

Journal of Issues in **Intercollegiate Athletics**

Organizational Justice Perceptions among Coaches of Revenue and Non- Revenue Intercollegiate Male Sports

Dustin F. Thorn
Xavier University

T. Christopher Greenwell
University of Louisville

Mary A. Hums
University of Louisville

Daniel F. Mahony
Winthrop University

The present study examined the perceptions of organizational justice components among intercollegiate male sport coaches. This study expanded the literature on organizational justice by examining perceptual differences among coaches of different sport types, NCAA Divisions, and coaching positions on organizational justice components. Perceptions of three organizational justice components were gathered from head and assistant coaches of NCAA Division I and III baseball, men's basketball, and wrestling programs competing in NCAA Divisions I and III. A 3x2x2 factorial multivariate analysis of variance found significant interactional effects existed between sport and NCAA Division and sport and job title on coaches' perceptions of organizational justice. The study also provided support for using interactional justice as an independent component of organizational justice within the intercollegiate athletics setting. The study results have implications for intercollegiate athletic decision makers developing (a) organizational approaches to decision making that focus on procedures and interaction with coaches, (b) systems for monitoring organizational justice, and (c) approaches to working with coaches based on the revenue generation of their sport.

Keywords: NCAA, intercollegiate athletics, organizational justice, revenue-generating and non-revenue-generating sport

Intercollegiate athletics has been experiencing a revolution over the past 20 years. During this period, athletic administrators at National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I, II, and III member institutions have focused their efforts on increasing revenue generation in order to cover escalating athletic expenditures. Increased commercialization has led to massive facility construction, on-campus alcohol sales, multi-million-dollar coaching salaries, competitions televised on a daily basis throughout the academic year, and numerous conference realignments. Overtime, these changes in both institutional structures and the overall intercollegiate athletics industry can affect behaviors and perceptions of employees and organizational decision makers. Kim, Kim, Newman, Ferris, and Perrewè, (in press) recently acknowledged the dramatically changing and stressful environment of intercollegiate athletics requires the organizational decision makers to strengthen and improve the work experiences and well-being of their employees. This can be done by fostering a positive relationship between psychological capital and psychological well-being through an employee's perceptions of a supportive organizational climate. One measure of organizational climate has been an employee's perception of fairness, studied under the frame work of organizational justice (Greenberg, 1990). Understanding perceptions of fairness is important as these perceptions have been linked to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, both of which financially impact an organization through operating expenses, turnover, and absenteeism (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Organizational justice is defined as the study of the role of fairness as a consideration in the workplace (Greenberg, 1990). While there are various suggestions about the dimensions of organizational justice, many studies have used a three-dimensional model which includes distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Cropanzano & Prehar, & Chen, 2002). Distributive justice examines an individual's perception of fairness of actual outcomes in the resource distribution process. Procedural justice examines an individual's perception of fairness in relation to the policies and procedures used by an organization to make decisions. Finally, interactional justice examines an individual's perceptions of fairness in relation to the interpersonal interactions within the organization during the resource distribution process (Greenberg, 1990).

Intercollegiate athletics is the most researched segment of the sport industry regarding organizational justice. The literature on organizational justice within intercollegiate athletics has examined athletic directors and administrators (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994a; Mahony, Hums & Riemer, 2002, 2005; Patrick, Mahony, & Petrosko, 2008), athletic board chairs (Mahony et al., 2002, 2005), students (Mahony, Reimer, Breeding, & Hums, 2006), student-athletes (Czekanski & Turner, 2015; Jordan, Gillentine, & Hunt, 2004; Kim, Andrew, Mahony, & Hums, 2008; Mahony et al., 2006; Czekanski & Turner, 2015), and coaches (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b; Jordan et al. 2004; Kim & Andrew, 2013 & 2015; Whisenant & Jordan, 2006). These studies have mainly focused on four characteristics: (a) athletic job position, (b) NCAA Division, (c) sport type, and (d) gender.

Given recent shifts and the unique financial structure of intercollegiate athletics, where there is no requirement to be financially independent due to the backing of the overall institution, resource allocation decisions between sport programs that are revenue-generating and non-revenue-generating are often vastly different. Intercollegiate coaches directly feel the effects of

these decisions. Therefore, exploring sport type based on revenue generation could help further the understanding of perceptions of fairness within intercollegiate athletics.

Organizational Justice

Greenberg and Colquitt (2005) chronicled the progression and development of the organizational justice literature, identifying three prominent dimensions: a) distributive justice, b) procedural justice, and c) interactional justice. The distributive justice literature is grounded in the work of Adams (1963, 1965) and Deutsch (1975). Adams proposed a theory of social inequity, where individuals compare their perceived job inputs to outcome ratios with others in the organization. Individuals who perceive this ratio to be unequal will alter their behaviors in an attempt to stabilize the perceived imbalance of outcome distribution. Using equity based distributive justice to guide resource allocation decisions requires an organizational decision maker to base the allocation of resources on the perceived inputs by an individual or group. The more one is deemed to contribute toward the achievement of organizational goals, the greater the allocation of resources the individual or group will receive. Deutsch (1975) believed Adams' use of equity as a single determinant of justice was a limited perspective. Therefore, Deutsch introduced two additional methods of resource allocation, equality and need. Equality-based distributive justice refers to instances in which decision makers treat individuals or groups equally in the distribution process. This is not to assume an equal distribution is always given, but rather, individuals have an equal opportunity to receive a given resource (Tornblom & Johnsson, 1985). Within the equality-based concept, the amount or magnitude of input by an individual or group is not a determining factor in resource allocation. Rather the goal is for organizational decision makers to maintain an equal system of resource allocation. Need-based distributive justice refers to decision makers choosing to distribute resources based on a determination of need. Research has found need based distributive justice difficult to assess given the diverse definitions of need by individuals or groups within an organization. Mahony, Hums, and Riemer (2005) found three differing determinations of need: (a) need based on a lack of resources, (b) need based on the higher costs of the organizational activity, and (c) need based on the cost of competitive success.

Adding to the organizational justice literature, Thibault and Walker (1975) defined procedural justice as an individual's perception of fairness based upon organizational policies and procedures. Thibault and Walker concluded the amount of "voice" the disputant had in the decision-making process impacted that individual's perception of fairness. Even given these studies, Bies and Moag (1986) still found the theory of organizational justice to be incomplete as it did not incorporate interactions an individual has with others within the organization. Bies and Moag found perceptions of fairness were not just determined based on objective elements such as distribution of resources or procedures. An individual's perception of organizational fairness must include how an individual interacts with others both interpersonally and informationally. Interactional justice is defined as an individual's perception of fairness based upon the interpersonal communications with the organization (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005). Through their own interpersonal interactions, Bies and Moag noticed the assessment of interpersonal treatment was process focused, while the actual interaction was not. Bies and Moag explained interactional treatment is conceptually different than the structuring of procedures. Organizational procedures are created to be replicated to make decision-making more efficient.

The organic nature of human interactions cannot be limited to such a structured process and therefore must be separated from procedural justice as a unique dimension.

Most research on organizational justice has focused on distributive and procedural justice and their relation to organizational behavior. The use of interactional justice in studies has been limited due to the discussion of whether it is a unique construct of organizational justice or simply a sub-construct of procedural justice (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Cropanzano & Randall, 1993; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1997). Several researchers have provided evidence and support for the use of interactional justice as a distinct and unique construct (Bies & Moag, 1986; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Moorman, 1991). Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) provided support for the distinctions among the three organizational justice components in a meta-analysis of justice in organizations. The meta-analysis concluded that while the three components of organizational justice are strongly related, there is sufficient evidence to consider them distinct constructs. Each construct had different relationships between each other and their correlates. In another meta-analysis of organizational justice, Colquitt et al. (2001) indicated procedural justice predicted both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This finding was different from Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) who found only organizational commitment was significantly related to procedural justice. These studies provide a foundation for not only defining the theory of organizational justice but also provide meaning for understanding the impact organizational decision makers can have by either enhancing or diminishing individual perceptions of organizational fairness. However, most literature on organizational justice has focused on industries outside of the sport setting leaving many questions regarding the impact fairness perceptions have on sport organizations.

Organizational Justice in Intercollegiate Athletics

The segment of the sport industry receiving the most attention regarding organizational justice has been intercollegiate athletics. The literature on organizational justice within intercollegiate athletics has examined athletic directors and administrators (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994a; Mahony, Hums & Riemer, 2002, 2005; Patrick, Mahony, & Petrosko, 2008), athletic board chairs (Mahony et al., 2002, 2005), students (Mahony, Reimer, Breeding, & Hums, 2006), student-athletes (Czekanski & Turner, 2015; Jordan, Gillentine, & Hunt, 2004; Kim, Andrew, Mahony, & Hums, 2008; Mahony et al., 2006; Czekanski & Turner, 2015), and coaches (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b; Jordan et al. 2004; Kim & Andrew, 2013 & 2015; Whisenant & Jordan, 2006). These studies have mainly focused on four independent variables: (a) athletic job position, (b) NCAA Division, (c) sport type, and (d) gender.

Hums and Chelladurai (1994a) initiated the literature on distributive justice within the sport setting by developing an instrument to assess the perceptions of distributive justice of both male and female NCAA coaches and administrators using the three-principled conceptual model established by Tornblom and Jonsson (1985; 1987). The instrument development identified four sub-principles of equity (productivity, spectator appeal, ability, and effort), three sub principles of equality (equality of treatment, equality of results, and equality of opportunity), and need using 12 hypothetical scenarios on distribution and retribution of money, facilities and support services within intercollegiate athletics.

Continuing their research, Hums and Chelladurai (1994b) used the developed scale to survey male and female coaches and administrators across all NCAA Divisions to examine group differences in perceptions of distributive justice pertaining to the critical resources of

money, facilities, and support services, based on organizational position, NCAA Divisional membership, and gender. Results indicated while male and female coaches both rated need and equality high, male coaches preferred fairness distributions related to equity more than female coaches, while female coaches preferred distributions based on equality more than male coaches. Researchers also found a difference in perceptions within NCAA Divisions. Coaches and administrators of Division I institutions preferred distributions based on equity, compared to administrators within Division II and III. However, the study found no significant differences by job position (coach v. administrator). This was attributed to the notion many administrators were once coaches themselves and still viewed distributive justice from a coaches' perspective rather than looking at "the big picture" of the entire athletic department. The major findings of this study were that administrators and coaches at all three NCAA Divisions viewed equality of treatment, need, and equality of results as the most just sub-principles for distributive justice.

To test the findings of Hums and Chelladurai (1994b) within the practice of making distribution decisions, Mahony and Pastore (1998) examined NCAA revenue and expense reports from 1973 to 1993 to assess the actual financial allocation decisions of athletic administrators. Findings showed Division I administrators allocated financial resources toward revenue generating sports over other sports suggesting the use of distributions based on equity was used over other distributive justice principles. These practical applications of resource distribution were not consistent with the findings of Hums and Chelladurai (1994b) where equality and need were preferred.

In a follow-up study, Mahony et al., (2002) examined fairness perspectives of the athletic director and athletic board chairs who were in the positions to make financial decisions in their prior study. In this study, the need based distributive justice principle was perceived to be most fair among financial decision-makers. Another interesting finding was financial decision-makers within Division I preferred equity over equality, while Division III preferred equality of treatment. While these findings are interesting, they did lead to inconsistencies in the literature. Hums and Chelladurai (1994b) found no significant difference in perceptions of distributive justice among Division levels. However, Mahony et al. (2002) concluded decision makers at Division I institutions were more likely to select distribution based on contribution, while those at Division III institutions were more likely to select distribution based on equality. Mahony et al. (2005) also examined divisional differences with respect to perceptions of need. Division I administrators responded by indicating lack of revenue, competitive success, and Title IX issues were the primary determinants of need. In contrast, Division III administrators responded by indicating high costs of sport, travel, and equipment were the primary determinants of need. Further differences among NCAA Divisions support the use of need as an important independent variable in organizational justice studies in the college sport setting.

While the above studies focused on the perceptions of organizational decision-makers, other studies examined perceptions of both students and student-athletes. Mahony et al. (2006) found students and student-athletes perceived equality of treatment and need as being most fair, a result that was consistent with the findings of Hums and Chelladurai (1994b). With regard to gender, male students preferred distribution based on equity, while female students preferred distribution based on equality of treatment.

Based on the work of Mahony et al. (2002, 2006), Kim et al. (2008) created the Distributive Justice in Intercollegiate Athletics Scale to examine perceptions of student-athletes based on real experiences, as opposed to the scenario-based approach by Hums and Chelladurai (1994b) and others. The scale included items assessing perceptions of all three distributive

justice principles within ten sub-principles. While results did not indicate a significant interaction effect between gender and sport type, a significant main effect for sport type (revenue-generating sport v. non-revenue-generating sport) was determined on the basis of equality and need. Student-athletes of revenue-generating sports had significantly higher perceptions of equality and need than student-athletes of non-revenue-generating sports. These findings support the notion that perceptions of fairness may be related to elements of sport type more than the gender of the student-athlete.

Czekanski and Turner (2015) sought to expand upon the organizational justice literature within the intercollegiate athletics setting by exploring student-athletes' perceptions of organizational justice and social exchange using the four-component (distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal) organizational justice model. Researchers used structural equation modeling (SEM) to establish a model of the relationship organizational justice components have with the trust student-athletes have in their coach. The model revealed a good fit for three (procedural, interpersonal, and informational) of the four components. Researchers concluded student-athlete perceptions of fairness do have a positive relationship with trust in their coach. The enhancement of leader exchange can be achieved through an increase in trust by way of perceptions of fairness. The finding that distributive justice was not a significant antecedent of trust was attributed to both the measurements' inability to allow subject to compare distributions, as well as the possibility student-athletes in-fact do perceive distributions are provided equitably.

While their prior study examined organizational justice perceptions among student-athletes, Kim and Andrew (2013) sought to examine differences in perceptions of all three organizational justice components among intercollegiate coaches of different sport types and participant gender. Findings indicated coaches did not distinguish between procedural and interactional justice, a finding that is inconsistent with the organizational justice literature (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). In regard to distributive justice, coaches generally perceived their distribution of resources to be unfair. However, no main or interactional effects were indicated among sport type and gender. In summary, intercollegiate coaches, regardless of sport, found the distribution of resources to their sport to be unfair.

These studies provide a good start in understanding organizational justice in a sport context. Mahony, Hums, Andrew, and Dittmore (2010) reviewed the collective writings on organizational justice in the sport setting for the purpose of summarizing the literature and making suggestions for future research. Researchers found much of the research focused on distributive justice. While these contributions have expanded the breadth of distributive fairness to equity, equality, and need, little research has addressed the need to more fully understand the impact fairness perceptions have by examining all three organizational justice principles. In addition, Mahony et al. (2010) pointed that while a few studies had integrated the impact perceptions of organizational justice had on organizational outcomes, like job satisfaction and organizational commitment, many have been limited in their generalizability due to the use of student sampling. Finally, another limitation of prior research has been a lack of focus on sport type. Kim and Andrew (2013) were the first to examine the potential effect of sport type in relation to all three organizational justice principles among intercollegiate athletics coaches. A significant contribution was finding intercollegiate coaches did not distinguish between procedural and interactional justice. As mentioned previously, the distinction of procedural and interactional justice as independent components of organizational justice is a debated topic. Researchers outside of sport have presented findings supporting a distinction between them (Bies

& Moag, 1986; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Moorman, 1991). Within the sport setting, however, the minimal examination of the three-component model does not provide sufficient substantive findings to support a consensus.

Defining Sport Type in Intercollegiate Athletics

The financial landscape of intercollegiate athletics has substantially shifted in the past couple decades. The median total revenues and expenses in 2016 for Division I Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) institutions were \$68,614,000 and \$71,689,000 respectively. When considering only those institutions from the newly formed Autonomous Governance (AG) “Power 5” Conferences (ACC, Big 12, Big Ten, and PAC-12, and SEC), average total revenues were \$97,276,000 with average total expenses of \$98,913,000. Over the 12-year period since 2004 revenues have grown by 143.2% with expenses growing by 147.3% for Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) institutions. Over the same period, revenues have increased by 124.1% and 120% for Football Championship Subdivision (FCS) and Division I no-football schools respectively. Expenses for these Division I subdivisions have increased by 121.4% and 123.3% as well. This financial data indicates an environment where expenses exceed revenues for almost all intercollegiate athletic departments. In fact, the 2016 NCAA report revealed only 24 of the 65 Division I institutions in the Autonomy Group (AG) generated revenues in excess of expenses for the 2015-16 fiscal year, with a median loss of \$10 million. All 64 institutions in the Non-Autonomy FBS Group, had a net loss with a median debt of \$20 million (NCAA, 2017a). The USA Today Sports’ College Athletic Finances database (2017) indicated only 13 of 230 public institutions reported using \$0 in institutional subsidy.

The growth in athletic expenditures emphasizes the need for athletic programs at NCAA institutions to continue revenue growth. According to the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act (EADA) database only two sports generated a profit for Division I FBS institutions in 2015, football and men’s basketball (EADA, 2017). It should be noted, the sports which generate revenue differs by institution. Sports such as baseball, men’s ice hockey, women’s basketball, and volleyball are often used as revenue generators. However, they are often unable to generate sufficient revenue to cover the cost of the individual sport, let alone cover the remaining expenses incurred by other non-revenue-generating sport programs. The combination of the EADA data and the NCAA financial reports indicate only a small number of sport programs generate sufficient revenue necessary to support the escalating expenses of intercollegiate athletics. This scenario creates a burden for athletic department decision makers who appear to be seeking more revenue streams through athletics. Only a few sport programs, however, seem able to achieve this revenue generating objective.

Another example of the changing landscape for intercollegiate athletics is the change in the number of men’s sports offered among NCAA member institutions. Across all three NCAA Divisions (I, II, and III), 86 fewer institutions offer wrestling (a non-revenue generating sport) in 2017-18 as compared to 1988-89, the largest net decrease of any men’s sport program. However, during the same period, NCAA member institutions have increased the number of revenue-generating programs by 103 for men’s basketball and 76 for football (NCAA, 2018). The increase in sponsorship for men’s basketball and football rank 7th and 10th respectively among the 27 championship sponsored sports in the NCAA. These statistics of sport sponsorship among NCAA member institutions provide evidence of a continued focus toward revenue-generation in intercollegiate athletic departments.

The ideological shift towards a revenue-generating, and in some cases profit-making, organizational model can affect fairness perceptions of employees and organizational decision makers. Given the differences between the treatment of revenue-generating and some non-revenue-generating sports, it appears there may be an opportunity to explore sport type based on revenue generation as a means to further understand perceptions of fairness within intercollegiate athletics as they may have affected a coach's perceptions of fairness in the workplace. In addition, this examination could help to better explain the distinction between procedural and interactional justice within the intercollegiate athletics setting. Finally, while several studies have examined differences among job position within intercollegiate athletics (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994a, 1994b; Mahony et al., 2002, 2005; Jordan et al. 2004; Whisenant & Jordan, 2006; Patrick, et al., 2008; Kim & Andrew, 2013 & 2015), there has yet to be a study examining differences among head and assistant coaches. The present study aims to contribute to the existing literature by further examining of these variables within the organizational justice framework. Assessing coaches' perceptions of fairness may provide decision makers within athletic departments with useful information for creating an environment conducive for all sport coaches to maximize organizational successes.

Study Purpose

While the average Division I institution sponsored 18.9 team's, 8.4 for men and 10.4 for women in the academic year 2017-18 (NCAA, 2018), few of these sports are financially self-sustaining. Traditionally, only football and men's basketball have produced revenues in excess of their respective expenses. While this is not true at every institution, it is certainly far more common for these sports when compared to others. This fact indicates a setting where the revenue potential of only very few sports is subsidizing the majority of the intercollegiate athletic programs. This dynamic within athletic departments, combined with the recent growth in intercollegiate athletics, has likely produced different perceptions of organizational justice among revenue and non-revenue-generating sport coaches. These differing perceptions can lead to a number of different forms of organizational distress such as high turnover, toxic organizational environments, and difficulties in achieving both team and organizational goals (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Therefore, the need to understand differences in coaches' perceptions of fairness among revenue and non-revenue generating sports and the impact of these perceptions is paramount to an athletic administrators' ability to effectively support the needs of the entire department. The present study aimed to determine if differences in coaches' perceptions of organizational justice were present among types of intercollegiate male sport coaches (revenue-generating, non-revenue-generating-stable, and non-revenue-generating-unstable). To address this purpose, the following research question were developed:

R1: Do perceptions of organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) differ among coaches of different sport types (revenue-generating, non-revenue-generating-stable, and non-revenue-generating-unstable sport coaches)?

R2: Do perceptions of organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) differ by NCAA Division (Division I and Division III)

R3: Do perceptions of organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) differ by coaching position (head coaches and assistant coaches)?

Method

Participants

Participants were head and assistant coaches of men's basketball, men's baseball, and men's wrestling teams competing at NCAA Divisions I and III. These teams were selected to represent different levels of revenue generation and stability. The present study used men's basketball coaches to represent revenue generating sport coaches due to a larger representation of sponsorship across both Division I and III compared to football. The remaining sports can be identified as non-revenue generating sports. However, over the past several decades, organizational decisions have resulted in some sports being more stable than others based on longitudinal sponsorship of the sport by NCAA institutions. Therefore, non-revenue generating sports were divided into non-revenue-generating-stable and non-revenue-generating-unstable sports based on the total sponsorship of the sport across all NCAA Divisions. Baseball was chosen to represent non-revenue-generating-stable sport as there has been a net increase in sponsorship of 106 programs across all three Divisions over the past 30 years. The net change in sponsorship of baseball programs has mirrored the sponsorship of basketball, which has experienced a net increase of 103 programs over the same 30-year period. Wrestling was chosen to represent non-revenue-generating-unstable sport because there has been a net decrease of 86 programs, the largest decrease in sponsorship among all NCAA sports over the past 30 years (NCAA, 2018).

Division I and III institutions were examined due to the differences in institutional missions and objectives. Division I stresses a higher level of competition and revenue generation through maximizing commercialization opportunities. In contrast, Division III is focused more on student-athlete development. As stated by the NCAA, "Division III athletics departments place special importance on the impact athletics has on the participants rather than on the spectators. The student-athlete's experience is of paramount concern." (NCAA, 2017c, para. 4). These differences in missions and objectives mean there could be potential differences in organizational perceptions among coaches.

Coaches from institutions sponsoring all three sports were used for the analysis. These institutions were chosen because organizational justice perceptions are based on organizational differences such as budget, organizational size, division of labor, and organizational goals. Therefore, to reduce the variance in generalizability, institutions most similar in their sport sponsorship were used. Contact information was gathered from the NCAA sport sponsorship database, resulting in a population size of 982 head ($n = 456$) and assistant ($n = 526$) coaches from 67 institutions in Division I and 85 in Division III (NCAA, 2017b).

Instrument

The instrument used in this study consisted of two sections: (a) demographic questionnaire, and (b) the Organizational Justice Index (OJI). Rahim, Magner, and Shaprio (2000) developed the 23-item Organizational Justice Index (OJI) to measure respondents perceived fairness across three components of organizational justice: (a) distributive, (b)

procedural, and (c) interactional justice. Eight distributive justice items focused on the respondents' perceived fairness of outcomes provided by the organization. Seven procedural justice items measure the respondents' perceived fairness of the formal decision-making policies and procedures used by the organization. Finally, eight interactional justice items measure the respondents' perceived fairness of the treatment the respondents received from their immediate supervisor. Each item was measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale. (1= Strongly Disagree; 7= Strongly Agree). Mean scores from each subscale were then compared against each other to determine the relative influence of each subscale on the respondents' overall perception of organizational justice. Findings from previous studies in the sport setting have shown the OJI to be both valid and reliable (Jordan, 2001; Jordan et al. 2007).

Data Collection

The questionnaire was administered by email through SurveyMonkey, using several principles for web-based survey design outlined by Dillman (2000). Based on these recommendations the first process in data collection was to pre-notify each member of the selected sample by e-mail. Approximately one week after the pre-notification e-mail, the first survey was sent via e-mail, accompanied by an introductory letter and instructions for completion. One week after the initial distribution of the instrument, a thank you/reminder e-mail notification was sent. This notification served two purposes, first to thank those coaches who had already taken part in the study and second to remind those who had not completed the survey to do so. Approximately three to four days later, a second administration of the instrument took place using the same procedure as the initial survey. A final contact thanking the participants was sent one week following the second administration of the survey.

Data Analysis

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences in coaches' perceptions of organizational justice were present among various types of coaches of intercollegiate male sports. Differences were examined using sport type, NCAA Division, and coaching position as independent variables. To examine these differences the present study utilized a 3x2x2 MANOVA to determine effects of sport type (revenue generating [men's basketball], non-revenue-generating-stable [men's baseball], and non-revenue-generating-unstable [men's wrestling]), NCAA Division (I and III), and coaching position (head and assistant coach) on perceptions of the three organizational justice components. The dependent variable for the factorial MANOVA procedure was the three organizational justice components (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice).

Results

Response Rate

A total of 272 of the 982 coaches responded to the survey yielding a response rate of 27.7%. Of the 272 respondents, 39 were excluded due to incomplete responses to the survey, yielding a final response rate of 23.7% ($n = 233$). The low return rate may be indicative of the difficulty in distributing a survey to participants who represent three different sports, each with

different seasons of play, recruiting seasons, and time off. The researchers decided to administer the survey when no teams were in a competitive season to create some continuity among the coaches' duties and maximize the opportunity for taking part in the study.

The breakdown of respondents by NCAA Division, coaching position and sport is shown in Table 1. Chi square analyses were performed to determine if the respondents were representative of the population using three criteria based on common elements of each institution: (a) institution enrollment, (b) number of male student-athletes, and (c) athletic revenue. Data on each institution was gathered from the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act (EADA) website using the institutional database. The chi square analyses showed a significant fit between the study participants and the non-respondents for each of the independent variables: (a) institution enrollment ($X^2 = .034$, $df = 1$, $p > .001$), (b) number of male student athletes ($X^2 = .467$, $df = 1$, $p > .001$), and (c) athletic revenue generated ($X^2 = 2.042$, $df = 1$, $p > .001$). These chi-square results indicate the final sample appears to be representative of the population.

Further, a regression analysis was conducted to determine if there were differences between respondents and non-respondents. Prior research has indicated late respondents are similar to non-respondents. Since the present study issued the survey at three different times, the regression analysis compared first respondents to the third group of respondents as these groups have the likelihood of being most different. Results of the regression analysis revealed the overall regression equation was not significant ($R^2 = .031$, adjusted $R^2 = .010$, $F(5, 223) = 1.440$; $p = .211$). The results revealed no significant differences in any of the independent variables: (a) procedural justice ($p = .642$), (b) distributive justice ($p = .069$), and (c) interactional justice ($p = .559$). These results indicated no significant differences between early and late respondents further supporting respondents were representative of the population.

Demographic and Mean Scores

The descriptive analysis included the following demographic data: (a) age, (b) ethnicity, (c) education, (d) assistant coach level (full-time, part-time, or volunteer), (e) years in current position, (f) years with current organization, and (g) total years coaching. The age of the participants ranged from 22 to 75 with a mean of 37.09 years. Responses indicated 246 (90.4%) participants were Caucasian/White, 19 (7.0%) were African American/Black, one (.4%) was a Pacific Islander, and four (1.5%) reported other. Reported educational levels showed 134 (49.3%) of respondents had completed a bachelor's degree, 127 (46.7%) had completed a master's degree, six (2.2%) had completed a doctoral degree, one (.4%) had completed an associate's degree, and one (.4%) had earned a high school diploma. Of the 163 assistants who participated 129 (79.1%) were full-time, 27 (16.6%) were part-time, and seven (4.3%) were volunteers. Finally, years in current position ranged from 1 to 45 with a mean of 6.81 years, years with current organization ranged from 1 to 45 with a mean of 7.48 years, and total years coaching ranged from 0 to 50 with a mean of 13.59 years.

Scale Reliability

The present study used a validated instrument drawn from previous research. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated to determine the reliability of the overall Organizational Justice Index (OJI) and for each subscale (procedural justice, distributive justice, and

interactional justice). Cronbach's alphas for this sample ranged from .905 to .966, indicating all subscales exceeded the recommend value of .70 by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994).

Results of Research Questions

The present study examined if differences in coaches' perceptions of organizational justice were present among three types of intercollegiate male sport coaches (revenue-generating, non-revenue-generating-stable, and non-revenue-generating-unstable). To test this research question, a 3x2x2 factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed for the interaction of sport type, NCAA Division, and job title on perceptions of three organizational justice components. Assumptions for using MANOVA were tested and met. Independent observations were generated by each participant completing a single survey. Levene's test of equality of error variances was not significant at the .05 level for each dependent variable (procedural justice, distributive justice, and organizational justice). Normality of distribution was tested comparing a histogram of result to the normal distribution curve. The result of the factorial MANOVA revealed no main effects for the three independent variables. However, significant interaction effects existed between sport type and NCAA Division [$F(6, 436) = 2.692; p = .014; \eta^2 = .036$] and sport type and job title [$F(6, 436) = 3.002; p = .007; \eta^2 = .040$]. Because these interactions were significant, the between-subjects effects were analyzed.

The between-subjects test on the interaction between sport type and NCAA Division on coaches' perceptions of organizational justice revealed significant interactions on all three organizational justice components; procedural justice [$F(2, 220) = 5.140; p = .007; \eta^2 = .045$], distributive justice [$F(2, 220) = 5.780; p = .004; \eta^2 = .050$], and interactional justice [$F(2, 220) = 3.142; p = .045; \eta^2 = .028$]. The profile plots of the estimated marginal means for procedural justice indicated a disordinal interaction between sport type and NCAA Division among all three components. The profile plots for procedural and distributive justice were similar, as Division I baseball and men's basketball coaches rated procedural and distributive justice higher than their Division III counterparts. For wrestling, Division III coaches rated procedural and distributive justice higher than Division I coaches. The profile plots for interactional justice revealed different interactions. Division III baseball rated interactional justice higher than Division I, while Division I men's basketball and wrestling coaches rated interactional justice higher than Division III coaches. Complete between-subjects tests for the significant interaction between sport type and NCAA Division can be found in Table 3.

The between-subjects test on the interaction between sport type and job title on coaches' perceptions on organizational justice revealed only one significant interaction with interactional justice [$F(2, 220) = 5.426; p = .005; \eta^2 = .047$]. The profile plots of the estimated marginal means for interactional justice indicated a disordinal interaction between sport type and job title. The pattern of interaction revealed head baseball coaches perceived interactional justice higher than assistant coaches. However, men's basketball and wrestling assistant coaches perceived higher interactional justice than head coaches. The plot also revealed the separations between job title in the sports of baseball and wrestling were much broader than men's basketball. Complete between-subjects test for the significant interaction between sport type and NCAA Division can be found in Table 4.

Discussion

This study examined the differences in coaches' perceptions of three organizational justice components among different types of intercollegiate male sport coaches (revenue-generating, non-revenue-generating-stable, and non-revenue-generating-unstable). While previous studies have examined organizational justice components in the intercollegiate athletics setting, this study sought to expand upon the literature related to understanding how sport type, based on revenue generation, impacted differences among the organizational justice components. The current revenue structure of intercollegiate athletics has created a dichotomy of revenue generating and non-revenue generating sport programs. Coaches of these programs likely have different organizational justice experiences through departmental decisions related to budgets, facilities, and sport sponsorship. In addition, the study continued the exploration of perceptual differences by both NCAA Division and job title. The results of the study allow for a better understanding of perceptions of organizational justice components among intercollegiate coaches and implications for how the actions of intercollegiate athletic decision makers may influence these perceptions.

Interactional Effects Between Sport Type and NCAA Division.

The disordinal interaction between sport type and NCAA Division provided several interesting findings. First, procedural justice and distributive justice were perceived differently by Division I and III baseball and men's basketball coaches, with Division I coaches perceiving more fairness than Division III coaches. Interestingly, the opposite was found for Division I and III wrestling coaches, indicating Division I wrestling coaches perceived both procedures and distribution of resources to be less fair than Division III wrestling coaches. This finding differs from prior studies (Kim & Andrew, 2013; Kim et al., 2008) which found no interaction effect of distributive justice perceptions for different sport types. The present findings indicate the distinctions between NCAA Division establishes differences in perceptions. These findings are consistent with Mahony and Pastore's (1998) longitudinal assessment of Division I administrators allocating financial resources toward revenue generating sports. In addition, institutional procedures as well as stances by the NCAA at large, benefit those sports' competitive growth.

The gap between all justice components was greatest among Division I and III men's basketball coaches possibly indicating the high level of support given to men's basketball programs at the Division I level inflates the perceived fairness levels among coaches, while the distribution of resources within Division III basketball is more even when compared to the other sports sponsored by the athletic department. However, the finding of Division I wrestling coaches perceiving lower levels of fairness compared to Division III indicates there is more to fairness perceptions than just level of support. Adams' (1965) equity theory stated individuals will construct their fairness perceptions based on a comparison of input to outcome ratios. Prior studies have shown lower levels of perceived fairness of resource distribution among coaches receiving high levels of resource allocation due to a comparison based on equity. Coaches of higher resource allocation programs justify their allocation based on revenue contributions and hence perceive they should receive more, instead of financially supporting non-revenue-generating sport programs (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b; Kim & Andrew, 2013). The inconsistency of the findings indicate more factors may be contributing to perceptions of fairness

among coaches. The practice of moving toward increased revenue, higher commercialism, and greater emphasis on winning, present in many Division I athletic departments may be affecting wrestling coaches as they are often not a high priority within this ideology. Division III athletic departments, on the other hand, use elements of inclusion and participation in their mission as a basis for decision making reflecting higher perceptions of fairness relative to the distribution of resources and the organizational procedures.

Division III baseball coaches perceived higher interactional justice than Division I baseball coaches. This result could indicate Division I baseball coaches have higher expectations of interactions, given the amount of support offered to their programs. As mentioned above, many baseball programs receive generous amounts of both financial and social support. However, the level of fairness of organizational interactions these coaches experience appears to be lower than expected, resulting in lower interactional justice perceptions compared to Division III baseball coaches. The size of the athletic department may also be relevant to this finding. Division I athletic departments, on average, are larger than Division III athletic departments. As a result, the division of labor is greater at the Division I level, resulting in potentially less interaction with organizational decision makers. While Adams' (1965) equity theory has been synonymous with the distribution of resources, the same theory of application of input to outcome ratio can be applied to interactions within an organization. If coaches of different sport types compare resources, processes, and interactions as being related to fairness perceptions, then an understanding of expected interactions in comparison to other coaches is necessary for athletic administrators to engage in effective interactions which benefit both the coach and athletic department.

Interactional Effects Between Sport Type and Job Title.

The results indicated a disordinal interaction effect between sport type and job title on interactional justice perceptions. Head baseball coaches perceived interactional justice to be more fair than assistant baseball coaches. For men's basketball and wrestling, however, assistant coaches perceived interactional justice to be more fair than head coaches. These findings are interesting when examining the hierarchy of intercollegiate athletic departments. Greenberg and Colquitt (2005) found interactional justice perceptions were associated with direct supervisor evaluations. Head coaches are more closely connected than assistant coaches to the ultimate decision makers within athletic departments. Kim et al. (in press) concluded athletic directors of Division I institutions may not be core influencers to athletic employees' psychological capital, as many do not directly work with an athletic decision maker. Assistant coaches will likely have more interaction with the head coach on both organizational and social matters and fewer interactions with athletic decision makers. This difference in the coach's assessment of interactions may lead one to infer head coaches may have a higher perception of interactional justice based solely on their hierarchical position within the athletic department. The finding that assistant coaches of men's basketball and wrestling perceive higher levels of interactional justice, however, prompts more discussion and research for understanding how assistant coaches interpret interactional justice.

One explanation to this finding could be based on the type of interactions assistant coaches have with athletic department decision makers. Greenberg (1993) argued interactional justice comprised of a distinction between informational and interpersonal justice. Since the head coach is ultimately responsible for a program's success, their interactions with athletic

department decision makers may incorporate more organizational discussions including team performance, personnel, program budget, academics, or community involvement. Assistant coaches' interactions with athletic department decision makers may be limited to discussions related to less departmental or team topics (e.g., social interactions).

Interactional Justice as an Independent Component of Organizational Justice within Intercollegiate Athletics

The findings of the present study support the use of interactional justice as an independent component of organizational justice within intercollegiate athletics. Prior studies, both within and outside the sport setting, have debated whether interactional justice is an independent organizational justice component (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1997) or a subcomponent to procedural justice (Bies & Moag, 1986; Moorman, 1991). The present study found interactions between both (a) sport type and NCAA Division and (b) sport type and job title to be significant in explaining coaches' perceptions of interactional justice. This finding is different from prior studies which found no distinction between procedural and interactional justice in the sport industry setting (Kim & Andrew, 2013). However, studies finding a distinction have still not been conclusive. Czekanski and Turner (2015) used structural equation modeling to test the four-component (distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal) organizational justice model only to find a good fit model of a three-component (procedural, interpersonal, and information) construct among student-athletes. Again, the inconsistencies in findings further support the need for further exploration of these perceptions within intercollegiate athletics.

A unique aspect of the interactional justice component is the subjectivity of the perceptions. Resource distribution and policy development can be clearly measured, making these variables more objective in nature. The subjective nature of interactional justice, however, allows athletic department decision makers the opportunity to enhance coaches' perceptions of fairness more easily. This may also provide evidence toward studies that have found multiple dimensions of interactional justice. Bies and Moag (1986) identified four interactional characteristics that positively enhance an employee's interactional justice perceptions: (a) truthfulness, (b) justification, (c) respect, and (d) propriety. The application of these specific characteristics in addition to altering topics of conversation, using different tones in communication, or interacting more frequently, could have a positive effect on the perceived fairness among coaches. Each of these suggestions is cost effective and do not involve risky organizational change, yet provide opportunities for athletic department decision makers to strongly impact coaches' perceptions of interactional fairness.

Limitations and Future Research

Future research on organizational justice in intercollegiate athletics should focus on further investigation of interactional justice as a unique component of organizational justice. The current literature on interactional justice is scarce compared to the literature on procedural and distributive justice. A reason for this may be the debate over whether interactional justice is a truly unique component of organizational justice. The present findings offer support for the use of interactional justice as a unique component. Further, the present research supports the theories of Greenberg (1993) and Bies and Moag (1986) that interactional justice may actually be a larger

component with several sub-components. Future research should take a similar approach to the literature on distributive justice (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994a) by examining potential sub-components such as interpersonal and informational interactions. Colquitt (2001) and Kernan and Hanges (2002) developed and validated scales to measure informational and interpersonal justice. Data on sub-components of interactional justice could provide athletic department decision makers with a deeper understanding of how their interactions impact coaches' perceptions of fairness leading to a more collegial organizational environment, lower employee turnover, fewer errors in communication, stronger organizational commitment, and/or higher levels of job satisfaction.

The findings of the present study supported using revenue generation of sport programs as a means of defining sport type. Sport type interacted significantly with both NCAA Division and job title on coaches' perceptions of organizational justice components. Future studies should focus on further defining sport type based on revenue generation. However, a limitation to the present study was the narrow scope of sport programs analyzed and the traditional low survey response rate of intercollegiate coaches. While the selection of sport programs was purposeful to the present study, it did limit the generalizability of the findings. The use of men's basketball and football as revenue-generating sport programs does not apply across the entire NCAA. There are institutions which use other sport programs as revenue generators. Therefore, future studies could use a more individualistic application of revenue-generation to more accurately gather data related to fairness perceptions related to resource allocations. In order to improve upon the traditionally low response rates of intercollegiate coaches, more purposeful timing of surveying (data collection done specific to a sport program's season of play) and collaborations with the NCAA or conferences may garner more responses among intercollegiate coaches. Finally, a longitudinal approach of measuring perceptions of fairness can provide data on how the growing gap between revenue generating and non-revenue-generating sport programs might affect coaches' perceptions of organizational justice. A benefit to understanding this gap would be the opportunity to develop strategies to reduce the negative perceptions of fairness among coaches on non-revenue-generating sports.

Future studies should also incorporate women's teams. A limitation to the present study and current literature is the lack of exploration of the perceptions of coaches of women's teams or female coaches. While defining sport type by revenue generation limits the use of women's teams, some cases do exist where women's programs are a significant revenue generator for an athletic department (e.g. Tennessee women's basketball). Future research could provide a more comprehensive understanding of fairness perceptions among all coaches within an athletic department. Are there differences in fairness perceptions based on gender of the coach for female sports? Do similar interactions of NCAA Division and job title exist between male and female coaches for female sports on justice perceptions?

Finally, future studies should seek to examine the effects perceptions of fairness have on organizational behaviors. The bulk of literature on organizational justice within the sport setting has focused solely on gaining a perspective on fairness perceptions. This study, along with the prior literature, has established a broad enough understating of fairness perceptions that an examination of the effect these perceptions have on organizational behaviors like job satisfaction or organizational commitment can be explored. While a few studies have begun this exploration, there is an immense opportunity to explore these effects more in future studies (Colquitt et al., 2001; & Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Whisenant, 2005; Jordan et al., 2007; Kim & Andrew, 2015). As the financial model of intercollegiate sport continues to grow in size and there is more

emphasis on productivity and efficiency, athletic department decision makers could benefit from understanding these interactions among organizational justice components and organizational behaviors.

Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship among organizational justice components within the intercollegiate athletics setting. These findings contribute to the existing literature on organizational justice in the intercollegiate athletics setting by providing suggestions for practical application by athletic department decision makers, including: (a) focus on interactions with coaches, (b) develop a scoring or tracking system of organizational justice components, and (c) segment sports based on revenue generation. Finally, the present study provides three suggestions for future research: (a) expand the literature of interactional justice, (b) further define of sport type based on revenue generation, and (c) examine these variables in segments of the sport industry outside of intercollegiate athletics.

References

- Adams, J. S. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 67*, 422-36.
- Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). New York: Academic Press.
- Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. S. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, & B. H. Bazerman (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations: Vol. 1*, 43-55. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86*, 278-321.
- Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O. L. H., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 425-445.
- Cropanzano, R., & Greenberg, J. G. (1997). Progress in organizational justice: Tunneling through the maze. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology, 12*, 317-372. New York: John Wiley.
- Cropanzano, R., Prehar, C.A., & Chen, P. Y. (2002). Using social exchange theory to distinguish procedural from interactional justice. *Group & Organization Management, 27*(3), 324-351.
- Cropanzano, R. & Randall, M. L. (1993). Injustice and work behavior: A historical review. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.) *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resources management* (pp.1-20). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Czekanski A. W. & Turner, B. A. (2015). Just exchange in Intercollegiate Athletics. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics, 8*, 139-161.
- Deutsch, M. (1975). Equity, equality, and need: What determines which value will be used as the basis of distributive justice? *Journal of Social Issues, 31*, 137-49.
- Dillman, D. A. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method* (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- EADA. (2017). The equity in athletics data analysis cutting tool. Retrieved from <https://ope.ed.gov/athletics/#/>
- Greenberg, J. G. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management, 16*, 399-432.
- Greenberg, J. G. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management* (79-103). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Greenberg, J. G., & Colquitt, J. A. (2005). *Handbook of organizational justice*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Hums, M. A., & Chelladurai, P. (1994a). Distributive justice in intercollegiate athletics: Development of an instrument. *Journal of Sport Management 8* (3), 190-99.
- Hums, M. A., & Chelladurai, P. (1994b). Distributive justice in intercollegiate athletics: The views of NCAA coaches and administrators. *Journal of Sport Management 8*, 200-17.

- Jordan, J. (2001). *The relationship between organizational justice and job satisfaction: An examination of NCAA basketball coaches*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH.
- Jordan, J. S., Gillentine, J. A., & Hunt, B. P. (2004). The influence of fairness: The application of organizational justice in a team sport setting. *International Sports Journal*, 8, 139-49.
- Kernan, M. C. & Hanges, P. J. (2002). Survivor reactions to reorganization: Antecedents and consequences of procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 916-928.
- Kim, S. (2017). Perceived organizational support as a mediator between distributive justice and sports referees' job satisfaction and career commitment. *Annals of Leisure Research*, 20(2), 169-187.
- Kim, S. & Andrew, D. P. (2015). Relationship between organizational justice and coaches' attitudinal outcomes in intercollegiate sports. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 10(2-3), 305-337.
- Kim, S. & Andrew, D. P. (2013). Organizational justice in intercollegiate athletics: Perceptions of coaches. *Sport Management Review*, 16(2), 200-210.
- Kim, S., Andrew, D., Mahony, D.F., & Hums, M.A. (2008). Outcomes of distributive justice perceptions in intercollegiate athletics. *International Journal of Sport Management*, 9(4).
- Kim, M.; Kim, A. C. H.; Newman, J. I.; Ferris, G. R.; & Perrewè, P. L. (in press). The antecedents and consequences of positive organizational behavior: The role of psychological capital for promoting employee well-being in sport organizations. *Sport Management Review*.
- Mahony, D. A., Hums, M. A., Andrew, D. P., & Dittmore, S. W. (2010). Organizational justice in sport. *Sport Management Review*, 13(2), 91-105.
- Mahony, D. A., Hums, M. A., & Riemer, H. A. (2002). Distributive justice in intercollegiate athletics: Perceptions of athletic directors and athletic board chairs. *Journal of Sport Management* 16 (4), 331-55.
- Mahony, D. F., Hums, M. A., & Riemer, H. A. (2005). Bases for determine need: Perspectives of intercollegiate athletic directors and athletic board chairs. *Journal of Sport Management*, 19 (2), 170-192.
- Mahony, D. F., & Pastore, D. (1998). Distributive justice: An examination of participation opportunities, revenues, and expenses at NCAA institutions 1973-1993. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues* 22, 127-52.
- Mahony, D. F., Riemer, H. A., Breeding, J. L., & Hums, M. A. (2006). Organizational justice in sport organizations: Perceptions of college athletes and other college students. *Journal of Sport Management* 20, 159 – 89.
- McFarlin, D. B., & Sweeney, P. D (1997). Process and outcome: Gender differences in the assessment of justice. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18, 83-99.
- Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 845-55.
- NCAA. (2018). NCAA Sports Sponsorship and Participation Rates Database. Retrieved from <http://www.ncaa.org/about/resources/research/ncaa-sports-sponsorship-and-participation-rates-database>

- NCAA. (2017a). Revenues and expenses: 2004-2016. Retrieved from http://www.ncaa.org/sites/default/files/2017RES_D1-RevExp_Entire_2017_Final_20180123.pdf
- NCAA. (2017b). What does Division III have to offer?. Retrieved from <http://www.ncaa.org/governance/what-does-division-iii-have-offer>
- Nunnally, J. C. & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.) New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Patrick, I. S. C., Mahony, D. F., & Petrosko, J. M. (2008). Distributive justice in intercollegiate athletics: An examination of equality, revenue production, and need. *Journal of Sport Management, 22*, 165-84.
- Rahim, M., Magner, N., & Shapiro, D. (2000). Do justice perceptions influence styles of handling conflict with supervisors?: What justice perceptions, precisely? *The International Journal of Conflict Management, 11*, 9-13.
- Thibaut, J., & Walker, L. (1975). *Procedural justice: A psychological analysis*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Tornblom, K. Y., & Jonsson, D. S. (1985). Subrules of the equality and contribution principles: Their perceived fairness in distribution and retribution. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 48*, 249-61.
- Tornblom, K. Y., & Jonsson, D. S. (1987). Distribution vs. retribution: The perceived justice of the contribution and equality principles for cooperative and competitive relationships. *Acta Sociologica, 30*, 25-52.
- USA Today. (2017). USA Today Sports college sports financial database 2015-16. Retrieved from <http://sports.usatoday.com/ncaa/finances/>
- Whisenant, W. (2005). Organizational justice and commitment in interscholastic sports. *Sport, Education and Society, 10*, 343-357.
- Whisenant, W., & Jordan, J. S. (2006). Organizational justice and team performance in interscholastic athletics. *Applied Research in Coaching and Athletics Annual, 21*, 55-82.

Tables

Table 1
Population Cell Sizes of Respondents for the Present Study

<u>Coaching Position</u>	<u>Sport</u>			<u>Total</u>
	<u>Baseball</u>	<u>Basketball</u>	<u>Wrestling</u>	
Head coaches				
Division I	8	7	15	30
Division III	17	12	34	63
Assistant coaches				
Division I	23	26	30	79
Division III	25	31	5	61
Total	73	76	84	233

Table 2
Perceptions of fairness by Sport, Division, and Position

	<u>Distributive Justice</u>	<u>Interactional Justice</u>	<u>Procedural Justice</u>
	<u>M (SD)</u>	<u>M (SD)</u>	<u>M (SD)</u>
Perceptions of fairness by Sport			
Baseball	4.11 (1.56)	5.65 (1.39)	4.75 (1.20)
Men's Basketball	4.22 (1.70)	5.74 (1.45)	4.66 (1.29)
Wrestling	3.88 (1.54)	5.57 (1.60)	4.44 (1.39)
Division			
Division I	4.11 (1.63)	5.64 (1.42)	4.68(1.27)
Division III	4.02 (1.57)	5.66 (1.54)	4.55 (1.34)
Position			
Head Coach	4.12 (1.59)	5.51 (1.66)	4.50 (1.46)
Assistant Coach	4.02 (1.60)	5.74 (1.36)	4.68 (1.19)

Table 3
Perceptions of fairness by Sport Type x Division

	Distributive Justice**	Interactional Justice*	Procedural Justice**
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Perceptions of fairness			
Division I Baseball	4.19 (1.59)	5.18 (1.74)	4.80 (1.34)
Division III Baseball	4.05 (1.55)	6.00 (.94)	4.71 (1.10)
Division I Men's Basketball	4.71 (1.73)	6.06 (.99)	5.04 (1.11)
Division III Men's Basketball	3.84 (1.59)	5.49 (1.70)	4.38 (1.37)
Division I Wrestling	3.61 (1.44)	5.66 (1.38)	4.35 (1.26)
Division III Wrestling	4.20 (1.57)	5.47 (1.84)	4.55 (1.54)

Note. Computed using alpha = .05

*p<.05 **p<.01

Table 4
Perceptions of fairness by Sport Type x Job Title

	Distributive Justice	Interactional Justice**	Procedural Justice
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Perceptions of fairness			
Baseball Head Coaches	3.99 (1.65)	6.14 (.92)	4.82 (1.29)
Baseball Assistant Coaches	4.17 (1.52)	5.40 (1.53)	4.71 (1.16)
Men's Basketball Head Coaches	4.42 (1.78)	5.35 (1.66)	4.33 (1.56)
Men's Basketball Assistant Coaches	4.15 (1.68)	5.86 (1.37)	4.77 (1.19)
Wrestling Head Coaches	4.07 (1.50)	5.24 (1.88)	4.41 (1.51)
Wrestling Assistant Coaches	3.62 (1.57)	6.03 (.96)	4.48 (1.23)

Note. Computed using alpha = .05

*p<.05 **p<.01

Table 5
Perceptions of fairness by Title x NCAA Division

	Distributive Justice	Interactional Justice	Procedural Justice
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Perceptions of fairness			
Division I Head Coaches	4.34 (1.68)	5.57 (1.54)	4.82 (1.35)*
Division I Assistant Coaches	4.02 (1.61)	5.67 (1.39)	4.63 (1.24)*
Division III Head Coaches	4.01 (1.55)	5.48 (1.73)	4.35 (1.50)
Division III Assistant Coaches	4.03 (1.61)	5.84 (1.32)	4.74 (1.12)

Note. Computed using alpha = .05

*p<.05 **p<.01

Figures

Figure 1
Analysis of interactions on perceptions of Distributive Justice by Sport Type and NCAA Division

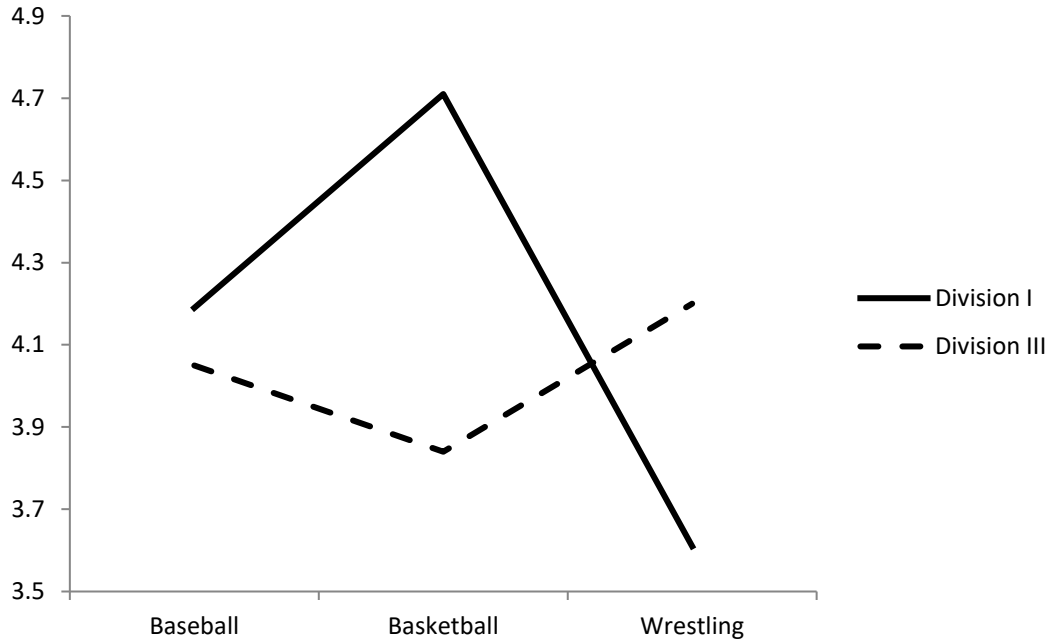


Figure 2
Analysis of interactions on perceptions of Interactional Justice by Sport Type and NCAA Division

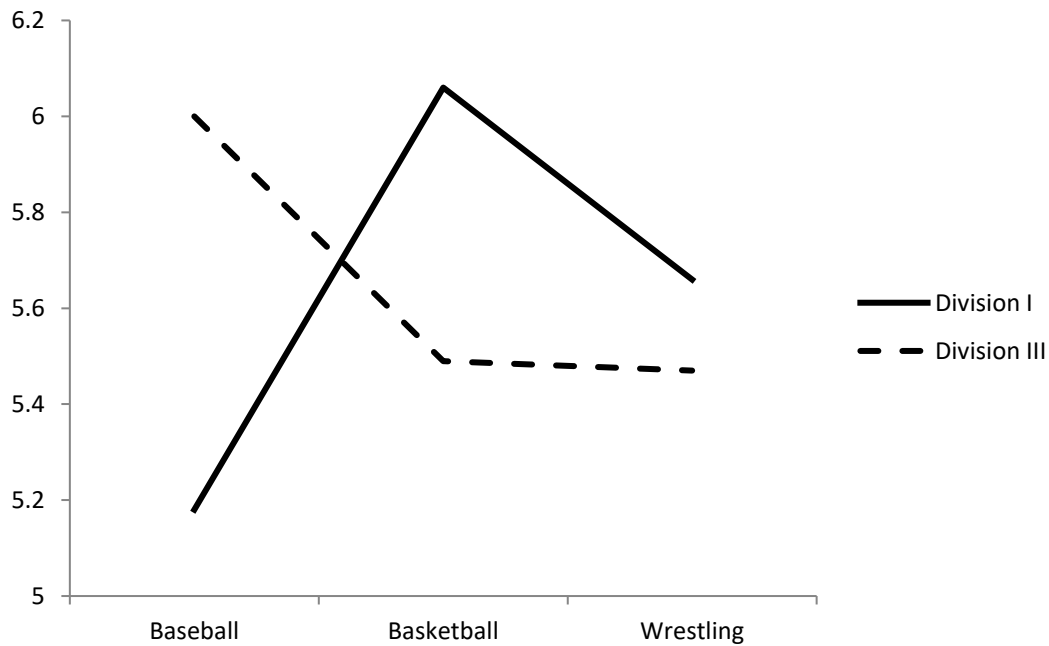


Figure 3
Analysis of interactions on perceptions of Procedural Justice by Sport Type and NCAA Division

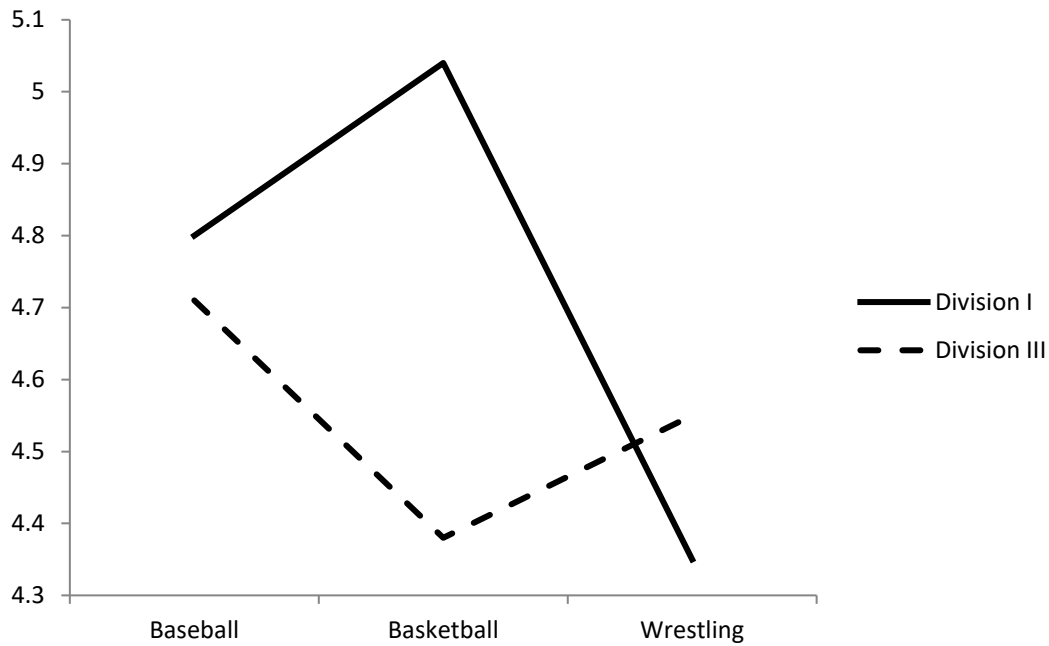


Figure 4
Analysis of interactions on perceptions of Interactional Justice by Sport Type and Job Title

