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The Mediation of Athlete Satisfaction on the Relationship of Role Dimensions and Team Commitment

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THE MEDIATION OF ATHLETE SATISFACTION ON THE RELATIONSHIP OF ROLE DIMENSIONS AND TEAM COMMITMENT

by

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(Under the Direction of Brandonn Harris)

ABSTRACT

In the industrial and organizational domain, an individual's commitment to an organization can be influenced by the perceived satisfaction with their work experience (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Porter et al., 1974). Moreover, previous research has demonstrated role components, specifically role stressors (i.e., role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload) as antecedents of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Mowday et al., 1982). Correspondingly, it has been demonstrated that role components may impact an individual's satisfaction. Specifically, role ambiguity and role satisfaction have been exhibited to be significant correlates of athlete satisfaction (Eys et al., 2003; Jones, 2006). Although these constructs have been studied separately, the literature has yet to examine them concurrently. The purpose of the current study was to examine the degree to which athlete satisfaction mediates the relationship between role dimensions and team commitment in collegiate athletes. It was hypothesized that with athlete satisfaction as a significant mediator, role conflict and role ambiguity will negatively predict team commitment, while role acceptance and role satisfaction will positively predict team commitment. However, these results indicated that no significant mediations were established based on these hypotheses. Therefore, regressions were run on significant correlations with team commitment. The results demonstrated that role conflict, team task contribution, and team social contribution were significant predictors of team commitment.

INDEX WORDS: Team commitment, Athlete satisfaction, Role ambiguity, Role conflict, Role acceptance, Role satisfaction, Collegiate athletes, Sport psychology

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by

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this to my family and friends, who have supported me through the ups and downs of graduate school. Without their constant encouragement and uplifting words, I would not have been able to get through this rewarding, yet difficult journey. Thank you all for the support through the process. Lastly, I would also like to dedicate this to every Person of Color. Our culture, our presence, our ideas, our work, and our experiences are valuable. We are valuable. **T**he **M**arathon **C**ontinues.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Commitment is an essential component of sport. Indeed, if an individual is committed to their team, they are more likely to be accepting of the team's goals and values (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Within sport settings, team commitment has been suggested to be the attachment, identification with, sense of belonging and loyalty one has to a team (Somech & Bogler, 2002). There are several components of commitment that an individual can portray towards their team including affective, continuance, and normative aspects (Meyer, Allen & Gellatly, 1990). However, affective commitment has been the most widely accepted and used component of commitment in the literature (Somech & Bogler, 2002). Affective commitment focuses on the psychological attachment one has to an organization or team. Since affective commitment is seen as a psychological state, it can have numerous implications on behavior (Meyer & Allen, 1991). More importantly, commitment has been associated with other psychological outcomes such as satisfaction of the entire athletic experience.

Commitment and satisfaction have been associated with one another in settings outside of sport. For example, in a seminal study in the industrial and organizational domain, a group of psychiatric technicians were found to have a significantly different perceptions of commitment and satisfaction between the employees who stayed and the employees who ultimately left the organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). These findings suggest that those who have lower levels of satisfaction are more likely to leave an organization. In addition, an individual's expectations compared to the perceived reality of his or her own work environment can influence satisfaction as well. The more satisfied an individual is with their experience, the more willing they are to sacrifice and exert effort towards their organization's goals and values (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Although this evidence is present in the industrial-organizational

literature, there is reason to believe that these findings can be mirrored in sport settings as well. For instance, the degree to which an athlete's expectations of their athletic experience are met can also influence athlete satisfaction (Jones, 2006). Therefore, it has been argued that athlete satisfaction is just as important as job satisfaction (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). Satisfaction has been suggested to be a direct antecedent of commitment in the industrial and organizational domain (Jackson & Shuler, 1985); however, it has yet to be investigated in a sport context. Satisfaction is important because it not only influences commitment levels, but it is also influenced by other processes as well. In the grand scheme, committed athletes will be more accepting of the values and goals of the team, which in return will allow an athlete to exert more effort towards those said values and goals. Thus, potentially increasing performance.

Athlete satisfaction in particular is defined as, "a positive affective state resulting from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the athletic experience" (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997, p. 135). At first, athlete satisfaction was associated with performance, such as wins and losses (Courneya & Chelladurai, 1991). However, wins and losses do not accurately portray a team's effectiveness, nor does it reflect an athlete's experiences. Therefore, Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) argued that athlete satisfaction is a primary outcome of various psychological factors. For instance, role elements have been associated with satisfaction. Role ambiguity, specifically within the scope of an athlete's responsibilities, has been found to be negatively associated with athlete satisfaction at the beginning and end of a competitive season (Eys et al., 2003). Moreover, role satisfaction has been demonstrated to be the only significant predictor of athlete satisfaction, specifically satisfaction with leadership (Jones, 2006). Athletes hold high value in their leader (i.e. coach) giving them clear role responsibilities and expectations. Thus, having a clear understanding of one's role(s) appears to be important to athlete satisfaction and performance. Conversely, the

presence of unclear information can negatively influence an individual's performance and satisfaction (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970).

Role ambiguity is described as having a lack of clear information regarding the expectations of one's responsibilities (Kahn et al., 1964). Research has examined the negative affective responses that can occur when role ambiguity is present. Kahn's (1964) role theory suggests that the lack of understanding of roles and role expectations can increase the chance that an individual will be dissatisfied with their role, experience stress and anxiety, and distort one's reality. This corresponds with work from Beauchamp, Bray, Eys, and Carron (2003), who demonstrated that role ambiguity was a predictor of competitive and somatic state anxiety in athletes. Moreover, an athlete who has a high need for role clarity and experiences high levels of role ambiguity, can experience dissatisfaction more often than a teammate who does not need clarity (Bray, Beauchamp, Eys, & Carron, 2005). Contrastingly, role ambiguity has been negatively associated with task cohesion, as well as role efficacy and role performance (Beauchamp, Bray, Eys, & Carron, 2002; Eys & Carron, 2001). This suggests that role ambiguity may influence performance such that athletes are less efficient and effective. Role ambiguity not only has a strong influence on individuals, but particularly for individuals who participate within team sports.

More specifically, role ambiguity can have a significant influence on highly interdependent teams (Beauchamp & Bray, 2001). The presence of role ambiguity can diminish an athlete's confidence in his or her ability to effectively perform their role responsibilities (Beauchamp, Bray, Eys, & Carron, 2002). Furthermore, Eys and Carron (2001) found that individuals who were unclear about their given role responsibilities, perceived their team to be less integrated with tasks and were also less attracted to the team. Athletes who have experienced greater levels of role ambiguity have been found to be more likely to not return to the same team

the subsequent season (Eys et al., 2005). Thus, athletes' understanding of their role(s) and how they will be evaluated within those role(s) appears essential for successful individual and team performance. Along with role ambiguity, role conflict can have a negative impact on interdependent sport teams as well.

Role conflict is suggested as, the presence of inconsistent and incongruent expectations for a role occupant (Kahn et al., 1964). Role conflict can come from several places. Conflict can arise when there is an incongruence of expectations from an athlete's athletic career and an athlete's academic career (inter-role conflict). Settles and colleagues (2002) found that student-athletes whose academic role and athletic role interfered with one another experienced higher levels of stress. Furthermore, person-role conflict is the incompatibility of role expectations between the athlete and their moral or values. Role conflict can also consist of an incompatibility of role expectations of the athlete between the head coach and assistant coach (inter-sender conflict). This is consistent with More and Collins (1996), who found that when the coach and manager experienced conflicting expectations from athletes (making executive decisions and being supportive), their ability to carry out their role was jeopardized. Lastly, the incompatibility of role expectations between roles on defense and offense is intra-sender conflict. Although role conflict can be experienced by individuals, it may be more prevalent within sport teams.

Role conflict can be commonplace with highly interdependent teams when role boundaries are not clearly established to athletes (Beauchamp & Bray, 2001). On average, elite athletes that are on interdependent teams, have three main roles on both offense and defense (Beauchamp & Bray, 2001). An athlete that is experiencing incongruent expectations on offense and defense could lead to a lack of clarity regarding their roles on the team (role ambiguity). Beauchamp and Bray (2001) found that role ambiguity mediated the relationship between role conflict and role-efficacy in elite interdependent sport teams. The presence of role conflict can

lead to stress and dissatisfaction, which can ultimately affect performance. When an individual experiences conflicting expectations of their role(s), they may be more likely to perform less efficiently (Rizzo, 1970). Understanding role contexts is important for combating role conflict. Therefore, having uniform expectations for one's role can allow athletes to take on role responsibilities with confidence and execute them efficiently. Previous research has demonstrated role components, specifically role stressors (i.e., role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload) as antecedents of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Mowday et al., 1982). Although there has been extensive research on role ambiguity and role conflict, there is limited research on other aspects of role elements, such as role acceptance and role satisfaction in the sport domain.

Role acceptance has been suggested to be a covert and dynamic cognitive process (Eys et al., 2006); meaning that role acceptance can be a changing phenomenon. Role acceptance is portrayed as, the degree to which the expectations of role responsibilities given by a role sender, is congruent with the expectations of the athlete (Eys et al., 2006). It has been demonstrated that role acceptance can affect team processes. Benson and colleagues (2013) found that athletes reported it being easier to understand and accept roles when their team was united in task and social matters. Therefore, athletes who do not choose to accept their roles can may negatively affect team performance and success. There are several aspects that can lead to athletes accepting their roles.

Role acceptance can be influenced by the perceptions of the athlete. An athlete who perceives their role to be effective, having personal significance, and contributing to team success influences the degree to which he or she accepts their role. This is consistent with Holt and Sparkes (2001) who suggested individuals were more likely to accept roles if they understood the role and it was significant for team success. It appears that role clarity (low role

ambiguity) is a central factor to having an athlete to accept their role. It is important to consider that even if an athlete accepts their role on a team, it does not necessarily mean that they are satisfied with their role.

Role ambiguity, role conflict, and role acceptance are all cognitive elements of role involvement, whereas research has suggested role satisfaction to be an affective element (Eys, Beauchamp, & Bray, 2006). Previous studies have confused role acceptance with role satisfaction. However, these two constructs are distinct from one another. Eys et al. (2006) described role satisfaction as, the degree of fulfillment an athlete gets from their role. Surya and colleagues (2011) designed a model, which demonstrates the different components that can lead an athlete to having role satisfaction. The following components include recognition, level of autonomy, the degree to which an athlete's skills are being used, the significance of the role for the team, how significant the role is to the athlete, feedback pertaining to their role, and the athlete's overall responsibilities. Role ambiguity has been negatively correlated with role satisfaction (Bray, 1998). Thus, athletes who do not clearly understand their role expectations or how they will be evaluated in their role can affect how satisfied they are with their role. This suggests that other role dimensions, including role conflict, can impact role satisfaction. Moreover, an individual who experiences role ambiguity is more likely to be less satisfied with their role, which can lead to social loafing (i.e. the tendency for an individual to have decreased motivation and effort when working with others collectively, compared with when they work individually; Latane, 1986; Høigaard et al., 2010). It appears that role satisfaction can influence role performance. Consequently, an athlete who is satisfied and accepting of their roles, may be more satisfied with their athletic experience (Jones, 2006).

In summary, there is a paucity of literature on the relationship between athlete satisfaction and team commitment, particularly within the sport domain. Furthermore, research

has demonstrated that various role elements are related to athlete satisfaction, but it has yet to be examined concurrently with team commitment. More specifically, it is unknown if role dimensions have a direct or indirect effect as it pertains to team commitment. Therefore, the purpose of the current study is to examine the mediation of athlete satisfaction on the relationship between role dimensions and team commitment in collegiate athletes. It is hypothesized that athlete satisfaction (i.e. team performance, team task contribution, team social contribution, and team integration) will significantly mediate the relationship between role dimensions and team commitment. It is also hypothesized that with athlete satisfaction as a significant mediator, role conflict and role ambiguity will negatively predict team commitment, while role acceptance and role satisfaction will positively predict team commitment.

CHAPTER 2

METHODS

Participants

Initially, participants in this study consisted of 82 collegiate athletes. However, due to several participants having incomplete data for some of the questionnaires, they were not included in the correlation or regression analysis. Ultimately, the final sample size of the present study consisted of 73 collegiate athletes that ranged from the age of 18 to 22 years old from NCAA Division I (n = 23), Division II (n = 25), Division III (n = 23), and NAIA (n = 2) universities in the United States. Participants were from baseball (n = 8), basketball (n = 6), cheerleading (n = 1), cross country (n = 4), football (n = 11), golf (n = 6), lacrosse (n = 3), soccer (n = 10), softball (n = 5), tennis (n = 2), track (n = 13), and volleyball (n = 4). Furthermore, participants predominately identified as Caucasian (n = 52) with other ethnicities including African American (n = 12), Hispanic (n = 4), Multiracial (n = 2), Asian/Pacific Islander (n = 1), Native American (n = 1), and one participant declined to answer. Lastly, participants identified with being female (n = 44) or male (n = 29).

Instrumentation

Demographics. Information on participants' age, race, ethnicity, gender identity, sport, division of their university, time of season (i.e., off-season or in-season), athletic/academic eligibility and injury status were obtained (See Appendix A).

Team commitment. Team commitment was measured using the modified Affective Commitment Scale (ACS; see Appendix B) that was originally developed by Meyer and colleagues (1993). This measure is designed to assess the degree to which an individual is committed to the organization they are currently under. It consists of 6-items with 3 items reverse scored. The original questionnaire contained industrial and business terminology.

However, in more recent studies within the sport domain, the questionnaire has adapted the terminology to fit into a sport and team context (Kim, 2016). Example items include ‘‘This team has a great deal of personal meaning for me’’ and ‘‘I do not feel a strong sense of ‘belonging’ to my team’’ (reverse coded). The responses will be reported on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). Higher scores reflect higher levels of affective commitment towards the team. All 6-items were averaged to create one score. The affective commitment scale demonstrated good reliability with Cronbach's alpha at .87 at the beginning of the year and .85 at the end of the year (Meyer et al., 1993). Validity was measured through exploratory and confirmatory analysis. Meyer and colleagues (1993) were able to determine a 6-factor solution and for the purposes of this study, we will be using the organizational affective commitment scale (i.e. factor 4). Other researchers have also found this scale to reflect construct validity and adequate reliability with Cronbach's alpha at .85 (Kim, 2016). For the present study, Cronbach's alpha for the ACS was .84.

Athlete satisfaction. Athlete satisfaction was measured using the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ; see Appendix C) that was created by Riemer and Chelladurai (1998). This measure was designed to assess an athlete's satisfaction within various aspects of their athletic experience and satisfaction as a multidimensional construct. There are 15 facets that are categorized into five themes including performance, the team, the organization, leadership, and the individual correlates of sport involvement. The facets of the ASQ were based from satisfaction categories in athletics as such: individual task outcomes, team task outcomes, individual social outcomes, team social outcomes, individual task processes, team task processes, team social processes, and individual social processes. The aim of the present study was to examine how role dimensions impact an athlete's satisfaction with team-related constructs. Therefore, several of the satisfaction facets were excluded because they did not focus on team-

related constructs. Consequently, questions in the ASQ pertaining to individual, administrative and ethical facets (i.e. Personal Treatment, Strategy, Budget, Medical Personnel, Academic Support Services, and External Agents) were not included. The remaining subscales of satisfaction included were Team Performance, Team Task Contribution, Team Social Contribution, and Team Integration.

The full version of the ASQ is 56 questions; however, for the purpose of the present study, the scale was reduced to 13-items. An example item is, "I am satisfied with team member's dedication to work together toward team goals". The ASQ is rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1= not at all satisfied; 7 = extremely satisfied). Higher scores indicate greater levels of satisfaction. There is no total score; therefore, each subscale was scored separately. All the items were averaged to create one score for each subscale. This measurement has been deemed psychometrically sound with alpha coefficients ranging from .78 to .95 (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). In addition, the ASQ has demonstrated criterion-related and predictive validity (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). For the present study, Cronbach's alpha was examined for each subscale and found to be .92 for Team Performance, .89 for Team Task Contribution, .86 for Team Social Contribution, .92 for Team Integration.

Role ambiguity. Role ambiguity was measured using the modified Role Ambiguity Scale (RAS; Beauchamp et al., 2002; see Appendix D). The RAS measures the four dimensions of role ambiguity in both offense and defense contexts. The first dimension is Scope of Responsibilities, which is the degree to which an individual lacks clarity of their scope of role responsibilities. An example of an item is "I understand my area of responsibility in the game." The next dimension is Role Behavior, which are the behaviors necessary to fulfill the role responsibilities expected of the individual. An example item is "I understand the actions and moves that are needed to carry out my role." Evaluation of Role is how an athlete is evaluated on

carrying out those set of responsibilities. An example item is “I understand how my role will be assessed.” The fourth dimension, Role Consequences, reflects the ambiguity of the consequences if role responsibilities are not met. An example item is “I understand the consequences of not succeeding in my role.” There are five items for each role ambiguity dimension. Thus, the original RAS consists of two 20-item scales, one for offense and one for defense. As the current study did not examine the difference of role ambiguity in offensive and defensive roles; therefore, the modified RAS was used, which reduced the scale to 20-items with 4-items reversed scored. Role ambiguity was calculated using a composite role ambiguity score with all 20 items. The responses were on a 9-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 9 = strongly agree). On the modified scale, higher scores indicate lower levels of role ambiguity. All 20-items were averaged to create one score. Alpha coefficients for the original RAS ranged from .79 to .90 for offense and .85 to .90 for defense (Beauchamp, Bray, Eys, & Carron, 2002). In addition, the modified RAS was demonstrated to have internal validity and acceptable reliability (Cronbach alphas ranged from .76 to .83) for each dimension (Høigaard et al., 2010). For the present study, Cronbach’s alpha for the RAS was .85.

Role conflict. Role conflict was measured using the adapted version of the Role Conflict Scale (RCS; see Appendix E) developed by Beauchamp and Bray (2001). This scale was created to assess three aspects of role conflict including intra-sender (i.e. conflict is occurring within a single role context), inter-sender (i.e. conflict can arise when the expectations of the role occupant are incongruent with various role senders), and person-role conflict (i.e. role expectations are incompatible with the morals or values of the role occupant). The fourth dimension of role conflict (inter-role conflict) was removed because the authors were only interested in examining the athlete’s beliefs about their role within a sport team. The original Role Conflict Scale assessed role conflict in both offense and defense contexts with two 10-item

scales. For the current study, there was an examination of overall role conflict. There was no differentiation of offense and defense roles. In the original RCS, four items were found to be non-meaningful role conflict factors. Consequently, Leo and colleagues (2015) assessed role conflict with the modified 6-item Role Conflict Scale. An example of an item is, "The role I am expected to play is inconsistent with the team's needs". The responses are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree). Therefore, higher scores on each item indicates that the individual is experiencing higher levels of role conflict. All 6-items were averaged to create one score. The original Role Conflict Scale displayed acceptable internal consistency with an alpha coefficient of .91, while the modified RCS also demonstrated acceptable internal consistency with an average alpha coefficient of .79. The RCS demonstrated to have construct validity as a unidimensional construct based on principal component analysis (Beauchamp & Bray, 2001). For the present study, Cronbach's alpha for the RCS was .90.

Role acceptance. Role acceptance was measured by the Role Perception Scale (see Appendix F) developed by Bray (1998). Items were designed to reflect the degree to which an athlete accepts their role responsibilities and how well they think their abilities matched those role responsibilities. There are two 3-item scales that examine role acceptance in both offensive and defensive contexts. However, in the current study role acceptance was not differentiated within offensive and defensive roles. Therefore, the scale was reduced to 3-items. An example item includes, "I totally accept having to perform my role responsibilities". The participants' responses are scored on an 11-point Likert-type scale (0 = I do not accept having to perform the assigned role functions; 10 = I totally accept having to perform the assigned role functions). Higher scores indicate greater role acceptance of their role. All 3-items were averaged to create one score. Initially, the Role Perception Scale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency with Cronbach's alphas of .83 for offense and .77 for defense. Divergent validity was demonstrated

between offensive and defensive contexts for role acceptance in the Role Perception Scale (Bray, 1998). Other researchers have also demonstrated adequate reliability for the Role Perception Scale (Jones, 2006; Nourali, 2015). For the present study, Cronbach's alpha for the Role Perception Scale was .87.

Role satisfaction. Role satisfaction was measured using the Role Satisfaction Scale (see Appendix G; RSS; Beauchamp, Bray et al., 2005). This assessment was created to measure an athlete's perception of how satisfied they are with their roles within a sport team. The RSS consists of two 4-item scales that measure role satisfaction for both offense and defense context. However, for the current study there was no differentiation between offensive and defensive role satisfaction. Therefore, the scale was reduced to 4-items with 1-item reversed score. An example of an item is, "I am satisfied with my responsibilities". The participants responses were on a 9-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 9 = strongly agree), with higher scores indicating greater satisfaction with their role. All four items were averaged to generate one score. The Role Satisfaction Scale has demonstrated satisfactory validity and acceptable reliability with Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .84 for both offense and defense. More recently, Høigaard et al. (2010), demonstrated that the modified RSS to also have acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .94$). For the present study, Cronbach's alpha for the RSS was .94.

Procedures

First, athletic department administrators were contacted via e-mail about the purpose of the present study and asked for letters of cooperation. After approval from the IRB and participating athletic programs, coaches and athletic department administrators were asked to forward an e-mail to their athletes. The e-mail consisted of the purpose of the current study and the link to the online survey, which was completed through Qualtrics. Current e-mail addresses of athletic department administrators and coaches were obtained through the respective athletic

program's website. A reminder e-mail was sent to the athletic department administrators about the online survey. Participants were notified that participation was voluntary and confidential. In addition, a passive informed consent was displayed for participants to read before taking the survey. In addition, no identifying information was obtained through completing the survey.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were run to determine the means and standard deviations for each of the variables. Skewness and kurtosis were checked to ensure that the data was normally distributed. High levels of skewness and kurtosis were found on role ambiguity, role acceptance, and role satisfaction. However, the data were not transformed as there was some variables that were normally distributed and others that were not. Since transforming data must be congruent across all items, Dunlap and colleagues (1994) suggested that transforming normally distributed items can lead to skewed distributions. Previous research has also demonstrated that transformed data, especially on Pearson correlations, tends to be inconsistent and unnecessary (Norris & Aroian, 2004). Next, a Pearson's Product-Moment correlation was run to determine relationships between all the constructs of role dimensions (i.e. role ambiguity, role conflict, role acceptance, role satisfaction), athlete satisfaction (i.e. team performance, team task contribution, team social contribution, team integration), and team commitment. Only significant correlations were entered into the mediation analysis using the PROCESS tool (Hayes, 2012). With variables in which no significant mediation was warranted, a regression analysis was run on significantly correlated variables to examine the significant predictors of team commitment. All tests were evaluated for significance using an alpha level of .05.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations of all constructs are presented in Table 1. An independent t-test was conducted to determine if there were significant differences between injured athletes and non-injured athletes within the present study. The results demonstrated that there were no significant differences in any of the variables (see Table 4). Therefore, the injured athletes were included in the analysis. Pearson correlations are presented in Table 2. The correlations were examined to determine potential relationships and eliminate extraneous mediation analyses. Although there were several significant correlations established between the variables, the assumptions necessary to test for mediation were not significant. Therefore, a regression analysis was run on the constructs that demonstrated significant relationships with the outcome variable, team commitment.

Correlates of Team Commitment

There were several significant relationships found with the outcome variable of team commitment (see Table 2). A significant, positive relationship was established between role ambiguity and team commitment ($r = .43$; $p < .001$). Correspondingly, there was a significant, positive relationship found between role satisfaction and team commitment ($r = .51$; $p < .001$). A significant, negative relationship existed between role conflict and team commitment ($r = -.35$; $p = .002$). Likewise, there was a significant, negative relationship between role acceptance and team commitment ($r = -.48$; $p < .001$). In addition, there was a significant, positive relationship established between team task contribution and team commitment ($r = .56$; $p < .001$). A significant, positive relationship was also established between team social contribution and team commitment ($r = .58$; $p < .001$). Lastly, there was a significant, positive relationship between team integration and team commitment ($r = .42$; $p < .001$).

Predictors of Team Commitment

A stepwise multiple linear regression was conducted to determine the predictive value of role conflict, team task contribution, and team social contribution on team commitment (see Table 3). Respectively, three significant models were generated from the data. For the current study, the third model was evaluated and retained given it accounted for the greatest variance and was the most parsimonious among the three. The results suggested that role conflict (β = -.22; p = .02), team task contribution (β = .27; p = .03), and team social contribution (β = .34; p = .01) were significant predictors of team commitment. Collectively, these three variables account for 41% of the variance of team commitment ($F(3,69) = 17.91$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .41$).

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to determine if athlete satisfaction (i.e., team performance, team task contribution, team social contribution, and team integration) significantly mediated the relationship between role dimensions and team commitment. It was hypothesized that with athlete satisfaction as a significant mediator, role conflict and role ambiguity would negatively predict team commitment, while role acceptance and role satisfaction would positively predict team commitment. The results indicated that the primary hypothesis addressing the mediating variables of athlete satisfaction was not supported as no significant mediation was warranted for examination. For a mediation analysis to be conducted, statistical assumptions must be meet. First, the predicting variables (i.e., role dimensions) have to be significantly correlated with the mediating variables (i.e., subscales of athlete satisfaction), as well as the outcome variable (i.e., team commitment). In addition, the mediating variables have to be significantly correlated with the outcome variables. If any of these assumptions are not met, then a mediation analysis is not warranted for examination. The present study's findings indicate that athlete satisfaction does not significantly contribute to the relationship between role dimensions and team commitment. Hence, athlete satisfaction cannot accurately explain the association between role dimensions and team commitment. However, secondary hypotheses were partially supported, as role conflict was a significant negative predictor of team commitment. Although not all hypotheses were supported, there were noteworthy findings within the current study.

Predictors of Team Commitment

The multiple linear regression model used in the present study indicated that role conflict, team task contribution, and team social contribution accounted for 41% of the variance of team commitment. As suggested in Kahn's role episode model, role stressor can produce adverse

consequences for an individual. Therefore, when conflicting or incongruent expectations from role senders are present, it can lead to an individual experiencing stress, anxiety, and dissatisfaction (Rizzo et al., 1970). Role conflict can also influence an individual to have lower self-esteem due to not being able to fully carry out or perform their role efficiently. This is consistent with Beauchamp and Bray (2001) who demonstrated that role conflict is negatively associated with the perceptions of role-efficacy. Previous research has found team commitment to have an indirect effect on self-esteem (Jung, Kang, & Kwon, 2016). This suggests that being confident in the role expectations set by the role sender can impact one's attachment to their team. Likewise, previous research has suggested that role conflict can have psychological and behavioral implications for the rest of the team (Forsyth, 1999). In interdependent teams, roles are heavily interwoven with each other, which can affect effective team functioning. Consequently, if team members do not have congruency in their role expectations, this can impact the level of commitment an individual has to their team. Taking this information together with the present study, role conflict is indeed a negative predictor of team commitment, which is in agreement with previous literature using different groups of athletes.

Furthermore, the subscales of athlete satisfaction, team task contribution and team social contribution, were significant predictors of team commitment. These results were expected as previous research has demonstrated that team task and team social processes are related to team commitment. For instance, there were higher levels of team commitment present when group members perceived their team to be similar and unified with task and social contributions (Kim, Magnusen, & Andrew, 2016). This suggests that the more united a team is within various team processes, the more likely an individual will feel a sense of belonging to their team. In the present study, the findings indicate that the feedback an athlete gets from their teammates is linked to team commitment. In the ASQ, the items regarding team task contribution are revolved

around the guidance one receives from their teammates. An example item is “I am satisfied with the extent to which teammates provided me with instruction”. An athlete must trust that the instruction they are receiving from their teammates is accurate and consistent with the team’s goals and values. Additionally, items assessing team social contribution consist of an athlete’s satisfaction with their social status on the team. Being satisfied with one’s contribution to the social climate of the team is essential for team commitment. If an athlete feels socially accepted, they will have a sense of belonging to their team. Overall, team contribution allows for an athlete to understand how their individual efforts fit in with the team’s effort toward social and task aspects (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997). These findings suggest that when an athlete’s effort is congruent with the overall team’s effort, it is more likely that an individual will identify with their team. Thus, an athlete will exert more effort towards achieving their team’s values and goals.

Ultimately, these results highlight that the more satisfied an athlete is with social and task team processes, the more committed they are to their team. An athlete who is committed to their team can be beneficial for performance. If an athlete is committed to their team, they are more likely to buy into the team’s values and goals. This in itself is important for coaches and athletic programs, as buy-in is essential for developing a team culture. A culture that can be geared towards raising performance to the next-level of competition. When athletes buy into a team culture, a team’s vision can be achieved more efficiently. Nonetheless, there are some other factors that were not included in the present study that could potentially account for the unexplained variance of team commitment. For instance, perceived competence with one’s role, intentions to stay or leave, perceived team climate, and perceptions of leadership could all possibly be attributed to team commitment (Jung, Kang, & Kwon, 2016; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Porter et al., 1974).

Correlates of Team Commitment

Regarding significant relationships with team commitment, the findings of the present study demonstrated that role ambiguity had a positive relationship with team commitment. These findings suggest that the level of commitment an athlete has to their team is associated with the degree of clarity, regarding information pertaining to role expectations. This is consistent with previous research in the industrial and organizational domain, which suggested role stressors (i.e., role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload) as antecedents of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Mowday et al., 1982). Within these studies role ambiguity was found to have a negative relationship with commitment. However, in the present study, role ambiguity had a positive relationship with team commitment. This finding reflects the modified role ambiguity scale used in the current study, as higher scores indicate lower levels of role ambiguity. This suggests that the participants in the current study had low levels of role ambiguity in their respective roles at the time of taking the survey. Therefore, low levels of role ambiguity were associated with higher levels of team commitment. Comparably, the majority of participants were in their competitive regular season, which could influence the perception of role dimensions, satisfaction, and commitment. Previous research has shown that role dimensions, specifically role ambiguity, can change over a competitive season (Eys et al., 2003). Although there is limited research on the effects of role dimensions on team commitment in sport settings, Eys and colleagues (2005) found that athletes who had higher levels of role ambiguity were more likely to leave their team in the subsequent season. Correspondingly, this applies to interdependent teams as role ambiguity has been demonstrated to be negatively associated with task cohesion (Eys & Carron, 2001). This suggests it is important for athletes to have a clear understanding of their roles, as this impacts a team's coordination with tasks. As previously demonstrated, team commitment is associated with a team's unification towards achieving tasks.

Therefore, ambiguous expectations of roles will not only affect the individual, but it will also affect other team members as interdependent teams have interwoven roles. Thus, decreasing performance.

Furthermore, role satisfaction demonstrated a significant positive relationship with team commitment. This suggests that team commitment is associated with how satisfied an athlete is with their role(s) on the team. When an athlete is satisfied with their role, they will be able to carry out their responsibilities and tasks more effectively. Therefore, if an athlete does not feel as though their role on the team is fulfilling, they will be less committed to exerting effort towards the team's goals. This is consistent with research that demonstrated a link between role satisfaction and performance (Høigaard et al., 2010; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). An athlete that is unsatisfied with their role can start to question whether or not if they are valuable to the team's success. Consequently, this can lead to a reduction of effort and contribution an athlete puts towards their team, which could potentially impact their loyalty to their team. On the other hand, role acceptance had a significant negative relationship with team commitment. In the present study, the participants' average role acceptance score ($M = 2.20$) was considerably low, which could have influenced the results. These findings are unexpected, as it would be anticipated that role acceptance would increase as team commitment increases. Brawley, Carron, and Widmeyer (1987) found role acceptance to be positively correlated with task cohesion for athletes in both individual and team sports. Similarly, research indicated that athletes found it easier to understand and accept roles when their team was united in task and social matters (Benson et al., 2013). This suggests that role acceptance appears to be related to an individual's perception of various team processes, such as team cohesion and team commitment.

Lastly, team integration had a significant, positive relationship with team commitment within the present study. Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) described team integration to be

influenced by the congruence of perceptions towards the team's processes and purposes, acceptance of strategies, respect for other's contributions to the team's purposes, and shared determination to put the best effort toward the outcome. Previous research has demonstrated that individuals with higher levels of commitment are more likely to maintain a member of the team, exert more effort towards their team's goals and values, and sacrifice themselves to achieve their team's goals and values (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday et al., 1982). Working together, as a team, to achieve a common goal is associated with an athlete's identification with their team. When a team is united in their dedication and effort towards reaching their goals, an athlete is more likely to be committed to their team. Thus, the present study findings highlight that the team coordination within achieving tasks is associated with team commitment.

Limitations

Within the present study there are some notable limitations worth acknowledging. First, several participants did not fully complete each of the questionnaires within the survey. Participants who did not finish a questionnaire were not included in the descriptive statistics, in addition to correlation and regression data analysis for that specific construct. Thus, reducing the overall sample size of the present study. In addition, the questionnaires were not counterbalanced as the survey was completed through Qualtrics. Another limitation was that the sample population was predominately Caucasian and from NCAA-member universities, which could affect the generalizability of the results.

Implications and Future Directions

In addition to limitations of the present study, there are important practical implications and future directions to be considered. Much of the previous research regarding team commitment has been largely grounded in the industrial and organizational domain. Although there is limited research on team commitment within sport settings, the majority of studies have

been examined within Asian cultures. Comparatively, team commitment has yet to be studied with athletes, specifically collegiate athletes, in the United States. Further research is warranted on how the various role dimensions are related to team commitment in sport settings. In the current study, all the role dimensions involved (i.e., role ambiguity, role conflict, role acceptance, role satisfaction) were significantly related to team commitment. Moreover, role conflict was a significant predictor of team commitment. Previous research has demonstrated role components, specifically role stressors (i.e., role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload) as antecedents of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer et al., 2002; Mowday et al., 1982). However, there is a paucity of literature regarding the predictive nature of all role dimensions (i.e., role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, role acceptance, role satisfaction, role efficacy, role performance) on team commitment, as the relationship is still not fully understood. Lastly, Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) demonstrated that all the subscales of the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire were significantly related to a scale that encompassed team commitment items. The results of the present study demonstrated that the subscales of athlete satisfaction (i.e., team task contribution, team social contribution, team integration) were all significantly related to team commitment. However, team performance was not significantly correlated with team commitment. These unexpected results imply the need for continued research regarding athlete satisfaction and team commitment.

Additionally, future research may include longitudinal studies of the changes of satisfaction and team commitment. Similarly, there is a lack of conceptualization of team commitment in the sport domain. Future research can focus on adding to the framework of team commitment and creating a team commitment scale that is specific to sport. Further, future research might seek to examine antecedents of team commitment, correlates of team commitment, and differences in commitment between coactive and interactive teams. From a

practitioner standpoint, sport psychology professionals might consider implementing interventions that target role conflict, as well as, team task and team social components to increase an individual's level of commitment to their team. In addition, sport psychology professionals might consider educating coaches to have clear and consistent expectations of each role on the team to reduce the likelihood of role conflict in their players.

CHAPTER 5

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In athletics, roles are a major part of sport teams. An athlete can have several roles depending on their sport, team, or position. Thus, having athletes understand, accept, and be satisfied with their role(s) can lead to better team cohesion and team performance (Eys & Carron, 2001; Beauchamp, Bray, Eys, & Carron, 2002; Eys, Beauchamp, & Bray, 2006). Moreover, roles can influence athlete satisfaction. How satisfied an athlete is with their experience in a particular team or athletic program can also impact their commitment level (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Commitment is an essential component of sports. Coaches want to know that their athletes are committed to their sport and team. If an athlete is committed to their team, they are more likely to be accepting of the team's goals and values (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). They are also likely to exert more effort to achieve those goals. Therefore, it is important to identify the role dimensions that directly or indirectly affect athlete satisfaction and team commitment, so that coaches and sport psychologists can be aware of what athletes and teams need to be successful.

In this review of literature, the constructs of team commitment, role ambiguity, role conflict, role satisfaction, role acceptance, and athlete satisfaction in terms of their background, theories, relevant information, and measures will be discussed. First, the review of literature will examine team commitment as an affective psychological response, which will be viewed in the context of the Three Component Model developed by Meyer and Allen (1990). Further, satisfaction will be viewed through the 15 facets of athlete satisfaction developed by Riemer and Chelladurai (1998). Next, role ambiguity will be assessed through the four dimensions suggested by Beauchamp et al. (2002). Correspondingly, role conflict will be looked at through Kahn's (1964) dimensions of inter-role and intra-role conflict. Next, role acceptance will be viewed as a

cognitive appraisal process that is dynamic and covert (Eys et al., 2006). Lastly, the construct of role satisfaction will be discussed in terms of the seven dimensions proposed by Surya et al. (2011). To conclude the literature review, an overview of the variables will be discussed, as well as the gaps in literature, and the direction of the current study.

Team Commitment

Organizational commitment has been studied by researchers in various fields such as business, organizational, industrial, education, and health psychology. Throughout previous literature, there has not been a consistent definition or conceptualization of organizational commitment. However, the most commonly used definition for organizational commitment has been defined as, "the degree to which an individual identifies with and is involved in an organization" (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). The way an individual identifies with an organization can be shown in various ways.

Meyer and Allen (1990) proposed that there is more than one way that an employee can be committed to an organization by developing the Three-Component Model. The three components of organizational commitment are affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment has been defined as, "the attachment of an individual's identification with and desire to want to be part of an organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991). On the other hand, continuance commitment is defined as, "the perceived necessity to remain with an organization because of the associated costs of leaving" (Meyer et al., 2002). Lastly, "the perceived obligation to stay with an organization" is normative commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Coincidentally, affective commitment has been the most widely accepted and used component of commitment in the literature (Somech & Bogler, 2002). Since affective commitment is seen as a general psychological approach, it can have numerous implications on behavior (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Nonetheless, the component of affective commitment has been used to measure team commitment as well.

Organizational commitment and team commitment have been used synonymously. Conversely, studies have demonstrated that commitment can be different towards organizations as compared to commitment towards teams, especially when organizations are large and complex (Becker & Billings, 1993; Wombacher & Felfe, 2017). Team commitment has been defined by researchers in various fields. However, the most appropriate definition focuses on the affective component of team commitment. Therefore, team commitment will be defined, as "the attachment, identification with, and sense of belonging and loyalty one has to a team" (Somech & Bogler, 2002). Even though, there is extensive research on commitment in the industrial and business domain, there is a lack of conceptualization and model for team commitment as it pertains to sport teams.

There is limited research on team commitment as it applies directly to sport. One recent study showed that when group integration-task (i.e. perceptions regarding the similarity and unification of the tasks and objectives of the group) and group integration-social (i.e. perceptions regarding the similarity and unification of the group as a social unit) were present, there were also high levels of team commitment (Kim, Magnusen, & Andrew, 2016). Furthermore, a study done by Jung, Kang, & Kwon (2016) examined the mediation of team commitment on the relationship of perceived team climate and self-esteem, which demonstrated that team commitment had an indirect effect on the self-esteem and perceived team climate. It appears that team commitment had a stronger effect on team climate (Jung, Kang, & Kwon, 2016). Both of these studies suggest that team commitment can be correlated with other team processes that are linked to overall performance. Moreover, it has been shown that individuals with higher levels of commitment are more likely to maintain a member of the team, exert more effort towards their

team's goals and values, and sacrifice themselves to achieve their team's goals and values. Several assessment tools have been developed to examine team commitment. There are well-established scales in the literature that are meant to assess commitment. In earlier studies, researches argued there was a distinction between attitudinal (affective) and behavioral (continuance) commitment to an organization. Becker's (1960) side-bet theory conceptualizes commitment as a member being consistently active within an organization when they value their side-bets (e.g. development, pension, time, money, status) to the extent that one's side-bets would be a perceived cost if one decided to leave the organization. Consequently, when side-bets increase, commitment increases. Some critics were concerned about the accuracy of prior scales being used to assess commitment, specifically with Becker's (1960) side-bet theory. Ultimately, the findings indicated that the instruments were not adequately measuring continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Therefore, Meyer and Allen developed the Affective Commitment Scales (ACS) and the Continuance Commitment Scales (CCS). Although the ACS and CCS were developed to test Becker's (1960) side-bet theory, researchers also established assessments to test Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three-Component Model of commitment as well.

Meyer et al. (1993), developed affective, continuance, and normative commitment scales to test Meyer and Allen (1991) Three-Component model of organizational commitment. The results displayed that the three-component (affective, continuance, normative) measures differed from one another and were also distinguishable between occupational and organizational commitment. Although the sample was nursing students and registered nurses, all the scales were demonstrated to have adequate reliability (Cronbach alphas for ACS was .87, CCS was .79, and NCS was .73; Meyer et al., 1993). In addition, the measure overall showed construct validity through confirmatory analysis. Correspondingly in the sport domain, Kim, Magnusen, & Andrew (2016) assessed team commitment using a modified version of the ACS (Meyer et al., 1993) with

intercollegiate athletes. The original questionnaire contains industrial and organizational terminology, so the scale was adapted to fit sport and team terminology. The scale contains 6-items on a 7-point Likert-type scale. Researchers displayed the scale to have adequate reliability with Cronbach's alphas at .85 (Kim, 2016). The ACS, CCS, NCS were not the only assessment tools that were created to measure commitment in individuals.

Within the industrial and organizational domain, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) is the most commonly used questionnaire to assess an individual's affective attachment to an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The items within the OCQ are structured to assess the degree to which an individual is accepting of organizational values, willing to exert effort towards organizational goals, and desires to remain a member in the organization. In sport settings, Jung, Kang, & Kwon (2016), used the OCQ to examine the effects of team commitment within highschool athletes. Within this study, Jung et al. (2016) demonstrated that team commitment mediated the relationship between self-esteem and perceived team climate. Researchers have demonstrated that the OCQ is psychometrically sound with internal consistency (coefficient alphas ranging from .82 to .93; Mowday et al., 1979) and convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

In a seminal study by Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian (1974), researchers investigated psychiatric technicians' commitment and job satisfaction over a period of time. Results suggested that satisfaction and commitment are two distinct attitudinal constructs that bring different perspectives about the perceived work environment. More specifically, there was a significant difference between attitudes of commitment and satisfaction between the employees who stayed and the employees who ultimately left the organization. Therefore, turnover was inversely related to organizational commitment, especially when an individual was close to

leaving the organization. Consequently, individuals with greater job satisfaction were more likely to remain with an organization. Although this evidence is present in organizational literature, there is reason to believe that these findings can be mirrored in sport settings as well.

Athlete Satisfaction

Satisfaction is an important component to take into consideration when looking at someone's overall experience with a particular organization or team. The components of pay, supervision, co-workers, promotion, and the work itself has been linked to job satisfaction (Friedlander & Walton, 1964; Hulin, 1968; Knowles, 1964; Ley, 1966). However, an individual's expectations compared to the perceived reality of his or her own work environment can influence satisfaction, and hence the propensity to remain in or leave an organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Similarly, how well an athlete's expectations of their athletic experience are met can also influence athlete satisfaction (Hope, 2006). Athletes have been viewed as producers of their athletic programs because they provide entertainment (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997). On the other hand, athletes have been viewed as primary beneficiaries because their athletic programs are providing opportunities to showcase their athletic abilities (Chelladurai, 1987). Nonetheless, Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) suggested that athlete satisfaction is just as important as job satisfaction. Athlete satisfaction is defined as, "a positive affective state resulting from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the athletic experience" (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997, p. 135). Athlete satisfaction has also been linked to other aspects of the athletic experience.

Initial findings of athlete satisfaction were associated with performance. Satisfaction can be viewed in terms of wins and losses. However, there are many factors that influence a team's wins or losses, such as luck, bad calls by officials, weather conditions, an opponent's performance, etc. (Courneya & Chelladurai, 1991). Therefore, success and failure of

performance cannot accurately reflect an athlete's experiences or reactions, especially when an athlete is satisfied with individual or team efforts despite a disappointing loss. Since wins and losses are not absolute events, Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) argue that athlete satisfaction is a primary outcome of other psychological factors such as leadership.

Athlete satisfaction has been demonstrated to be an antecedent and outcome variable in other bodies of work regarding sport. In the early work of Chelladurai's (1978) Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML), satisfaction was viewed as an outcome variable along with performance. An athlete's satisfaction with leadership was related to the inconsistency between preferred leader behavior and perceived leadership behavior (Chelladurai, 1984). Furthermore, athlete satisfaction has been included as an outcome variable of several constructs such as cohesion, goal orientations, and coach-player compatibility (Carron, 1982; Hom, Duda, & Miller, 1993; Horne & Carron, 1985). On the other hand, athlete satisfaction has been demonstrated as an antecedent variable in relation to sport commitment, sport enjoyment, and players' evaluative reactions (Schmidt & Stein, 1991; Scanlan et al., 1993; Smoll et al., 1978). There have been various theoretical models that involved satisfaction as being an antecedent or outcome variable. Correspondingly, several measurements have been created to assess athlete satisfaction.

Earlier measurements of athlete satisfaction were adapted from questionnaires used in the industrial and organizational literature. Weiss & Friedrichs (1986) utilized a revised version of the Index Organization Reactions Scale (IOR; Smith, 1976) to assess satisfaction that was more consistent with the athletic setting. Items of the scale were based on six subscales of supervision, playing conditions, teammates, amount of work, kind of work, and school identification. The scale demonstrated to have acceptable test-retest reliability after eliminating 8 items and keeping the remaining 20 items. Moreover, the revised IOR displayed that five of the six subscales

achieved acceptable internal consistency (supervision = .78, playing conditions = .75, teammates = .83, amount of work = .54, school identification = .87). Prior to the revised IOR, Withal and Orlick (1978) developed the Sport Satisfaction Inventory that consisted of 6 facets of satisfaction in sport. The 84 item inventory included questions pertaining to sport/game, practice, coach, teammates, opposition, and performance. Lastly, Chelladurai et al. (1988) created a questionnaire that attempted to assess athlete satisfaction with Japanese and Canadian inter-collegiate male athletes. However, the 18 item scale only assessed satisfaction in regard to leadership and personal outcomes. This scale demonstrated internal consistency with Cronbach alphas ranging from .86 to .95. Since previous scales did not attempt to address all facets of athlete satisfaction, Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) developed the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ).

The ASQ was created to measure athlete satisfaction as a multidimensional construct. The initial approach to assessing athlete satisfaction was through the use of a single item construct, which caused limitations to data analysis since athlete satisfaction had been demonstrated to be multidimensional. Therefore, Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) developed the ASQ with 15 facets to measure satisfaction that are categorized into five themes, as such: performance, the team, the organization, leadership, and the individual correlates of sport involvement. The facets and themes of the ASQ were based from satisfaction categories in athletics as such: individual task outcomes, team task outcomes, individual social outcomes, team social outcomes, individual task processes, team task processes, team social processes, and individual social processes. The full version of the ASQ is 56 questions and is rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale. In addition, the ASQ has been studied with university-level and recreational athletes. This measurement has been deemed psychometrically sound with alpha coefficients ranging from .78 to .95 (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). In addition, the ASQ has demonstrated criterion-related and predictive validity (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998).

The ASQ has been used in recent studies to assess athlete satisfaction. Although previous research in the industrial and organizational literature suggested that role ambiguity was negatively correlated with job satisfaction (Jackson & Schuler, 1985), Eys et al. (2003) was the first to examine the relationship of role ambiguity and athlete satisfaction in the sport context. Consistent with earlier findings, the results indicated that the more role clarity an athlete has, the more satisfied they are with their athletic experience. More specifically, in the beginning and end of the season, the dimension of scope of responsibilities was a significant predictor of satisfaction with leadership. This suggests that athletes hold high value in their coach/leader giving clear role responsibilities and expectations. Even though role ambiguity was the only role element studied with athlete satisfaction, other role dimensions have been correlated with satisfaction.

More recently, other studies have examined other role constructs with athlete satisfaction. Hope (2006) investigated the relationship between role involvement, team cohesion, and athlete satisfaction. She found that role satisfaction was the only significant predictor of athlete satisfaction, specifically satisfaction with leadership. In this way, athletes who are satisfied with their role are more likely to have satisfaction with leadership. This study suggests that athlete satisfaction can be associated with various role dimensions.

Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity is defined as, “having a lack of clear information regarding the expectations of one’s responsibilities” (Kahn et. al, 1964). Research has examined the negative affective responses that can occur when role ambiguity is present. Jackson and Shuler (1985) conducted a meta-analysis on role conflict and role ambiguity in work settings and found those with higher levels of role ambiguity, had greater tendency to leave. Within the same study by Jackson and Shuler (1985), individuals who experienced higher levels of role ambiguity were

also more likely to experience higher levels of job dissatisfaction. Likewise, role ambiguity can affect interdependent teams. These findings are consistent with research in the sport domain.

Role ambiguity was also found to impact an athlete's intention to maintain membership on their team (Eys et al., 2005). Those that had experienced greater levels of role ambiguity were more likely to not return to the same team the subsequent season. On the other hand, Beauchamp, Bray, Eys, & Carron (2003) demonstrated that role ambiguity was a predictor of competitive state anxiety and somatic state anxiety in athletes. As presented in Kahn's (1964) role theory, the lack of understanding of roles and role expectations can increase the chance that an individual will be dissatisfied with their role, experience stress and anxiety, and distort reality. Thus, influencing performance to be less efficient and effective, especially in interdependent teams. Hence, teams whose role responsibilities are highly interdependent can affect performance. Athletes who have roles that intertwine with other teammates roles can lead to confusion and frustration, especially when unclear information is given from the coach about role expectations. Previous research states that role ambiguity is negatively associated with task cohesion (Eys & Carron, 2001) as well as role efficacy and role performance (Beauchamp, Bray, Eys, & Carron, 2002). The presence of role ambiguity can diminish an athlete's confidence in his or her ability to effectively perform their role responsibilities. In a study done by Giske, Rodahl, Haugen, & Høigaard (2017), the findings revealed that within elite sport groups, there was a positive correlation between role clarity and shared mental models (i.e. "knowledge structures held by members of a team which enable them to form accurate explanations and expectations for the task, and, in turn, to coordinate their actions and adapt their behaviour to the demands of the task and other team members " (Cannon-Bowers et al., 1993, p.229). This suggests that role ambiguity can be detrimental to team coordination. Consequently, role ambiguity is a multifaceted construct that can be influenced by various factors.

Like athlete satisfaction, role ambiguity has also been demonstrated as a multidimensional model. Initially, Singh (1993) and Rhoads et al. (1994) demonstrated that role ambiguity was multidimensional among industrial salespeople. Both researchers revealed that individuals experienced different forms of role ambiguity within their job. In addition, various organizational factors had an effect on different dimensions of role ambiguity. For instance, in the study of Rhoads et al. (1994), "job tension was influenced by [uncertainty of] support, demands, and internal unethical ambiguity, and organizational commitment was associated with [uncertainty of] promotion, boss support, and internal ethical ambiguity" (p. 21). Initially, the argument that presented role ambiguity as a multidimensional construct was made in the industrial and organizational domain. Thus, giving the basis for researchers to explore role ambiguity as a multidimensional model in sports as well. Nonetheless, role ambiguity has been demonstrated to be multidimensional within the sport domain.

In athletics, role ambiguity within athletes has been differentiated into offense and defense. Bray (1998) found that basketball players were experiencing different aspects of role ambiguity depending on the role functions for offense and defense, whereby, the expected set of behaviors on offense varied from the expected set of behaviors on defense. Therefore, Beauchamp, Bray, Eys, & Carron (2002) proposed a multidimensional model for role ambiguity regarding interactive sport teams in both the offense and defense context. The model consists of the four dimensions of role ambiguity. The first is the degree to which an individual lacks clarity of their scope of responsibilities. The next dimension is the behaviors necessary to fulfill the role responsibilities expected of him or her. How an athlete is evaluated on carrying out those set responsibilities is the third dimension. The fourth dimension reflects the ambiguity of the consequences if role responsibilities are not met. Several assessment tools have been developed to examine role ambiguity.

Initially, role ambiguity was measured in the context of work roles. Rizzo et al. (1970) developed a role questionnaire that assessed the presence of role ambiguity in terms of the expectedness of outcomes and the clarity of behaviors in the work environment. The items reflected the predictability of duties, authority, allocation of time, and relationships with others, as well as the clarity of instruction and policies (Rizzo et al., 1970). Research prior to this study had lacked the conceptualization and theoretical framework for role constructs. Therefore, this questionnaire was developed in order to provide role ambiguity in a systematic manner regarding complex organizations. Since then, role ambiguity and role conflict have been a major focus within role involvement in research literature.

More recently, Beauchamp et al. (2002), developed a scale to measure the four dimensions of role ambiguity as it relates to sport. Prior to this study, Beauchamp and Bray (2001) developed two 7 item scales of role ambiguity for the offensive and defensive context. Role ambiguity was looked at through three dimensions: scope of responsibilities, behaviors necessary to fulfil one's responsibilities, and the criteria by which one is evaluated. The fourth dimension identified by Kahn et al. (1964) was left out because roles are assigned by one source, the coach. Since there was no instrument to date that assessed role ambiguity within interdependent teams, Beauchamp et al. (2002) created the Role Ambiguity Scale (RAS). The RAS assessed the multidimensional model with two sets of 20 items, one for role ambiguity on offense and one for role ambiguity on defense. Participants rated their perception of role ambiguity on a 9-point Likert-type scale. Content validity and acceptable internal consistency (Cronbach's alphas were greater than .78 for all role ambiguity sections) was demonstrated for the RAS. More recent studies have adapted the RAS. Høigaard et al. (2010) assessed overall role ambiguity in handball players. The differentiation of offense and defense were removed for this study because the role responsibilities of offense and defense overlap in handball, making it

hard for players to answer the items adequately. The modified RAS was demonstrated to have internal validity and acceptable reliability (Cronbach alphas ranged from .76 to .83) for each dimension (Høigaard et al., 2010).

Role Conflict

Role conflict and role ambiguity have been closely studied with one another (Rizzo et al, 1970; Jackson & Shuler, 1985; Beauchamp & Bray, 2001). Role ambiguity is the vagueness of role expectations, whereas role conflict is the conflicting information about role expectations. Role conflict is defined as, "the presence of inconsistent and incongruent expectations for a role occupant" (Kahn et al., 1964). These two role dimensions have also been linked to performance. This can be seen with the study done by Rizzo et al. (1970), which demonstrates that individuals who experience role ambiguity and role conflict are more likely to experience stress, anxiety, and dissatisfaction. An individual who experiences stress and anxiety can translate negatively to effective functioning. In contrast, receiving feedback from the task and others can aid in understanding what is expected of an individual and their role (Jackson & Shuler, 1985). Not only can role conflict effect the performance of individuals, but it can also effect the performance of teams that are highly collaborative.

Just like role ambiguity, role conflict can be seen more frequently with teams that are interdependent. Evidence from Beauchamp and Bray (2001) suggest that role conflict is negatively associated with the perceptions of role-efficacy within interdependent teams. Therefore, understanding role contexts is important to combating role conflict. On average, elite athletes that are on interdependent teams, have three main roles on both offense and defense (Beauchamp & Bray, 2001). Thus, when a role occupant experiences conflicting expectations of their role(s), it is more likely that they will perform less efficiently (Rizzo, 1970). Having uniform expectations on one's roles for offense and defense can allow them to take on that role

with confidence and execute it efficiently. Performance can be influenced by the several types of role conflict.

There are various forms of role conflict that an individual can face. Kahn et al. (1964) identified four types of role conflict. The first one is inter-role conflict, which is operationalized as the incongruence of expectations from multiple contexts that interfere with one another. For instance, Settles at al. (2002) found that student-athletes whose academic role and athletic role interfered with one another experienced higher levels of stress. While inter-role conflict is manifested from multiple contexts, intra-sender, inter-sender, and person-role conflict are classified under intra-role conflict. Intra-role conflict means that conflict is occurring within a single role context (Beauchamp, Carron et al., 2005). The next type of conflict is intra-sender conflict, which is when the expectations of the role occupant are inconsistent with one another (Beauchamp & Bray, 2001). This is consistent with More and Collins (1996), who found that when the coach and manager experienced conflicting expectations from athletes (making executive decisions and being supportive), their ability to carry out their role was jeopardized. On the other hand, conflict can arise when the expectations of the role occupant are incongruent with various role senders, which is called inter-sender conflict (Kahn et al., 1964). This can occur when an assistant coach and head coach are giving different instructions on how to execute role responsibilities. Lastly, person-role conflict is when the role expectations are incompatible with the morals or values of the role occupant (Kahn et al.,1964). There is limited research about how the different types of role conflict influence performance and psychological outcomes of individuals. However, to measure the different forms of role conflict, researchers have created questionnaires.

Role conflict and role ambiguity were measured in the same role questionnaire developed by Rizzo et al. (1970). Within this questionnaire, role conflict was demonstrated to reflect the

incongruency and incompatibility of role requirements, which are influenced by the standards of the role performance. Corresponding with Kahn's et al. (1964) theoretical framework of the four dimensions of role conflict, incompatibility or incongruency of role requirements can lead to conflict. This scale was developed to systemically conceptualize and validate role conflict with regards to measures of supervisor practices, leadership behavior, satisfaction, anxiety, tendency to leave, and demographic variables. This scale has been used with employees of various companies and fields (Rizzo et al.,1970). Reliability and validity were not given for this scale. Rizzo was not the only researcher to base a role conflict scale off of the work from Kahn et al. (1964).

Beauchamp and Bray (2001) also used Kahn's et al. (1964) theoretical framework to develop their Role Conflict Scale. This scale was created to reflect three aspects of role conflict: intra-sender, inter-sender, and person-role conflict. All of these aspects display incongruent expectations associated with a single position. The fourth dimension of role conflict (inter-role conflict) was removed because the researchers were only interested in learning about the athlete's beliefs about their role within a sport team. The Role Conflict Scale was the first in assessing role conflict within interdependent teams. The RCS has been utilized with university-level athletes, as well as junior elite athletes (Van Rens, 2015). Moreover, role conflict was assessed by two 10-item scales that measure offense and defense contexts on a 7-point Likert-type scale. The Role Conflict Scale displayed acceptable internal consistency with an alpha coefficient of .91. Furthermore, within the original 10-item role conflict scale, only 4-items were found to be non-meaningful through factor loadings. Therefore, Leo et al. (2015) used 6-items adapted from the Role Conflict Scale to assess role conflict. Leo and colleagues (2015), removed the differentiation of offense and defense within the items to assess overall role ambiguity in male and female soccer players in Spain.

Role Acceptance

Role acceptance is defined as, "the degree to which the expectations of role responsibilities given by a role sender, is congruent with the expectations of the athlete" (Eys et al., 2006). Previous studies have confused role acceptance with role satisfaction. However, these two constructs are distinct from one another. Eys et al. (2006) proposed that role acceptance was a covert and dynamic cognitive process, meaning that role acceptance can be a changing phenomenon. Correspondingly, Biddle (1979) suggested that role acceptance was a covert cognitive process that was based on the comparison between two expectations, which could also be influenced by other factors.

Several aspects of the sport, such as the team environment and the characteristics of the coach can influence role acceptance in athletes. Biddle (1979) theorized that a role sender's credibility, attractiveness, and power could impact an athlete's willingness to accept their role. In a study done by Mellalieu and Juniper (2006), researchers examined role episode in intercollegiate soccer players. The findings indicated that an athlete's perception of their coach's competency, credibility, and the style of leadership was a determinant in the process of role acceptance (Mellalieu & Juniper, 2006). Not only was the process of accepting assigned roles contingent upon the role sender, but it was also influenced by the team environment. Roles that were perceived to be effective, having personal significance, and contributing to team success were also part of the process (Benson et al., 2013). This is consistent with research from Holt and Sparkes (2001) that suggested individuals were more likely to accept roles if they understood the role and it was significant for team success. This suggests that the acceptance of roles can have a major impact on sport teams.

It has been demonstrated that role acceptance can affect team processes as well. In the qualitative work of Benson et al. (2013), researchers examined athlete's perceptions of role

acceptance. According to the findings, athletes found it easier to understand and accept roles when their team was united in task and social matters (Benson et al., 2013). This suggests that role acceptance is related to team cohesion. Therefore, athletes who do not choose to accept their roles can negatively affect team performance and success. Although limited research exists on the conceptualization of role acceptance in sports, measurements have been created to assess role acceptance.

As a result of lack of conceptualization of role acceptance in sport, there has yet to be an effective measure to accurately assess the concept of role acceptance. In initial studies, role acceptance was assessed through general questions from the Team Climate Questionnaire developed by Grand and Carron (1982). However, within this questionnaire, role acceptance was operationalized as an individual's satisfaction with his or her role. Consequently, this was not an accurate measurement of role acceptance because as stated before, acceptance and satisfaction are distinct from one another. In Bray's Role Perception Scale (1998), he measured role acceptance and role satisfaction independently. The items for role acceptance were revised to reflect the degree to which an athlete accepted their role responsibilities and how well they thought their abilities matched those role responsibilities. The participants rated their perception of role acceptance on an 11-point scale (0 = I do not accept having to perform the assigned role functions; 10 = I totally accept having to perform the assigned role functions). There were 3 items present that assessed both offense and defense contexts in elite basketball players. The role acceptance items within the Role Perception Scale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency with Cronbach's alphas of .83 for offense and .77 for defense. Although the main purpose of the study was to examine role efficacy within interdependent sport teams, results indicated that role acceptance was strongly related to other role dimensions and task cohesion. Consequently, the

Role Perception Scale has been used frequently in recent literature to evaluate role acceptance in athletes.

More recent studies have adapted the Role Perception Scale. Jones (2006) used the Role Perception Scale to measure the correlates of role acceptance. Scope of responsibilities, one of the dimensions of role ambiguity, was a significant predictor of role acceptance. These findings suggest that the more clarity an athlete has about his or her role responsibilities, the more accepting they are of their role. Similarly, Nourali (2015), who also used Bray's (1998) Role Perception Scale, examined the relationships between role ambiguity, role satisfaction, role acceptance, team cohesion, and athlete satisfaction in Iranian football players. The results demonstrated that role acceptance was negatively related to role ambiguity (Nourali, 2015). It should be noted that athletes can accept the roles given to them by their coach, even though they are not fully satisfied with those roles.

Role Satisfaction

Until recently in the literature review, only the cognitive aspects of role dimensions have been discussed. Role ambiguity, role conflict, and role acceptance are all considered cognitive role elements, whereas previous research has suggested role satisfaction to be an affective element of role involvement. Eys et al. (2006) defined role satisfaction as, "the degree of fulfillment an athlete gets from their role". This definition was adapted from Locke (1976) in the industrial and organizational literature, which states that role satisfaction is "a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's [role] as fulfilling or allowing the fulfillment of one's important [role] values" (p.1342). Although the definition that Eys et al. (2006) created for role satisfaction was modeled after Locke's (1976) definition, there was evidence that role satisfaction existed in sport contexts as well.

Rail (1987) was the first to study role satisfaction within athletics. Rail investigated whether role characteristics or individual characteristics were correlated with role satisfaction. Through semi-structured interviews, sport executives were asked about the factors that lead to one being satisfied with their role. The sport executives suggested that the four determinants of role satisfaction were as follows: competence (how well their abilities matched the demands of their role), autonomy (the degree of freedom they were allowed within their role responsibilities), role significance (how important their role was to them), and feedback and recognition. Within the literature, there has been a lack of a comprehensive conceptualization of role satisfaction. More recently, a multidimensional model that is based off of sport and organizational literature was suggested by Surya et al. (2011). Within this model, there are seven factors that lead to role satisfaction, which are: the degree to which an athlete's skills are being used, the significance of the role for the team, how significant the role is to them, feedback pertaining to their role, level of autonomy, recognition, and the athlete's overall responsibilities. Different scales have been developed by researchers to assess role satisfaction specifically in the sport domain.

Measures used to assess role satisfaction in sport are derived from job satisfaction scales used in the organizational literature. Bray (1998) developed a scale to assess role involvement in intercollegiate basketball players, which included the construct of role satisfaction. He investigated role satisfaction as a unidimensional construct, using 3-items for both offense and defense context. The participants rated their perception of role satisfaction on a 11-point scale (0 = I am not happy at all to perform the assigned role functions; 10 = I am extremely happy to perform the assigned role functions). The role satisfaction items within the Role Perception Scale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency with Cronbach's alphas of .94 for offense and .88 for defense. The findings of this study indicated that role satisfaction was related to role

importance, role efficacy and task cohesion. When an athlete is satisfied with their role they will be able to carry out their responsibilities and tasks more effectively. Moreover, role ambiguity was negatively associated with role satisfaction. More recently, other researchers have utilized scales from the industrial and organizational literature to develop a scale for role satisfaction, particularly in sport.

Beauchamp, Bray et al. (2005) also used job satisfaction scales from other domains to develop their Role Satisfaction Scale. Similar to Bray's (1998) Role Perception Scale, Beauchamp and colleagues assessed role satisfaction in both offense and defense contexts. However, their 4-item scale was used to investigate role ambiguity and role satisfaction in interdependent sport teams. The scale consisted of a 9-point Likert-type scale, which was shown to have acceptable internal consistency. Cronbach alphas coefficients were .84 for both offense and defense. More recently, Høigaard et al. (2010), demonstrated that the RSS to have satisfactory validity and reliability (Cronbach's alpha was .94). The results demonstrated that mid-season role ambiguity was significantly linked to athlete's role satisfaction experienced later in the season. More specifically, scope of responsibilities was consistently related to role satisfaction in both offense and defense. Similarly, Høigaard et al. (2010) utilized the Role Satisfaction Scale to examine role satisfaction in elite handball players. The findings supported their hypothesis that the more clarity an athlete has about their role, the more satisfied they are with that role, which can ultimately reduce the tendency for social loafing.

Conclusion

In this literature review, the constructs of team commitment, role ambiguity, role conflict, role satisfaction, role acceptance, and athlete satisfaction in terms of their background, theories, relevant information, and measures were discussed. Although research exists, there is scarce amount of literature on the relationship between athlete satisfaction and team commitment,

especially within the sport domain. Furthermore, research has demonstrated that various role elements are related to athlete satisfaction, but it has yet to be examined with team commitment. More specifically, it is unknown if role dimensions have a direct or indirect effect as it pertains to team commitment. Ultimately, the purpose of the current study is to examine the mediation of athlete satisfaction on the relationship between role dimensions and team commitment in collegiate athletes.

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APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

Age: _____

Year in College:
o Freshman
o Sophomore
o Junior
o Senior
o Other: _____

Current sport playing at your university: _____

What season is your sport currently in?

In-season _____ Off-season _____

Division of your university:

D1 _____ D2 _____ D3_____ NAIA _____

Race:
o Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish Origin
o Not of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish Origin

Ethnicity:
o African American
o Caucasian
o Hispanic
o Native American
o Asian / Pacific Islander
o Other: _____

Please select the gender you identify with most:
o Male
o Female
o Transgender MTF (Male to Female)
o Transgender FTM (Female to Male)
o Non-Binary/ Genderfluid/ Genderqueer
o Prefer to self-describe (please specify): _____
o Not Sure
o Prefer not to say

Are you currently unable to compete in games because of athletic or academic ineligibility?

Yes _____ No _____

Do you currently have an injury that has kept you out from sporting activities (e.g. practice, training, games, scrimmages)?

Yes _____ No _____

APPPENDIX B

ORGANIZATIONAL AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT SCALE

Please respond to the following six items concerning your level of emotional attachment toward your team from (1) Strongly Disagree to (7) Strongly Agree.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my school years with this team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I really feel as if this team's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" with my team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. This team has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPPENDIX C

ATHLETE SATISFACITON QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is concerned with satisfaction of athletes. Athletics is an intense situation wherein individuals participate voluntarily and wholeheartedly. An individual may be satisfied to varying degrees with different types of experiences in athletic participation. In the following pages, several items related to athletic participation are listed. Against each item, a response format ranging from 1 (not at all satisfied) to 7 (extremely satisfied) is provided. You are to indicate the extent to which you are satisfied with the content of each item. Your honest and spontaneous response to each and every item is vital to the success of the study. Do not think about any one item for too long.

Example:

I was satisfied with...	Not at all			Moderately			Extremely
the number of games we have won.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The respondent indicates that she is moderately satisfied with the number of games won.

For the purpose of this study, please recall your experiences during the season just completed, and record your reactions to those experiences.

It is extremely important that you provide a response to every question.

I am satisfied with….

	Not at all Satisfied			Moderately Satisfied			Extremely Satisfied
1. how the team worked to be the best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. my social status on the team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. the extent to which teammates provided me with instruction.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. the team's win/loss record this past season.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. the degree to which teammates shared the same goal.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. the role I played in the social life of the team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. the guidance I received from my teammates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. the team's overall performance this past season.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. team member's dedication to work together toward team goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. the constructive feedback I received from my teammates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. the degree to which my teammates accepted me on a social level.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. the extent to which the team met its goals for the season.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. the extent to which teammates played as a team.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPPENDIX D

ROLE AMBIGUITY SCALE

Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by selecting the number, from (1) Strongly Disagree to (9) Strongly Agree, that best corresponds to your current experiences.

	Strongly Disagree								Strongly Agree
1. I understand the extent of my responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. I understand the scope of my responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. I understand all of my responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. I am unclear about the breadth of my responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5. I am clear about the different responsibilities that make up my role.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
6. I understand what adjustments to my behavior need to be made to carry out my role. my teammates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
7. I understand the behaviors I must perform to carry out my role.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
8. I know what behaviors are necessary to carry out my responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9. It is clear what behaviors I should perform to fulfill my role.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
10. I am unclear what behaviors are expected of me in order to carry out my role.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
11. I understand the criteria by which my role responsibilities are evaluated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. I understand how my role is evaluated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
13. It is clear to me how my role responsibilities are evaluated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
14. I am unclear about the way in which my role responses are evaluated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15. The criteria by which my role is evaluated are clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
16. It is clear to me what happens if I fail to carry out my role responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

17. I understand the consequences of failing to carry out my role responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
18. I am unclear about the consequences of failing to carry out my role responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19. I understand the consequences of unsuccessful role performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
20. I know what will happen if I don't perform my role responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

APPPENDIX E

ROLE CONFLICT SCALE

Indicate to what extent the following phrases correspond to what you think, using the scale from (1) Strongly Disagree to (5) Strongly Agree.

	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. I am sometimes expected to do things I believe are inconsistent with the team's needs.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am sometimes provided with conflicting information of what my role is.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The role I am expected to play is inconsistent with the team's needs.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I have to do things that should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I receive incompatible expectations from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am expected to do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	1	2	3	4	5

APPPENDIX F

ROLE PERCEPTION SCALE

The following questions are designed to assess your feelings about YOUR OWN ROLE RESPONSIBILITIES within your team. Please select a number from 0-10 that best applies to you.

1.	I **totally accept** having to perform my role responsibilities	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	I **do not accept** having to perform my role responsibilities
2.	I **totally agree** having to perform my role responsibilities	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	I **do not agree** having to perform my role responsibilities
3.	I **totally intend** on performing my role responsibilities	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0	I **do not intend** on performing my role responsibilities

APPPENDIX G

ROLE SATISFACTION SCALE

Please rate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements from (1) Strongly Disagree to (9) Strongly Agree.

	Strongly Disagree								Strongly Agree
1. I am satisfied with my responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2. I am happy with the role that I have been assigned.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. I enjoy performing my role requirements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4. I don't like my role.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

APPPENDIX H

TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Team Commitment	82	5.08	1.25
Team Performance	82	4.26	1.69
Team Task Contribution	82	4.92	1.36
Team Social Contribution	82	5.18	1.30
Team Integration	82	4.73	1.46
Role Ambiguity	82	7.26	1.52
Role Conflict	77	2.59	1.08
Role Acceptance	73	2.20	1.67
Role Satisfaction	73	6.93	2.07

Table 2

Pearson Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Team Commitment	-								
2. Team Performance	.15	-							
3. Team Task Contribution	.56**	.41**	-						
4. Team Social Contribution	.58**	.15	.62**	-					
5. Team Integration	.42**	.73**	.70**	.44**	-				
6. Role Ambiguity	.43**	-.07	.24*	.41**	.25*	-			
7. Role Conflict	-.35**	-.26*	-.32**	-.27*	-.43**	-.27*	-		
8. Role Acceptance	-.48**	-.14	-.42**	-.39**	-.38**	-.67**	.30*	-	
9. Role Satisfaction	.51**	.18	.51**	.56**	.42**	.65**	-.46**	-.73**	-

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 3

Regression Model

	Standardized Beta Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Team Task Contribution	.27	2.29	.03
Team Social Contribution	.34	2.90	.01
Role Conflict	-.22	-2.33	.02

Table 4

Independent T-test

	df	t-value	p-value
Team Commitment	80	.27	.79
Team Performance	80	.48	.63
Team Task Contribution	80	.62	.54
Team Social Contribution	80	1.10	.28
Team Integration	80	.52	.61
Role Ambiguity	10.01	-.82	.43
Role Conflict	75	.28	.78
Role Acceptance	71	.35	.73
Role Satisfaction	71	-.02	.99

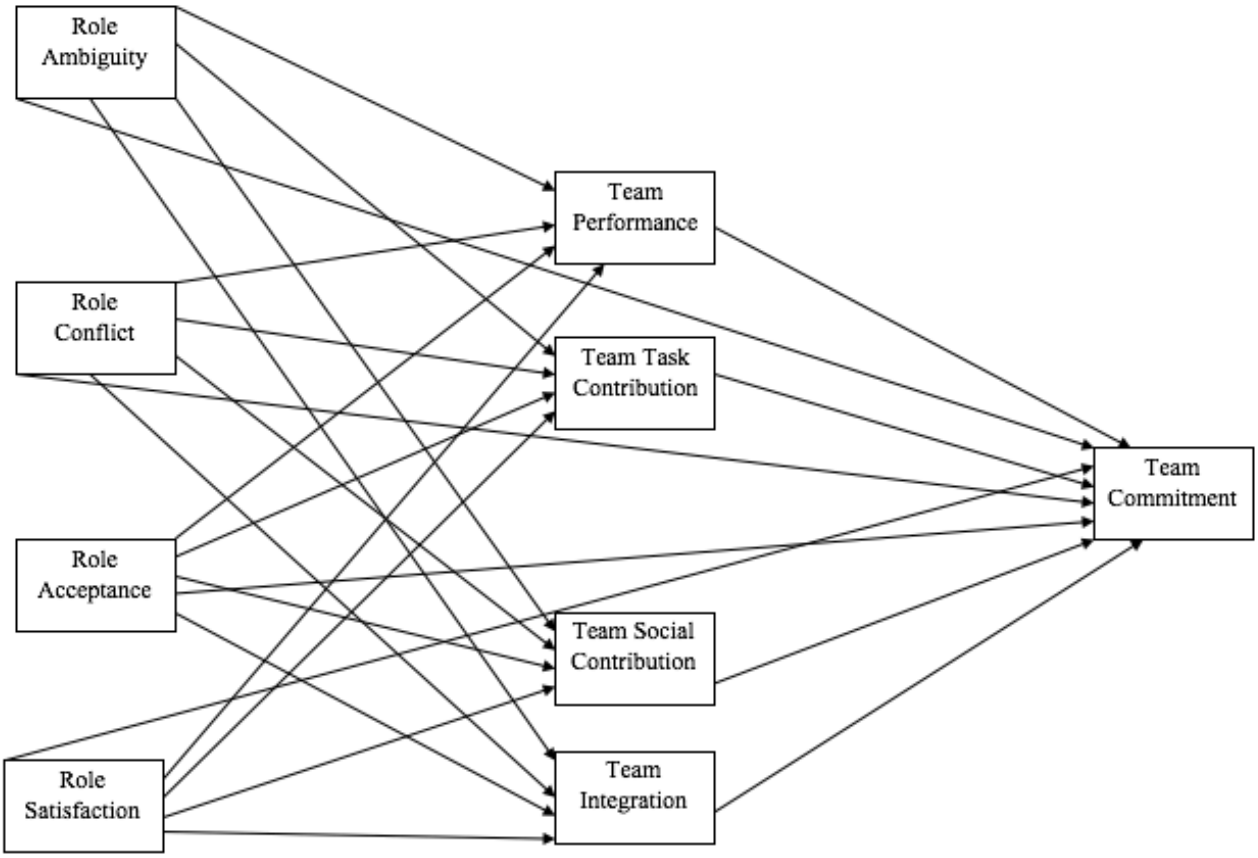

Figure 1. Hypothesized Mediation Model.

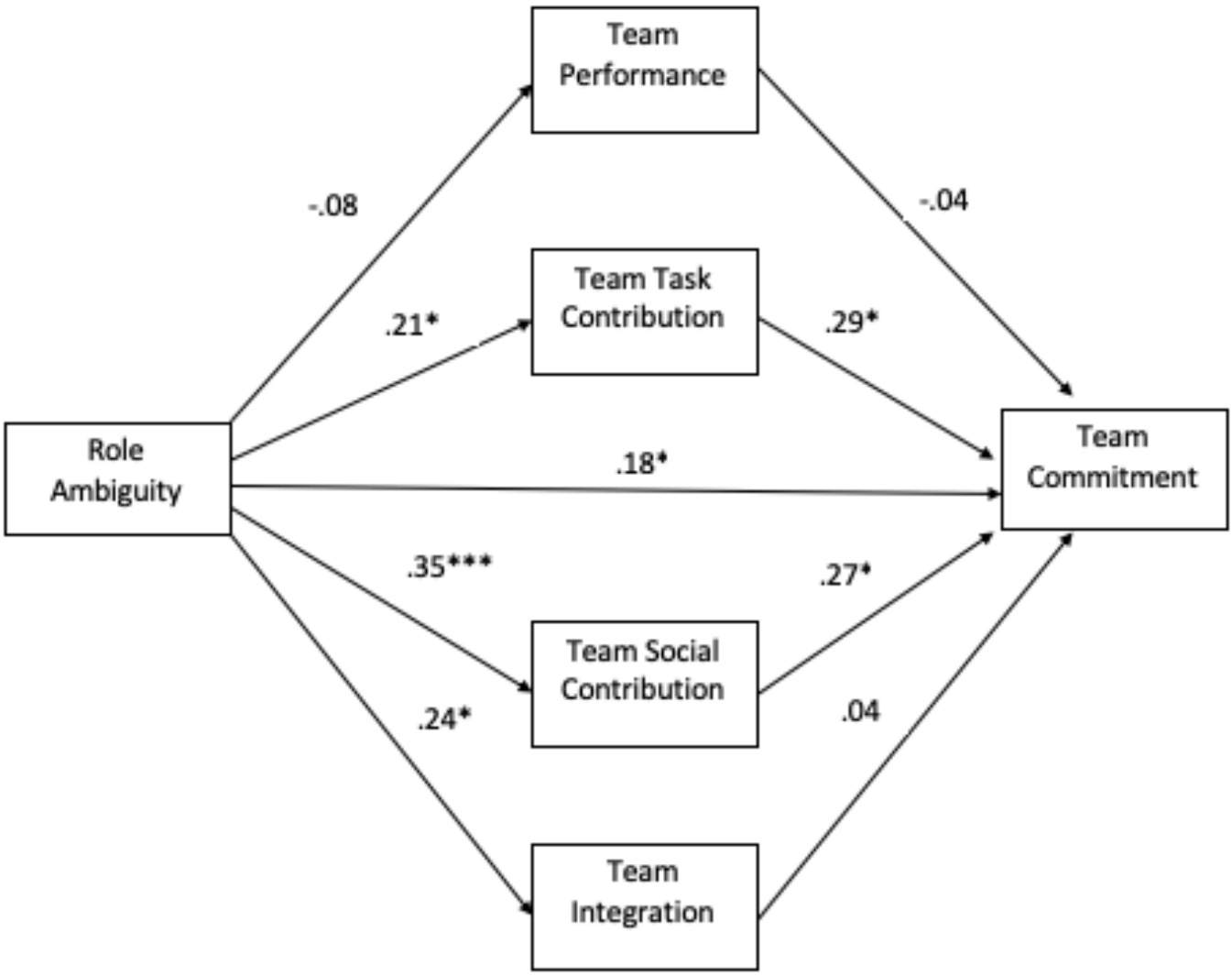

Figure 2. Beta coefficients representing the effects of role ambiguity and athlete satisfaction on team commitment. *p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

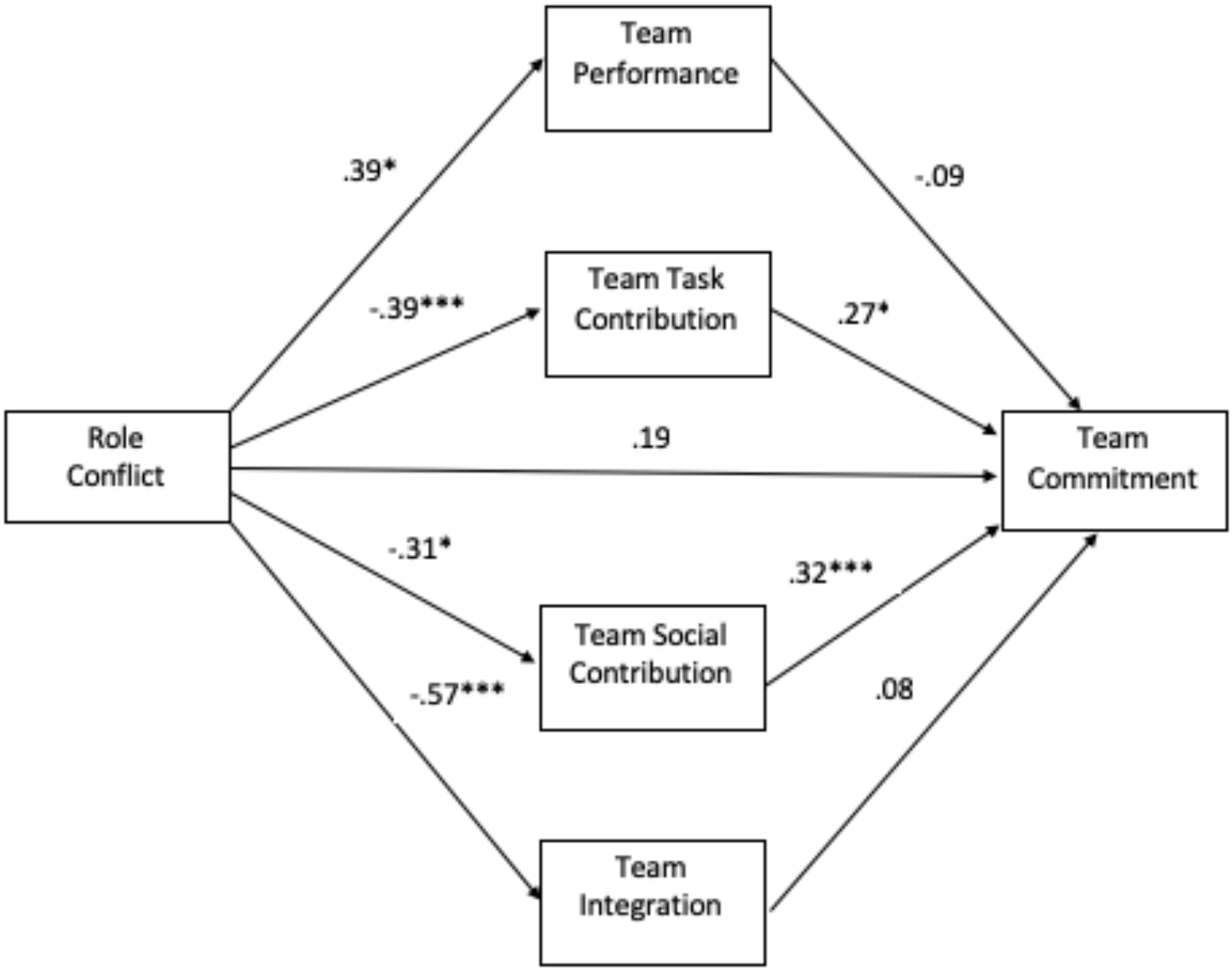

Figure 3. Beta coefficients representing the effects of role conflict and athlete satisfaction on team commitment. *p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

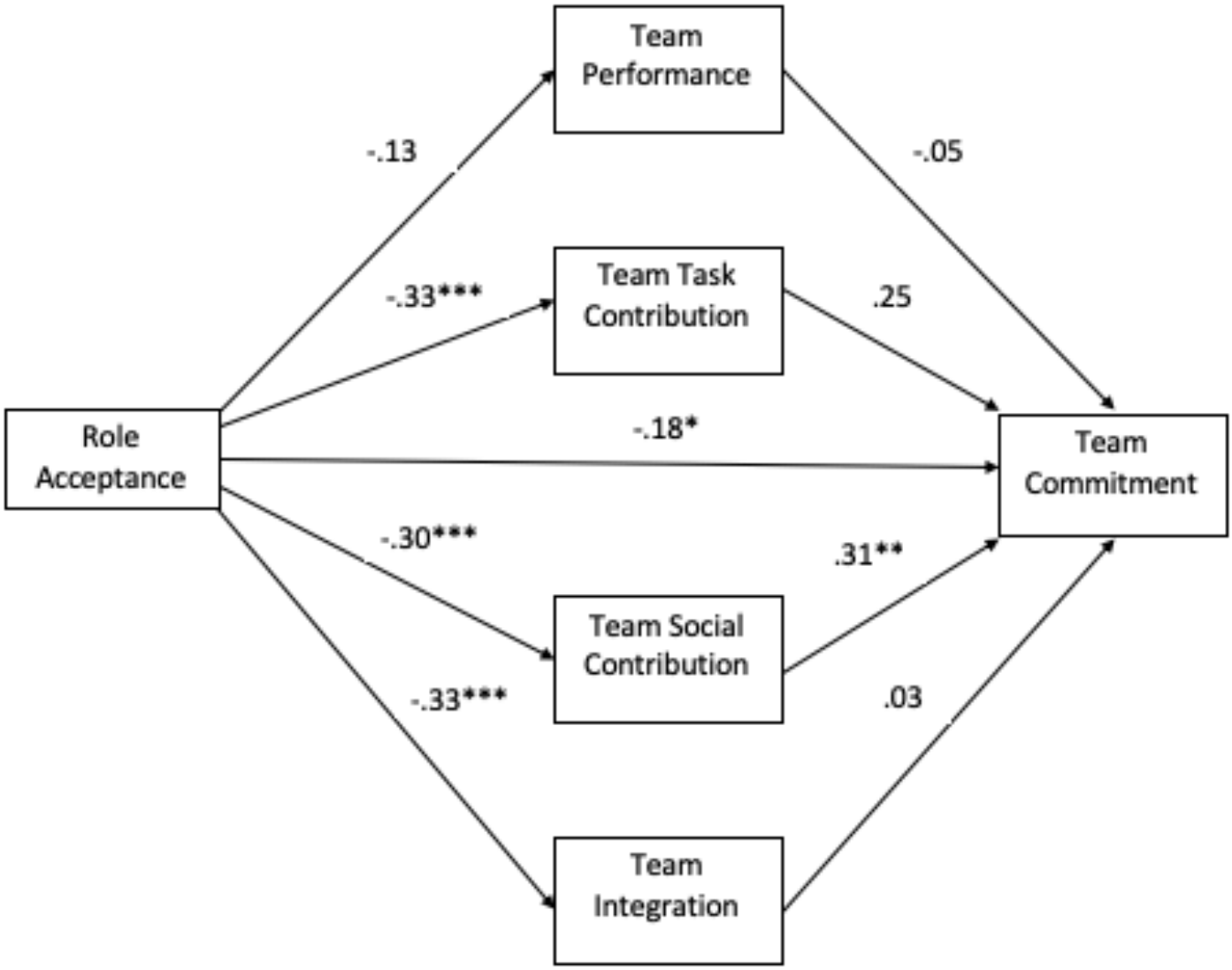

Figure 4. Beta coefficients representing the effects of role acceptance and athlete satisfaction on team commitment. *p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.

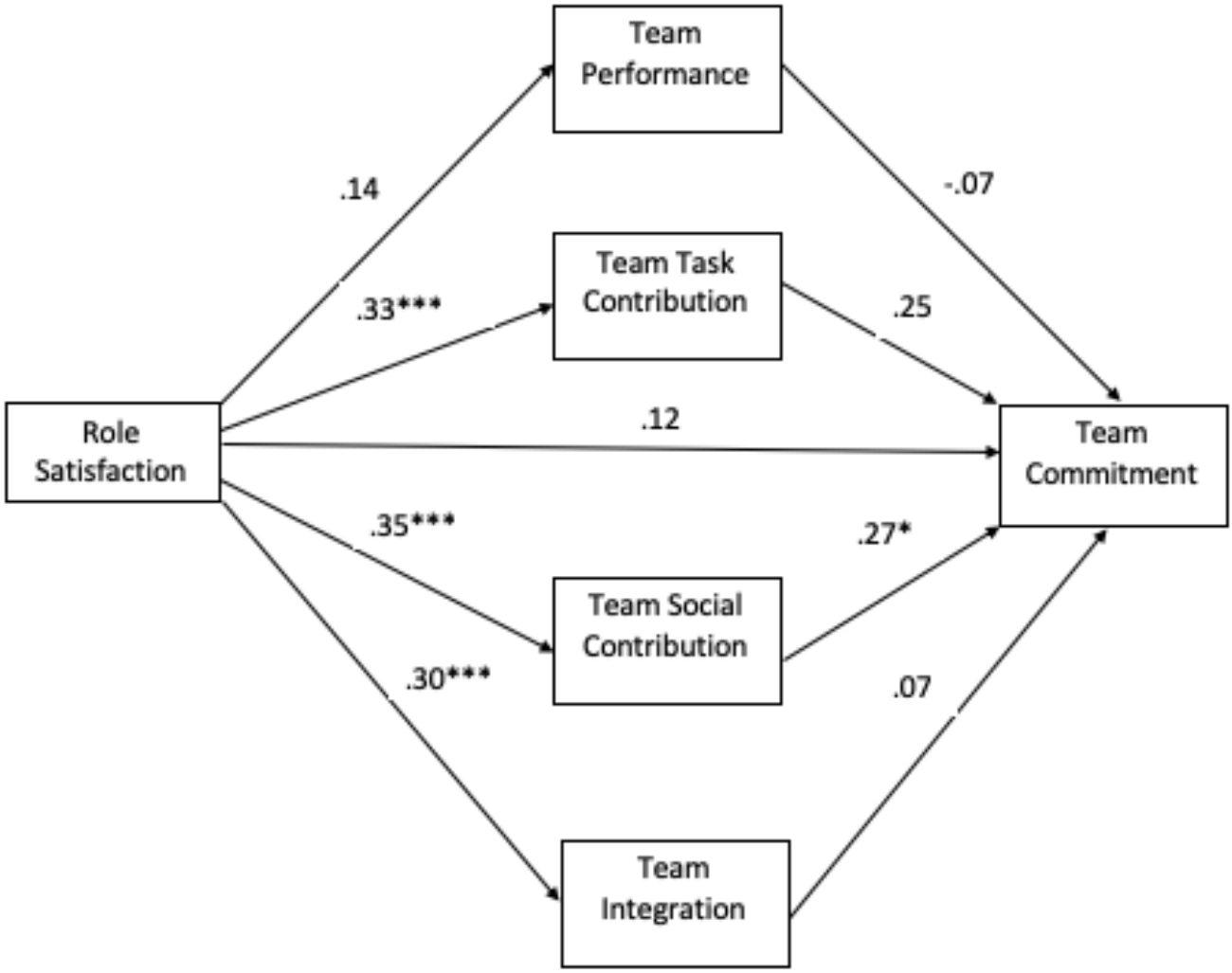

Figure 5. Beta coefficients representing the effects of role satisfaction and athlete satisfaction on team commitment. *p < .05. ** p < .01. *** p < .001.