

5-1-2009

# Intercollegiate Athlete Perceptions of Justice in Team Disciplinary Decisions

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INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETE PERCEPTIONS OF JUSTICE IN TEAM  
DISCIPLINARY DECISIONS

A Thesis  
Presented to  
The Faculty of the Department of Psychology  
Western Kentucky University  
Bowling Green, Kentucky

In Partial Fulfillment  
Of the Requirements for the Degree  
Master of Arts

By  
Brandon Richard Severs

May 2009

INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETE PERCEPTIONS OF JUSTICE IN TEAM  
DISCIPLINARY DECISIONS

Date Recommended May1, 2009

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INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETE PERCEPTIONS OF JUSTICE IN TEAM  
DISCIPLINARY DECISIONS

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May 2009

103 Pages

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Perceptions of justice involving disciplinary decisions for a star player in an intercollegiate team sport setting were investigated. Male and female intercollegiate athletes (N = 142) at a mid-sized southeastern university responded to one of sixteen scenarios and reported perceptions of fairness for the punished athlete and teammates, perceptions of procedural fairness for the punished athlete and teammates, and whether the punishment was likely to deter future misconduct by the punished athlete and teammates. The results indicated that athletes perceived consistently applied punishment as more fair to all team members than they did conditional punishment; consistently applied punishment was perceived as more likely to deter future misconduct for all team members than was conditional punishment; severe punishment was perceived as more likely to deter future misconduct to the punished athlete than was moderate punishment; and punishment that appropriately matches the severity of the violation was perceived as more fair than punishment that was overly for the violation severity.

## Intercollegiate Athlete Perceptions of Justice in Team Disciplinary Decisions

Recent events of punishment to star players on sports teams have spawned debates regarding the fairness of disciplinary outcomes and the procedures used to distribute these outcomes. Examples include the suspension of National Football League wide receiver Plaxico Burress (Mosley, 2008) and the suspension of football all-American guard Andre Smith at Alabama University (Low, 2008). In both cases, the star players committed a team or collegiate rule violation and were severely punished. There is little research addressing justice perceptions among team members in sports. While there are a considerable number of research studies on the subject of organizational justice, only a few address perceptions of employee disciplinary decisions.

The concept of organizational justice involves employee perceptions of whether a work related issue is considered fair or unfair. Employee perceptions typically are related to the distribution of work related outcomes, or distributive justice, and the process used to determine how those outcomes are distributed, or procedural justice (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Organizational justice also can be affected by how an employee is treated while assessments are made to decide which employee or employees will receive particular outcomes. Hence, interpersonal relationships between employer and employee also may affect the overall perception of organizational justice.

The current study focused on justice perceptions of intercollegiate athletes regarding punishment decisions for star players. Punishment is used in an organizational context to decrease an aversive response or to serve as a warning to future behavior (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980). Punishment can elicit positive or negative reactions from individuals depending on fairness perceptions regarding the disciplinary process and

outcomes (Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1992). Although research on justice and punishment is commonly conducted in work organizations, studies should be conducted with sports teams as research in this area can lead to more effective management of teams. Specifically, this study will assess the effects of punishment severity on both a reprimanded team member and non-punished teammates. The effects of consistency of the punishment will be investigated, as will the effects of the decision maker who determines the punishment, either the head coach or team captains. Justice perceptions of punishment and procedure fairness will be measured for the punished athlete and teammates, as will perceptions of deterrence to future misconduct for the punished athlete and teammates.

I first will review the existing literature on organizational justice, with an emphasis on distributive and procedural justice. Then, a discussion relating to punishment and its effect on justice perceptions will follow. Finally, research involving justice decisions in sports teams will be examined.

### *Organizational Justice*

The concept of organizational justice focuses on perceptions of fairness involving decisions and the decision making process (Colquitt et al., 2001). It is a subjective construct as it is based on an employee's socially formed opinions. Specifically, organizational justice involves two dimensions, distributive justice, or the perceptions of fairness regarding the distribution of outcomes, and procedural justice, or perceptions of fairness of the procedures used to determine the distribution of outcomes. A third dimension of justice, interactional justice, is the perception of interpersonal treatment that is developed during the justice process (Bies & Moag, 1986).

Perceptions of organizational justice can impact attitudes, emotions, and behaviors that effect organizational factors such as employee satisfaction, commitment, and withdrawal (Greenberg & Lind, 2000). Using a fair process and distributing outcomes fairly may be done by organizations because of moral and legal implications, or more obvious reasons that include a desire to appear fair, open, and non-secretive (Greenberg, 1988). Regardless, research on organizational justice has shown that the perceptions individuals develop about justice can influence the organizational factors identified above, as well as subsequent performance (Williams, 1999).

#### *Distributive Justice*

Distributive justice is defined as the perceived fairness of the outcomes distributed among individuals in an organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). The concept was originally characterized in Adams' Equity Theory (Adams, 1963). Adams stated that an individual will compare the fairness of an outcome to his or her contributions, or inputs, with other individuals' outcomes and inputs. From an organizational standpoint, inputs refer to attributes such as skills and effort, while outcomes refer to consequences such as pay, promotion, and satisfaction. If the ratio of inputs to outcomes is equitable, the individual's perception would be that the distribution was fair. If the ratio of inputs to outputs is inequitable, the individual's perception would be that the distribution is unfair, and the individual would engage in behavior to restore an equal ratio to relieve the dissonance that has resulted from the inequity.

Adams (1963) initially offered three possible actions that could be used to reduce an inequitable situation. The first action is for the individual to increase or decrease his or her own inputs to match the inputs contributed by another individual. The second

action is for the individual to increase or decrease his or her own outcomes to match the outcomes received by another individual. The last action is for the individual to withdraw from the situation by quitting or becoming absent, however these actions are considered a more drastic means of coping with an inequity.

Equity (i.e., outcomes proportionate to inputs) has become the predominant rule when referring to distributive justice; however, other rules of distribution (i.e., equality and need) may be used as well (Gilliland & Chan, 2002). In the rule of equality in distribution, an individual's contributions do not have an impact on their outcomes; each individual simply receives the same reward as everyone else. Using pay as an example, with equality, everyone would receive the same pay, regardless of his or her contribution to the organization. Equality has been shown to be an important rule across team contexts while equity tends to be more important across individuals within team contexts (Colquitt & Jackson, 2006). The other distribution rule, need, suggests that the allocation of rewards should be based on the relative needs of individuals. Again using pay as an example, an individual who is in debt and needs the money would be rewarded with higher pay. However the outcomes are distributed, it is important to realize that distribution rules can change from one situation to the next in order to evaluate distributive justice. Perceptions of distributive justice are influenced by the social setting and the individual's role in the setting (Leventhal, 1980). Emotions such as anger also may influence justice perceptions (Williams, 1999).

McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) found that distributive justice was a stronger predictor of personal outcomes than was procedural justice, which was a stronger predictor of organizational outcomes. This may be because a person who perceives his or

her organization as fair will have a positive opinion of the organization regardless of whether they are dissatisfied with a personal outcome. On the other hand, a personal outcome such as pay will only affect the individual. Thus, the impact on the individual is a result of whether the procedure was fair. In contrast, Colquitt et al. (2001) found little support that the distributive model had a stronger predictive effect on personal and organizational outcomes than the procedural and interactional justice models. The distributive justice model was found to predict outcome satisfaction and withdrawal, but not other outcomes including job satisfaction, commitment, and performance.

### *Procedural Justice*

Another component to consider is the concept of procedural justice, which is perceptions of fairness of the process used to determine how outcomes are distributed (Colquitt et al., 2001). Distributive justice deals with the outcomes and consequences that result from the decision making process; procedural justice focuses on the decision making process itself. The concept of procedural justice was originally presented by Thibaut and Walker (1975, as cited in Houlden, LaTour, Walker, & Thibaut, 1978) and was the result of a dispute-resolution process. Within this theory, the dispute-resolution process involves two disputants and two types of control for evaluating decisions: a process step and a decision step. The process step is where evidence for the decision is presented. This step concerns the amount of control an individual has in offering procedural inputs or influencing the decision making process. The amount of control the individual uses has an effect on his or her fairness perceptions. The decision step is where the evidence is used to distribute the decided outcome. The evidence is evaluated and allocated in a controlled setting to resolve unfair justice perceptions. If little

evidence supports the outcome or decision, then perceptions of the allocation process are not supported. Alternatively, if the individual is allowed to take part in the decision step, the outcome will more likely be supported and perceived as fair.

As part of the procedural fairness process, Thibaut and Walker (1975, as cited in Greenberg & Lind, 2000) recognized the importance of having control or having a voice in the procedure. Perceptions of fairness increase when individuals are allowed to offer their concerns, needs, and opinions on the decision-making processes that affect them. When individuals believe their voice has an indirect impact on decision-making, it positively influences their satisfaction with the allocation process (Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995). When individuals believe their voice has a direct influence on decision-making, it positively affects attitudes and perceptions toward management. In addition, individuals will perceive the process as fair if they have control over presenting their arguments and opinions (Colquitt et al., 2001). It is important to understand that simply having a voice in the procedure does not increase perceptions of procedural fairness (Greenberg & Lind, 2000). Instead, an individual must believe that his or her voice is considered and listened to in the process. When the individual's voice is not heard, or even worse, disregarded by management as unimportant, perceptions of fairness will be negatively impacted.

Differentiating from Thibaut and Walker's concept of procedural justice, Leventhal (1980) focused on using the concept of procedural justice in an organizational setting. Leventhal coined the term procedural fairness to describe procedural elements that are used to form perceptions about fairness. Specifically, seven procedural elements were identified that characterized different components of procedural fairness. The seven

elements are: (a) *Selection of Agents* – procedures for choosing the people that serve as decision makers in the allocation process; (b) *Setting Ground Rules* – procedures for determining and evaluating potential rewards, and the behaviors necessary to attain them; (c) *Gathering Information* – procedures for gathering and utilizing information about the potential recipients of the award; (d) *Decision Structure* – procedures that define the structure of the final decision process for which a reward or punishment is given; (e) *Appeals* – procedures that give dissatisfied individuals an opportunity to seek redress about the distribution of a reward or the allocation process; (f) *Safeguards* – procedures to ensure that the administration body performs the allocation process with honesty and integrity; and (g) *Change Mechanisms* – final set of procedures that enable the allocation process to be altered.

The seven components listed above lead to procedural rules that are presumed to manage perceptions of procedural justice. Leventhal (1980) focused on six rules that a procedure should follow if it is to be perceived as satisfying or violating procedural principles. These six rules were identified by Colquitt et al. (2001) to have the most impact on variance within procedural fairness perceptions. The six rules are: (a) *consistency rule* – procedures are applied consistently across people and time; (b) *bias suppression rule* – procedures should be free from personal self-interest and blind allegiance; (c) *accuracy rule* – procedures ensure that accurate information is collected and used when making decisions; (d) *correctibility rule* – procedures must provide opportunities to modify and reverse decisions made in the allocation process; (e) *representativeness rule* – procedures should respect the concerns and values of the individuals and sub-groups affected by the allocation process; and (f) *ethicality rule* –

procedures should be compatible with the moral and ethical values established by the individuals involved in the allocation process. Within these rules, Colquitt and Jackson (2006) identified the consistency rule as most important in a team context.

McFarlin and Sweeney (1992) found procedural justice to be a stronger predictor of organizational outcomes such as trust and commitment than personal outcomes. They also found procedural and distributive justice to have significant interactive effects on organizational outcomes. Specifically, an unfair procedure and distribution of outcomes will produce decreased organizational trust and commitment while a fair procedure, regardless of the level of distributive justice, will produce increased trust and commitment. Procedural justice has also been found to influence various behavioral outcomes (Williams, 1999), as well as job satisfaction and job commitment (Konovsky, 2000). Providing justification in the procedural process was shown to result in increases in performance and satisfaction. Bies and Shapiro (1988) revealed that providing explanations of why an outcome was allocated in a specific way significantly and positively influenced performance on subsequent behaviors. A final characteristic of procedural justice is the relationship between team effectiveness and the justice climate. Colquitt, Noe, and Jackson (2002) found teams with favorable justice climates perform more effectively and experience fewer withdrawal behaviors including absenteeism. Favorable justice climates can reinforce positive perceptions, which lead to loyalty and compliance from an individual.

#### *Organizational Justice as a Construct*

As mentioned previously, there are three components of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interpersonal justice. Each component of

organizational justice is distinct (Colquitt, 2001); furthermore, interactional justice can be broken down into two separate components, an interpersonal segment and an informational segment. For this study, however, interactional justice will not be addressed because the purpose of the study is to assess perceptions regarding justice outcomes and the process used to allocate those outcomes. The focus of the study does not involve the treatment of the individuals in the allocation process. Nevertheless, Colquitt used factor analysis to determine the best fitting model of organizational justice with the components above. Colquitt compared the fit of four models and concluded that a four-factor model consisting of distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice fit best. This finding suggests that the four components interact differently and combining components can render their independent effects ambiguous.

Colquitt et al. (2001) reviewed the relationships among organizational justice constructs in a meta-analysis. The authors reported that process control and the Levanthal criteria, both related to procedural justice, were highly correlated. Also, there was a high correlation between interpersonal justice and informational justice, although the correlation was not considered high enough for the two parts to be combined together as the construct interactional justice. Altogether, Colquitt et al. reported strong correlations among the various justice components; however, none of the correlations were strong enough to suggest that the components are simply different names for the same construct.

To summarize, the concept of organizational justice can be accurately defined as a rather broad construct comprised of four distinct components: distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice. Colquitt et al. (2001)

found these four factors of justice to be related, however they each predict unique organizational outcomes. The present research will focus on the effects of distributive and procedural justice. The next section will concentrate on research regarding punishment and its effect on both the punished individual and on the observer.

### *Punishment*

Despite the unpleasant connotation that the word punishment holds, it is frequently used as a disciplinary action in organizational settings to reduce or eliminate undesirable behavior (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980; Ball & Sims, 1991). Trevino (1992) discussed organizational disciplinary situations as a result of an individual or group engaging in behavior referred to as misconduct. Following misconduct, management or an individual with more authority will respond with some level of punishment that is directed at the individual or group. Trevino defined misconduct as behavior that falls short of moral or organizational standards. Punishment, on the other hand, is defined as the application of negative consequences or the withdrawal of positive consequences to reduce the frequency of inappropriate behavior. Using these definitions, examples of misconduct could include theft, drug use, or excessive absenteeism and punishment could be in the form of verbal reprimands, suspensions, or terminations.

Although the definition of punishment used by Trevino (1992) captures the concept effectively, it is important to understand that different individuals will experience different events as punishing. Thus, the use of punishment in organizations often can be difficult (Pinder, 2008). As a result, the essential feature of punishment is a relationship between a defined response and an aversive consequence or stimulus (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980). Without this relationship, simply providing aversive consequences or

stimuli does not represent punishment, only a random, negative event. Instead, the punishing event must be related to the negative misconduct and must have the effect of reducing future occurrences of that behavior. Furthermore, the punishment must be administered immediately in order to reduce the future frequency of the behavior (Johnston, 1972). Without immediate delivery of the punishment, its impact on the reduction of future behaviors for an individual or group will decrease.

Arvey and Ivancevich (1980) stated that punishment can occur in two kinds of conditions. The first condition involves presenting an aversive situation following a behavior or response. The aversive situation in this condition is a primary aversive event, such as an electric shock or a loud noise. The second condition involves a secondary aversive event, where a stimulus becomes aversive after repeatedly being combined with a behavior or response. Arvey and Ivancevich suggested that many of the aversive situations that take place in the organization are of this second condition where reprimands and non-verbal gestures are common actions among employees. When an aversive stimulus becomes conditioned, it can serve two separate functions. The first function is that the stimulus may decrease or punish the behavior that preceded it. The second function is that the stimulus serves as a warning or deterrent of an imminent outcome if a certain behavior or response is carried out.

### *Effectiveness of Punishment*

Pinder (2008) acknowledged that many individuals believe punishment to be a controversial and negative management tool, as suggested by early research by Skinner and others. Punishment is generally thought to produce undesirable emotional side effects such as anxiety or withdrawal (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980). The use of

punishment also is thought to be unethical as it can be used to seek retribution to restore justice. Despite the unfavorable effects that can result from using punishment, it can also positively influence behavior, as punished individuals will quickly learn what behaviors are desirable and which ones have undesirable side effects. Although other organizational tools such as positive reinforcement have been advised, research suggests that punishment can be effective (Johnston, 1972) and an enhancer of employee satisfaction when used in the appropriate context (Ball & Sims, 1991).

Arvey and Ivancevich (1980) described specific variables that influence the effectiveness of punishment in an organizational context. The variables are: (a) *Timing of Punishment* – The aversive event or stimulus can start at different times in the punishment process. The punishment can be introduced while the aversive stimulus is occurring, immediately after the aversive stimulus takes place, or sometime following the aversive stimulus. Johnston (1972) specified that the punishment should be given close to the time the misconduct occurs, thus increasing the effectiveness of the punishment. Supervisors who wait a substantial amount of time to apply the punishment for an undesirable behavior risk diminishing the effectiveness of the punishment. Delivering the punishment while the aversive event is occurring is effective as well, however it should be ensured that the punishment does not end before the aversive event does, as this situation will negatively reinforce the action. (b) *Intensity* – Despite initial research that indicated a punishment response becomes more effective as the intensity of the punishment increases (Johnston, 1972), punishment of moderate levels of intensity are the most effective (Arvey & Ivancevich). Parke (1972, as cited in Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980) maintained that using a high intensity level of punishment may produce feelings of

anxiety in individuals and can hinder the learning process. Although using high levels of intensity can control and deter undesirable behavior, the high intensity may act as a suppressant of other desirable responses and behaviors. The punishment should start at a sufficiently high level; however, Hamner and Organ (1978, as cited in Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980) stated that this usually does not occur. Instead, organizations tend to begin the punishment at a mild level and increase its intensity. (c) *Relationships with Punishing Agents* – Punishment procedures are most effective when the individual dispensing the punishment has a close and pleasant relationship with the individual being punished.

Additional variables from Arvey and Ivancevich (1980) are: (d) *Schedule of Punishment* – Punishment can occur on three schedules: a continuous schedule where the punishment occurs after every undesirable behavior, an interval schedule where the punishment comes after a variable or fixed amount of time has elapsed since the behavior occurred, and a ratio schedule where the punishment comes after a variable or fixed number of responses have occurred. Johnston (1972) stated that of the three schedules, a continuous schedule is the most effective for punishment with individuals. This schedule emphasizes consistency when punishing individuals for undesirable behavior. However, Rosen and Jerdee (1974) indicated that managers are inconsistent when allocating punishment across individuals. Managers, instead of being consistent with their punishment, rely on tenure and skill level to assist in administering punishment. Punishment of undesirable behavior is more effective when it is administered consistently to different individuals by the same manager. Also, different managers need to be consistent when punishing individuals for similar undesirable behaviors. An effective

manager, according to Arvey and Ivancevich, is one who punishes fairly and equitably. Furthermore, a manager needs to be aware of his or her attributions regarding the cause of an undesirable behavior. If attributions dictate which behaviors are not under the control of the individual, then inconsistency may arise. (e) *Provision of Rationale* – A punishment is more effective if a clear rationale is provided and if future consequences are explained to the punished individual. When unambiguous reasons are given why the punishment was administered, an individual will better understand the relationship between undesirable behavior and its negative consequences, punishment, and it will influence future behavior. Parke (1972, as cited in Arvey & Ivancevich) explained that the punishment will influence future behavior whether or not the punishment was of low or high intensity (i.e., low intensity punishment may inadvertently reinforce undesirable behavior whereas high intensity punishment will deter undesirable behavior). (f) *Alternative Responses Available* – This final variable explains that punishment will be effective when other, desired responses are available to the individual. Also, these alternatives must be reinforced as desirable behavior while the undesirable responses must be punished. Methods that explain why an undesirable behavior results in punishment and what are correct behaviors will have greater effectiveness.

#### *Disadvantages of Punishment*

The other side of punishment as a management tool is that it can be disadvantageous at times. As noted above, some researchers (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980; Kreitner & Luthans, 1984) have suggested that punishment should be avoided because it can produce undesirable emotional and behavioral outcomes. Ball and Sims (1991) advised that punishment may elicit negative emotions such as anger and sadness.

Likewise, Arvey and Ivancevich stated that using punishment may be done as an act of retribution against another individual. Regardless, punishment may contribute to anxiety in an individual, which can lead to overly cautious behavior and impact other, desirable behaviors. These side effects are likely to occur when the punishment is allocated in an inconsistent process. Pinder (1980) stated that allocating punishment consistently is difficult to accomplish for many reasons. One reason is that many individuals are usually responsible for dispensing punishment and that these individuals can differ in their views on punishment. Also, the mood of the manager can influence the consistency of the punishment (Rosen & Jerdee, 1974).

Another disadvantage of using punishment is that it never fully eliminates an undesirable behavior (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980). Instead, researchers contend that punishment is used to suppress undesirable behaviors until the possibility of punishment is removed from the situation. In this case, the effects of punishment are temporary, and undesirable behaviors will return as soon as the punishment disappears. Alternatively, Johnston (1972) argued that undesirable behavior will not necessarily return at the disappearance of a punishment, and that these behaviors can be controlled by the punishment schedule used. Along with the different schedules, other aversive stimuli in the organization and available alternative responses together can influence the recovery rate for undesirable behaviors.

#### *Punishment, Justice, and the Individual*

Research on punishment in organizations generally focuses on the effects of punishment on a disciplined subordinate. Ball et al. (1992) presented a model connecting an individual's reaction to an incident involving punishment. They proposed that

evaluations of justice and emotional reactions are mediating factors between a punishment and subordinate outcomes, and that the characteristics of the punishment primarily influence these evaluations. Specifically, Ball et al. stated that three characteristics of the incident influence evaluations: the procedures behind the punishment, the severity of the punishment, and the demeanor of the supervisor administering the punishment.

Ball et al. (1992) proposed that the punishment procedure must be contingent and consistent to influence positively an individual's evaluations. The punishment should be administered as a response to an aversive event and the punishment should follow organizational rules. Violations of these two factors can negatively influence both emotional and behavioral reactions because individuals are concerned with the distribution of punishment outcomes and the process used to distribute the punishment (Bennett, 1998).

Another characteristic that influences evaluations is the severity of the punishment. Events will be evaluated more fairly when the punishment is appropriately severe, as compared to overly lenient or overly severe. Furthermore, Ball et al. (1992) proposed that lenient punishment will be perceived more fairly than overly harsh punishment. This may be due to cultural norms about the appropriateness of punishment; an outcome that is overly severe will result in a decrease of positive reactions. Bennett (1998) similarly argued that the level of punishment severity can impact the individual's response to the punishment. High levels of punishment can lead to greater behavioral changes in the individual's response compared to low levels, or lenient severities, of punishment. Altogether, when an individual perceives the punishment to be procedurally

appropriate, consistent, and of the correct magnitude, then he or she will evaluate the punishment as fair and an increase in desirable performance may result (Ball, Trevino, & Sims, 1994)

The last characteristic proposed by Ball et al. (1992) to influence evaluations of punishment is the demeanor of the supervisor. Ball et al. stated that a negative demeanor will be positively related to negative emotional and behavioral responses. In particular, negative expressions such as lack of eye contact and angry communications can lead to negative responses and a negative relationship exchange. Other characteristics can also lead to a negative demeanor of the supervisor, and as a result, hurt the relationship between supervisor and employee. Greenberg (2009) suggested that supervisors who provide social support to employees may assist in diminishing reactions of distress due to unfair punishments. Also, Greer and Labig (1987) found that administering a more intense punishment can lead to a reduction of undesirable behaviors. Although this finding is important, Greer and Labig also found that if the punishment is administered by a supervisor exhibiting inappropriate behavior, the punishment may not lead to a reduction in undesirable behavior from the employee and the relationship between supervisor and employee may suffer.

Personality is another important factor when reviewing the effects of punishment on individuals. Ball et al. (1992) proposed that individual differences can influence perceptions of justice that are related to a punishment situation. Although Ball, Trevino, and Sims (1993) found that personality differences did not directly influence punishment outcomes such as commitment, trust, and satisfaction, they did influence how the individual interpreted the punishment situation. The personality characteristics discussed

in the model by Ball et al. (1992) were belief in a just world and negative affectivity. These characteristics are seen as relatively stable over time and can explain individual differences in cognition and behavior. Belief in a just world, as defined by Rubin and Peplau (1975, as cited in Ball et al., 1992), refers to an individual's belief that people will get what they deserve. This belief is developed early in an individual's life and is formed into a preconceived idea of fairness as the individual matures. Those who believe in a just world and commit a violation of a rule will feel the need to be punished appropriately. Upon being punished, the individual will experience a decrease in negative emotions because the punishment follows his or her preconceived notions about a just world. On the other hand, Ball et al. (1992) stated that those individuals who do not believe in a just world and are punished will feel an increase in negative emotions. This may be because an individual will evaluate his or her situation as unjust and will attribute blame for the punishable behaviors elsewhere.

The other personality characteristic, negative affectivity, was defined by Watson and Clark (1984, as cited in Ball et al., 1992) as an ongoing emotion that assists in the interpretation of information. Individuals with negative affectivity will focus on the negative attributes about themselves, the other aspects of their lives, and will see punishment as less equitable and more severe due to a lack of control in the punishment process. Ball et al. (1994) found that punishment may be less effective in some individuals because of the way each individual views the punishment. Those who see themselves as having control in the punishment process will demonstrate an increase in performance and citizenship behaviors while those who perceive a lack of control and more severe punishment will subsequently decrease their performance.

### *Effects of Punishment on the Observer*

While most research tends to focus on punishment and its effects on the disciplined individual, other research focuses on punishment as a social occurrence. Trevino (1992) viewed punishment as an event that can take on many meanings. Punishment may be used to maintain social norms within an organization or it can be used to deter undesirable behaviors in punished individuals. A different meaning, though, is its effect on observers, particularly how another individual processes the punishment in order to make sense of the situation. Trevino defined an observer as a third party member that takes an interest in the punishment. The observer does not necessarily witness the aversive behavior that was committed, or the punishment response, but understands that a punishment occurred and makes a cognitive evaluation regarding the event.

A primary link between the outcomes of the observers and the punishment event is explained through Bandura's social learning theory. The theory suggests that when an individual observes another individual being punished, that observer will change his or her behavior, most likely by decreasing an undesirable behavior. Moreover, when an individual observes another individual committing an undesirable behavior and that individual is not punished, the observer will increase his or her undesirable behavior as a result (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1963). Trevino (1992) proposed that the punishment event and a failure to punish an undesirable action can influence the observer's future behavior.

As stated above, another meaning of punishment is its influence on deterring misconduct in both the punished individual and observers (Trevino, 1992). Deterrence

theory addresses the notion that a punishment can deter subsequent misconduct by increasing the risks involved with the inappropriate behavior. Individuals come to expect punishment when misconduct occurs, thus individuals will minimize costly undesirable behaviors and maximize desirable behaviors. Deterrence theory also suggests that characteristics of the punishment should impact the effectiveness of the punishment. Trevino stated that an individual will not perform an undesirable behavior if they expect the behavior to result in punishment and the severity of the punishment exceeds the value of any rewarding outcomes. Basically, punishment that is perceived to be more severe and more certain will have a stronger effect on deterring misconduct.

Trevino (1992) further explained that individuals who observe punishment will react with their own evaluations regarding justice. Evaluations that the punishment is just or unjust can influence outcomes such as subsequent misconduct, emotions, and other behaviors. Evaluations regarding organizational justice focus on two aspects: severity appropriateness and consistency. The intensity of the punishment in relation to the misconduct, or severity appropriateness, suggests that observers believe the level of punishment dispensed should fit the violation that occurred. Also, Trevino stated that observers prefer more severe punishment compared to the individuals being punished. This finding suggests that observers use different evaluation rules and have different goals for the punishment. In particular, the observer tends to use a retributive approach where he or she seeks a fair distribution of severe punishment. Although it may seem appealing to use a level of punishment that reflects the violation, observers desire more severe punishment to help protect the organization and its norms. The other aspect of distributive justice, consistency, focuses on the observers' evaluations of fairness

regarding punishment outcomes. When punishment outcomes are perceived to be consistent across individuals, observers evaluate the punishment as being just. When punishment outcomes are perceived to be more lenient or more severe compared to the violation, evaluations of the punishment can be considered unfair because the punishment does not match the infraction.

Traditional research (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980; Ball & Sims, 1991) on organizational punishment views it as a response taken to decrease undesirable behavior by offenders. Implications from Trevino's (1992) model extend the theory of punishment by including punishment as a social event that can influence observer's emotions and behavior. Trevino viewed punishment as a response to change both an individual's and observer's behavior and cognition without producing any negative side effects. Trevino also viewed punishment not as a last resort to fix undesirable behavior, but as an approach with both positive and negative implications for those with an interest in the situation. Specifically, observers will view punishment as just or unjust based on their evaluations of whether a punishment was deserved and was parallel to the violation that occurred.

To summarize, the use of punishment is very common in organizations (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980). It is primarily used as a disciplinary action to reduce or eliminate undesirable behavior (Ball & Sims, 1991), yet punishment is also viewed as a social phenomenon that can influence the behavior and emotion of observers as well (Trevino, 1992). The punishment response must be an aversive, undesirable event, and it should be administered immediately in order to reduce future occurrences of that behavior (Johnston, 1972). Ball et al. (1992) proposed that the punishment procedure must be

consistent and appropriately severe enough to influence an individual's evaluations positively. The punishment should be administered as a response to an inappropriate behavior and the punishment should follow organizational rules. For observers of punishment, Trevino suggested they prefer more severe punishment be given and that the severity of punishment should fit the severity of the violation that occurred. Finally, Ball et al. (1992) proposed that individual differences in personality can influence perceptions of justice that are related to a punishment situation. The next section will examine research regarding justice decisions and its effects in a team sport setting.

#### *Justice Decisions and its effects in Sports Teams*

While the research and concepts of organizational justice are primarily used in an organizational setting, they also apply to a sports setting for a number of reasons (Chelladurai, 2001, as cited in Jordan, Gillentine, & Hunt, 2004). For one, sports teams can be seen as work groups. The athletes, in this case, serve as the workforce and the coaches serve as management. This establishes a hierarchical structure where responsibilities and lines of authority between the workforce and management are developed. A sports team can be viewed as one component of an entire organization. A football team may signify one work group of the athletic department of a university that represents the organization as a whole.

Organizational justice can be applied to a sports team setting; however, the research in the area of athletics tends to address distributive and procedural justice relating to allocating resources to a team or athletic department. Hums and Chelladurai (1994a) developed an instrument to examine distributive justice and the perceptions that coaches and administrators have about allocating resources to particular collegiate

athletic programs, asking whether outcomes were based on principles of equity, equality, or need. They found that coaches and administrators rated the distribution of outcomes based on equality as the fairest option (Hums & Chelladurai, 1994b). Mahony, Hums, and Riemer (2002) attempted a similar study, yet found different results, concluding that the distribution of outcomes based on need was the fairest option.

While the results of the above studies focused on collegiate sports teams as a whole, there is no published research available regarding the effects of applying justice rules to disciplinary responses such as punishment. Research on perceptions of fairness regarding justice (Jordan et al., 2004) does suggest that generally, athletes develop fairness perceptions about the outcomes they receive, the procedures used to allocate those outcomes, the way they are treated, and the justifications provided by a coach or individual with authority regarding the decision made. The perceptions developed can influence the attitudes and performance of athletes. As a result, these fairness perceptions can positively impact the team as a whole or become an obstacle to success. Anshel (1990) advised that disciplining players should be consistent across all team members to maintain group cohesion; key players and supportive team members should be treated similarly in similar situations. However, to date this advice has not been empirically tested. When discipline is applied inconsistently across athletes, perceptions of the punishment are that it is unfair, as preferential treatment is not considered a consistent outcome. A team environment that creates perceptions of fairness is more likely to have satisfied, committed, productive, and united athletes (Jordan et al., 2004).

### *Summary of Literature*

Organizational justice involves employee perceptions of whether a work related issue is considered to be fair or unfair (Colquitt et al. 2001). Perceptions of fairness among employees can lead to feelings of satisfaction regarding organizational outcomes. Employee perceptions typically are related to the distribution of work related outcomes and the process used to determine how those outcomes are distributed. These two components, defined as distributive and procedural justice, combine with the treatment of employees during the distribution process, or interactional justice, to play important roles in influencing perceptions of justice within an organization. Organizational outcomes include rewards and disciplinary actions. Punishment is one such action that is used to eliminate undesirable behavior in an organization (Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980). Punishment not only affects the individual committing the violation, it also affects other members who are interested in the punishment as well (Trevino, 1992). Punishment can reduce or deter undesirable behavior in employees while reinforcing expected behavior. The concept of organizational justice can also be applied to a sports setting (Chelladurai, 2001, as cited in Jordan, Gillentine, & Hunt, 2004). While little research exists regarding athletes' perceptions of fairness of punishment, the perceptions developed can influence attitudes and performance. For example, Anshel (1990) advised that discipline should be consistent across all teammates to maintain group cohesion. Punishment that does not follow a consistent format may lead to unjust perceptions and decreased satisfaction and performance.

### *Present Study*

Although justice research has been applied to team sport contexts, relatively few studies examine perceptions of justice outcomes and the procedures used to distribute the outcomes. Furthermore, studies that have examined discipline and justice tend to concentrate on the punishment of on-the-field behaviors and performance, as compared to punishment of off-the-field behaviors. For example, Miles and Greenberg (1993) found that the threat of punishment diminished social loafing behaviors in swimmers attempting to meet specific relay times and increased performance. Thus, the present study focuses on the justice perceptions of collegiate athletes regarding punishment decisions to star players for off-the-field violations. This research will assess perceptions of fairness concerning punishment outcomes for both a punished intercollegiate athlete and the observing, non-punished team members. The study will examine two levels of misconduct severity (severe and moderate), two levels of punishment severity (severe and moderate), two types of punishment distribution (consistent and conditional), and two types of decision maker (head coach and team captains).

Misconduct and punishment severity will be operationalized based on the results of a stimulus rating study explained in the method section. The type of punishment distribution will be operationalized based on Levanthal's rule of consistency, as all team members will be punished either in a consistent manner or in a conditional manner that is based on the situation. The two types of decision-making procedures will be operationalized based on Vroom and Yetton's normative model of leadership that recommends different levels of participation in decision making depending upon the situation (Vroom & Jago, 1988). The types of decision maker, head coach and team

captains, respectively, are analogous to Vroom's autocratic decision making strategy, where the decision is made by the leader; and the group decision making strategy where members of the group participate and consensus is reached on a solution. The group decision allows a group member to have his or her voice recognized in the process, while the autocratic decision is made by the leader alone.

Recent research by Shoenfelt and Bucur (2002) indicated that the distribution of consistent punishment was perceived to be fairer to offenders and teammates. Also, consistent, severe punishment was more likely to deter future misconduct. Additionally, research by Shoenfelt and Clark (2002) suggested that when a decision to administer severe discipline is made in an autocratic manner, it will be perceived as less fair by the offender and teammates.

The following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1a: Punishment consistent with team rules will be perceived as more fair to the punished athlete than will conditional punishment.

Hypothesis 1b: Punishment consistent with team rules will be perceived as more fair to teammates than will conditional punishment.

Hypothesis 1c: Consistent punishment will be more likely to deter future violations by the punished athlete than will conditional punishment.

Hypothesis 1d: Consistent punishment will be more likely to deter future violations by teammates than will conditional punishment.

Hypothesis 2: Punishment for severe violations will be perceived as more fair to the punished athlete than will punishment for violations of moderate severity.

Hypothesis 3a: Severe punishment will be more likely to deter future rule violations by the punished athlete than will punishment of moderate severity.

Hypothesis 3b: Severe punishment will be more likely to deter future rule violations by teammates than will punishment of moderate severity.

Hypothesis 4a: Autocratic procedures will be perceived as less fair to the punished athlete than will group procedures.

Hypothesis 4b: Autocratic procedures will be perceived as less fair to teammates than will group procedures.

This study was approved by the Western Kentucky University Human Subjects Review Board (HSRB). HSRB Approval form may be found in Appendix A.

## Method

### *Participants*

Participants were intercollegiate athletes from a mid size southeastern university. Surveys were completed by 129 participants from five athletic teams. Football contributed the majority of participants, with 72 athletes, while soccer (19), women's basketball (12), softball (16), and volleyball (10) contributed the rest of the participants. The gender of the participants was 72 male athletes and 57 female athletes. The ages of the participants ranged from 18 to 23 years, with an average age of 20 ( $M = 20.05$ ,  $SD = 1.25$ ). The reported number of years the athletes had participated in intercollegiate athletics ranged from 0 to 5, with an average of two years participation ( $M = 2.25$ ,  $SD = 1.09$ ). Finally, the majority of participants reported they were Caucasian ( $n = 81$ ) and African-American ( $n = 44$ ); those of Asian ( $n = 1$ ), Hispanic ( $n = 2$ ), or another ethnicity ( $n = 1$ ) also completed the survey.

### *Design and Instrument*

A 2 (Consistency of Punishment: consistent vs. conditional) x 2 (Violation Severity: moderate vs. severe) x 2 (Punishment Severity: moderate vs. severe) x 2 (Decision Maker: head coach vs. team captains) factorial design was used to test the hypotheses.

Perceptions of justice and the effects of punishment were measured using a questionnaire consisting of a hypothetical scenario and ten items. In total, 16 scenarios representing each of the cells created by the 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 design were used (see Appendix A). Each participant responded to one scenario. Random assignment was used to determine which scenario was read by a given participant. The scenarios represented a

star intercollegiate athlete from a fictional university committing a violation of a team rule and receiving punishment from a decision maker, either the head coach or team captains. The punishment implemented in the scenario was either conditional to the situation or consistent with team rules. Conditional punishment indicated making an exception to the rules for key athletes, while consistent punishment indicated the same treatment across team members.

The punishments and violations in the scenario were selected from a list of punishments and violations calibrated in a stimulus-centered rating study (Specht, 2000). A list of 17 infractions and 11 punishments was given to students, athletes, and coaches at three universities. These participants rated the infractions and punishments on a five point severity scale (1 = *not severe* to 5 = *extremely severe*).

Violation ratings demonstrated acceptable inter-rater reliability ( $r_{\text{coaches/athletes}} = .92$ ;  $r_{\text{coaches/students}} = .79$ ;  $r_{\text{students/athletes}} = .82$ ). However, there were differences between groups in ratings of severity of violation ( $F(2, 48) = 6.35, p < .01$ ). Tukey's post hoc analysis indicated coaches rated the violations as more severe ( $M = 4.13$ ;  $SD = .54$ ), than did athletes ( $M = 3.34$ ;  $SD = .69$ ); student ratings did not differ ( $M = 3.64$ ;  $SD = .71$ ) from either coaches or athletes. Punishment ratings demonstrated high inter-rater reliability ( $r_{\text{coaches/athletes}} = .95$ ;  $r_{\text{coaches/students}} = .95$ ;  $r_{\text{students/athletes}} = .94$ ). No differences were found between groups in ratings of severity of punishment ( $F(2, 30) = .012, p > .01, n.s.$ ;  $M = 2.78, SD = .92$ ).

Based on mean ratings, the severe punishment selected for use in the current study was dismissal from the team, and the moderate punishment selected was suspension from practice. The severe punishment was rated most severe across participants, and the

moderate punishment was selected because it was judged closest to midrange and received the median rating for punishment. The severe violation selected was failing a drug test while the moderate violation selected was unexcused, late to practice. The severe violation was rated most severe across participants, and the moderate violation was used because its rating was the closest to the middle rating on the scale.

The first four items on the questionnaire served as a manipulation check to ensure the participants understood basic information in the scenario. Specifically, the manipulation check items asked which rule was violated, what punishment was implemented, if the punishment was in accordance with team rules, and who decided on the punishment to be implemented. These four items were answered with fill-in-the-blank or yes/no responses. Any individual scenario where the participant failed the manipulation check was excluded from the analysis. In all, 13 individual scenarios were excluded from the analysis due to failing the manipulation check. The percentage of scenarios that passed the manipulation check was 90.8%.

The six remaining items addressed the following: how fair the actual punishment was to the athlete who violated the rule and to the other team members, how fair the procedure used to determine the actual punishment was to the athlete who violated the rule and to other team members, and how likely it is the punishment implemented will deter the athlete who violated the rule and other team members from violating the same rule or similar rules in the future. For the final six items, participants were asked to rate their agreement on a five point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neutral*, 4 = *agree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). An internal consistency reliability analysis indicated that these six questionnaire items had high internal consistency,  $\alpha = .90$ .

Although it is recommended that multiple-item measures be used to assess complex constructs (Loo, 2002), single-item measures also are acceptable to assess some constructs. A literature search yielded no information regarding single-item measures for fairness constructs. However, a meta-analysis conducted by Wanous, Reichers, and Hudy (1997) evaluated single-item measures used to assess the construct of job satisfaction. Wanous et al. determined that the mean correlation between a single-item measure and a multiple-item measure for job satisfaction was .67, and the estimated reliability was at a reasonable level, between .63 and .69. Thus, the single-item measures were found to be reliable and valid for assessing job satisfaction. The construct of job satisfaction is similar to the justice constructs used in this study as they both evaluate affective reactions to events in organizational settings. Thus, Wanous' findings should generalize to the measurement of justice. Additionally, Loo found support for using single item measures in short, homogenous scales with high, internal consistency reliability. Furthermore, there are advantages for using single item measures. As Gorsuch and McPherson (1989, as cited in Loo, 2002) stated, they are quick and easy to use and can be given to numerous subjects.

#### *Test-Retest Reliability*

A pilot study was conducted using 21 WKU graduate students and one WKU professor to determine the length of time needed to complete the questionnaire and to identify potential problems with the instrument. Minor revisions were made to the questionnaire. The pilot participants completed eight scenarios on two occasions six weeks apart, providing data to assess the test-retest reliability of the instrument.

Coefficients of stability were calculated and may be found in Table 1. As seen in Table 1, reliabilities ranged from .69 to .89. Coefficients indicated an acceptable level of reliability for each item. Test-retest reliability was also estimated for three composites. The two items for Fairness of Discipline to Player and to Teammates were combined to form a Fairness of Discipline composite. The two items for Fairness of Process to Player and to Teammates were combined to form a Fairness of Process composite. The two items for Deterrence to Player and to Teammates were combined to form the Deterrence composite. Coefficients for composites may be found in Table 1. As seen in Table 1, reliabilities for the composites ranged from .80 to .91.

Table 1

*Dependent Variable Coefficients of Stability*

<i>Item</i>	<i>Coefficient of Stability*</i>
1. Discipline Fair to Player	.82
2. Discipline Fair to Teammates	.83
3. Process Fair to Player	.69
4. Process Fair to Teammates	.83
5. Deter Player	.88
6. Deter Teammates	.89
<i>Composite</i>	<i>Coefficient of Stability*</i>
1. Fairness of Discipline	.86
2. Fairness of Process	.80
3. Deterrence	.91

\* N = 22, p < .01 for all coefficients

*Procedure*

Participants were randomly assigned to respond to one of the 16 scenarios administered as hard copies of the questionnaires. Participants were informed of the purpose of the study and instructed to read an informed consent sheet. Participants were assured anonymity of their responses and were informed that they were welcome to stop answering the questionnaire whenever they wished. Participants were then asked to complete the demographics page and the subsequent scenario. Questions posed at any point during the procedure by the participants were answered. After the introduction to the study, participants read the hypothetical scenario and responded to the questions. Upon completion of the questionnaire, participants were thanked for their contribution to the study.

## Results

Bivariate correlations were calculated among the dependant variables. As seen in Appendix B, all dependant variables were significantly correlated with each other. Correlations among the dependent variables for perceptions of fairness of punishment and procedure fairness had higher magnitudes with each other than with the deterrence variables, where as the dependent variables for perceptions of deterrence to future misconduct had higher magnitudes with each other then with the fairness variables. Univariate Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs) were conducted for each of the dependant variables to examine significant effects.

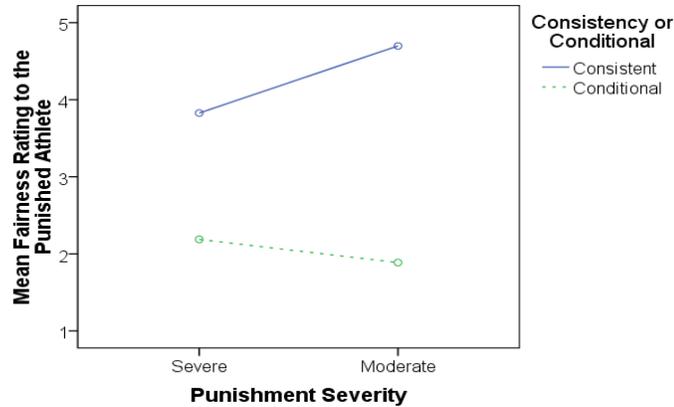
The design of this study was a 2 (Consistency of Punishment: Consistent vs. Conditional) x 2 (Violation Severity: Moderate vs. Severe) x 2 (Punishment Severity: Moderate vs. Severe) x 2 (Decision Maker: Head coach vs. Team Captains) factorial design. The gender of the participant was added to the overall model. The dependant variables were justice perceptions of punishment and procedure fairness, and perceptions of deterrence to future misconduct. An Alpha level of .05 was used to determine significance. Significant effects that account for less than 5% of the variance are reported, but are not discussed. Only the effects that accounted for at least 5% of the variance in the dependant variable are discussed as results that account for less variance have little practical significance. The results are organized such that perceptions of punishment fairness are described first, followed by perceptions of procedure fairness, and concluding with perceptions of deterrence to future misconduct.

### *Justice Perceptions of Punishment Fairness to the Punished Athlete*

First, the results for justice perceptions of punishment fairness for the punished athlete are presented. The ANOVA table may be found in Appendix C. In support of Hypothesis 1a, which stated that punishment consistent with team rules will be perceived as more to the punished athlete than will conditional punishment, there was a significant main effect ( $F(1, 97) = 161.09, p < .001, \eta^2 = .62$ ) for consistency of punishment. This result indicates that consistent distribution of punishment ( $M = 4.34, SD = .89$ ) was perceived as more fair to the punished athlete than was conditional distribution of punishment ( $M = 2.08, SD = 1.14$ ). No other main effects were significant. Thus Hypothesis 2, which stated that punishment for severe violations would be perceived as more fair to the punished athlete than would punishment for moderate violations, was not supported,  $F(1, 97) = .02, p = .89$ .

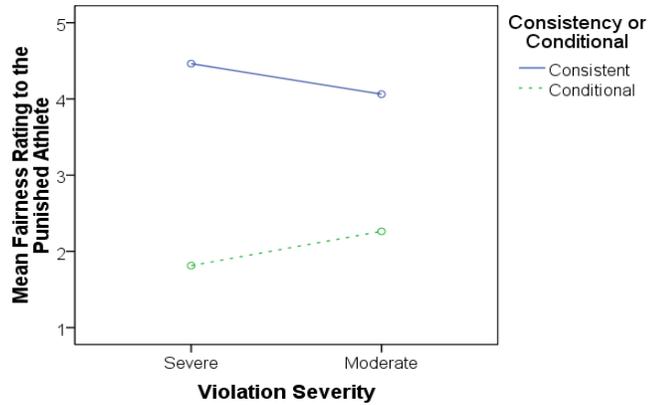
The AVOVA revealed three significant interactions involving consistency. First, there was a significant interaction between punishment severity and consistency of punishment,  $F(1, 97) = 11.15, p < .01, \eta^2 = .10$ . The interaction revealed that with severe punishment, consistent punishment ( $M = 3.97, SD = 1.06$ ) was perceived as more fair to the punished athlete than was conditional punishment ( $M = 2.24, SD = 1.25$ ), but with moderate punishment, this effect was greater as consistent punishment ( $M = 4.67, SD = .54$ ) was perceived as even more fair to the punished athlete than was conditional punishment ( $M = 1.89, SD = .99$ ). A plot of this interaction is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Interaction between Punishment Severity and Consistency of Punishment for Fairness of Punishment to the Athlete



Next, there was a significant interaction between violation severity and consistency of punishment ( $F(1, 97) = 5.88, p < .05, \eta^2 = .06$ ), which partially supported Hypothesis 2. The interaction revealed that with a severe violation, consistent punishment ( $M = 4.44, SD = .75$ ) was perceived as more fair to the punished athlete than was conditional punishment ( $M = 1.89, SD = 1.10$ ), while with a moderate violation, consistent punishment ( $M = 4.21, SD = 1.05$ ) was still perceived as more fair to the punished athlete than conditional punishment ( $M = 2.24, SD = 1.17$ ), but conditional punishment for a moderate violation was perceived as more fair than for a severe violation. A plot of this interaction is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Interaction between Violation Severity and Consistency of Punishment for Fairness of Punishment to the Athlete

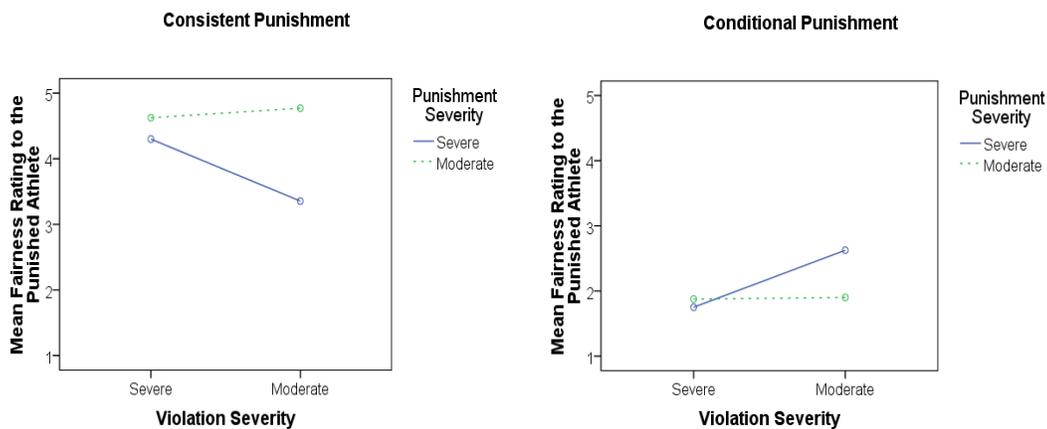


In addition to the two-way interactions involving consistency, there was a significant interaction between violation severity, punishment severity, and consistency of punishment,  $F(1, 97) = 7.67, p < .01, \eta^2 = .07$ . The interaction shows that in general, consistent punishment is perceived as more fair than conditional punishment. That is, consistent punishment for a severe violation with severe punishment ( $M = 4.30, SD = .87$ ) and moderate punishment ( $M = 4.58, SD = .61$ ), and for a moderate violation with moderate punishment ( $M = 4.76, SD = .44$ ) are perceived as similar in fairness. However, when punishment is consistently applied for a moderate violation at a severe level, it is perceived as less fair ( $M = 3.42, SD = 1.17$ ).

Conditional punishment for a severe violation with severe punishment ( $M = 1.89, SD = 1.13$ ) and with moderate punishment ( $M = 1.90, SD = 1.10$ ), and for a moderate violation with moderate punishment ( $M = 1.89, SD = .96$ ) are perceived as similar in fairness. However, conditional punishment for a moderate violation with severe punishment ( $M = 2.67, SD = 1.29$ ) is perceived as more fair than the other conditional punishment situations. Thus, when level of punishment matches severity of violation,

consistent punishment was perceived as more fair than conditional punishment, but when a mismatch occurred (i.e., a moderate violation with severe punishment), perceptions of fairness for conditional punishment increased and perceptions of consistent punishment decreased. Plots of these interactions are shown in Figure 3. Together, the three interactions involving consistency of punishment account for an additional 23% of the variance in perceptions of fairness of punishment to the athlete.

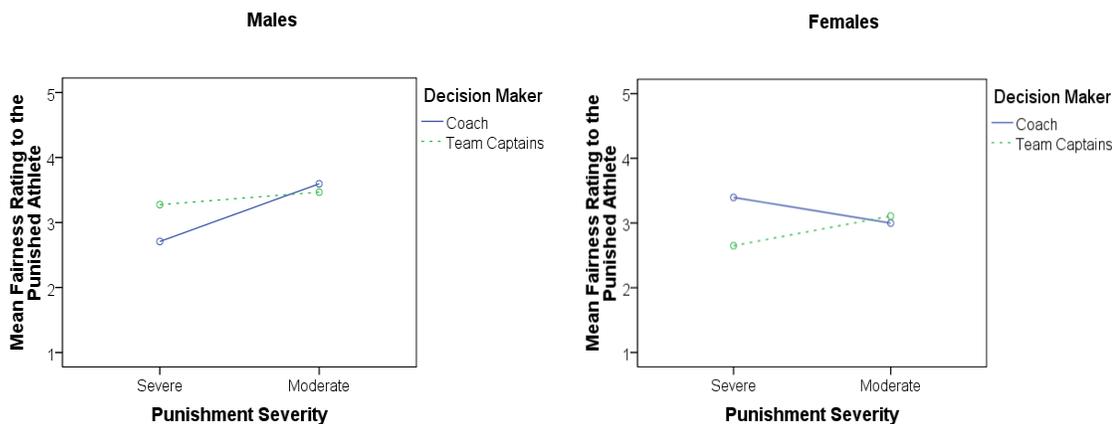
Figure 3: Interaction between Violation Severity, Punishment Severity, and Consistency of Punishment for Fairness of Punishment to the Athlete



Finally, there was a significant interaction between punishment severity, decision maker, and gender,  $F(1, 97) = 4.88, p < .05, \eta^2 = .048$ . The interaction shows that when severe punishment was implemented and the punishment decision was made by coaches, male participants ( $M = 2.71, SD = 1.26$ ) perceived the punishment as less fair to the punished athlete than did female participants ( $M = 3.63, SD = 1.46$ ). When severe punishment was implemented and the punishment decision was made by team captains however, male participants ( $M = 3.24, SD = 1.56$ ) perceived the punishment as more fair to the punished athlete than did female participants ( $M = 2.80, SD = 1.42$ ). When a moderate punishment was implemented and the punishment decision was made by

coaches, male participants ( $M = 3.77$ ,  $SD = 1.48$ ) perceived the punishment as more fair to the punished athlete than did female participants ( $M = 3.15$ ,  $SD = 1.82$ ). Similarly, when the punishment decision was made by team captains, male participants ( $M = 3.81$ ,  $SD = 1.28$ ) perceived the punishment as more fair to the punished athlete than did female participants ( $M = 2.77$ ,  $SD = 1.74$ ). Plots of these interactions are shown in Figure 4. No other interactions reached significance.

Figure 4: Interaction between Punishment Severity, Decision Maker, and Gender for Fairness of Punishment to the Athlete

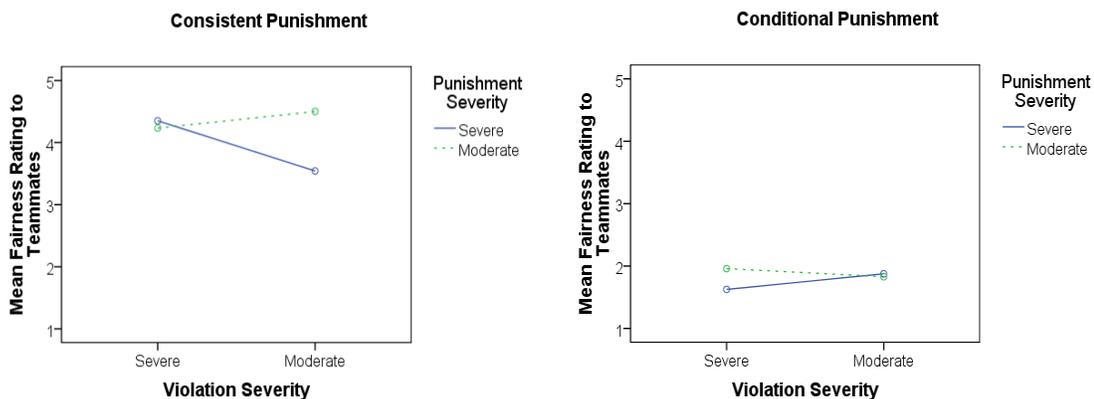


#### *Justice Perceptions of Punishment Fairness to Teammates*

Next, the results for justice perceptions of punishment fairness to the punished athlete's teammates are presented. The ANOVA table may be found in Appendix C. In support of Hypothesis 1b, which stated that punishment consistent with team rules will be perceived as more fair to teammates than will conditional punishment, there was a significant main effect for consistency of punishment,  $F(1, 97) = 172.15$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .64$ . This result indicates that consistent distribution of punishment ( $M = 4.21$ ,  $SD = .96$ ) was perceived as more fair to teammates than was conditional distribution of punishment ( $M = 1.85$ ,  $SD = .96$ ). No other main effects were significant.

The ANOVA revealed two significant interactions involving consistency. First, there was a significant interaction between violation severity, punishment severity, and consistency of punishment,  $F(1, 97) = 4.18, p < .05, \eta^2 = .04$ . The interaction shows that conditional punishment was perceived as less fair whether for a severe violation and severe punishment ( $M = 1.67, SD = .59$ ), a severe violation and moderate punishment ( $M = 2.10, SD = 1.20$ ), a moderate violation and severe punishment ( $M = 1.93, SD = 1.10$ ), or a moderate violation and moderate punishment ( $M = 1.83, SD = 1.04$ ). Consistent punishment was perceived as more fair than conditional punishment in all conditions. However, consistent punishment for a severe violation and severe punishment ( $M = 4.35, SD = .81$ ), a severe violation and moderate punishment ( $M = 4.26, SD = 1.10$ ), and a moderate violation and moderate punishment ( $M = 4.47, SD = .51$ ) were perceived as more fair than was a moderate violation and severe punishment ( $M = 3.50, SD = 1.17$ ). Plots of these interactions are shown in Figure 5.

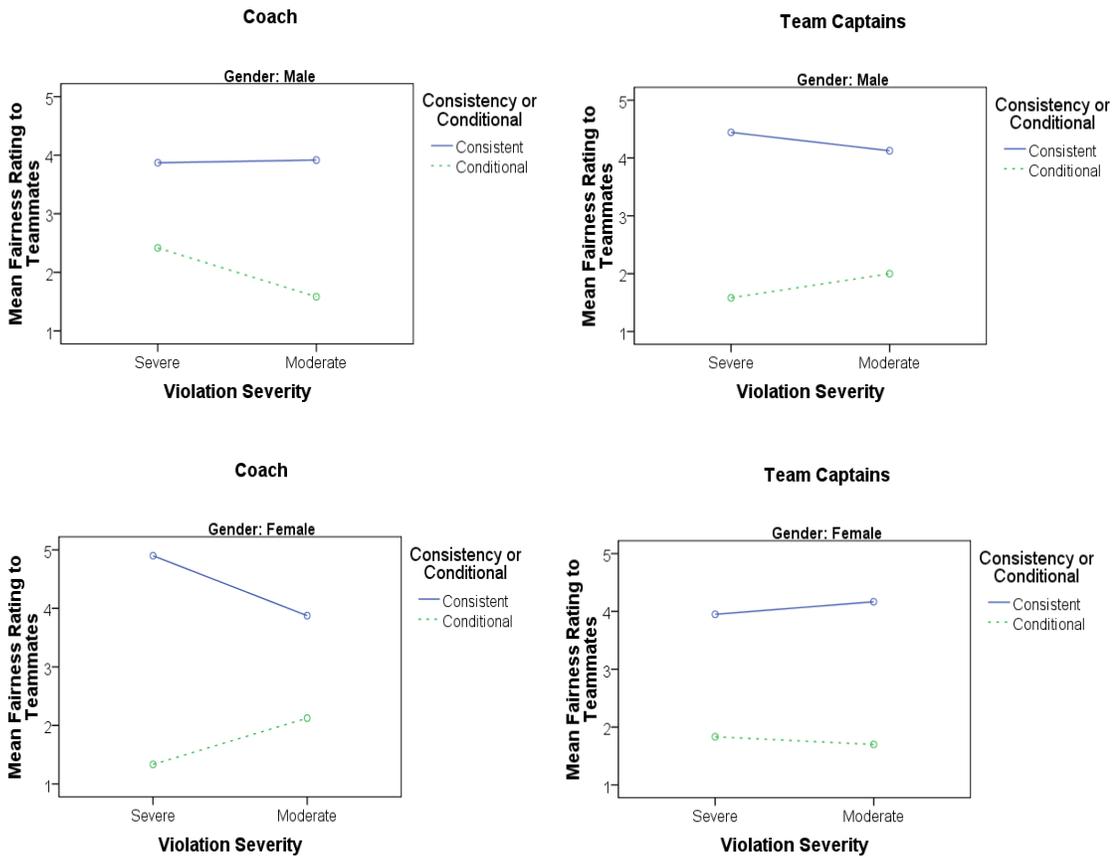
Figure 5: Interaction between Violation Severity, Punishment Severity, and Consistency of Punishment for Fairness of Punishment to Teammates



Next, there was a significant interaction between violation severity, consistency of punishment, decision maker, and gender,  $F(1, 97) = 7.05, p < .01, \eta^2 = .07$ . The

interaction is described in terms of differences between the genders of the participants. Generally, consistent decisions were perceived as more fair than conditional decisions for both male and female athletes. That is, means for conditions with a severe violation and a consistent punishment decision made by a coach (Male  $M = 3.92$ ,  $SD = 1.31$ ), a severe violation and a consistent punishment decision made by team captains (Male  $M = 4.42$ ,  $SD = .52$ ; Female  $M = 4.14$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ ), a moderate violation and a consistent punishment decision made by a coach (Male  $M = 4.11$ ,  $SD = 1.27$ ; Female  $M = 3.87$ ,  $SD = .84$ ), and a moderate violation and a consistent punishment decision made by team captains (Male  $M = 4.17$ ,  $SD = .41$ ; Female  $M = 4.17$ ,  $SD = 1.17$ ) were similar. Conditions with a severe violation and a conditional punishment decision made by a coach ( $M = 2.22$ ,  $SD = 1.20$ ), a severe violation and a conditional punishment decision made by team captains (Male  $M = 1.62$ ,  $SD = .52$ ; Female  $M = 1.83$ ,  $SD = .75$ ), a moderate violation and a conditional punishment decision made by a coach (Male  $M = 1.78$ ,  $SD = 1.30$ ; Female  $M = 2.12$ ,  $SD = 1.36$ ), and a moderate violation and a conditional punishment decision made by team captains (Male  $M = 2.00$ ,  $SD = .82$ ; Female  $M = 1.67$ ,  $SD = .71$ ) were similar. However, for female athletes, when the coach consistently applied punishment for a severe violation, it was perceived as even more fair ( $M = 4.88$ ,  $SD = .35$ ) and when the coach applied conditional punishment for a severe violation, it was perceived as even less fair ( $M = 1.40$ ,  $SD = .55$ ). Plots of these interactions are shown in Figure 6. The two interactions involving consistency accounted for an additional 10.9% of the variance in perceptions of fairness of the punishment to teammates.

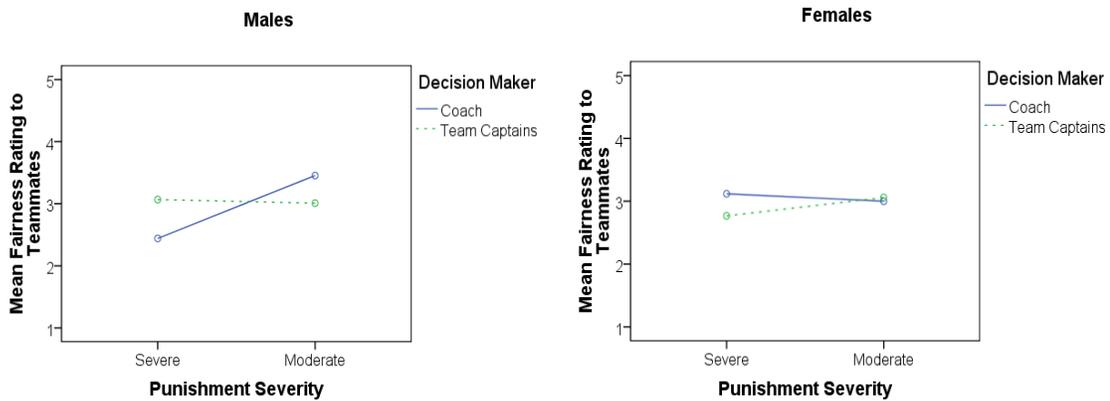
Figure 6: Interaction between Violation Severity, Consistency of Punishment, Decision Maker, and Gender for Fairness of Punishment to Teammates



In addition, there was a significant interaction between punishment severity, decision maker, and gender,  $F(1, 97) = 4.88, p < .05, \eta^2 = .048$ . The interaction shows that perceptions of male and female athletes are similar whether there is severe or moderate punishment and whether the decision is made by the coach or team captains, with one exception. That is, means are equivalent for males and females when team

captains make decisions for severe punishment (Male  $M = 2.88$ ,  $SD = 1.45$ ; Female  $M = 2.93$ ,  $SD = 1.44$ ) and moderate punishment (Male  $M = 3.50$ ,  $SD = 1.32$ ; Female  $M = 2.77$ ,  $SD = 1.64$ ) and for females when the coach makes a decision for severe punishment ( $M = 3.31$ ,  $SD = 1.54$ ) or moderate punishment ( $M = 3.15$ ,  $SD = 1.73$ ). However, for males, when the coach makes the decision for severe punishment, it is perceived as less fair ( $M = 2.47$ ,  $SD = 1.46$ ), and when the coach makes the decision for moderate punishment, it is perceived as more fair ( $M = 3.55$ ,  $SD = 1.57$ ). Plots of these interactions are shown in Figure 7. No other interactions reached significance.

Figure 7: Interaction between Punishment Severity, Decision Maker, and Gender for Fairness of Punishment to Teammates



### *Justice Perceptions of Procedural Fairness to the Punished Athlete*

The next set of dependent variables focus on the fairness of the procedure. First, the results for justice perceptions of procedural fairness for the punished athlete are presented. The ANOVA table appears in Appendix C. Similar to the perceptions of punishment fairness, there was a significant main effect ( $F(1, 97) = 104.26$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .52$ ) for consistency of punishment. This result indicates that a consistent punishment process ( $M = 4.34$ ,  $SD = .75$ ) was perceived as more fair to the punished athlete than was

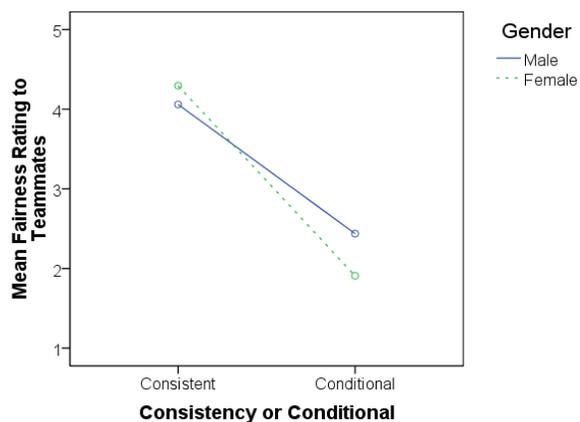
a conditional punishment process ( $M = 2.26, SD = 1.28$ ). No other main effects or interactions were significant. Thus, Hypothesis 4a, which stated that autocratic procedures will be perceived as less fair to the punished athlete than will group procedures, was not supported,  $F(1, 97) = .07, p = .79$ .

#### *Justice Perceptions of Procedural Fairness to Teammates*

The results for justice perceptions of procedural fairness to teammates are presented next. The ANOVA table appears in Appendix C. There was only one significant main effect, consistency of punishment,  $F(1, 97) = 110.27, p < .001, \eta^2 = .53$ . This result indicates that a consistent punishment process ( $M = 4.19, SD = .89$ ) was perceived as more fair to teammates than was a conditional punishment process ( $M = 2.20, SD = 1.12$ ). No other main effects were significant. Thus, Hypothesis 4b, which stated that autocratic procedures will be perceived as less fair to teammates than will group procedures, was not supported,  $F(1, 97) = .04, p = .84$ .

The ANOVA revealed two significant interactions. First, there was a significant interaction between consistency of punishment and gender,  $F(1, 97) = 4.01, p < .05, \eta^2 = .04$ . The interaction revealed that when the punishment process was consistent, males ( $M = 4.13, SD = 1.01$ ) perceived the punishment process as equivalent in fairness to teammates to females perceptions ( $M = 4.28, SD = .70$ ). When the punishment process was conditional however, males ( $M = 2.45, SD = 1.25$ ) perceived the punishment process as more fair to teammates than did females ( $M = 1.89, SD = .88$ ). A plot of this interaction is shown in Figure 8.

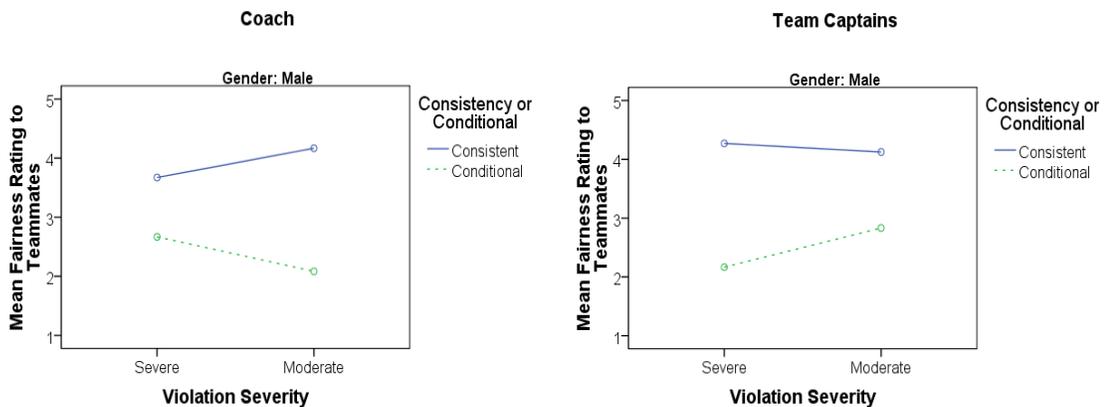
Figure 8: Interaction between Consistency of Punishment and Gender for Fairness of Procedure to Teammates

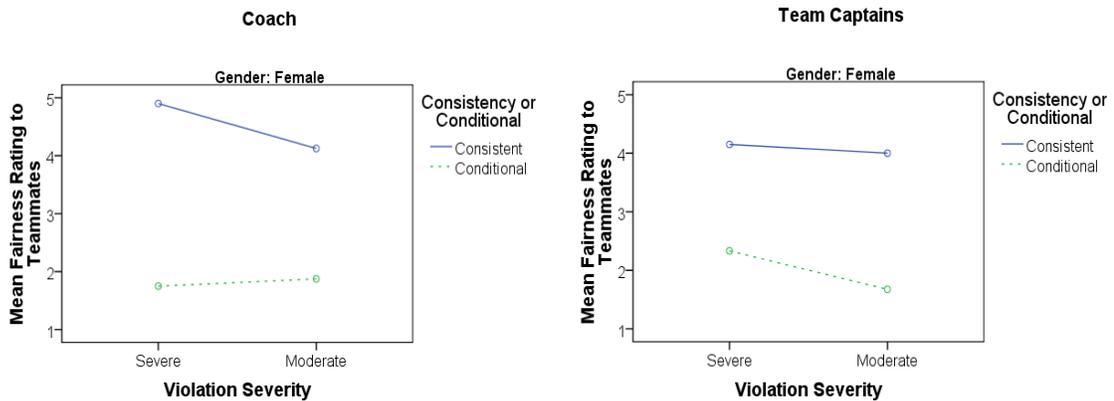


Next, there was a significant interaction between violation severity, consistency of punishment, decision maker, and gender,  $F(1, 97) = 7.05, p < .05, \eta^2 = .07$ . Similar to the four-way interaction above, this interaction is described in terms of differences between genders. Generally, consistent decisions were perceived as more fair than conditional decisions by both male and female athletes with three exceptions. That is, male and female means were equivalent when consistent punishment was decided by the coach for a severe violation (Male  $M = 3.75, SD = 1.42$ ) or a moderate violation (Male  $M = 4.44, SD = 1.13$ ; Female  $M = 4.12, SD = .35$ ); when consistent punishment was decided by team captains for severe violations (Male  $M = 4.25, SD = .45$ ; Female  $M = 4.00, SD =$

1.00) or moderate violations (Male  $M = 4.17$ ,  $SD = .41$ ; Female  $M = 4.00$ ,  $SD = .63$ ). However, consistent punishment by a coach for a severe violation was perceived as more fair than other consistent punishment conditions by female athletes ( $M = 4.88$ ,  $SD = .35$ ). Male and female means were equivalent for conditional punishment made by a coach for severe violations (Female  $M = 1.80$ ,  $SD = .84$ ) or moderate violations (Male  $M = 2.22$ ,  $SD = 1.39$ ; Female  $M = 1.88$ ,  $SD = .84$ ) and when conditional punishment was decided by team captains for severe violations (Males  $M = 2.25$ ,  $SD = 1.04$ ; Female  $M = 2.33$ ,  $SD = 1.03$ ) or moderate violations (Female  $M = 1.67$ ,  $SD = .87$ ). However, conditional punishment decisions made by a coach for a severe violation were seen as more fair by males ( $M = 2.56$ ,  $SD = 1.51$ ) and conditional punishment decisions made by team captains for a moderate violation likewise were seen as more fair by males ( $M = 2.86$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ ). Plots of these interactions are shown in Figure 9.

Figure 9: Interaction between Violation Severity, Consistency of Punishment, Decision Maker, and Gender for Fairness of Procedure to Teammates





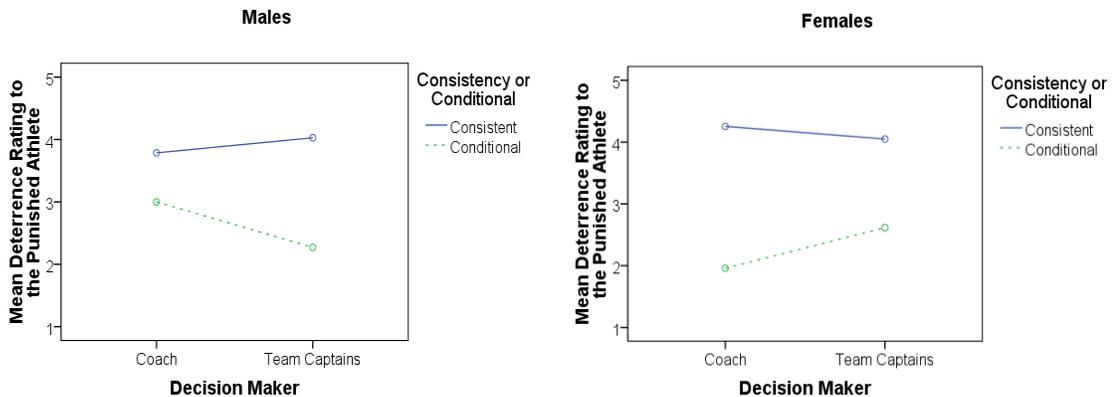
### *Perceptions of Deterrence to Future Misconduct to the Punished Athlete*

The results for justice perceptions of deterrence to future misconduct for the punished athlete are presented next. The ANOVA table appears in Appendix C. There were two significant main effects. The first was consistency of punishment,  $F(1, 97) = 50.37, p < .001, \eta^2 = .34$ . In support of Hypothesis 1c, which stated that consistent punishment will be more likely to deter future violations by the punished athlete than will conditional punishment, this result indicates that consistent distribution of punishment ( $M = 3.94, SD = .91$ ) was perceived as more likely to deter the punished athlete than was conditional punishment ( $M = 2.54, SD = 1.36$ ). The second significant main effect was for punishment severity,  $F(1, 97) = 4.81, p < .05, \eta^2 = .05$ . In support of Hypothesis 3a, this result indicates that severe punishment was perceived as more likely to deter future misconduct for the punished athlete ( $M = 3.43, SD = 1.38$ ) than was moderate punishment ( $M = 3.12, SD = 1.29$ ). No other main effects were significant.

The ANOVA revealed only one significant interaction between punishment severity, decision maker, and gender,  $F(1, 97) = 4.30, p < .05, \eta^2 = .04$ . Generally, consistent punishment was perceived as more fair by both males and females. That is, males perceived consistent punishment decided by the coach ( $M = 3.62, SD = 1.07$ ) and

consistent punishment decided by team captains ( $M = 3.94, SD = .80$ ) similar to how females perceived consistent punishment decided by the coach ( $M = 4.25, SD = .93$ ) and consistent punishment decided by team captains ( $M = 4.08, SD = .64$ ). With conditional punishment, however, males perceived decisions made by the coach as more fair ( $M = 3.00, SD = 1.57$ ) than decisions made by team captains ( $M = 2.27, SD = 1.22$ ) while females perceived decisions made by the coach as less fair ( $M = 2.08, SD = 1.19$ ) than decisions made by team captains ( $M = 2.67, SD = 1.29$ ). Plots of these interactions are shown in Figure 10.

Figure 10: Interaction between Consistency of Punishment, Decision Maker, and Gender for Likelihood of Deterrence to Future Misconduct for the Athlete



### *Perceptions of Deterrence to Future Misconduct to Teammates*

The results for justice perceptions of deterrence to future misconduct for teammates are presented next. The results of the ANOVA are in Appendix C. There were two significant main effects. The first was consistency of punishment,  $F(1, 97) = 50.45, p < .001, \eta^2 = .34$ . In support of Hypothesis 1d, which stated that consistent

punishment will be more likely to deter future violations by teammates than will conditional punishment, this result indicates that consistent distribution of punishment ( $M = 3.91, SD = .93$ ) was perceived as more likely to deter teammates than was conditional punishment ( $M = 2.56, SD = 1.26$ ). The second significant effect was for punishment severity,  $F(1, 97) = 5.58, p < .05, \eta^2 = .05$ . In support of Hypothesis 3b, this result indicates that severe punishment was perceived as more likely to deter future misconduct for teammates ( $M = 3.46, SD = 1.36$ ) than was moderate punishment ( $M = 3.08, SD = 1.19$ ). No other main effects or interactions were significant.

### *Summary of Results*

Hypothesis 1 and each of its sub-hypotheses were supported by the results. These hypotheses stated that consistent punishment will be perceived as more fair to the punished athletes and teammates than will conditional punishment, and that consistent punishment will be more likely to deter future violations by the punished athlete and teammates than will conditional punishment. Hypothesis 2 was partially supported by the results as an interaction revealed a severe violation to be perceived as more fair than a moderate violation when consistent punishment was implemented. Hypothesis 3 and each of its sub-hypotheses were supported by the results as well. These hypotheses stated that severe punishment would be perceived to be more likely to deter future misconduct from the punished athlete and teammates than would moderate punishment. The last hypothesis, Hypothesis 4 and each of its sub-hypotheses were not supported by the results of the study. These hypotheses stated that participative procedures would be perceived as more fair to the punished athlete and teammates than would autocratic procedures.

## Discussion

Research on organizational justice has focused on employee perceptions of fairness in the workplace. The present research attempted to apply the principles of organizational justice to the area of intercollegiate athletics. The constructs of both distributive and procedural justice were investigated to determine athlete perceptions of fairness following a violation and subsequent punishment in a sports teams settings. Specifically, the goals of this research were to determine what factors influence perceptions of distributive and procedural fairness in team disciplinary situations and what factors influence the ability of punishment to deter future misconduct. This section will discuss the results in the same order as they were presented in the preceding section.

First, regarding justice perceptions of punishment fairness, the principle finding of the current study is that consistent punishment was perceived as more fair than conditional punishment. This perception was seen for fairness of punishment to the punished athlete and to teammates. Thus, Hypothesis 1a and 1b were supported, as participants in this study perceived consistent punishment for a star player who violated a team rule to be more fair than conditional punishment.

A variety of interactions was found to further the support the idea that consistency plays an important role in implementing punishment. This is evidenced by the fact that consistency interactions accounted for 23% and 11% of the variance concerning fairness of punishment to the punished athlete and teammates, respectively. For perceptions of punishment fairness to the punished athlete, consistency was revealed to interact with punishment severity and violation severity. In each of the two-way interactions, the use of consistent punishment received higher ratings of fairness than when conditional

punishment was used. However, when there is a moderate violation and severe punishment, consistent punishment was perceived as less fair than the other consistent situations. In the same mismatched situation, conditional punishment was perceived as more fair than other conditional situations. That is, these results suggest that when the punishment is overly harsh it is perceived as more fair if that punishment has been applied in exception to the rule rather than as the rule.

For justice perceptions of punishment fairness to teammates, the results appear mostly to parallel the results described above. A main effect was found for consistency; consistent punishment was perceived to be more fair than conditional punishment. The interactions revealed in the analyses were similar to those revealed for perceptions of punishment fairness to the punished athlete. The interaction between violation severity, consistency of punishment, decision maker, and gender revealed that female athletes perceived consistent punishment for a severe violation as more fair than other consistent punishment situations. Female athletes likewise perceived conditional punishment for a severe violation as even less fair than other conditional punishment situations. Although this interaction accounted for only seven percent of the variance, coaches of female athletes may want to ensure that punishment is consistently applied in situations involving severe violations.

Hypothesis 1 (1a, 1b), stating that consistent punishment would be perceived to be more fair than conditional punishment, is based on equity theory (Adams, 1963). Equity theory states that an individual will compare his or her contributions and outcomes to another individual's contributions and outcomes. When the comparison is inequitable, the individual will change his or her behavior or beliefs to restore proportionality. In

order to achieve an equitable situation, Ball et al. (1992) proposed that punishment should be consistent. Arvey and Ivancevich (1980) stated that the implementation of inconsistent punishment can lead to distrust from individuals in an organization. When punishment is perceived as effective and fair, it can lead to increased commitment and enhanced satisfaction. Thus, available research advocates the use of consistent punishment rather than conditional punishment to affect perceptions of fairness positively. As the results of the current study indicate, the participants in this study believed that consistent punishment for all team members, regardless of their team status, was more fair than preferential treatment for star players.

Hypothesis 2 was based on results from Shoenfelt and Bucer (2002). In that study, athletes indicated that punishment was perceived to be more fair when the punished player had committed a severe violation than when a moderate violation had been committed. This study failed to find a main effect for violation severity. An interaction between violation severity and consistency of punishment indicated that perceptions of fairness were greater when the violation was severe and the punishment was consistent rather than when the violation was moderate and the punishment was consistent, partially supporting Hypothesis 2 but accounting for only six percent of the explained variance in perceived fairness to the punished athlete. Thus, when the punishment was consistent, punishment for severe violations was perceived as more fair than punishment for moderate violations. It is possible that when the athlete already knows that the punishment will be consistent, they understand that justice will be served by punishing a severe violation such as failing a drug test and perceive the punishment as more fair. In any case, Hypothesis 2 was only partially supported.

An important finding in this study concerns the appropriateness of the severity of the punishment implemented for a violation. The results indicated that appropriate punishment for a violation of a given severity was perceived as more fair than when punishment severity did not match the violation. In fact, only when severe punishment was consistently implemented for a moderate violation were perceptions of fairness less than for the other consistent conditions. Research has provided some insight into the severity of punishment to use for a violation. Ball et al. (1992) argued that lenient punishment is perceived as more fair than severe punishment. This is because overly severe punishment can result in a decrease of positive feelings and behaviors. Hamner and Organ (1978, as cited in Arvey & Ivancevich, 1980) further stated that punishment should start at a sufficiently high, but still moderate level. Regardless, individuals expect punishment to be proportional to their misconduct and perceive an event deviating from these parameters to be less fair. Procedures that are considered unfair can influence behavior (Williams, 1999) and satisfaction (Konovsky, 2000). To summarize, the results in this study suggest that consistent punishment where punishment severity matches the severity of the violation will be perceived as more fair to all team members than when conditional punishment is used or when a mismatch occurs with a moderate violation and severe punishment.

A second objective of this study concerns perceptions of procedural fairness. Similar to the results for distributive justice, consistency of punishment was the main finding for procedural justice. A consistent punishment procedure was rated as more fair than a conditional punishment procedure for both the punished athlete and teammates. This result follows Levanthal's (1980) rule of consistency that stated procedures that are

applied consistently across people and time have the most impact on procedural fairness perceptions. No significant main effect was found for decision maker of the punishment process. Whether the decision was made autocratically by coaches or more participatively by team captains had no effect on perceptions of fairness of the punishment or the procedure used to determine the punishment. Thus, Hypothesis 4a and 4b were not supported.

Hypothesis 4 (4a, 4b) was based on results from Shoenfelt and Clark (2002). This study found that an autocratic procedure used to determine punishment was perceived as less fair than a participative procedure. Specifically, athletes perceived punishment decisions made by a group (i.e., team captains) to be more fair than punishments decisions made by an authority figure (i.e., coach). Shoenfelt and Clark attributed this effect to the athletes believing their voice had an impact in the decision making process. Thibaut and Walker (1975, as cited in Greenberg & Lind, 2000) stated that perceptions of fairness increase for individuals when they are involved in the procedure. Thus, athletes may perceive that their voice will be heard when the decision maker is a group representative, rather than a coach. Shoenfelt and Clark, however, only manipulated the decision-making procedure in their study; they did not include the justice factor of consistency. The current study included both dependant variables. The results of the current study indicate that the procedural factor of consistency overwhelmingly accounted for the most explained variance in perceptions of fairness of the punishment and fairness of the procedure used to make the decision. The finding that perceptions of procedural fairness can override perceptions of distributive unfairness is common in the justice literature (Colquitt et al., 2001; Thibaut and Walker, 1975, as cited in Houlden,

LaTour, Walker, & Thibaut, 1978). In the present study, there was no difference in perceptions of fairness between the two forms of decision maker. It may be that intercollegiate athletes understand and accept that a coach is the final decision maker. In college athletics, an athlete is likely recruited by a coach to play at his or her school. In accepting the opportunity to play for that coach, the athlete likely accepts the coach as the leader and decision maker. Thus, while in a traditional organizational setting individuals may perceive a collectively made punishment decision to be fair because they have a voice in the process, the present results suggest participants believed that a coach's punishment decision is fair likely because they accept and understand the process. Another possibility is that athletes perceive punishment is fair when it is decided by the same person across time. Rosen and Jerdee (1974) indicated that different individuals are inconsistent when allocating punishment. In college sports, team captains can change roles or new athletes may replace departed captains and, as a result, each new captain has a different view of how to handle punishment situations. The coach, though, is more likely to be a reliable decision maker because he or she is not replaced every year.

The third objective of this study concerns perceptions regarding the likelihood that punishment will deter future misconduct by the punished athlete and teammates. For both situations, the results indicated that consistent punishment was more likely than conditional punishment to deter misconduct. Thus, Hypothesis 1c and 1d were supported. A consistent punishment procedure was seen as more likely to deter both the punished athlete and teammates from committing another violation. The results also indicated that severe punishment was more likely to deter the punished athlete and teammates from committing a future violation than was moderate punishment. Thus,

Hypotheses 3a and 3b were supported by the results. This result was similar to Shoenfelt and Bucer (2002), who found that severe punishment was perceived to be more likely to deter future misconduct than moderate punishment.

In addition to equity theory, explained above, Hypotheses 1c and 1d are based on deterrence theory. Arvey and Ivancevich (1980) stated that punishment is used to decrease the occurrence of an aversive response or to serve as a warning for future misbehavior. Deterrence theory follows these notions as Trevino (1992) stated that punishment can deter subsequent misconduct for all team members by increasing the risks involved with inappropriate behavior. An individual will not perform an undesirable behavior if they expect the behavior to result in punishment. Furthermore, the theory maintains that punishment must be appropriately severe (e.g., severe punishment is for a severe violation) and consistent to have a strong effect of deterring misconduct. As previously stated, the results in this study indicate that consistent distribution of punishment and severe punishment play an important role in deterring future misconduct for all team members.

In all, punishment can be used as an effective tool for organizations and athletic teams alike. Although it can be viewed as a negative event, punishment, when applied properly and consistently, serves a positive purpose. This study has contributed to the empirical literature on perceptions of punishment fairness, punishment procedures, and likelihood for deterrence of future misconduct in an intercollegiate team setting. The results contribute to the available research on justice principles and punishment as they pertain to athletic teams.

### *Summary*

The results of this study have extended the concepts of organizational justice and punishment from the business world to intercollegiate athletics. The implication from these results is that punishment must be consistent and appropriate to the situations. Conditional punishment that allows a star athlete preferential treatment or the pairing of a moderate violation matched with a severe punishment will decrease perceptions of fairness from other team members. The results of the present research provide athletic teams with guidelines for what is perceived by athletes, punished team members, and teammates as fair and what is likely to deter future misconduct. Perceptions of justice can influence the attitudes and performance of athletes. Fairness perceptions can impact the entire team in a negative way, or in a positive manner, where team members are satisfied, committed, and productive.

### *Limitations*

Limitations to the current study were that data were collected at only one university. It is possible that athletes at different universities would perceive the scenarios differently. Another limitation is that this study used hypothetical scenarios to present the information to the participant. Real world examples may have given the participant a better understanding of how to interpret the situation, thus perceptions may have changed. It is also possible that the scenarios did not offer enough variability in the punishments and violations that were used. This study used only two punishments and two violations in the scenarios. The use of additional punishments and violations would have represented a wider range of scenarios for consideration by the participants.

### *Future Research*

While the results of the current study did not indicate a significant finding regarding the decision maker of the punishment procedure, it is likely that in a traditional business organization, this procedural aspect of justice may prove to be significant. An authoritative figure is perceived differently in athletics than in a traditional organization and the voice principle highlighted in the literature is more important (Greenberg & Lind, 2000; Colquitt et al., 2001). In intercollegiate athletics, the coach is usually the individual who decides punishment and the decision is ultimately understood and accepted by the team members. In a business organization, the top individual (e.g., CEO or manager) likely plays an important part in deciding the punishment process, but input from other, lower level employees is often heard and used. Future research concerning justice and punishment in a business organization should see if the perceptions of employees would perceive an autocratic punishment decision as less fair than a participative punishment decision.

Other research should examine justice perceptions from team coaches, as participants in this study consisted solely of athletes. It would be interesting to see if the results from coaches parallel the results from athletes and on what, if any, points they disagree. Coaches and athletes responding to the questionnaire should complete the questionnaire at separate times though, because athletes may be biased in their responses when the authority figure making punishment decisions is present. Future research using similar questionnaires should use additional, but different violations and punishments. Research using other violations and punishments would demonstrate the generalizability of the results from the present study.

## Conclusion

The present study examined factors that influence perceptions of justice of disciplinary decisions in sport teams and the factors that influence the ability of punishment to deter future misconduct. The results suggest that consistently applied punishment is seen as more fair to all team members than is conditional punishment. In addition, when punishment is consistently applied, punishment for a severe violation is perceived as slightly more fair than punishment for a moderate violation. When applied to the punishment decision process, consistent punishment procedures are perceived as more fair than conditional punishment procedures. The decision maker for the punishment did not make a difference in perceptions of fairness, as there was no difference in perceived fairness of decisions made by either coaches or team captains. Regarding deterrence for future misconduct, consistency was the primary factor that determined perceptions of fairness, as consistent punishment was more likely to deter future misconduct than was conditional punishment; punishment severity also played a role in deterring future misconduct. These findings add to the literature on justice and punishment in sports teams.

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## **Appendix A**

HSRB Approval Form



## **Appendix B**

### Data Collection Protocol

**Western Kentucky University  
Preamble / Cover Letter**

**Project Title: Intercollegiate Athlete Perceptions of Justice in Team Disciplinary Decisions**

**Investigator: Brandon Severs, Department of Psychology, WKU  
brandon.severs260@wku.edu**

**Faculty Advisor: Dr. Betsy Shoenfelt, Department of Psychology, WKU Phone:  
745-4418**

I consent to serve as a participant in the research investigation entitled: Intercollegiate Athlete Perceptions of Justice in Team Disciplinary Decisions. The nature and general purpose of the study have been explained to me by Brandon Severs, from the Psychology Department.

I understand the purpose of this research is to investigate perceptions of punishment in intercollegiate athletic team settings and that the research procedures involve a hypothetical, yet realistic scenario to be read with several questions following the scenario.

There are no potential risks to participants in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary, that all information is confidential, and my identity will not be revealed. I am free to withdraw consent and to discontinue participation in the study at any time without penalty; any questions I may have about the study will be answered by the researcher named above or by an authorized representative.

Western Kentucky University and the investigator named above have responsibility for ensuring that participants in research projects conducted under institutional auspices are safeguarded from injury or harm resulting from such participation. If appropriate, the person named above may be contacted for remedy or assistance for any possible consequences from such activities.

**COMPLETION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE IMPLIES CONSENT.**

THE DATED APPROVAL ON THIS CONSENT FORM INDICATES THAT  
THIS PROJECT HAS BEEN REVIEWED AND APPROVED BY  
THE WESTERN KENTUCKY UNIVERSITY HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW BOARD  
Paul Mooney, Compliance Coordinator  
TELEPHONE: (270) 745-4652

## INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETIC TEAM FAIRNESS STUDY

Thank you in advance for your participation. **Please read the following information very carefully before beginning the questionnaire.** This study focuses on intercollegiate athletes' perceptions of justice regarding punishment decisions.

### DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION:

As researchers, we are sometimes interested in determining if certain groups respond differently (e.g., males vs. females, older vs. younger, football vs. basketball athletes, etc.) To make these comparisons, we need you to complete the demographic information below. Your responses are anonymous (i.e., your name should *not* be recorded on this sheet). No individual responses will be reported; only overall/group responses will be reported.

**Please complete the following demographic information.**

1. Athlete \_\_\_\_\_ Coach \_\_\_\_\_
2. Athletic Team (e.g., WKU Football)  
  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Gender: \_\_\_\_\_ Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female
4. Age: \_\_\_\_\_ Years
5. Number of years participating in intercollegiate athletics: \_\_\_\_\_ Years  
(If you are a coach, fill in the number of years  
*coaching* intercollegiate athletics)
6. Ethnicity:  
 \_\_\_\_\_ African American  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Asian  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Hispanic  
 \_\_\_\_\_ White  
 \_\_\_\_\_ Other \_\_\_\_\_

### DIRECTIONS:

The following pages contain 8 brief hypothetical, but realistic scenarios depicting a star intercollegiate athlete from a fictional university committing a violation of a team rule and receiving punishment. Each scenario is slightly different. Please **carefully read each scenario and answer the questions that follow** with your honest opinion. When you have completed the questionnaire, please wait until everyone else has finished. The researcher will then collect all of the questionnaires. **Again, please read the scenario and questions carefully.**

Thank you for your participation in this important research!

**Please carefully read the entire scenario.**

**Scenario:** Chris is an intercollegiate athlete at State University. Chris is the star of the team and was selected all-conference for the last two seasons. Before the last game, Chris failed a drug test. The team rules state that the punishment for this type of team infraction is dismissal from the team. Because the rules are applied equally to all team members, the coach dismissed Chris from the team even though Chris is the star player.

**Please answer the following 11 questions concerning the scenario. For the first 2 questions, fill in the blanks based on the information in the scenario.**

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**Mark your answers here**

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## **Appendix C**

### **Correlation Matrix**

## Correlations

		Disciplinary action to the player was fair?	Process used to decide disciplinary action for player was fair?	Disciplinary action to the rest of the team was fair?	Process used to decide disciplinary action for rest of the team was fair?	Deter future misconduct by the athlete who committed the rule violation?	Deter future misconduct by other players on the team?
Disciplinary action to the player was fair?	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.849**	.751**	.699**	.465**	.442**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	129	129	129	129	129	129
Process used to decide disciplinary action for player was fair?	Pearson Correlation	.849**	1.000	.756**	.747**	.451**	.451**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	129	129	129	129	129	129
Disciplinary action to the rest of the team was fair?	Pearson Correlation	.751**	.756**	1.000	.830**	.494**	.443**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	129	129	129	129	129	129
Process used to decide disciplinary action for rest of the team was fair?	Pearson Correlation	.699**	.747**	.830**	1.000	.417**	.358**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	129	129	129	129	129	129
Deter future misconduct by the athlete who committed the rule violation?	Pearson Correlation	.465**	.451**	.494**	.417**	1.000	.840**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	129	129	129	129	129	129
Deter future misconduct by other players on the team?	Pearson Correlation	.442**	.451**	.443**	.358**	.840**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	129	129	129	129	129	129

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

## **Appendix D**

ANOVA Table's

**VioSev = Violation Severity**  
**PunSev = Punishment Severity**  
**Con = Consistency of Punishment**  
**DecMak = Decision Maker of Punishment**

Note: The abbreviations defined above will be applicable to all Tables in Appendix D.

**Table: Justice Perceptions of Punishment Fairness for the Punished Athlete**

Dependent Variable: Disciplinary action to the player was fair?

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	211.047 <sup>a</sup>	31	6.808	7.819	.000	.714
Intercept	1124.498	1	1124.498	1291.499	.000	.930
VioSev	.018	1	.018	.020	.887	.000
PunSev	2.308	1	2.308	2.651	.107	.027
Con	140.261	1	140.261	161.092	.000	.624
DecMak	.070	1	.070	.080	.777	.001
Gender	1.408	1	1.408	1.617	.207	.016
VioSev * PunSev	.103	1	.103	.119	.731	.001
VioSev * Con	5.117	1	5.117	5.877	.017	.057
VioSev * DecMak	.110	1	.110	.126	.723	.001
VioSev * Gender	2.175	1	2.175	2.498	.117	.025
PunSev * Con	9.710	1	9.710	11.152	.001	.103
PunSev * DecMak	.045	1	.045	.052	.821	.001
PunSev * Gender	1.830	1	1.830	2.102	.150	.021
Con * DecMak	1.767	1	1.767	2.029	.158	.020
Con * Gender	3.031	1	3.031	3.481	.065	.035
DecMak * Gender	2.051	1	2.051	2.355	.128	.024
VioSev * PunSev * Con	6.676	1	6.676	7.667	.007	.073
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak	.398	1	.398	.457	.501	.005
VioSev * PunSev * Gender	.827	1	.827	.950	.332	.010
VioSev * Con * DecMak	.141	1	.141	.162	.688	.002
VioSev * Con * Gender	2.515	1	2.515	2.888	.092	.029

VioSev * DecMak * Gender	.003	1	.003	.004	.951	.000
PunSev * Con * DecMak	.490	1	.490	.563	.455	.006
PunSev * Con * Gender	1.830	1	1.830	2.102	.150	.021
PunSev * DecMak * Gender	4.248	1	4.248	4.879	.030	.048
Con * DecMak * Gender	.891	1	.891	1.024	.314	.010
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak	.205	1	.205	.236	.628	.002
VioSev * PunSev * Con * Gender	.060	1	.060	.068	.794	.001
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak * Gender	2.510E-6	1	2.510E-6	.000	.999	.000
VioSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.104	1	.104	.120	.730	.001
PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.993	1	.993	1.140	.288	.012
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.240	1	.240	.275	.601	.003
Error	84.457	97	.871			
Total	1676.000	129				
Corrected Total	295.504	128				

a. R Squared = .714 (Adjusted R Squared = .623)

**Table: Justice Perceptions of Procedural Fairness for the Punished Athlete**

Dependent Variable: Process used to decide disciplinary action for player was fair?

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	168.204 <sup>a</sup>	31	5.426	4.994	.000	.615
Intercept	1216.895	1	1216.895	1119.989	.000	.920
VioSev	.003	1	.003	.003	.956	.000
PunSev	2.201	1	2.201	2.026	.158	.020
Con	113.277	1	113.277	104.257	.000	.518
DecMak	.077	1	.077	.071	.790	.001
Gender	1.735	1	1.735	1.597	.209	.016
VioSev * PunSev	.064	1	.064	.059	.809	.001
VioSev * Con	3.179	1	3.179	2.926	.090	.029
VioSev * DecMak	.237	1	.237	.218	.641	.002
VioSev * Gender	.013	1	.013	.012	.914	.000
PunSev * Con	2.335	1	2.335	2.149	.146	.022
PunSev * DecMak	.186	1	.186	.172	.680	.002
PunSev * Gender	.015	1	.015	.014	.905	.000
Con * DecMak	.621	1	.621	.572	.451	.006
Con * Gender	3.357	1	3.357	3.089	.082	.031
DecMak * Gender	.070	1	.070	.065	.800	.001
VioSev * PunSev * Con	3.196	1	3.196	2.941	.090	.029
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak	1.042	1	1.042	.959	.330	.010
VioSev * PunSev * Gender	5.647E-6	1	5.647E-6	.000	.998	.000
VioSev * Con * DecMak	.308	1	.308	.284	.595	.003
VioSev * Con * Gender	.356	1	.356	.327	.569	.003
VioSev * DecMak * Gender	.003	1	.003	.003	.957	.000
PunSev * Con * DecMak	.227	1	.227	.209	.649	.002
PunSev * Con * Gender	.027	1	.027	.025	.875	.000
PunSev * DecMak * Gender	2.482	1	2.482	2.284	.134	.023

Con * DecMak * Gender	.196	1	.196	.180	.672	.002
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak	.002	1	.002	.002	.967	.000
VioSev * PunSev * Con * Gender	.005	1	.005	.004	.947	.000
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak * Gender	2.806	1	2.806	2.583	.111	.026
VioSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	1.739	1	1.739	1.601	.209	.016
PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.712	1	.712	.655	.420	.007
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	3.264	1	3.264	3.004	.086	.030
Error	105.393	97	1.087			
Total	1727.000	129				
Corrected Total	273.597	128				

a. R Squared = .615 (Adjusted R Squared = .492)

**Table: Justice Perceptions of Punishment Fairness for Teammates**

Dependent Variable:Disciplinary action to the rest of the team was fair?

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	207.915 <sup>a</sup>	31	6.707	7.480	.000	.705
Intercept	1012.428	1	1012.428	1129.201	.000	.921
VioSev	.312	1	.312	.348	.557	.004
PunSev	2.253	1	2.253	2.513	.116	.025
Con	154.350	1	154.350	172.153	.000	.640
DecMak	.021	1	.021	.024	.877	.000
Gender	.001	1	.001	.002	.969	.000
VioSev * PunSev	.860	1	.860	.960	.330	.010
VioSev * Con	.774	1	.774	.864	.355	.009
VioSev * DecMak	.641	1	.641	.715	.400	.007
VioSev * Gender	.129	1	.129	.144	.706	.001
PunSev * Con	.541	1	.541	.604	.439	.006
PunSev * DecMak	.772	1	.772	.861	.356	.009
PunSev * Gender	1.072	1	1.072	1.195	.277	.012
Con * DecMak	.095	1	.095	.106	.746	.001
Con * Gender	.563	1	.563	.628	.430	.006
DecMak * Gender	.397	1	.397	.442	.508	.005
VioSev * PunSev * Con	3.751	1	3.751	4.183	.044	.041
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak	.041	1	.041	.046	.832	.000
VioSev * PunSev * Gender	.001	1	.001	.001	.978	.000
VioSev * Con * DecMak	.136	1	.136	.151	.698	.002
VioSev * Con * Gender	1.149	1	1.149	1.281	.261	.013
VioSev * DecMak * Gender	.144	1	.144	.161	.690	.002
PunSev * Con * DecMak	.180	1	.180	.200	.655	.002
PunSev * Con * Gender	1.172	1	1.172	1.308	.256	.013
PunSev * DecMak * Gender	3.862	1	3.862	4.307	.041	.043

Con * DecMak * Gender	1.649	1	1.649	1.839	.178	.019
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak	1.210	1	1.210	1.350	.248	.014
VioSev * PunSev * Con * Gender	1.580	1	1.580	1.762	.187	.018
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak * Gender	.017	1	.017	.019	.891	.000
VioSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	6.325	1	6.325	7.054	.009	.068
PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.823	1	.823	.917	.341	.009
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	1.564	1	1.564	1.745	.190	.018
Error	86.969	97	.897			
Total	1529.000	129				
Corrected Total	294.884	128				

a. R Squared = .705 (Adjusted R Squared = .611)

**Table: Justice Perceptions of Procedural Fairness for Teammates**

Dependent Variable: Process used to decide disciplinary action for rest of the team was fair?

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	156.048 <sup>a</sup>	31	5.034	4.882	.000	.609
Intercept	1142.096	1	1142.096	1107.675	.000	.919
VioSev	.466	1	.466	.452	.503	.005
PunSev	1.503	1	1.503	1.458	.230	.015
Con	113.699	1	113.699	110.273	.000	.532
DecMak	.044	1	.044	.043	.836	.000
Gender	.612	1	.612	.594	.443	.006
VioSev * PunSev	.080	1	.080	.077	.782	.001
VioSev * Con	.007	1	.007	.007	.934	.000
VioSev * DecMak	.090	1	.090	.087	.769	.001
VioSev * Gender	1.582	1	1.582	1.534	.218	.016
PunSev * Con	1.614	1	1.614	1.566	.214	.016
PunSev * DecMak	1.712	1	1.712	1.661	.201	.017
PunSev * Gender	1.123	1	1.123	1.089	.299	.011
Con * DecMak	.400	1	.400	.387	.535	.004
Con * Gender	4.137	1	4.137	4.013	.048	.040
DecMak * Gender	.748	1	.748	.726	.396	.007
VioSev * PunSev * Con	.011	1	.011	.011	.918	.000
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak	.260	1	.260	.252	.617	.003
VioSev * PunSev * Gender	.420	1	.420	.407	.525	.004
VioSev * Con * DecMak	.103	1	.103	.100	.752	.001
VioSev * Con * Gender	.191	1	.191	.185	.668	.002
VioSev * DecMak * Gender	.260	1	.260	.252	.617	.003
PunSev * Con * DecMak	.071	1	.071	.069	.794	.001
PunSev * Con * Gender	.009	1	.009	.008	.927	.000
PunSev * DecMak * Gender	3.512	1	3.512	3.406	.068	.034

Con * DecMak * Gender	1.087	1	1.087	1.054	.307	.011
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak	.018	1	.018	.017	.896	.000
VioSev * PunSev * Con * Gender	.364	1	.364	.353	.554	.004
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak * Gender	.065	1	.065	.063	.802	.001
VioSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	4.821	1	4.821	4.676	.033	.046
PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.001	1	.001	.001	.974	.000
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.010	1	.010	.010	.922	.000
Error	100.014	97	1.031			
Total	1617.000	129				
Corrected Total	256.062	128				

a. R Squared = .609 (Adjusted R Squared = .485)

**Table: Perceptions of Deterrence to Future Misconduct for the Punished Athlete**

Dependent Variable: Deter future misconduct by the athlete who committed the rule violation?

Source	Type III Sum of			F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
	Squares	df	Mean Square			
Corrected Model	95.856 <sup>a</sup>	31	3.092	2.237	.002	.417
Intercept	1193.577	1	1193.577	863.378	.000	.899
VioSev	1.421	1	1.421	1.028	.313	.010
PunSev	6.647	1	6.647	4.808	.031	.047
Con	69.632	1	69.632	50.368	.000	.342
DecMak	.002	1	.002	.001	.969	.000
Gender	.074	1	.074	.053	.818	.001
VioSev * PunSev	.244	1	.244	.176	.676	.002
VioSev * Con	2.258	1	2.258	1.633	.204	.017
VioSev * DecMak	.227	1	.227	.164	.686	.002
VioSev * Gender	.646	1	.646	.468	.496	.005
PunSev * Con	.030	1	.030	.021	.884	.000
PunSev * DecMak	.110	1	.110	.080	.778	.001
PunSev * Gender	.173	1	.173	.125	.724	.001
Con * DecMak	.021	1	.021	.015	.903	.000
Con * Gender	2.497	1	2.497	1.806	.182	.018
DecMak * Gender	1.572	1	1.572	1.137	.289	.012
VioSev * PunSev * Con	.560	1	.560	.405	.526	.004
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak	.728	1	.728	.526	.470	.005
VioSev * PunSev * Gender	1.369	1	1.369	.990	.322	.010
VioSev * Con * DecMak	1.088	1	1.088	.787	.377	.008
VioSev * Con * Gender	1.369	1	1.369	.990	.322	.010
VioSev * DecMak * Gender	1.769	1	1.769	1.279	.261	.013
PunSev * Con * DecMak	.006	1	.006	.004	.948	.000
PunSev * Con * Gender	.878	1	.878	.635	.427	.007
PunSev * DecMak * Gender	.227	1	.227	.164	.686	.002

Con * DecMak * Gender	5.948	1	5.948	4.302	.041	.042
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak	.444	1	.444	.321	.572	.003
VioSev * PunSev * Con * Gender	.941	1	.941	.681	.411	.007
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak * Gender	.031	1	.031	.023	.881	.000
VioSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.021	1	.021	.015	.902	.000
PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.709	1	.709	.513	.476	.005
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.036	1	.036	.026	.872	.000
Error	134.098	97	1.382			
Total	1617.000	129				
Corrected Total	229.953	128				

a. R Squared = .417 (Adjusted R Squared = .230)

**Table: Perceptions of Deterrence to Future Misconduct for Teammates**

Dependent Variable: Deter future misconduct by other players on the team?

Source	Type III Sum of				Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
	Squares	df	Mean Square	F		
Corrected Model	90.316 <sup>a</sup>	31	2.913	2.332	.001	.427
Intercept	1200.812	1	1200.812	961.141	.000	.908
VioSev	2.210	1	2.210	1.769	.187	.018
PunSev	6.970	1	6.970	5.579	.020	.054
Con	63.028	1	63.028	50.448	.000	.342
DecMak	.592	1	.592	.473	.493	.005
Gender	.032	1	.032	.025	.874	.000
VioSev * PunSev	.344	1	.344	.276	.601	.003
VioSev * Con	1.624	1	1.624	1.300	.257	.013
VioSev * DecMak	1.238	1	1.238	.991	.322	.010
VioSev * Gender	1.685	1	1.685	1.349	.248	.014
PunSev * Con	.090	1	.090	.072	.789	.001
PunSev * DecMak	1.568E-5	1	1.568E-5	.000	.997	.000
PunSev * Gender	.250	1	.250	.200	.656	.002
Con * DecMak	.108	1	.108	.086	.769	.001
Con * Gender	4.303	1	4.303	3.444	.066	.034
DecMak * Gender	.902	1	.902	.722	.398	.007
VioSev * PunSev * Con	.000	1	.000	.000	.985	.000
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak	.000	1	.000	.000	.989	.000
VioSev * PunSev * Gender	.503	1	.503	.402	.527	.004
VioSev * Con * DecMak	.800	1	.800	.640	.426	.007
VioSev * Con * Gender	.537	1	.537	.430	.514	.004
VioSev * DecMak * Gender	3.281	1	3.281	2.627	.108	.026
PunSev * Con * DecMak	.000	1	.000	.000	.989	.000
PunSev * Con * Gender	.160	1	.160	.128	.721	.001
PunSev * DecMak * Gender	.276	1	.276	.221	.640	.002

Con * DecMak * Gender	.662	1	.662	.530	.469	.005
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak	.193	1	.193	.155	.695	.002
VioSev * PunSev * Con * Gender	.027	1	.027	.022	.883	.000
VioSev * PunSev * DecMak * Gender	.667	1	.667	.534	.467	.005
VioSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.875	1	.875	.700	.405	.007
PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.085	1	.085	.068	.794	.001
VioSev * PunSev * Con * DecMak * Gender	.341	1	.341	.273	.603	.003
Error	121.188	97	1.249			
Total	1592.000	129				
Corrected Total	211.504	128				

a. R Squared = .427 (Adjusted R Squared = .244)

