to

prevent them from moving on to a different organization prematurely. The results indicate if coaches of male teams interpret that their organization wants them to generate revenue but they do not view revenue generation as a priority, there will be incongruent motivations. Such incongruences are not likely to lead to PO Fit. A lack of PO Fit might also be found when the coach values revenue generation, but the organization does not. However, when the values are in congruence then commitment and retention are likely. The financial difference variable was the only significant PO Fit variable that predicted turnover intention for either group. This suggests it was the coaches of male teams that drove the results regarding turnover intentions from the first hypothesis.

There were different motivations found with regards to coaches of female teams. These results allow for a better understanding of a group of coaches that have been neglected from academic literature (i.e., coaches of female teams). For example, small differences in value of athletes predicted an increase of affective commitment to their organization. Essentially, the smaller the difference between coaches' perceptions of the value of the sport for their athletes and their perception of how the organization values the experience of their athletes, the more committed they are to their current position. It appears coaches of female teams are concerned with how their sport adds value to the lives of their athletes. Interestingly, this does not affect their desire to leave their position, as turnover intention for coaches of female teams was not impacted by a lack of PO Fit. This suggests coaches of female teams may be less willing to move on and more willing to deal with differences in what they value and what the university values. Coaches of female teams were also affected by financial differences between themselves and the organization. The financial differences variable predicted job satisfaction. Thus, coaches of female teams felt satisfaction when their values aligned with the organization with regards to the financial capabilities of their team. These results highlight the differences in values and perceptions between the two groups of coaches. This aligns itself with the research of Kim and Andrew (2013) which indicated coach perception can differ based on the gender of the sport due to the different environments and expectations for each group.

With regards to the third hypothesis, it was speculated that there would be mean differences with coaches of female teams and male teams concerning PO Fit, turnover intention, commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational identity. The MANCOVA allowed for a more nuanced explanation of the differences between the two groups. No differences were found between the groups for commitment to the university, organizational identity, or the PO Fit variable involving value of athletes. Coaches of male teams had lower mean levels of turnover intention than coaches of female teams (i.e., more likely to leave as turnover intention was reverse scored), but held perceptions of PO Fit variables related to financial aspects, entertainment value, university prestige, and excellence in higher regard than coaches of female teams. This suggests coaches of male teams are less likely to stay at their current positions, but they place a higher value in the perceptions of their program as well as the support and resources provided to it. More specifically, coaches of male teams cared more than coaches of female teams that their values matched up with their employer with regards to their team's financial impact, entertainment capabilities, ability to bring prestige to the organization, and the importance of excellence in performance.

This insight suggests sport administrators may need to be cognizant of such values and priorities for coaches of male teams if they wish to limit turnover. It also implies coaches should consider researching prospective employment opportunities to attempt to determine if they share similar values and goals. Conversely, coaches of female teams placed a lower value on variables

related to PO Fit, but seem more likely to remain at their current job. This is an interesting finding due to the contrast in turnover intentions of the two groups of coaches. Past scholarship has indicated prestige might affect groups differently. Knight et al. (2015) noted prestige is a factor that influences some coaches to leave their profession. Conceivably, there is a lack of a perception of prestige with other coaching jobs that are strictly for female teams. Restated, there could be a perception that the career ladder does not reach as high for coaches of female teams and there is little incentive or opportunity to leave an employer for another institution in the hopes of gaining a higher title or larger salary. Yet this study did not find university prestige to predict affective commitment, job satisfaction, or turnover intention. Future research is warranted to further explore the perceptions of coaches of female teams and their lack of turnover intentions.

Further, the results speak to an apparent disconnect between sport organizations and coaches. Turnover and its effects are a major concern in sport and non-sport organizations (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000; Inglis et al., 1996; Watrous et al., 2006). The inability of sport administrators and coaches to align their priorities and values highlights the importance of better understanding PO Fit and its practical applications. Sport organizations that do not desire to spend resources which will improve the ability of teams to generate revenue (i.e., the financial PO Fit variable) are likely to struggle to retain coaches of male teams who value revenue generation. Moreover, based on the group means, coaches of male teams do concern themselves with other PO Fit variables, at least in comparison to coaches of female teams. Consequently, these organizations may choose to either accept high turnover rates and their consequences, or they can adapt and make their environment more comfortable to said coaches, as highlighted by Knight et al. (2015). Otherwise they might seek out coaches of male teams who do not place a high value on such variables. In a perfect world, coaches and sport organizations with similar values would find each other and thus minimize turnover intentions.

Again, coaches were not grouped by gender, but by the gender they coached. Thus, this data does not allow one to say that female coaches, as male coaches often coach female teams (Lapchick et al., 2012), are less willing to leave or are more willing to abide by different values. Nor could these findings allow for the idea that a sport determines motivations for turnover as sports such as basketball are played by both genders. These discoveries suggest a deeper rationale for motivations of coaches and their desire for PO Fit and turnover intentions exist. Based on these results, it is likely that sport organizations need to develop and possess different priorities for different coaches, based on the gender they coach, in order to create a stronger PO Fit and to subsequently limit turnover intentions. Sport administrators cannot simply motivate or accommodate all of their coaches in the same manner; they must understand the values and priorities of their employees. These results suggest there will be differences in priorities and motivations between coaches based on the gender they coach.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This research is not without limitations. First, the quantitative methods and subsequent analysis of data provided little information as to *why* the phenomenon described occurred. Instead, the analysis of the results explained what was occurring. Second, the PO Fit differences were based on the perceptions of coaches, not on the actual differences of values. Third, the sample population consisted of coaches from American intercollegiate programs. This impacts the generalizability of the results. Further, the sample population is predominantly White and

mostly male. A sample population that is mostly male is not unexpected (Lapchick et al., 2012), but limits the generalizability of the findings. The sample's lack of ethnic minorities also affects the generalizability of the results. Another limitation of the study was the use of the specific values to represent PO Fit. While those five variables provided interesting results, there are also likely other variables that could be used to measure PO Fit. The present research focused on Chelladurai et al.'s (1984) values in intercollegiate athletics instrument.

As such, future research endeavors might consider using other variables to measure PO Fit than those used in the current study. Future research might also consider obtaining the values of sport administrators as opposed to the perceptions of coaches. Further, the turnover intentions of coaches of female teams are worthy of future research endeavors. It would be beneficial for researchers to dig deeper as to why coaches of female teams do not have high turnover intentions. It is unlikely the aforementioned rationale is the only explanation. Finally, more research is needed to better understand the differences between coaches of different genders. The results presented suggest the two groups have differences, but these results merely scratch the surface of plausible differences of perceptions and values of coaches.

Another possibility for future research considerations is conducting a similar study with qualitative methods. Such methodology would allow researchers to collect rich data that might better explain coaches' perceptions of fit with their university. Additionally, qualitative methods might provide answers as to why coaches of female teams have lower turnover intentions, and coaches of male teams place a higher priority on the PO Fit variables described in the current research. Lastly, scholars might also examine the differences in perception of PO Fit with other groups such as coaches of revenue-producing teams and coaches of teams who do not produce revenue.

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