

An Identity Theory of Role Exit among Soccer Referees

by

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ABSTRACT

This study examines how identity processes affect role exit. I test a model of role exit that situates the identity processes of cognitive processes (reflected appraisals and social comparisons), rewards and costs related to the role, commitment to the role, and identity centrality as mediating factors between role-set and social characteristic background factors, and role exit. Using a sample of 940 current and former soccer referees in Virginia and the District of Columbia, the results show that several role-set background factors and social characteristics affect role exit. However, identity processes explain some of the effect that the background factors have on role exit. The results have implications for identity theory and role exit theory and for helping referee organizations understand why referees quit.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Why do individuals decide to leave a role? This question is of interest to academics and practitioners. Role exit is a process of exiting one role and entering into another (Ebaugh 1988). Role exit theory explains why drug addicts quit, athletes drop out, and teachers leave the profession (Breese and O'Toole 1995; Drahota and Eitzen 1999; George 1993; Hiscott and Connop 1996; Schoenherr and Young 1990).

But the literature is incomplete. First, Ebaugh (1988) describes how people exit a role. In doing so, she lists some of the conditions that may affect why people leave a role. But, she spends little time describing those conditions, choosing instead to explain how those conditions affect the role exit process. While understanding the process of role exit is a valuable pursuit, it is also important to understand in more detail the conditions that affect role exit. Thus, research should address “why” individuals exit a role as well as “how” individuals role exit.

The second problem with the current literature on role exit is it fails to account for how identity processes affect role exit. Individuals who participate in roles often have identities associated with those roles. For many, the identity associated with the role keeps individuals involved in the role. So in examining the process of role exit, research should consider how the processes affect identities and how identities affect whether or not individuals exit a role.

This research adds to current role exit theory by exploring why individuals exit a role. Specifically, this research examines role exit among soccer referees in Virginia and the District of Columbia. This research also examines how identities and identity

processes may affect whether or not individuals exit a role. Finally, this research builds on literature of how gender and age affect role exit.

Three general research questions guide this study. First, what are the social factors that lead a referee to quit? Second, do identities and identity processes explain how the background factors affect whether referees quit? Finally, how do gender and age affect whether referees quit? To address these questions, I created a model of role exit. The model explains role exit as a product of background factors and identity processes, specifically, the extent to which having an identity as a referee affects role exit.

I use role exit theory (Ebaugh 1988) and identity theory (Burke 1991; Ervin and Stryker 2001) to explain role exit among soccer referees. I use status characteristics theory (Webster and Foschii 1988) to explain how gender affects role exit. I use these theories and literature that discusses turnover in voluntary associations, in jobs, and why athletes quit, to specify the role exit model.

Theoretical Background

The model of referee role exit uses elements from role exit theory (Ebaugh 1988) and identity theory (Burke 1991; Ervin and Stryker 2001). Roles connect individuals to the social structure (Merton 1957) and to other people within a group. Role exit requires separating one's self from role alters while at the same time taking on new roles (Ebaugh 1988). Role alters are individuals who occupy other roles within the group. For example, role alters in the refereeing role may be other referees, the assignor, or soccer players. Thus, role exit involves cutting ties from others while establishing new ties in another role.

Those involved in roles often develop identities associated with the roles. Identity theory describes the connection between roles and identities (Mead 1934). Stryker and Burke (2000) argue that the self derives from social structure. As individuals enter into roles, they take on identities associated with the roles and participate in normative behavior associated with the roles. For example, individuals who enter into the referee role take on the appropriate behavior of referees (they buy the uniform and start relating to the players as referees). Eventually those roles may become a part of an individual's identity.

More importantly, identities are reflexive. Identities form when individuals think about how others view them (reflected appraisals) as well as how they compare to others (social comparisons) (Stryker and Burke 2000). If individuals perceive that others see them positively, they may develop an identity associated with the role. Similarly, if individuals compare themselves positively over and against others, they may develop an identity (Stryker and Burke 2000).

Receiving rewards and minimizing the costs of the role affect role exit (McCall and Simmons 1978). Referees may enhance their identity if they receive rewards for being a good referee while at the same time reducing the costs of being a referee. In both cases, receiving rewards and minimizing costs increases commitment to the role and increases the importance of the role to the person's sense of self.

Commitment is defined as one's ties to other people because of the role-identity. Interactional commitment involves the number of ties resulting from the role; affective commitment involves one's emotional ties to others (Ervin and Stryker 2001). In the model proposed by Ervin and Stryker (2001), commitment influences identity centrality.

Similarly, the more that individuals receive positive reflected appraisals, positive social comparisons, receive rewards, minimized costs, the more highly committed they are to the identity, and the more they consider the identity an important part of who they are as a person (Ervin and Stryker 2001).

There is a logical connection between identities and role exit. Individuals may exit a role because they no longer have an identity associated with the role. Identity processes such as of reflected appraisals, social comparisons, perceived rewards, cost, commitment to the role, and identity centrality may influence whether or not an individual exits a role.

It is possible that gender may affect role exit. According to data from the Metro DC-Virginia Soccer Referee Program, approximately 85% of all referees are men while about 15% are women. The role of soccer refereeing is a masculine avocation. Women who enter the role may face negative reactions over their presence. Because of the potential for or actual negative reactions over their presence, women may choose to quit sooner than men.

Status characteristics theory might also explain how gender affects role exit. Webster and Foschii (1988) argue that individuals form beliefs about other's competence at a task from information about a person's ability in the task. But, when entering a new task, individuals often do not know each other's ability. Therefore, social characteristics such as gender help others determine ability. In particular, individuals may perceive that those who are lower in status in a particular situation, such as women, are less capable at a task. Low status individuals may internalize task expectations because of their status.

The result is that low status individuals may exit a role-identity because they perceive that they are not good at the task.

Age may prevent individuals from developing an identity. Age is relevant in activities that require strenuous physical activity. Others often consider older adults unable to compete at sports. This is a form of ageism - “prejudice and discrimination directed to older individuals not only by others but by social institutions” (Kornblum and Julian 2004:283). For example, FIFA, the governing body of world soccer, mandates that referees for the World Cup (the most important tournament in world soccer) be no older than 45. Soccer organizations adopt these standards, creating an ageist structure that limits the level of games older referees can officiate. Thus, ageism may force older referees to abandon an identity at an earlier age than anticipated.

Summary of Supporting Literature

Research on why individuals quit voluntary associations, athletic role exit, and the job turnover literature may explain role exit among referees. Refereeing is a part-time job; but it is one that individuals enter and continue voluntarily. So, the factors affecting volunteer turnover may help in understanding why referees quit.

I also draw upon research related to sex disparities in sport. There are very few female referees. Females make up over half of all soccer players in Virginia and the District of Columbia yet only 15% of soccer referees are women. Similarly, women who certify as referees tend to quit earlier than men. Understanding why women quit refereeing earlier than men may provide information about sexism in refereeing.

Refereeing tends to exclude older individuals, particularly in high-level games. Many referees quit by the time they are 40. However, soccer games need competent and

physically fit referees to conduct games. Individuals certainly lose some of their physical capabilities as they age. But as individuals continue to referee, they gain valuable knowledge about the game. Many can still referee at the age of 40, 50, or even 60 and beyond, yet instead many choose to quit while young. This research may provide some evidence of ageism in refereeing.

Model Specification

Based on identity theory, status characteristics theory, literature on ageism, and literature on role exit, I specify a model of role exit. This model uses a similar structure to that of Ervin and Stryker (2001) and House (1981). I begin by testing how background factors affect role exit among referees. These background factors are causal precursors to other factors in the model because the logical progression of the model they are predictors of identity processes and role exit rather than predicted by identity processes and role exit. Other factors in the model relate to identity process proposed by Ervin and Stryker (2001). The identity process variables are cognitive processes, rewards and costs, commitment, and identity centrality.

I divide the background factors into two types. First, the role-set behaviors are assignor support/treatment, league support/treatment, negative organizational change, role conflict, if refereeing meets expectations, if the referee had initial doubts about refereeing, if referees felt forced into referee, and if referees had an injury. The social characteristics are referees' gender, age, marital status, and the number of children.

I argue that cognitive processes, rewards and costs associated with refereeing, commitment to refereeing, and referee identity centrality, mediate the relationship between the background factors and role exit. The cognitive processes include reflected

appraisals from the role-set reference group of fans, coaches, peers, and assignors. The cognitive processes are social comparisons with other referees, and perceived family support for the role. The rewards of refereeing are intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, while the costs are financial costs, burnout, and verbal abuse. Commitment measures if referees have friends they met through refereeing, whether referees have family members in their household who play soccer, the grade level of referees, and the amount of training referees had in the past year. Finally, identity centrality involves how important refereeing is to referees' sense of who they are as an individual.

Methodological Background

I test the proposed model through a web-based survey using a sample of current and former soccer referees from the Commonwealth of Virginia and the District of Columbia. I chose soccer referees for two reasons. First, referee organizations in the Commonwealth of Virginia and the District of Columbia experience high turnover. Databases reveal that approximately 50% of all new referees drop out within two years of initial certification. Second, as a soccer referee, I have access to the organization's resources in order to conduct this research.

Importance of Research

This research has both practical and theoretical importance. Practically, referee organizations see retention as an important issue. As a result, the Metro DC-Virginia Soccer Referee Program provides their support for this research. Those in charge recognize that with more teams playing soccer, there is a need for more competent referees. Many soccer leagues in Virginia and the District of Columbia play with fewer

than the required number of referees (three), and some games go without referees altogether.

This research may provide information about the factors that explain why referees quit. For example, if background factors such as assignor support and treatment and league support and treatment predict role exit, referee programs may want to address these issues. Second, if identity processes such as commitment and identity centrality significantly predict role exit among referees, then programs that increase the level of commitment or that make refereeing more important to a person's identity, may help with retention. Third, if this research finds that some referees feel forced to quit because of their age or gender, the ageist or sexist structure in refereeing might be more apparent.

This research is theoretically important for understanding how identity processes affect the relationship between background factors and role exit. Much of the theory on role exit focuses on the process of role exit (Ebaugh 1988). Other research conceptualizes role exit as leaving a job and focuses on those factors that influence whether or not an individual leaves a job. This research assumes that observed characteristics directly affect role exit, for example, that having an injury is a direct cause of exit from the athletic role (Drahota and Eitzen 1998).

Some research argues that identity processes affect role exit (Donnelly and Young 1988, Weiss 2001). But, this literature usually focuses on one or two aspects of an identity that influence role exit, for example, identity centrality or commitment. Similarly, little research examines the influence of reflected appraisals and social comparisons on role exit. Thus, the present study addresses what factors may explain the relationship between background factors and role exit among soccer referees. In doing

so, this research brings together several elements of identity theory to explain why individuals leave a role.

Thus, I argue that while background factors affect role exit among soccer referees, cognitive processes, rewards and costs, commitment, and identity centrality may explain this relationship between the background factors and role exit. This study will test a model of role exit on a population of adult soccer referees in the District of Columbia and Virginia. In the next section, I outline the model of referee role exit. I connect the background factors with the mediating factors to predict role exit among referees. To support the model, I use elements of role exit theory, identity theory, status characteristics theory, and ageism theory as well as literature on why athletes, employees, and volunteers quit.

CHAPTER TWO

MODEL SPECIFICATION AND SUPPORTING LITERATURE

This literature review outlines the causal connections between components of the model of referee role exit. After specifying the theoretical model of referee role exit, I present role exit theory and identity theory and briefly review literature on referee role exit. Role exit theory, identity theory, and literature related to sport, refereeing, job turnover, and voluntarism are used specify the model of referee role exit. The rest of the review is divided into five parts. The first part provides a justification for each type of literature review. The second part outlines each background factor in the model including a section on the structure of refereeing that explains how role-set background factors are specific to refereeing. Next, I outline the mediating factors that hypothetically affect the relationship between the background factors and role exit. Finally, I provide hypotheses about the relationship between each background factor and subsequent components in the model.

Model Specification

“Figure 1 About Here”

Figure 1 in Appendix B presents a model of role exit among soccer referees. The model has four panels that connect the background factors to role exit through four sets of the mediating variables: cognitive processes, rewards and costs, commitment, and identity centrality. Panel 1 has the background factors. Role-set background factors are of league and assignor support/treatment, organizational change, role conflict with the refereeing role, whether refereeing meets expectations, whether referees had initial doubts about refereeing, whether referees felt forced to referee, and whether referees had

an injury. Social characteristics are gender, age, marital status of the referee, and how many children the referee has in a specific age group.

Panel 2 shows the cognitive processes and rewards and costs. The cognitive processes include reflected appraisals, family support for the role, and social comparisons (Ervin and Stryker 2001). Rewards can be intrinsic (refereeing is rewarding) or extrinsic (receiving a monetary reward, being invited to a special tournament, and/or being named a good referee for the league). Costs include the perceived financial impact of refereeing, burnout from refereeing, and abuse from others directed toward the referee. Panel 3 shows commitment and identity centrality. Panel 4 is the dependent variable of role exit.

The model predicts several relationships. The cognitive processes mediate the relationship between the background factors and identity centrality as well as the relationship between the background factors and role exit. Rewards and costs mediate the relationship between the background factors and commitment, between the background factors and identity centrality, and between the background factors and role exit. Commitment mediates the relationship between the background factors and identity centrality, between the background factors and role exit, and between rewards and costs and role exit. Finally, identity centrality mediates the relationship between the cognitive processes and role exit, between rewards and costs and role exit, and between commitment and role exit.

Since this research examines role exit among referees, I review current research on why referees quit. Champney (2002) focuses on the psychological motivations why young referees (under age 18) quit. Young referees continue refereeing because of the pay and love for the game (Champney 2002). Age and gender do not explain why young

referees quit. Verbal abuse, particularly directed toward long-time referees explains why young referees are more likely to quit (Champney 2002). However, abuse from others has little effect on why high-grade level referees quit (Champney 2002). The problem with this research is that it does not tell us if the same factors explain why adult referees quit.

Several non-scientific surveys by soccer leagues explore why adult referees quit. Pennsylvania referees list verbal abuse from parents and coaches as the primary reason for quitting (Ryan 2001). Referees in Pennsylvania feel overworked, often having to referee four or five games a day, three times a week, a condition similar to burnout (Ryan 2001). However, Ryan (2001) cites one young woman who says that despite the abuse, she continues with refereeing because she is advancing to higher-level games. Studies based on convenience samples are of limited generalizability, however.

Theories of Role Exit

Role exit involves abandoning one role and assuming a new role (Blau 1973). People exit roles in different ways: “(1) an act of nature, such as the death of a role partner; (2) expulsion by a group or large collectivity, such as excommunication or banishment; (3) involuntary action, such as being fired or left by a partner; and (4) voluntary action such as leaving a partner or initiating a career change” (Blau 1973; Breese and O’Toole 1995). This study concentrates primarily on voluntary role exit among referees.

According to Ebaugh (1988), the process of role exit begins with initial doubts about the role. During this stage, individuals question their commitment to the role, perhaps because of organizational change or some event that causes the individual to see

the role in a different light (Pratt 2001). Family, friends, and coworkers (the reference group) may affect whether initial doubts lead to the next stage of the role exit process. If individuals receive positive feedback from their reference group for their initial doubts about the role from others, then they will likely continue to the next stage of role exit: seeking alternatives (Ebaugh 1988).

During the stage of seeking alternatives, individuals weigh the pros and cons of other roles. Individuals narrow those roles down to one. Then individuals interact with other persons in the new role set, shifting their reference group from the old role to new role. Again, positive feedback from the reference group can accelerate the process of seeking alternatives.

As individuals seek alternatives, often a specific event or turning point triggers a change that causes individuals to abandon the old role. The turning points may include a specific event, time conflicts associated with the current role, making excuses to those in the current role about why they cannot participate in the role, believing that they must either leave the role or be subject to negative feedback from others, or experiencing an event that shifts the frame of reference (Ebaugh 1988). These conditions lead to the announcement of role exit to others.

Ebaugh's (1988) model receives moderate support. Anderson and Bondi (1998) note a similar pattern of role exit among drug addicts. Drahota and Eitzen (1998) find support for Ebaugh's model among professional athletes. They argue, though, that professional athletes enter the role with doubts that the role will continue for a long time (Drahota and Eitzen 1998).

Critics of Ebaugh's (1988) model note that roles do not completely constrain individuals (Wacquant 1990). Individuals can reject or accept roles even when they have initial doubts about the role or receive negative feedback from others. Similarly, Wacquant (1990) argues that Ebaugh (1988) generalizes role exit to all types of exit. In fact, it would be naïve to generalize the role exit process across "all institutional arenas" (Wacquant 1990:401). Instead, Wacquant (1990:401) argues that explaining role exit may require understanding the contextual factors influencing the role exit process.

From this literature the model uses initial doubts and social support for refereeing to explain role exit among soccer referees as well as heeding Wacquant's (1990) advice to add context into the model. The model also includes background factors that are role-specific to refereeing such as organizational support, expectations about refereeing, and if the referee had an injury. Finally, support is couched as reflected appraisals from others in the role-set such as fellow referees, coaches, fans, etc. and as perceived support from the family.

Identity Theory

Identity theory also informs the model in Figure 1. Research on identities follows two directions. Social identity theory examines identities by categorizing individuals as parts of a group and then examining how the resulting identities lead to in-group and out-group formation (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reichert, and Wetherell 1987). Identity theory research focuses on identities as role-expectations developed through reflexive behavior (Burke and Tully 1977).

“Having a particular social identity means being at one with a certain group, being like others in the group, and seeing things from the group's perspective. In contrast, having a particular role-identity means acting to fulfill the expectations of the role, coordinating and negotiating interaction with role partners and

manipulating the environment to control the resources for which the role has responsibility” (Stets and Burke 2000:226).

This research centers on the tradition of role-identity. A role-identity is “the imaginative view of himself as *he likes to think of himself being and acting* as an occupant of that position” (McCall and Simmons 1978:65). Individuals have role-identities related to many of their roles such as fathers, mothers, athletes, employees, spouses, etc. With these and other identities, individuals come to think of themselves as occupying that position in the social structure.

Some role-identities are more important to individuals than others. Identity centrality refers to an overall sense of how important an identity is to individuals’ self-concept (Stryker and Serpe 1982). The importance of a role-identity affects whether or not a person will enact the behaviors associated with the role. In one example, individuals continue volunteering and put in more hours at the American Cancer Society if they believe that volunteering is important for who they are as people (Grube and Piliavan 2000).

Maintaining identities is a reflexive process where individuals think about how others see them occupying a specific identity. This line of thought derives from the work of Mead (1934), who claims that we act towards others based upon the meaning that we as individuals give to that situation. For example, if individuals define a situation as harmful, they may likely act to protect themselves. When individuals claim an identity, they assign themselves the meanings associated with the identity, come to think that others give that identity the same meaning, positively value the possession of that identity, and perform those behaviors associated with that meaning (Burke and Reitzes 1981).

Individuals derive the meanings they give identities from situations. Thus, identities are reflexive (Mead 1934); individuals come to know who they are as individuals from how they think others in the situation see them, a process known as reflected appraisals (Cooley 1902; Felson 1985; Mead 1934). Reflected appraisals allow individuals to evaluate a role-identity. For example, individuals engage in a reflected appraisal when they think that others think they are bad at refereeing.

Reflected appraisals are also important for verifying current identities. As Stets and Harrod (2004:156) argue, “the inability to maintain an identity results from negative reflected appraisals which ‘generates negative emotions’ leading the individual to change their perceptions of the identity and/or abandon it outright.” The fear of negative appraisals from others spurs individuals to seek out positive appraisals that confirm already established identities (Felson 1985; Robinson and Smith-Lovin 1992).

Individuals also reflect on their identities through social comparisons. Social comparisons involve comparing their role performance over and against others in the situation (Festinger 1954). Those unable to derive favorable social comparisons that confirm their ability often do not continue with the role (Festinger 1954). For example, individuals may be more likely to exit the role of refereeing if they think they are not as good as others at refereeing.

Identity theory predicts volunteering and blood donorship (Finkelstein and Penner 2004; Grube and Piliavian 2000). A volunteer identity predicts whether or not individuals will participate in citizenship behavior (Finkelstein and Penner 2004), though the authors are careful to note that this relationship is not strong. Individuals with a

strong role-identity as a blood donor give blood more often than those with only a weak blood donor identity (Grube and Piliavian 2000).

Reflected appraisals and social comparisons are part of a larger model of self-esteem and role performance (Ervin and Stryker 2001). I adapt this model and argue that the same conditions that Ervin and Stryker (2001) use to explain how self-esteem affects role performance also explain how identities affect role performance. In Ervin and Stryker's (2001) model, identity processes such as reflected appraisals and social comparisons, commitment, and identity salience (I use centrality instead, see below) mediate the relationship between background factors and role performance. I also include rewards and costs associated with refereeing as mediating factors. The exogenous factors in Ervin and Stryker's (2001) model I call background factors. Whether or not a referee exits the role depends partly upon the background factors. However, the mediating factors should explain much of the effect of these background factors on role exit.

Justification of Literature

The remainder of the model uses literature drawn from athletic role exit, job turnover, and voluntarism. In some respects, referees resemble athletes. Both must work hard to maintain their bodies in order to participate. Additionally, many referees are former players who participate in refereeing to stay involved in the game.

In other respects, refereeing is a job, because referees are paid. For example, for amateur adult games, they may earn about \$50 for 2 hours of work. Similarly, referees receive game assignments from assignors. Assignors, like bosses, determine how good the referee is and what level game the referee can do. Referees often endure

organizational conditions that individuals in the 9-to-5 work world endure.

Organizational cultures may not value referees, and bureaucratic structures set out paths for advancement.

Finally, refereeing resembles volunteering. Many begin refereeing because they want to serve their community or because they have a family member involved in the sport. Much of the volunteer literature, however, does not deal with why individuals leave volunteering. Instead it focuses on why individuals begin volunteering in the first place. Nevertheless, the same factors may help explain why individuals quit volunteering.

The remainder of this review presents other background factors that affect referee role exit and how those background factors connect to other components in the model. I group these background factors into two categories: role-set background factors and social characteristics.

Role-Set Background Factors

League and assignor support and treatment. The first two background factors in Figure 1 are league and assignor support and treatment. Individuals' perceptions about the support they get from organizations and how they are treated by an organization may affect role exit. Support from an organization may prevent role exit (Magee 2003). For example, employer discrimination and poor work conditions work conditions such as inadequate accommodation of employees' needs may cause job turnover (Magee 2003). French boxers may quit because the standards for advancement in the organization are unclear (Augustini and Trabel 1999).

Among volunteers, organizational support affects the level of commitment individuals have to the organization (Wilson and Musick 1999). Organizations that strongly support the volunteering role, such as for church-related activities, retain their volunteers (Wilson and Musick 1999). Similarly, college age students tend to volunteer more when the educational institution supports voluntarism (Hustinx et al. 2005).

While organizational support is important, often the support of specific people within the organization matters most. In many cases, the support from those immediately above the individual in the organizational hierarchy matters the most. For example, individuals whose bosses support them stay with the organization (Glass and Riley 1998). Among volunteers, those who get support from their supervisor evaluate the role positively (Adams and Shepard 1996).

Structure of soccer refereeing in the United States. To understand why league and assignor support may affect referee role exit, I examine the structure of soccer refereeing in the United States. The United States Soccer Federation (USSF) governs most soccer activity within the United States from the youth level to the men's and women's national teams. Only referees certified by USSF may referee USSF sanctioned games.

Currently there are over 140,000 referees, instructors, and assessors in the United States (ussoccer.com 2006). State and regional associations manage the activity of referees within each state or region. The Metro DC-Virginia State Referee Program (MDCVSRP) governs and certifies referees in the District of Columbia and Commonwealth of Virginia. This regional organization ensures that only USSF-certified referees officiate USSF sanctioned games. USSF-certified area assignors select referees

for each game. The assignor ensures that only competent individuals referee games. The assignor must match the level of the game with the skill level of the referee.

Referees must certify through the USSF. Here, referees learn the laws of the game set out by the international governing body of soccer, FIFA, and the USSF. Referees must re-certify every year by taking six hours of classroom instruction and a written test on the laws of the game. Each game uses three referees, a center referee responsible for judging whether play is within the rules or not, and two assistant referees who are responsible for indicating whether the ball is out of bounds, indicating off-sides, and assisting the center referee when she or he cannot see a foul. While the assistant referees can assist the center referee, the ultimate responsibility for calling fouls and controlling the game falls on the center referee.

Competent referees may advance through the USSF system to achieve a higher grade and higher-level games. The levels of refereeing appear in the table below.

Referee Grade	Referee Label
8	Entry-level Referee
7	Entry-level Referee
6	State Referee
5	State Referee
4	National Referee
3	National Referee
2	International Referee (FIFA)
1	International Referee (FIFA)

Most referees initially certify as a grade 8. Grades 8 and 7 referees do many of the youth and adult amateur matches. Grades 6 and 5, state level referees, do many high-level youth, upper-division amateur games, and low-level professional games. Grades 4 and 3, national referees, do many of the upper-level professional matches. Finally, grades 2 and

1 do high-level professional matches and international matches (matches between two countries).

In Virginia and D.C. there are approximately 5,400 referees. Nearly all are grade 8. Many referees remain at grade 8 for most of their refereeing career. In order to advance, referees must officiate a minimum number of games, pass a written test, be assessed on their abilities during three 90-minute matches, and pass a physical fitness test. Successful completion of these requirements allows the referee to advance one grade level.

This structure presents a bureaucratic system that referees must navigate to find games and to advance as referees. The national, regional, and local organizations, like many bureaucratic organizations, can both enhance and prevent referees from participating as referees. For example, the requirement that referees must re-certify every year may deter some referees. Similarly, referees who feel like the organization as a whole or their assignor within the organization does not support them or does not treat them well may quit.

Organizational Change. The next background factor in Figure 1 is organizational change. Organizational change may influence whether individuals exit a role. Schellenberg (1996) argues that, as organizations become unstable, turnover increases. Organizational change disrupts the identities of individuals (Pratt 2001). Individuals often connect their identities to the location of an organization. To change that physical place disrupts individuals' connection to the organization (Pratt 2001). Managers must deal with employees who have a hard time with the companies that change their physical location. If not, job satisfaction may decrease (Milligan 2003(a); Milligan 2003(b)).

Among voluntary organizations, particularly ones where the bonds among members are not strong, a change in organizational direction can reduce loyalty (Knoke 1981). For example, volunteers for a Rugby Union league became dissatisfied and tended to quit after the organization implemented new policies (Nichols et al. 2005).

However, highly motivated individuals continued to volunteer despite organizational change (Nichols et al. 2005). Here motivation represents an affective (emotional) commitment to the organization. Thus, organizational commitment may mediate how organizational change affects role exit (Kelley et al. 2005). Even if organizations endure some negative change, those with strong ties to the organization may continue despite their dissatisfaction with the change.

Role conflict. The next background factor in Figure 1 is role conflict. Role conflict refers to the inability to participate in two or more mutually exclusive roles (Merton 1957). Individuals have multiple role-identities, whether as father, employee, coach, etc. The extent that these role-identities compete with each other for time and resources affects the performance of each role. While the possession of multiple roles has positive affects on well-being (Nordenmark 2004; Thoits 1986), the more roles, and the higher the chance for role conflict (Burke 1991; Coser 1974; Goode 1960; Merton 1957; Thoits 1992).

Having multiple roles may negatively affect each identity. As Settles (2004:487) argues, the combination of multiple identities is not easy to negotiate: “The result of holding multiple identities is identity interference, which occurs when the pressures of one identity interfere with the performance of another identity.” Identity interference is similar to role conflict. According to Burke (1991), interference between multiple

identities disrupts the ability to reaffirm each identity, causing distress. For example, identity interference between work and other identities lowers work satisfaction causing many to leave jobs (Aryee 1992; Coverman 1989; Kossek and Ozeki 1998; O'Driscoll et al. 1992; Settles 2004; Thomas and Ganster 1995).

Role conflict limits commitment to a role identity. For example, having a work role-identity and a volunteer role-identity creates conflict for some, and for many, it is the volunteer role that suffers (Knoke 1981). The more hours individuals work, the more likely they will quit volunteering (Wilson and Musik 1999). Organizations may retain members if they limit the number of hours their members participate in non-organizational activities (Zurcher and Snow 1981). Similarly, when volunteer organizations consider the work schedules of their volunteers, retention increases (Miller et al. 1990).

In another example, both active and non-active members of a volunteer trail preservation organization indicate that competing roles decrease their participation (Martinez and McMullin 2004). Active members have strong ties to the organization despite having other roles that interfere, whereas non-active members drop out when other roles conflict with volunteer activity (Martinez and McMullin 2004). Here it is likely that commitment moderates the relationship between role conflict and role exit. In terms of refereeing, officials may quit refereeing if they have other duties that conflict with refereeing. For example, an individual with a full-time job may not referee because their job limits the amount of time that they have to referee.

Refereeing meets expectations. The next role-set background factor in Figure 1 is whether refereeing meets expectations. Here I refer to the expectations that people have

about the role-identities that they enter into. If the role does not meet individuals' expectations, role exit may occur. If jobs meet expectations, individuals stay in their job (Rindfuss, Cooksey, and Sutterlin 1999).

Augustini and Trabel (1999) note that boxers' sometimes withdrawal because boxing does not meet expectations. Similarly, those involved in fitness programs may not drop out if they have realistic expectations (Siegel et al. 1988; Wankel 1985). Individuals who feel that refereeing does not meet the expectations that they had about the role may drop out more than those whose expectations are met.

Men and women may differ in how they respond when expectations about employment are not met. If a job does not meet expectations, men strive for higher occupational status. Women, though, may decrease their participation in the workforce or drop out altogether (Rindfuss, Cooksey, and Sutterlin 1999). Therefore, gender may interact with expectations about refereeing as male referees whose expectations are not met may continue with refereeing, while female referees may quit.

Injury. Injuries are the next role-set background factor listed in Figure 1. Injuries can limit or prevent individuals from participating in a role. For example, injuries on the job cause job turnover (Burke and Wilcox 1972; Shamian et al. 2003; Walters and Roach 1979). Individuals in physically demanding jobs retire earlier than those not in physically demanding jobs (Blekesaune and Solem 2005). Sustaining an injury may increase the likelihood that referees quit.

Chronic injuries may result in athletic role exit. During an eight-year period, an average of 51 professional players and trainees ended their career early because of pain, injury, or sickness (Roderick, Waddington, and Parker 2000:166; Windsor Sport

Insurance Brokers 1997). For professional or elite athletes, injury is just a minor inconvenience that does not limit participation (Smith and Sparkes 2004; Sparkes 2004; Wainwright, Williams, and Turner 2005). As such, there may be an interaction between grade level and injuries, as high-level referees may not quit refereeing even after sustaining an injury, whereas low-level referees may quit after sustaining an injury.

Social Characteristic Background Factors

Gender. Gender is the first social characteristic background factor listed in Panel 1 of Figure 1. Men and women may experience refereeing differently. The gender of the player may affect whether a referee calls a foul. Even though men are more aggressive on the playing field, male referees punish actions by women more than men (Coulomb-Cabagno, Rasclé, and Souchon 2005). Mean (2001) argues that male referees listen to the appeals of a foul by a male player more than a female player (though referees rarely change their minds about a call made).

Gender also predicts job turnover. Competing demands on women's time and transitions in their life (a potential interaction between role conflict and gender) such as childbirth and marriage may increase role exit from occupations (Glass 1988; Sicherman 1996). However, beneficial job conditions such as improved pay, prestige, job satisfaction, and the presence of opportunities to deal with competing demands (such as childcare) decrease job turnover (Glass 1988; Sicherman 1996).

Tenure seems to influence how gender affects job turnover. As both men and women gain tenure, the rates of quitting become similar, and after five years, women quit less (Sicherman 1996). Gender differences in turnover may occur because high-risk jobs tend to employ men who are more likely to quit (Dahl, Nilsen, and Vaage 2003:193). At

the same time, some job sectors track women into these jobs that have low rates of disability and unemployment and are increasingly in demand (Dahl, Nilsen, and Vaage 2003). The result is that women stay in jobs that are less likely to be injurious.

Within sport, gender affects how injuries influence participation. Women have more latitude to express pain (Theberge 1997). Females with an injury may take themselves out of the game or coaches may take them out (Young 1993; Young et al. 1994). However, elite female athletes resemble men when dealing with pain and injury. For example, women hockey players defy gender norms by “taking hits” (Theberge 1997). Young and White (1995:51) note that if there is a difference between how men and women deal with pain in sport, “it is only a matter of degree.” In this sense, both males and females reinforce the masculine ethic of enduring severe pain (Hargreaves 1994; Young 1993; Young et al. 1994). Therefore, I expect that both male and female higher-level referees with an injury will continue with refereeing.

In terms of voluntarism, women volunteer more than men (Caro and Bass 1995, Goss 1999; Oesterle, Johnson, and Mortimer 2004). Women’s networks tend to center on kin, while men’s networks center on friends and acquaintances (Fischer 1982; Fischer and Olicker 1983; Gallagher 1994; Hoyt and Babchuk 1983; Moore 1990). Since, most voluntarism occurs with friends and acquaintances, it is likely that women will volunteer more (Rotolo 2000). This finding presents a dilemma in how gender affects refereeing. Women may be more likely to quit refereeing, as predicted by job turnover and sport literature. However, if women see refereeing as voluntary, they may be less likely to quit. Though not testing directly for this, it may be possible to deduce from the findings whether women see refereeing as volunteering or as a job or a sport.

Why is gender such an important characteristic in determining role exit? Gender creates status differences between men and women. Those differences come with value stances about the role-identity. Some people may be more valued for the role-identity than others because they possess a certain characteristic. In this case, people come to believe that one gender is better for the role-identity than another. In terms of refereeing, men receive the positive value more than women.

Status Characteristics Theory (SCT) provides a theory for understanding which characteristics people value for a role. SCT's scope applies to those involved in a group task. However, I expand the theory of SCT to potentially explain how status differences affect role exit. According to SCT, those who are good at a task not only perceive themselves as good at the group task, but also believe that others think that they are good at the group task (Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch 1966, Webster and Foschii 1988). SCT argues that individuals often do not use other's ability at the task to determine competence (whether because ability is unknown or otherwise). Instead, task competence depends on characteristics like gender and race that are in no way empirically related to a person's ability to complete a task. Status characteristics theory provides a theory on how individuals internalize each other's competence in a group task.

In this case, SCT is useful for understanding how individuals maintain an identity through social comparisons. SCT is about determining others' competence at a task. Social comparisons are about determining how good others are at a task compared to oneself. Therefore, I use SCT to understand how referees determine others' competence at refereeing and subsequently where referees rank themselves and others with regards to their ability as referees.

To understand how SCT helps to explain how social comparisons affect role exit, it is necessary to understand the theory of SCT in some depth. The goal of SCT is to show how people make decisions about who can best complete a task based upon both actual ability and perceived ability associated with certain social characteristics. SCT applies to task-oriented (people working together to complete a task) and collectively-oriented groups (individuals must consider others when trying to complete the task) (Webster and Foschii 1988:8). There are two important definitions for SCT. A specific status characteristic is one that has a positive and negative value associated with a specific behavior (Webster and Foschii 1988). For example, math ability is a specific status characteristic; a person is either good (positive value) or bad (negative value) at math. A diffuse characteristic is one that is not necessarily related to a person's ability to complete a task but is assumed relevant by others (Webster and Foschii 1988). For example, gender does not affect a person's ability to do math. However, others assume that men are better in math than women.

SCT has five assumptions. Assumption one (salience) states that if individuals in the task *believe* that a characteristic affects a person's ability to complete a task, that characteristic will become salient for the situation. If people in the task believe that gender affects a person's ability to do the task, the group will consider gender salient to the situation.

Assumption two is the burden of proof assumption. Unless someone makes a characteristic irrelevant to the situation, then that characteristic is important for the task and people will use the values associated with the characteristic to determine each person's ability at the task (Webster and Foschii 1988). So, unless someone states that

gender is not relevant to the task, people will consider gender as relevant to who can do the task best.

Assumption three describes the consistency of expectations to a situation no matter who occupies a certain position. Even if people leave the task and others enter, individuals will engage in the same process to determine the relative expectations of task competence for each individual (Webster and Foschii 1988). So, even if new people come into the task, others in the task will keep gender relevant, causing the new people to consider gender relevant to one's ability to complete the task.

Assumption four describes how individuals combine all of the diffuse and specific characteristics in order to form an expectation about a person's ability at a task. People use all information relevant to the task. No single piece of information is more important than another and all combine to form an aggregated expectation for each individual (Webster and Foschii 1988). Thus, if gender and math ability relate to the task, individuals will consider both equally in determining one's ability to do the task.

Assumption five elaborates the expectation of behavior for each individual. Once individuals combine all expectations associated with the characteristics, they form an expectation about how good each person is at the task. Individuals use this information to determine how individuals behave. Those considered better at the task based on the expectations receive more deference than those lower in rank.

Status characteristics theory is useful for understanding how gender affects role exit. Gender leads to status differences. If a male and female are working on a task, people tend to see the man as more competent, despite actual ability, and tend to defer to the man more than the woman (Ridgeway 1988). However, gender seems to be a weak

status characteristic, particularly in schools. For example, Cohen (1988) found that children did not use gender to determine who was good at certain classroom activities. SCT allows us to understand why male referees may have more status and as a result remain in refereeing longer than female referees.

Age. Age determines status and roles within society (Settersten and Mayer 1997). In many cases age formally limits participation (Settersten and Mayer 1997). For example, FIFA, the governing body of world soccer, only allows individuals under the age of 45 to referee in the World Cup Finals. This is an example of ageism - “forms of prejudice and discrimination directed to older individuals not only by others but by social institutions (Kornblum and Julian 2004:283).” Ageist stereotypes maintain that older adults should reduce their activity as they age (Grant 2001). However, many older adults resist age stereotypes regarding physical activity (Grant 2001).

As people age they change roles. As individuals age their identities shift as they abandon old identities and take on new ones. However, individuals never completely abandon their old identities (Hockey and James 2003). As in the role exit process (Ebaugh 1988), new identities incorporate old identities. Acquiring and losing an identity is not always smooth process (Hockey and James 2003). Some situations force identities onto individuals while others withhold identities as a result of age. For example, a younger parent with a child who plays soccer might be highly encouraged if not forced into becoming a referee because the child’s team requires one.

In athletics, age is inversely related to physical ability (McPherson 1984). However, many individuals maintain a fit and active lifestyle well into their later years. Two theories predict older individuals’ participation in sport as they age. Disengagement

theory states that individuals exit sport because of personal expectations about ability and competing demands on their time such as a job (McPherson 1984). Continuity theory though, argues that active younger individuals remain active in older age (Atchley 1977; McPherson 1984). A study of 50,000 Canadian adults found support for both theories. With age, participation in sport declines, yet those involved in sport at younger ages continue to stay involved in sport when older (Curtis and White 1984).

People may abandon their athletic role as they age because they may feel they do not compare to other, younger players (Sleap 1998). The physical decline of the body may influence whether older adults continue participating on a team (Partington et al. 2005:90). Older individuals may compare themselves to others unfairly and therefore quit.

However, many high-level athletes do not completely abandon the athletic role as they age. Some choose to participate in less competitive leagues (Greendorfer and Blinde 1985). Others cut back on the distance they run (Partington et al. 2005). This is a form of resistance by older adults who want to be active despite the expectations that older adults should reduce their participation. This requires resisting the stereotype of the decrepit aging individual. Instead, individuals claim that they “can do this” and will “use it or lose it” (Diongi 2006).

Age also predicts volunteering. However, the social context of volunteering may determine how age affects volunteering. Overall, individuals age 55-64 volunteer the most (Wilson and Musick 1997). This finding conflicts with evidence that as people age, they volunteer less (Chambre 1987, Clary et al 1996; Rotolo 2000). Health reasons may force some out of volunteering activities (Smith 2004). Older adults involve themselves

less in vigorous voluntary activities. However, in low-impact voluntary activities, such as in a hospice, older adults may volunteer more (Miller et al. 1990).

Age may interact with other variables such as marital status and number of children to predict voluntarism and volunteer role exit. Among young adults, involvement in full-time work and being the parent of a young child reduces the likelihood of volunteering (Oesterle, Johnson, and Mortimer 2004). For young adults, the demands of a new job or a new role as a parent may be too much for the individual and may reduce the likelihood of volunteering (Oesterle, Johnson, and Mortimer 2004). Thus, based on this literature, as referees get older, they will drop out more. However, younger married individuals with children may drop out more. Similarly, older individuals who have refereed for a long time may continue.

Marital status. Marital status may affect job turnover and voluntarism rates. Feldman (1994) suggests that married persons may retire earlier than those single or divorced. Married individuals' volunteer more than unmarried individuals (Hodgkinson and Weitzman 1996, Rotolo and Wilson 2004, Wilson 2000). Married individuals tend to have stronger connections to the community. Married individuals support each other's volunteering (Rossi 2001; Rotolo and Wilson 2004). Older married men volunteer more than older men who are not married (Perren, Arber, and Davidson 2003).

Gender may also influence how marital status affects voluntarism. Married women spend more time on housework and household chores than do men, which may inhibit the amount of volunteering for women (Cress, McPherson, and Rotolo 1997; Hochschild 1989; Rotolo 2000). Married men may volunteer more because household duties do not constrain men as much as women (Rotolo 2000). It is likely that married

referees will continue with refereeing more than unmarried referees. Married male referees, though, will probably be more likely to continue with refereeing than will married female referees.

Children. Some claim that adults with children in the household volunteer more than adults with no children (Goddard 1994; Wilson and Musick 1997; Wilson 2000). Others argue that children limit the amount of time available to volunteer (Gallagher and Gerstel 2001). Parents, with children at home, volunteer more, but this may differ by the age of the child. Young parents with young children volunteer less than parents of older children, possibly because older parents have a routine with their child that includes volunteering (Damico et al 1998:20, Robinson and Godbey 1997, Rotolo 2000; Rotolo and Wilson 2004, Wilson 2000, Wuthnow 1998:76). Additionally, married individuals with school-age children tend to volunteer more (Sundeen 1990).

Parents with young children may indicate more conflict between home and work because of the demands of younger children (Goddard 1994; Higgins, Duxbury, and Lee 1994). Similarly, women with children indicate more work-family conflict than do men with children (Higgins, Duxbury, and Lee 1994; Rotolo 2000). Overall, for men and women, the work-family conflict tends to decrease as children age (Higgins, Duxbury, and Lee 1994).

It is uncertain whether referees with children will continue with their participation or quit. It may be that having children connects the individual to soccer, people will referee in order to remain connected to the activities that their children are doing. However, it is also likely that if the children of the referee do not play soccer, the referee may feel more conflict and thus be more likely to quit. Finally, it is possible that referees

with older children may continue with refereeing because it is part of the routine of the family's life.

Cognitive Processes

The remainder of this literature review focuses on the mediating factors presented in Figure 1. Panel 2 presents the cognitive process and rewards and costs. This study begins by discussing the cognitive processes. Then it discusses how rewards and costs affect role exit. Next, Panel 3 presents commitment and identity centrality. The study explains how commitment affects role exit. Finally, the study concludes with a discussion of how identity centrality affects role exit.

Family support for refereeing. Much of the literature on family support for the athletic role addresses how families influence childhood athletic participation (Dukes and Coakley 2002; McPhail and Kirk 2006). Family support is important for adults involved in high intensity activities like sport (Stahl et al. 2001). People participate in high intensity activities if they feel that their family supports them (Stahl et al. 2001).

Ebaugh (1988) earlier described how family support affects the role exit process. For example, if an individual is thinking about leaving a role, family support for the role can put a stop to those doubts and encourage the individual to remain in the role. Similarly, if family and friends encourage the individual to drop out, they may do so (Ebaugh 1988). In terms of refereeing, referees may be more inclined to quit if they think their family does not support what they are doing.

Reflected appraisals. Reflected appraisals are the second component of the cognitive processes in Panel 2 of Figure 1. Reflected appraisals are an individual's belief about how well they think others see them in a role (Felson 1985). Reflected appraisals

are important to an individual's role-identity. For example, reflected and actual appraisals of individuals' attractiveness affect an individual's perception of their own attractiveness (Felson 1980). Similarly, athletes' perception of their game performance depends on both the actual and reflected appraisals of a coach (Felson 1981).

Reflected appraisals are important because they involve the perception of receiving or being denied support for an identity (McCall and Simmons 1978). Social support is any resource, whether physical, psychological, emotional, etc., drawn upon by the individual to reinforce or inhibit the identity (McCall and Simmons 1978). It is not necessarily the actual support that an individual receives that is important, but rather that social support is available (Sarason et al. 1991), more specifically, that the support is available from someone in the person's reference group (Ichiyama 1993). Social support for the referee identity comes from peers, coaches, fans, and assignor(s). Referees, who perceive that they receive social support from one of these sources, continue with refereeing.

Individuals who have support from peers continue in their jobs (Wright and Wright 1987). Among athletes, peer evaluations and comparisons are a major source of angst (Adler and Adler 1998). For example, if novice rock climbers perceive that other rock climbers think they are good, the novice climbers will continue with the role (Donnelly and Young 1988). Similarly, if peers do not think individuals are good at sports, they may drop out of the sport (Sleap 1998).

Athletes seek positive reflective appraisals from other athletes (Adler and Adler 1998). For example, players may feel rejected if they perceive that others do not think that he or she is good at the sport (Griffin 1998). The lack of positive evaluations and the

possible exclusion from the group may lead an athlete to reject the role (Burnett 1993; Weiss 1993; Weiss and Theeboom 1996). Referees may have some of the same perceptions. If referees do not think that other referees think they are good, they may quit the role rather than to stay and face potential rejection and exclusion from refereeing.

Coaches have enormous influence over players (Harrison, Azzarito, and Burden 2004; Mennesson 2000; Siegenthaler and Gonzalez 1997; Weiss and Barber 1995). Players who have problems with their coach drop out more, particularly if the coach spends more time with other individuals (Augustini and Trabel 1999). If a coach does not positively evaluate a player, he or she gets less playing time and may drop out of that sport (Siegenthaler and Gonzalez 1997).

Coaches can influence the calls that referees make on the field by harassing the referee (Jones et al. 2002). But does consistent negative feedback from coaches influence the referee's identity? Individuals have some control over the appraisals they internalize (Cast, Stets, and Burke 1999; Ichiyama 1993). Therefore, appraisals from coaches may have little if any effects on referee role exit.

Spectators at the college and professional level often harass referees through verbal jabs and disagreement. While verbal abuse is less common at youth games (where most refereeing occurs), there is still disagreement between fans and referees. But does disagreement affect a referee's identity? The fan-referee relationship is similar to the referee-coach relationship. Referees have control to accept or deny some of the perceived appraisals depending upon the significance of the reference group. In this case, fans are probably not a part of the reference group that referees draw their support and

appraisals from. Despite that referee may resist negative feedback, it is likely that increased verbal abuse will lead to a greater likelihood of role exit.

The assignor-referee relationship is similar to the employer-employee relationship. An assignor determines what level match a referee can officiate. Yet, unlike the employer-employee relationship, the referee can choose whether or not he or she wants to work. The assignor gives higher-level games to referees the assignor considers competent. Because of the assignors' position in the structure of refereeing, referees may perceive the assignor to have a negative opinion of the referee's performance. If referees perceive that the assignors do not think that they are good, then referees may quit.

Social Comparisons

Individuals may compare their ability against others because of a need for self-evaluation or to generate a common bond with others in the same situation (Festinger 1954:138, Helgeson and Mickelson 1995). But individuals do not evaluate themselves against everyone in a situation. Individuals tend to compare themselves to similar others (Festinger 1954; Saunders, Gastorf, and Mullen 1979). For example, a grade 8 referee will more likely compare himself or herself to other grade 8 referees rather than to a grade 2 referee.

Status characteristics theory, mentioned above, might explain how social comparisons affect status differences, particularly with gender. Previous evidence suggests that status differences (specifically gender differences) affect social comparisons (Cast, Stets, and Burke 1991). Thoits (1991) notes that lower-status individuals are subject to identity-related stressors more than higher-status individuals. Referees

compare a person's ability and their gender to others to determine who is best at refereeing. Since others may consider men better at refereeing because of their gender, it is likely that male referees will think that they are better at refereeing than female referees.

Social comparisons affect athletic role exit (Sleap 1998). If individuals perceive that they are not as good as other players on the team, they may quit (Sleap 1998). Similarly, those involved in a fitness program continue if they perceive that they got better at working out (Siegel et al. 1988; Wankel 1985). Referees, who believe that they are better at refereeing than others, will likely continue.

Gender may affect social comparisons and subsequent role exit. Because sport is an institution where masculinity often is reinforced at the expense of femininity (Hargreaves 1994), females in sports may not think that they are as good at refereeing as men and may be more likely to drop out. However, higher-status women referees (ones with a higher grade level) may not consider gender important because their high status (and perceived ability) negates gender.

Reward and Costs

Panel 2 of Figure 1 also deals with the rewards and costs that individuals perceive to be associated with the role. Rewards and costs and cognitive appraisals have no causal connection. As such, they are in the same panel to indicate two potential causes of role exit. Rewards and costs significantly affect whether individuals drop out of refereeing. Rewards are both intrinsic and extrinsic. Costs are financial, burnout, and abuse.

Rewards. Extrinsic rewards are symbolic items given to individuals who have done well (McCall and Simmons 1978). College letters or trophies are forms of extrinsic

rewards (Curry 1993). Rewards such as academic credit, work experience, or a stipend serves two functions for organizations – to publicly recognize good work and to enhance commitment by strengthening the bond between the individual and the organization (Cnaan and Amroffell 1994; Field and Johnson 1993). In refereeing, extrinsic rewards may include being named as an outstanding referee for the league, receiving a monetary reward for being a good referee, or being invited to referee a special soccer tournament.

Intrinsic rewards are positive psychological or emotional states that result when individuals perceive they do well (McCall and Simmons 1978). Often people join voluntary organizations because it feels good to help the community (Wilson and Musick 1999). Many rely on the pleasurable experience of giving back to the community as a reward for volunteering (Roberts and Devine 2004). However, since not all volunteering is done for altruistic reasons, some voluntary organizations use extrinsic rewards to keep individuals involved (Cnaan and Amroffell 1994).

Overall, both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards help individuals retain identities (McCall and Simmons 1978). Rewards reinforce how strong an identity is to the person while in turn reinforcing whether or not a person will exit the role (McCall and Simmons 1978). Referees who receive rewards are likely to continue with refereeing than those who do not receive rewards.

Financial impact of refereeing. Some roles entail costs to incumbents. For example, the costs in refereeing may include the cost of recertifying (approximately sixty dollars a year) and the uniform (upwards of \$150). The cost of participating in the role may affect one's identity associated with that role. For example, if an individual feels that the role costs too much financially, they may not consider the identity central to

whom they are as a person and are likely to exit the role (Chinman and Wandersman 1999; Rogers et al 1993; Schmitz and Schomaker 1994). If referees believe that the role is too financially costly, they may quit.

Burnout. Another potential cost to refereeing is burnout. Perlman and Hartman (1982) define burnout as having three components: emotional or physical exhaustion, lowered work productivity, and overdepersonalization. Burnout can determine whether or not a person continues with a role (Drake and Yadama 1996; Guerts, Schaufeli, and De Jonge 1998; Koeske and Koeske 1993). Research on burnout mainly uses the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) to examine the psychological factors leading to burnout (Maslach et al. 1996). However, MBI scale focuses on psychological factors with only little attention to given to social psychological factors and no controls for social structural variables (Halbesleben and Buckley 2004).

Social support and organizational factors affect burnout. Among school principals, a lack of support from teachers and dissent from parents leads to burnout (Friedman 2002). Organizational factors such as role overload (too many jobs to do), role ambiguity (unsure what the job requires), a lack of rewards, and a lack of appraisal from supervisors promotes burnout (Cordes and Dougherty 1993; Halbesleben and Buckley 2004; Janssen, Schaufeli, and Houkes 1999).

Athletes who maintained a high level of competition throughout their careers may burn out of their role (Sleap 1998). Competitive tennis players (high status individuals) indicate that they quit because of frustration, stress about competition, mental fatigue, boredom, and unhappiness; all measures of burnout (Allison and Meyer 1988). Among referees, a lack of support from the organization and others may cause burnout. Higher-

level referees who have become exhausted with refereeing may burnout more. In turn, referees who experience burnout may exit the role.

Commitment

Panel 3 of Figure 1 presents commitment and identity centrality. Commitment is a major component of the self-esteem model (Ervin and Stryker 2001). In terms of role exit, those more committed to the organization drop out less (Blau and Boal 1987).

While this study refers to commitment to an organization, the commitment is to the role-identity associated with the organization (Blau and Boal 1987). Two types of commitment affect role exit: interactional and affective commitment. Interactional commitment is the “extensivity (the number of persons as well as amount of time, energy, and resources involved) of the social network to which one relates by virtue of having that identity,” while affective commitment involves the emotional connections that an individual has with the identity (Ervin and Stryker 2001). Overall, the more committed individuals are to the identity, the more time people spend in the role (Curry and Weaner 1987:281).

Having a friend or family member involved in the role should keep people committed to the role. Among volunteers, the more friends that people have who are involved in the organization, the more individuals continue (Knoke 1981). Many individuals enter into voluntary organizations to meet friends and expand their social networks (Tschirhart et al. 2001). Similarly, the weak ties that individuals have with others draw people into volunteering (McPherson et al 1992; Wilson 2000).

Even more important, many organizations are homophilous with respect to demographic characteristics, keeping individuals involved in volunteer organizations

(McPherson et al 2001). For example, since sport is primarily a masculine institution and one that values younger persons, sporting organizations primarily consist of young men. Similarly, young men will likely commit to the organization more because they have connections with individuals who are similar to them (McPherson et al. 2001). However, if women have friends who play, these friendship ties may keep women involved (Bungum and Vincent 1997). For referees, having family members involved in soccer may increase commitment to refereeing, thus decreasing the likelihood of role exit.

But there is conflicting evidence about the how commitment to a role-identity affects the participation in an organization. Some argue that people continue to participate because they are committed to the organization (Knoke and Wood 1981, Kanter 1968). Others argue that the more commitment the organization tries to elicit from the individual, the less likely individuals will continue (Cress, McPherson, and Rotolo 1997). Role conflict likely pulls people out of organizations that require an extensive commitment. Individuals with role conflicts may not commit because other organizations and commitments establish competition that vies for individuals' time (Cress, McPherson, and Rotolo 1997). Thus, referees with competing identities may commit less to refereeing and subsequently quit.

The amount of training that individuals receive further connects individuals to the role. In terms of reducing role exit, more training increases commitment (Jamison 2003). Organizations that provide more training have fewer turnovers than those that provide little training (Martin 2003). But, organizations that require too much training have more turnover than those that provide a moderate amount of training (Martin 2003).

More training increases the centrality that an individual has to the role. Specifically, more training will invest the person more in the role making it more likely that the person will want to continue. Thus, more training likely commits the referee to the organization, making the identity central to the person and reducing the likelihood of role exit.

Identity Centrality

Finally, Panel 3 of Figure 1 presents identity centrality. Identity centrality refers to how important an individual considers a role-identity to who they are as a person. Whether a person retains a role-identity depends partly on its centrality (Stryker and Serpe 1994). The more important the role-identity is to a person's sense of who they are, the more likely the individual will continue in the role (Charng, Piliavin, and Callero 1988). Negative events threaten a central identity more than events that happen to a non-central identity (Settles 2004; Thoits 1991). Negative events result from organizational pressures, a lack of social support, lack of rewards, or too many costs associated with the role, or a lack of commitment.

Stress affects the centrality of an identity. The more important an identity is to people (as well as the more committed people are to the identity), the more stress people feel when confronted with threats to that identity (Marcussen, Ritter, and Safron 2004). For example, women who place importance on the couple identity feel more distressed after the death of a husband (DeGarmo and Kitson 1996). However, there is evidence that the centrality of an identity actually buffers the negative effects of events such as discrimination (Branscombe et al. 1999; Settles 2004).

Commitment affects identity centrality. Those committed to a role-identity consider that identity central (Cassidy and Trew 2001). For example, the relationship between student-identity and role performance depends on one's commitment to the role-identity (Burke and Reitzes 1991). In turn, identity centrality predicts role performance (or role exit). For example, one's investment in work or family roles depends on how central an identity is to the person (Lobel 1991; Reitzes and Mutran 2002). When individuals cannot maintain role-identities central to who they are as a person, stress results. For example, women scientists, who find conflict between their identity as a woman and their identity as a scientist, report lower performance (Settles 2004).

Individuals, who do not consider sport central to who they are as a person, often quit sporting activities. For example, competitive female tennis players may drop out if they no longer have an identity as a tennis player (Allison and Meyer 1988). High school athletes with a high athletic identity are more likely to expect that they will play in college or the pros (Wiechman and Williams 1997). Similarly, Slovene athletes who have a central athletic identity find it harder to terminate their athletic role than do non-athletes (Erpic et al. 2004).

When an athletic identity is important to the individual, many elite athletes will reduce or altogether abandon other roles that conflict (Adler and Adler 1987). The more central the athletic role is to the individual, the more the individual will participate in the role (Curry and Weaner 1987). Among female swimmers, a central identity decreases drop out rates (Brown 1983).

Age also predicts commitment and identity centrality. In voluntary organizations, young adults transitioning into college tend to drop many of their volunteering activities

from high school, indicating that volunteering is simply not a “high priority” (Hustinx et al. 2005; Nichols et al. 2005). Older adults tend to commit more to voluntary organizations and remain in voluntary organizations longer; though it is unknown whether older adults have a central volunteer identity (Wilson and Musick 1999).

There seems to be some overlap between the concepts of role-identity salience and identity centrality. Callero (1985) reviews different terminology for the relative importance of an identity for the sense of self: Rosenberg (1979) calls it psychological centrality while Heiss (1981) calls it role commitment. Stryker and Serpe (1994) confirm this difference when they argue that researchers should use both identity centrality and identity salience. I use identity centrality since this research examines how the centrality of an identity affects role exit. Referees with a central refereeing identity quit less than those for whom refereeing is not a central identity.

Hypotheses

Based upon the research above, I hypothesize the following relationships in the model in Figure 1. I present hypotheses in table form. A plus sign indicates a positive relationship between the independent and dependent variables. A negative sign indicates an inverse relationship between independent and dependent variables. A question mark indicates an uncertain relationship.

First, the background factors influence role exit, cognitive processes, and rewards and costs.

“Table 1 About Here”

Second, the background factors influence commitment and identity centrality.

“Table 2 About Here”

Several mediating relationships are hypothesized.

1. Reflected appraisals, family support, and social comparisons mediate the relationship between the background factors and whether a referee quits refereeing.
2. Commitment mediates the relationship between the background factors and whether a referee quits refereeing.
3. Rewards/costs mediate the relationship between the background factors and commitment.
4. Cognitive processes mediate the relationship between the background factors and identity centrality.
5. Rewards/Costs and commitment mediate the relationship between the background factors and identity centrality.
6. Cognitive processes, rewards/costs, and commitment mediate the relationship between the background factors and identity centrality.
7. Cognitive processes and identity centrality mediate the relationship between background factors and role exit.
8. Commitment and identity centrality mediate the relationship between the background factors and role exit.
9. Rewards/costs, commitment, and identity centrality mediate the relationship between the background factors and role exit.
10. Cognitive processes, rewards/costs, commitment, and identity centrality mediate the relationship between the background factors and role exit.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

Sample

The survey samples referees certified for the year 2005 and those who did not re-certify for 2003, 2004, or 2005 from the Commonwealth of Virginia and the District of Columbia. The project has the sponsorship of the Metro DC-Virginia State Referee Program (MDCVSRP), which governs refereeing activity within the state of Virginia and the District of Columbia and maintains a database of all USSF certified soccer referees. Currently, there are nearly 5400 referees in the Virginia and Washington D.C. certified by the USSF¹. Referees range in age from 13 to 70. About half of all referees are under the age of 18 and were excluded from this survey.

I limited the sample of former referees to those who stopped refereeing within the last two years. Limiting the sample to two years ensured that contact information was accurate. Other than changes in their email address, most of the contact information should have been current. Limiting the sample to the last two years also ensured that individuals could better recall their refereeing experience.

Contact information was obtained from the Metro DC-Virginia State Referee Program. Before granting access, the State Referee Program approved the instrument and all forms of contact with the respondents. MDCVSRP provided contact information for the years 2002, 2003, 2004, and 2005.

¹ Most games in the state of Virginia are USSF sanctioned games and require a USSF certified referee to officiate the game. However, high school and college games require referees to certify through their organizations. Though many referees officiate both USSF sanctioned games and high school and college games, a referee must certify through all organizations, in order to referee those particular types of games. I have chosen USSF certified referees as they make up the majority of all referees in Virginia and Washington D.C.

Of the 5,283 emails sent out with the survey, 2,511 were returned with invalid email addresses (about 48% of all emails). Only 2,772 emails were actually sent. Of those, 940 individuals responded. Therefore, of all emails initially sent out, 17.7% were returned completed. However, of those that actually went through to respondents' emails, 34% were returned completed.

Protocol

Because of limitations in the web-survey software, I sent out one email that contained two links, a survey for current referees and a survey of former referees. I distributed the survey via e-mail using the e-mail addresses obtained from the database of referees. Following Dillman (1999), approximately two days before the distribution of the survey, I notified all potential respondents via e-mail that they would receive a survey. Those who did not have a valid email address were dropped from the survey. On the day that I distributed the survey, I sent all potential respondents an email directing them to a website where they completed an online survey about their experiences as a referee. One week after sending out the survey, I sent another notice via email to those who had not completed the survey asking them to go to the website and complete the survey within the next week.

To obtain informed consent from each respondent, a brief paragraph preceded the survey. This paragraph was in the form of an informed consent letter displayed for the respondent on a page before the survey. This letter is located with the survey in Appendix A². Respondents who agreed with the conditions clicked on an icon indicating their agreement and then proceeded with the survey.

² All institutional review board documents, including approval certificates, are located in Appendix A.

I constructed the survey using web-based survey software available from Virginia Tech. As a pre-test, I sent the survey to 10 individuals (not all referees). They filled out the survey and provided feedback about what questions they did and did not understand. From this, I constructed the final survey and put it into website format.

Measures

Dependent variable. I measured role exit by asking whether or not an individual was currently certified as a USSF referee. Former referees were those who are no longer certified. Current referees were those still certified. I asked referees “As of 2005, are you certified as a United State Soccer Federation (USSF) certified referee?” (0=yes, 1=no).

*Role-set background factors.*³ Four questions measured perceived league and assignor support and treatment. The first two measures captured the perceived level of support and treatment from the leagues while the other measures tapped the perceived level of support and treatment by the assignor. Support by soccer leagues was measured by asking: “The soccer leagues that I work for support my decisions as a referee.” Treatment by the soccer leagues was measured by asking: “The soccer leagues that I work for treat me well as a referee” (strongly disagree=0, disagree=1, don’t know=2, agree=3, strongly agree=4). I created a scale by adding these two variables into a general measure of league support and treatment and dividing by two to create a scale using the standard above (strongly disagree=0, disagree=1, don’t know=2, agree=3, strongly agree=4). This measure was broad enough that referees may interpret “support” in any way that they wish.

³ Questions listed here are written in the present tense and will be those used for the current referee survey. Questions for the former referees are written in past tense. These questions can be found in Appendix B.

The second two measures tapped perceived treatment and support from the assignor. Treatment was measured by asking: “*The assignors whom I work for support my decisions as a referee.*” Support was measured by asking “*The assignors whom I work for treat me well as a referee*” (strongly disagree=0, disagree=1, don’t know=2, agree=3, strongly agree=4). Like the league support and treatment variable above, I created a scale by adding these two measures together and dividing by 2 to create a variable of assignor support/treatment using the same scale as above (strongly disagree=0, disagree=1, don’t know=2, agree=3, strongly agree=4).

I tapped perceived organizational change, specifically negative perceptions of change by asking: “*The soccer leagues I work for have changed in ways that I do not like.*” Here, I created a variable of whether a referee believed that a league had changed or not (0=no league change, 1=league change). League change was recoded to reflect a dichotomy of whether or not referees felt that the leagues they worked for had changed in a negative way. Missing values were inferred as referees who felt that there was no change.

Role conflict was measured by examining the extent that refereeing interfered with other roles. Specifically, I asked: “*Refereeing interferes with other duties in my life*” (strongly disagree=0, disagree=1, agree=2, strongly agree=3).

A brief statement precedes the measurement of how long a person was unable to referee because of an injury. “The next question is for referees who have been injured or temporarily disabled in the past five years. If you have not been injured or temporarily disabled enough in the past five years that you could not referee, please click “continue” and move to the next question. If you have been injured or temporarily disabled in the

past five years enough that you could not referee, please answer the following question.”

The respondent was asked, “*How long were you unable to referee because of an injury or temporary disability?*” (0=less than 1 month, 1=1-6 months, 2=7-12 months, 3=more than a year, 4=no injury). With the data from this variable, I created a variable of whether or not person had been injured (0=no injury, 1=injury). If individuals indicated that they had no injury they were labeled as “0.” Those who had any type of injury within the last 5 years were labeled “1.”

To measure whether referees’ expectations about refereeing matched the reality of what refereeing, referees were asked: “*When you first started to referee, how did refereeing compare to your expectations?*” (0=it was worse than I expected, 1=it was about what I expected, 2=it was better than I expected).

To measure a referee’s initial doubts, referees were asked to think about how serious their doubts were about becoming a referee. “*Before you started refereeing, how serious were your doubts about refereeing?*” (0=I had no doubts whatsoever, 1=not serious, at all, 2=mildly serious, 3=very serious).

Some referees may referee in a league that requires someone from each team to referee. These referees may have felt forced into refereeing. To measure whether the decision to referee was one’s own or whether the referee felt forced to become a referee, referees were asked: “*I feel that I was forced to become a referee*” (0=strongly disagree, 1=disagree, 2=agree, 3=strongly agree).

Social characteristic background factors. Sex was measured by asking: “Your sex?” (0=male, 1=female). Age is difficult to measure because many respondents are reluctant to reveal their age (Dillman 1999). Dillman (1999) suggests that respondents

are more willing to answer if age is asked indirectly by asking a respondent's year of birth. Respondents were asked, "In what year were you born?" This variable was left continuous variable. However, all respondents age 67 or older were grouped into the category for respondents age 67.

The next variable asked referees about their marital status. "*What is your marital status?*" (0=not married and not living with a partner, 1=not married and living with a partner, 2=married). I recoded this variable into a dummy variable of those who were married and unmarried (married = 0, unmarried = 1).

The last background factor variable asked about the number of children that a referee had between the ages of 0 and 6, 7 and 12, and 13 and 18. There are three questions involved: "*How many children do you have in each age group?*" These variables were left continuous.

Cognitive Processes. Reflected appraisals, family support, and social comparisons make up the first set of mediating factors. The measures of reflected appraisals were adapted from Felson's (1985) measurement of whether children believe other children think they were attractive. It captured the reflected appraisals of significant people who interacted with a referee: particularly coaches, fans, fellow referees, and assignors. Referees were asked in separate questions, "*Coaches (fans, other referees, my assignors, players) think that I am a good referee*" (0=strongly disagree, 1=disagree, 2=agree, 3=strongly agree). I combined all the respondents who did not answer the question into the category "don't know." Based upon these questions, I created a scale that combined the appraisals into one variable. I multiplied each of the variables together. Since each has five potential responses, I then divided the result of

the multiplication by 5 to create the appraisals variable. This appraisals variable has a Chronbach's alpha of .80. The scale utilizes the following ranges (0=strongly disagree, 1=disagree, 2= don't know, 3=agree, 4=strongly agree).

The second question asked referees about the support from their family for refereeing. Family support was measured by asking, "*My family or significant other is in favor of my refereeing*" (0=strongly disagree, 1=disagree, 2=agree, 3=strongly agree).

Social comparisons were one's perceptions of their own refereeing competence as compared to others (Festinger 1954). To measure social comparisons, referees were asked, "*Compared to other referees, I feel that I am a good referee*" (0=strongly disagree, 1=disagree, 2=agree, 3=strongly agree).

Rewards and costs. Rewards can be both intrinsic and extrinsic (McCall and Simmons 1978). The intrinsic reward of refereeing was measured by asking, "*Refereeing is rewarding to me*" (0=strongly disagree, 1=disagree, 2=agree, 3=strongly agree).

Extrinsic rewards were measured with three questions. "*Have you ever received any financial reward for being a good referee?*" "*Have you ever been nominated as an outstanding referee for a league?*" and "*Have you ever been rewarded for good refereeing with an invitation to a special tournament (such as the State Cup, a Regional or National Championship)?*" (0=no, 1=yes).

The costs of refereeing were measured with four questions. One variable captured the perceived financial impact of refereeing. Referees were asked: "*How does refereeing affect your financial situation?*" (0=it improves it greatly, 1=it improves it somewhat, 2=it has no impact, 3=it costs me some money, 4=it costs me a lot of money). The second and third measures tapped abuse as a cost to the referee. To measure verbal

abuse, referees are asked: “*Have you ever been verbally harassed by a coach, player, parent, or fan while refereeing?*” (0=no, 1=yes). To measure physical abuse, referees are asked: “*Have you ever been physically assaulted by a coach, player, parent, or fan while refereeing?*” (0=no, 1=yes). Unfortunately, I found that nearly 90% of all referees indicate that they had been physically abused. This is contrary to statements from those involved in the soccer refereeing organization that that only about 20% of all referees have been physically abused. Since there was likely a problem with the question, it was eliminated from further analysis, though this result suggests that future research may be necessary. Thus, the final analysis only included verbal abuse.

Measures of burnout captured whether refereeing was emotionally fulfilling or draining to referees. Four questions were adapted from Erickson and Ritter’s (2001) scale: “*I feel emotionally drained from refereeing,*” “*I don’t enjoy having to referee,*” “*Refereeing really puts a lot of strain on me,*” “*I feel burnt out by refereeing,*” (0= never feel this way at all, 1=less than once a month, 2=about once a month, 3=about once a week, 4=every time I referee). I combined each of these variables into one “burnout” scale that captures the extent of burnout that the individual associates with refereeing. To combine these variables, I multiplied each of the variables and then divided by 5 to create the burnout scale. The Chronbach’s alpha for the scale was .86. The categories for the scale follow the same range as the original four variables (0= never feel this way at all, 1=less than once a month, 2=about once a month, 3=about once a week, 4=every time I referee).

Commitment. The next set of questions tapped the level of commitment a referee had to the role. Commitment was measured as interactional commitment (Ervin &

Stryker 2001). Interactional commitment was measured with five questions. First, referees were asked about the friends they met through refereeing: “*I have met many of my good friends through refereeing*” (0=strongly disagree, 1=disagree, 2=agree, 3=strongly agree). Second, commitment was measured by asking, “*Do you currently have a family member in your household who plays soccer?*” (0=no, 1=yes).

Third, commitment was measured by asking about the amount of training that referees had, “*How much referee training (including camps, classes, etc.) have you had in the past year?*” (0=none, 1=6 hours or less, 2=7 to 10 hours, 3=11-20 hours, 4=more than 20 hours). I recoded this variable by taking the midpoint of each variable in order to make it continuous (0 = 0 hours of training, 6 hours or less = 3 hours of training, 7 to 10 hours of training = 8.5 hours of training, 11 to 20 hours of training = 15 hours of training, and more than 20 hours = 25 hours of training).

Fourth, commitment was measured by asking about the length of time spent as referees, “*How long have you been a referee?*” (0-1.0 years, 1.1-2.0 years, 2.1-3.0 years, 3.1-4.0 years, 4.1-5.0 years, 5.1-6.0 years, 6.1 to 7.0 years, 7.1 to 8.0 years, 8.1 to 9.0 years, 9.1-10.0 years, more than 10 years). I recoded this variable to the midpoint of each category in order to make the variable continuous (0-1.0 years=.5, 1.1-2.0 years=1.5, 2.1-3.0 years=2.5, 3.1-4.0 years=3.5, 4.1-5.0 years=4.5, 5.1-6.0 years=5.5, 6.1 to 7.0 years=6.5, 7.1 to 8.0 years=7.5, 8.1 to 9.0 years=8.5, 9.1-10.0 years=9.5, more than 10 years=15). Finally, commitment was measured by asking referees’ grade level, “*What is your referee grade level*” (1,2,3,4,5,6,7, 8, and 12). Grades 1-7 we left the same. However, I collapsed grades 8 and 12 into one category since the state organization considers this designation a “recreational referee.” After establishing these categories, I

then created a dummy variable from this measure. Senior referees were those grades 1 through 7, entry-level referees were those either grade 8 or grade 12 (0 = grades 8 through 12, 1 = grades 1-7).

Identity Centrality. Identity centrality was measured by asking, “*On a scale from 0 to 10, with 0 being not at all important and 10 being most important, how important is refereeing for who you are as a person?*”

Because there is no research on the role exit of referees, open-ended questions were provided to allow referees to write in their own reasons why they continue to referee or why they have dropped out. Individuals who are no longer refereeing were asked the open-ended question: “*What are some reasons that you decided to quit refereeing?*” Individuals who are still refereeing were asked the open-ended question, “*What is it about refereeing that keeps you coming back?*”

Plan of Analysis

I began by running frequencies to get the mean and standard deviations of all variables. Next, I used Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression to determine the effect of the background factors on the cognitive processes. Next, I used a combination of OLS and logistic regression to determine the effect of the background factors on rewards/costs. Then, I used OLS regression to determine the effect of the background factors on commitment controlling for rewards/costs. Next, I used OLS regression to determine the effect of the background factors on identity centrality controlling for the cognitive processes. Then, I used OLS regression to determine the effect of the background factors on identity centrality controlling for rewards/costs and commitment. Finally, I used OLS

regression to determine the effect of the background factors on identity centrality controlling for the cognitive processes, rewards/costs, and commitment.

I then estimated the mediating effects of the model on role exit. I began by using logistic regression to determine the effect of the background factors on role exit. I then used logistic regression to determine the effect of the background factors on role exit controlling for the cognitive processes and identity centrality. Next, I used logistic regression to determine the effect of the background factors on role exit controlling for commitment and identity centrality. Then, I used logistic regression to determine the effect of the background factors on role exit controlling for rewards/costs, commitment, and identity centrality. Finally, I used logistic regression to determine the effect of the background factors on role exit controlling for the cognitive processes, rewards/costs, commitment, and identity centrality.

The literature mentions several potential interaction effects. Analysis was run examining how gender and age interacted with other background factors as well as with identity processes. However, those results produced no significant interaction effects. Therefore, these analyses were excluded from the final results.

To analyze the open-ended responses, I separated out the responses of those who are no longer certified from those who are still certified. From here, using computer software I randomly selected 25% of the responses from those certified and 25% of the responses from those not certified. I then briefly examined each of those responses to determine what themes emerged from the data (Glaser and Strauss 1967).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Table 3 gives the descriptive statistics for all variables in the model. Frequencies are not listed but described below. Of the 940 individuals who filled out the survey, 716 (76.2%) were current referees while 224 (23.8%) were former referees.

“Table 3 About Here”

Of the role-set background factors, league support and treatment and assignor support and treatment showed little variation. Current and former referees tended to agree that the leagues that they worked for supported and treated them well (mean=2.95). In analysis not shown, 8% of the referees indicated that they strongly disagreed or disagreed that the leagues they worked for supported and treated them well, 48.1% didn't know, while 44% agreed or strongly agreed that the leagues that they work for supported and treated them well. Current and former referees tended to agree that assignors supported and treated them well (mean = 3.41). Only 5.5% indicated that they strongly disagreed or disagreed that the assignors they worked for supported and treated them well, 35.5% didn't know, while 58.9% agreed or strongly agreed that the assignors they worked for supported and treated them well.

Most referees (66.7%) indicated that the leagues they worked had not changed (mean = .33), while 32.8% indicated that the leagues they worked for had changed in a way that they did not like. On average, referees indicated that refereeing did not interfere with other duties in their life (mean=1.46). About 52.7% strongly disagreed or disagreed

that refereeing interfered with other duties in their life, while 47.3% agreed or strongly agreed.

In terms of referees' expectations about refereeing, 12.1% indicated that refereeing was worse than they expected, while 67.3% thought it was about what they expected and 20.5% thought it was better than what they expected. Most referees had only minimal doubts about refereeing; 24% had no doubts whatsoever about refereeing. For 44.3% the doubts were not serious at all, for 27.8% the doubts were mildly serious, and for 3.8% the doubts were very serious. Only 3.2% of current and former referees agreed or strongly agreed that they were forced to become a referee, while 69.9% strongly disagreed and 26.9% disagreed that they felt forced to become a referee. Finally, among the role-set background factors, injuries were reported as a dichotomous variable of whether or not a referee had ever been injured or not. Of all referees, 28% had an injury in the past 5 years, while 72.3% had never been injured.

Among the social characteristic background factors, about 88% of respondents were male and 11% were female. On average, referees were about 43 years old. About 25% of all referees were unmarried while 75% were married. In terms of the number of children that referees have between the ages of 0 and 6, 91.2% had no children, 6.9% had one child, and 1.9% had 2 or more children. In terms of the number of children that referees had between the ages of 7 and 12, 80.2% had no children, 14.3% had 1 child, and 5.9% had 2 or more children. Finally, in terms of the number of children that referees had between the ages of 13 and 18, 55.6% had no children, 22.9% had one child, 18.9% had 2 children, and 2.5% had 3 or more children.

The measures of cognitive processes included reflected appraisals, family support for refereeing, and social comparisons. Most referees indicated that they thought others saw them as good at refereeing (mean = 3.02). In fact, only 2.7% disagreed that they thought others saw them as good at refereeing, 17.9% did not know, 79.4% agreed or strongly agreed that they thought others saw them as good at refereeing.

The majority of referees thought that their families or significant others supported their refereeing (mean = 2.16). Only 11.9% either strongly disagreed or disagreed that their families supported their refereeing, while 88.1% agreed or strongly agreed. Of referees' social comparisons, most referees thought that compared to others they were good referees (mean = 2.23). Only 5.6% referees either strongly disagreed or disagreed that they were good referees compared to others, 94.4% agreed or strongly agreed that they were good compared to others.

In terms of rewards, on average referees found refereeing an intrinsically rewarding experience (mean = 2.32). Only 7.2% strongly disagreed or disagreed that refereeing was intrinsically rewarding, while 92.8% strongly agreed or agreed that refereeing was intrinsically rewarding. Referees found refereeing rewarding despite the fact that few had ever received any type of extrinsic reward. Though referees are paid, only 12.1% had ever received an extra financial reward, only 11.3% had ever been named as an outstanding referee for a league, and only 30.8% had ever received an invitation to a special tournament.

In terms of the costs of refereeing, refereeing had little perceived effect on referees' financial situation. On average, refereeing helped their financial situation only somewhat (mean = 1.68). Only 4.4% indicated that refereeing improved their financial

situation greatly, 35.1% indicated it improved their financial situation somewhat, 48.9% stated that it had no impact, and 11.6% indicated that it either cost some or a lot of money.

On average, most referees indicated little burnout from refereeing (mean = .92). About 51.7% never had feelings of burnt out, 34% indicated burnout less than once a month, 11.3% indicated burnout about once a month, 2.3% indicated burnout about once a week, and .6% indicated burnout every time they refereed. However, 90.2% had endured some form of verbal abuse.

Five measures tapped commitment. First, I collapsed the grade variable into two categories called entry-level (0 = grades 8 and 12), and senior referees (1 = 1-7). Of the referees, 80% were entry-level referees, while only 20% were senior-level referees. Referees officiated on average a little more than 7 years (mean = 7.15). Of the referees, 51.2% indicated that they strongly disagreed or disagreed that they had met friends through refereeing, while 48.8% agreed or strongly agreed that they had met friends through refereeing. Of all referees, 61.5% indicated that they had a member of their household who played soccer. Referees had, on average about 9 hours of training a year; 6.7% had no training in the past year, 37.8% had between 1 and 6 hours, 26.8% had between 7 and 10 hours of training, 16.8% had between 11 and 20 hours of training, and 11.9% had more than 20 hours of training.

Finally, refereeing did not tend to be high in terms of the importance that refereeing had to who the individual was as a person (mean = 5.29 on a scale of 1 to 10). These results show that several variables lack variation. Though these variables are still

included in the analysis, it is likely that the lack of variation may lower the explanatory power of the variable.

Hypotheses Testing

The next section tests the hypothesized relationships among the background factors and the various components in the model. OLS and logistic regression were used to determine the effect the background factors and identity process had on the various components in the model.

“Table 4 About Here”

Table 4 presents OLS regressions of the effect of the background factors on the cognitive processes of reflected appraisals, family support for refereeing, and social comparisons. In predicting reflected appraisals, most of the relationships were in the predicted direction. The more referees thought that the leagues they worked for supported and treated them well, the more favorable the reflected appraisals. The more referees found refereeing better than expected, the more favorable the reflected appraisals. The more doubts referees had about refereeing, the less favorable the reflected appraisals. Referees who felt forced to become a referee had less favorable reflected appraisals. However, contrary to the prediction, referees who had had an injury had more favorable reflected appraisals.

Among social characteristics, the more children referees had between the ages 7 to 12, the more favorable the reflected appraisals. Past literature also indicated a strong relationship between sex and age and reflected appraisals. However, sex and age did not significantly predict reflected appraisals of referees. Overall the background factors explained about 13% of the variation in reflected appraisals.

All significant effects of background factors on referees' perceptions of support from family or significant others for the refereeing confirmed predictions. Among the role-set factors, the more referees perceived that their assignor supported and treated them well, the more referees perceived family support for refereeing. The greater the role conflict over refereeing and the more referees felt that they were forced to become a referee, the less perceived family support for refereeing.

Among the social characteristics, the more children referees had between the ages of 0 and 6 and between 13 and 18, the less perceived family support for their refereeing. The background factors explained about 18% of the variation in family or significant other support for refereeing.

Finally, most of the relationships between the background factors and social comparisons were in the predicted direction. Among the role-set factors, the more referees' expectations about refereeing were met the more favorably they compared themselves to others. Also, the more doubts referees had about refereeing and the more referees felt forced to become a referee; the less favorably they compared themselves to others. Injury had an effect opposite that hypothesized. Referees who had had an injury considered themselves better referees than those who had no injury.

Among the social characteristics, and unlike the reflected appraisals, gender was significant. Women saw themselves less favorably as referees than men. Overall, the background factors explained about 10% of the variation in social comparisons.

“Table 5 About Here”

Table 5 presents both OLS and logistic regressions of the effect of the background factors on rewards and costs. First, with respect to whether referees consider refereeing

intrinsically rewarding, all significant relationships except for the effect of injuries on intrinsic rewards are as hypothesized. The more referees perceived that the assignors and leagues supported and treated them well, the more they found refereeing rewarding. The greater the perceptions of role conflict and the more the referees felt forced to become a referee, the less they found rewarding. The more referees' expectations about refereeing were met, the more rewarding refereeing was. However, contrary to prediction, referees who had had an injury found refereeing more rewarding than those who had not had an injury. Refereeing was less rewarding for women than it was for men. Overall, the background factors explained about 23% of the variation in whether or not referees thought that refereeing was rewarding.

The next sets of measures are whether or not referees received extrinsic rewards. With respect to whether or not a referee received an invitation to a special tournament, the results showed that, contrary to the hypothesis, referees who felt that the leagues they worked for supported and treated them well were about 19% less likely to have been invited to a special tournament than those who did not feel that the leagues they worked for supported and treated them well. However, as predicted, referees who agreed that the leagues they worked for had changed in a way they did not like were about 31% less likely to have been invited to a tournament than those who disagreed that the leagues they worked for supported and treated them well.

Contrary to predictions, referees who experienced role conflict were about 1.28 times more likely to have been invited to a tournament than those who disagreed that refereeing interfered with other duties in their lives. As expected, referees who stated that refereeing was about what they expected, were about 1.6 times more likely to have

been invited to a tournament than those who said refereeing was worse than what they expected. As hypothesized, referees who agreed that they felt forced to become a referee were about 46% less likely to have been invited to a tournament than those who disagreed that they felt forced to become a referee.

Contrary to predictions, those who had an injury were actually about 2.1 times more likely to have been invited to a tournament than those who had not been injured. Among social characteristics, for each additional child referees had between the ages of 13 and 18, referees were about 43% less likely to have been invited to a tournament. Overall, the background factors explained about 13% of the variation in whether or not a referee had been invited to a special tournament.

Next, Table 5 presents logistic regression results of the effect of the background factors on whether or not an individual was named as an outstanding referee. Among the role-set factors, referees with an injury were about 1.7 times more likely to be named an outstanding referee than those without an injury, contrary to predictions. However, referees who thought refereeing was about what they expected were about 1.9 times more likely to be named an outstanding referee than were those who thought refereeing was worse than what they expected.

Among the social characteristics, for each additional child a referee had between the ages of 7 and 12, referees were about 69% less likely to be named an outstanding referee. The background variables explained only about 5% of the variation in whether or not a person was named as an outstanding refereeing in a league.

Next, Table 5 presents logistic regression results of the effect of the background factors on whether or not a referee received an extra financial reward for refereeing.

Among the role-set factors and as expected, referees who thought refereeing was about what they expected were about 1.8 times more likely to have received a monetary reward for refereeing than those who thought refereeing was worse than what they expected. Similarly, referees who felt forced to become a referee were about 1.44 times more likely to have received a monetary reward than referees who did not feel forced to become a referee. However, contrary to expectations, referees with an injury were about 1.66 times more likely to have received a monetary reward than those with no injury. Overall, the background factors explained only about 3% of the variation in whether or not an individual had received a monetary reward or not.

Next, Table 5 presents the effect of the background factors on the costs of refereeing. With respect to whether or not a referee had been verbally abused, as expected, league support decreased the likelihood of being verbally abused by about 40%. Contrary to the hypothesis though, referees who agreed that they were forced to become a referee were about 44% less likely to say that they were verbally abused than referees who disagreed that they were forced to become a referee.

Among the social characteristics, each additional child ages 7 to 12 and 13 to 18 decreased the likelihood of being verbally abuse by about 38% and 30%, respectively. Though number of children predicts verbal abuse, I am uncertain how having more children can mean more verbal abuse. It is possible that this is a spurious relationship that other, untapped measures, may account for. The background factors explained only about 5% of the variation in whether or not a referee had been verbally abused.

Next, Table 5 presents the OLS regression results of the effect of the background factors on the financial impact of refereeing. All significant results were in the predicted

direction. Among the role-set factors, the greater the role conflict and the more referees felt forced into becoming a referee, the more referees thought that refereeing cost them financially. Similarly, the more referees' expectations about refereeing were met, the less referees thought that refereeing cost them financially.

Among the social characteristic background factors, as referees aged, they were more likely to think that refereeing cost them financially. Additionally, as expected, married referees thought that refereeing costs them more financially than did unmarried referees. The background factors explained about 19% of the variation in the financial impact of refereeing.

Finally, Table 5 presents OLS regression results of the effect of the background factors on burnout. All significant variables except for age were in the predicted direction. Among the role-set factors, the more referees thought that the leagues they worked for supported and treated them well, the less often referees felt burnt out. The more referees' expectations about refereeing were met, the less often referees felt burnt out. Similarly, the more role conflict referees had, the greater the doubts the referee had about refereeing, and the more referees felt forced to become a referee, the more often referees felt burnt out from refereeing.

Among the social characteristics the more children referees had between the ages 7 to 12; the less often they feel burnt out. However, contrary to hypotheses, as referees aged they feel burnt out less often. The background factors explained about 21% of the variation in burnout among referees.

“Table 6 About Here”

Tables 6 through 9 present the results of the effect of the background factors and rewards and costs on commitment. Model 1 of Table 6 presents the OLS regressions of the effect of the background factors on how long a referee has officiated. Among the role-set factors, the more referees agreed that the leagues they worked for changed negatively, the less years spent as referees. However, contrary to expectation, referees who agreed that the leagues they worked for supported and treated them well actually spent fewer years as referees. Referees whose expectations about refereeing were met spent more years as referees than those whose expectations were not met. Referees who had more doubts about refereeing spent fewer years as referees than those with few doubts. Referees who felt forced to become referees spent fewer years as referees than those who did not feel forced to become referees. However, contrary to the hypotheses, those with an injury actually spent more years as referees than those without an injury.

Among the social characteristics, and as predicted, the older the referees, the fewer years spent as referees. Similarly, the more children referees have between ages 7 to 12 and between 13 to 18 the fewer years spent as referees. Again, the background factors explained much of the variation in the length of time that referees spent as referees, about 28%.

Model 2 of Table 6 adds rewards and costs. As expected, the more rewarding refereeing was, the more years spent as a referee. Similarly, referees who had been invited to a tournament and referees who had been named good referees spent more years refereeing. However, contrary to expectations, referees who had endured some verbal abuse, and referees who felt burnt out, spent more years as referees.

Rewards and costs did partially explain the relationship between some of the background factors and number of years spent as referees. The effects of league support and treatment and feeling forced to become a referee were completely explained by rewards and costs. Adding rewards and costs partially explained the effect of referees' expectations about refereeing, and the number of children between the ages 7 to 12 on length of time as a referee. Referees' expectations and the number of children referees have between the ages of 7 and 12 still affect the length of time referees officiate.

Adding rewards and costs did not change how organizational change, age, having an injury, and having children between the ages of 13 and 18 affected the length of time as a referee. Finally, when rewards and costs were added, having initial doubts was more significant. When rewards and costs were included along with the background factors an additional 10% of the variation (38% total) in the number of years spent officiating was explained.

“Table 7 About Here”

Table 7 presents OLS regressions of the effects of the background factors and rewards and costs on the number of hours of training that a referee received in the past year. Model 1 of Table 7 presents the results of the direct relationship between the background factors and the number of hours of training received last year. Among the role-set factors and as expected, the more referees' expectations were met, the more hours of training referees received last year. Also as expected, the more referees felt forced to become a referee, the fewer hours of training they received last year. Contrary to hypotheses, referees who had an injury had more training last year than those without an injury.

In terms of the social characteristics and as expected, married individuals received more hours of training last year than did unmarried individuals. The more children referees had between the ages of 13 and 18, the fewer hours of training the referee received. The background factors alone explained about 5% of the variation in the amount of training referees received last year.

Model 2 of Table 7 presents OLS regressions of the relationship between the background factors and rewards and costs on the number of hours of training. Of the significant rewards and costs factors, as expected, the more referees agreed that refereeing was rewarding, the more hours of training they received last year. Referees who received an extra financial reward and those that received an invitation to a special tournament received more hours of training last year. Finally, opposite hypothesized, the more referees felt refereeing had financial costs, and the more hours of training they received.

Adding rewards and costs in Model 2 of Table 7, partially or completely explained all the significant background factors. Expectations about refereeing, having an injury, marital status, and the number of children between ages 13 and 18 were all completely explained by rewards and costs. Adding rewards and costs only partially explained the relationship between feeling forced to referee and the number of hours of training the referee received last year. Feeling forced to referee still affected the number of hours of training that a referee received despite adding rewards or costs of refereeing. Adding rewards and costs explained an additional 9% (14% total) of the variation in the amount of training that referees received.

“Table 8 About Here”

Table 8 presents OLS regressions of the effect of the background factors and rewards and costs on friends met through refereeing. Model 1 of Table 8 presents the OLS regressions of the effect of the background factors and friends met through refereeing. As hypothesized, the more referees perceived negative organizational change, the less likely they met friends through refereeing. As hypothesized, the more refereeing met referees' expectations, the more likely they met friends through refereeing. As expected, referees who felt forced to referee met fewer friends through refereeing. Finally, and contrary to the hypothesis, those who had had an injury had met friends through refereeing more so than those without an injury.

Among the social characteristics, as expected, as referees' aged, they met more friends through refereeing. Overall, the background factors explained about 11% of the variation in friends met through refereeing.

Model 2 of Table 8 presents OLS regressions of the effect of the background factors and rewards and costs on friends met through refereeing. As hypothesized, the more intrinsically rewarding refereeing was, the more likely they met friends through refereeing. Similarly, referees who had been named a good referee for the league met more friends through refereeing. Finally, those who received an invitation to a special tournament met more friends through refereeing than those who had not received a tournament invitation.

Rewards and costs completely explain the effect of referees' expectations about officiating, how much referees felt forced to become a referee, and having an injury, had on friends met through refereeing. However, adding rewards and costs did not at all

explain the relationship between organizational change and on friends met through refereeing. The belief that leagues had changed for the worse still lowered the number of friends referees met through refereeing. Similarly, older individuals had met more friends through refereeing. Overall, adding rewards and costs explained an additional 9% (20% total) of the variation in friends met through refereeing.

“Table 9 About Here”

Table 9 continues the presentation of the effect of the background factors and rewards and costs on commitment. Model 1 of Table 9 presents the logistic regressions of the effect of the background factors on the grade level of the referee. Only two background factors predicted the grade level of the referee, role conflict and number of children a referee had between ages 13 and 18. Contrary to the hypothesis, referees with role conflict were about 1.39 times more likely to be higher-level referees than lower-level referees. For each additional child referees had between the ages 13 to 18, referees were about 44% less likely to be higher-level referees. The background factors explained only about 7% of the variation in grade level among referees.

Adding rewards and costs in Model 2 of Table 9 explained an additional 10% of the variation in grade level among referees. Of the rewards and costs, referees who agreed that refereeing was rewarding intrinsically were about 2.29 times more likely to be higher-level referees than lower level referees. Similarly, referees who had been invited to a special tournament were about 4.22 times more likely to be higher-level referees than lower-level referees.

Overall, adding rewards and costs only partially explained the effect of the two significant background factors. Rewards and costs only partially explain the relationship

between role conflict and the number of children referees had between the ages of 13 and 18 and the grade level that referees had. Both role conflict and the number of children referees have between the ages of 13 and 18 still significantly explain refereeing grade level despite adding rewards and costs. Adding rewards and costs actually made significant the effect that initial doubts that referees had on grade level. Those with more doubts were about 27% less likely to be a high-level referee than they were to be low-level referees, but only when adding rewards and costs. Adding the rewards and costs explained an additional 8% (15% total) of the variation in referees' grade level.

“Table 10 About Here”

Model 1 of Table 10 shows the OLS regressions of the effect of the background factors on identity centrality. Among the role-set factors, as hypothesized, the more negative organizational change, the less important refereeing was to referees. Similarly, the more role conflict, and the more referees felt forced to become referees, the less important refereeing was. The more referees expectations about refereeing were met, the more important refereeing was to referees. However, contrary to expectations, those who had an injury actually considered refereeing more important than did those who had no injury.

Among the social characteristics, as hypothesized, women consider refereeing less important to them than men. Also, the more children that referees' had between the ages of 13 and 18, the less important refereeing was. Overall, the background factors alone explain about 13% of the variation in how important refereeing was to referees.

Model 2 of Table 10 presents OLS regressions of the effect of the background factors and cognitive processes on identity centrality. In terms of significant effects, as

hypothesized, the more referees agreed that their families or significant others support their refereeing, the more important refereeing was to referees. Similarly, the more referees agreed that they were good at refereeing compared to others the more important referees considered refereeing.

Adding the cognitive processes, as shown in Model 2 of Table 10, had only a minimal effect on how the background factors affected identity centrality. Adding the cognitive processes completely explained the effect that the number of children referees had between 13 and 18 on identity centrality. Cognitive processes partially explained the effect that organizational change, role conflict, injuries, and gender had on identity centrality. The cognitive processes had no effect in explaining how expectations about refereeing and how much referees felt forced to become a referee affected identity centrality. Referees' expectations about refereeing and how much referees felt forced to become referees explained identity centrality even when adding the cognitive processes. Adding the cognitive processes explained an additional 3% (16% total) of the relationship between the background factors and identity centrality.

Model 3 of Table 10 presents OLS regressions of the effect of the background factors and rewards and costs on identity centrality. In adding rewards and costs to the explanation of the relationship between the background factors and identity centrality, four of the seven rewards and costs variables were significant. The more intrinsically rewarding referee was the more important refereeing was. Similarly, those who received an extra financial reward and those invited to a tournament considered refereeing more important than did those who had not received an extra financial reward and those who

had not been invited to a tournament. Finally, the more refereeing costs the referees financially, the less important refereeing was to referees.

Rewards and costs completely explained the effects that role conflict, expectations about refereeing, having an injury, and the number of children referees had between the ages of 13 and 18, had on identity centrality. However, rewards and costs only partially explained the effects that organizational change, forced to referee, and gender had on identity centrality. The more referees agreed that the leagues that they worked for had changed in ways that they did not like and the more referees agreed that they felt forced to referee, the less important refereeing was to referees, despite adding rewards and costs. Similarly, women less than men considered refereeing less important despite adding for rewards and costs. Overall, in adding rewards and costs, the background factors explained an additional 17% (30% total) of the variation in identity centrality.

Model 4 of Table 10 presents the OLS regressions of the effect of the background factors and commitment on identity centrality. Only two commitment variables significantly affected identity centrality. First, the more friends referees met through refereeing the more important refereeing was to referees. Second, the more hours of training referees received last year, the more important refereeing was.

Commitment explained the effect of only two background factors on identity centrality, the number of children referees had between the ages of 13 and 18 and whether referees had an injury. Commitment partially explained the effect that organizational change had on identity centrality. Commitment did not explain how role

conflict, whether referees felt forced to become a referee, and gender affected identity centrality.

Two variables were significant when adding commitment. The more referees agreed that the leagues they worked for supported and treated them well, the more important refereeing was to referees. Similarly, as referees aged, they considered refereeing less important, but only when adding commitment. In adding commitment, the background factors explained an additional 10% (23% total) of the variation in identity centrality.

Model 5 of Table 10 presents OLS regressions of the effect of the background factors, rewards and costs, and commitment on identity centrality. Per Figure 1, the commitment variables only partially explained the effect that an invitation to a special tournament had on identity centrality. In all other variables, commitment did not affect the relationship between rewards and costs and identity centrality.

Adding both rewards and costs and commitment explained the effect of several of the background factors on identity centrality. However, since the relationship between several factors was explained earlier by rewards and costs and then by commitment separately, I only examine those factors explained by adding for both rewards and costs and commitment. For example, Model 2 demonstrated that rewards and costs explained the effect of role conflict on identity centrality. Since commitment did not explain any of the relationship between role conflict and identity centrality, I deduced that the reason that role conflict was not significant in Model 4 was that rewards and costs explained that relationship, not commitment.

This logic also applies to gender. While gender was a highly significant predictor of identity centrality in Model 1, it was only significant at the .05 level in Model 3, which added rewards and costs. I deduced that adding only for rewards and costs influenced how gender affected identity centrality, not commitment.

This logic also applies to the number of children referees had between the ages of 13 and 18. Commitment alone explains the effect that the number of children between 13 and 18 had on identity centrality. However, in adding rewards and cost along with commitment, the coefficient returned to the same level as just adding rewards and costs alone.

Finally, this logic applies to how league support/treatment and age affect identity centrality. League support and treatment and age were only significant when adding commitment. When adding rewards and costs along with commitment, the effect of league support and treatment returned to the same levels as if just adding rewards and costs alone.

So, this means that the only variables significantly affected by adding rewards and costs and commitment were organizational change and whether referees felt forced to become a referee. In both cases, adding rewards and costs still only partially mediated the effect that each variable had on identity centrality. The more negative organizational change, the less important refereeing was. When adding rewards and costs and commitment, organizational change still significantly predicted how important refereeing was to referees. Similarly, the more referees felt forced to referee the less important refereeing was to referees, even when adding rewards and costs and commitment. In

adding both rewards and costs and commitment, the background factors explained an additional 20% (33% total) of the variation in identity centrality.

Model 6 of Table 10 presents OLS regressions of the relationship between the background factors, cognitive processes, rewards and costs, and commitment on identity centrality. Using the same logic from above, the three main variables to consider are organizational change, forced to referee, and gender. The more referees felt forced to become a referee, the less important refereeing was to them. However, in adding the cognitive processes, rewards and costs, and commitment completely explained this relationship. The same was true for gender. Though women considered refereeing less important than men, when adding the cognitive processes, rewards and costs, and commitment, there was no difference between men and women in the importance of refereeing.

In only one case, organizational change did adding the cognitive processes, rewards and costs, and commitment, not completely explain the relationship. Even in adding these variables, which did partially explain the relationship, the more leagues have changed in ways that referees did not like, the less important refereeing was. Overall, in adding the cognitive processes, rewards and costs, and commitment, the background factors explained an additional 21% (34% total) of the variation in identity centrality.

Model Testing

The primary goal of this research was to examine how the mediating factors in Panels 2 and 3 of Figure 1 affect the relationship between the background factors and role exit. I am primarily interested in the cumulative effect of each component in the model on role exit. In other words, examining not only what factors significantly explain the

relationship between the background factors and role exit, but also determining how much additional variation was explained by adding the identity-related factors. Tables 11 through 14 tests the relationship between the background factors and role exit while adding various components highlighted in Figure 1.

“Table 11 About Here”

Model 1 of Table 11 presents logistic regressions of the effect of the background factors on role exit. Among the role-set factors and as hypothesized, referees whose assignors they worked for supported and treated them well were about 24% less likely to quit than those whose assignors they worked for did not support and treat them well. However, contrary to the hypothesis, referees who agreed that the leagues that they worked for supported and treated them well were about 1.26 times more likely to quit than referees who disagreed that the leagues supported and treated them well. Consistent with the hypothesis, referees with role conflict were about 1.7 times more likely to quit than those who disagreed that refereeing interfered with duties in their lives. As hypothesized, referees who felt forced to referee were about 1.41 times more likely to quit than those who did not feel forced to referee. Finally, I had expected that referees with injuries would be more likely to quit, however, those who had had an injury in the past 12 months were 35% less likely to quit than were those with no injury.

Among the social characteristics, I had expected that with age, referees might be more likely to quit. However, for every year increase in age, referees were about 2% less likely to quit. Similarly, for each additional child referees had between the ages of 7 and 12, referees were about 39% less likely to quit. The background factors alone explained about 10% of the variation in why referees quit.

Model 2 of Table 11 presents logistic regressions of the effect of the background factors and cognitive processes on role exit. None of the cognitive processes significantly predicted role exit. However, the combined effect did explain the effects that league support/treatment, forced to referee, and having an injury had on role exit. The cognitive processes did not explain the relationship between role conflict, age, and the number of children ages 7 to 12 on role exit. In only one case, assignor support/treatment did the cognitive processes partially explain the relationship. In adding the cognitive processes, the background factors explained only an additional 1% (11% total) of the variation in role exit.

Though it does explain more the variation in role exit, adding identity centrality as well as the cognitive process in Model 3 of Table 11 did not change the relationship between any of the background factors and role exit. Identity centrality does explain role exit: For every increase in importance of refereeing to referees, referees were about 14% less likely to quit. Adding identity centrality and cognitive processes as well as the background factors explained an additional 4% (14% total) of the variation in role exit.

“Table 12 About Here”

Model 1 of Table 12 is the same as Model 1 of Table 11. I use it as a reference point to compare how adding commitment and identity centrality affected the relationship between the background factors and role exit. Model 2 presents logistic regressions of the effect of the background factors and commitment on role exit. Three commitment variables significantly predicted role exit. For every year increase that referees officiated, referees were about 5% less likely to quit. Similarly, for every additional hour of training

that referees got, they were about 7% less likely to quit. However, referees who had a family member who played soccer were about 2.34 times more likely to quit.

Adding commitment explained completely the effect that how much referees felt they were forced to become referees had on role exit. Similarly, adding commitment explained completely the effect that having an injury and age had on role exit. Having more children between the ages of 13 and 18 reduced the likelihood of quitting but only when adding commitment. Adding commitment though did not explain the effect that assignor and league support/treatment, role conflict, and the number of children between the ages of 7 and 12 had on role exit. Taking commitment together with the background factors explained an additional 6% (16% total) of the variation in role exit.

Adding identity centrality in Model 3 of Table 14 along with commitment, did not explain the relationship between any of the significant variables. Assignor and league support/treatment, role conflict, the number of children ages 7 to 12, and the number of children ages 13 to 18 were still significant when adding commitment alone. Similarly, identity centrality did not explain any of the relationship between the commitment variables and role exit. Adding identity centrality as well as the commitment variables explained an additional 7% (17% total) of the variation in role exit, though identity centrality only adds 1% to this total.

“Table 13 About Here”

The next set of relationships examines the effect that the background factors, rewards and costs, commitment, and identity centrality have on role exit. Again, Model 1 of Table 11 is included as a reference to compare with the remaining models. Model 2 of Table 13 presents logistic regressions of the effect that the background factors and

rewards and costs on role exit. Model 3 of Table 13 presents logistic regressions of the effect that the background factors, rewards and costs, and commitment on role exit.

Model 4 of Table 13 presents logistic regressions of the effect that the background factors, rewards and costs, and identity centrality on role exit. Finally, Model 5 of Table 13 presents the logistic regression results of the effect that the background factors, rewards and costs, commitment, and identity centrality on role exit.

In Model 2 of Table 13, verbal abuse significantly affected role exit. Referees who endured verbal abuse were about 58% less likely to drop out than those who had not endured verbal abuse. Adding rewards and costs explained the relationship that league support/treatment, forced to referee, and having an injury had on role exit. Rewards and costs only partially explained the relationship between assignor support/treatment and role exit; meaning that even adding rewards and costs the more referees believed that the assignors they worked for supported and treated them well the less likely referees quit. Adding rewards and costs however had no effect in explaining the effect that role conflict, age, and having children between the ages of 7 and 12 had on role exit. In Adding rewards and costs along with the background factors, the model explains an additional 3% (13% total) of the variation in role exit.

Model 3 of Table 13 shows how the background factors, rewards and costs, and commitment affect role exit. Like earlier models, the more hours of training that referees received, the less likely they will quit. Similarly, referees who had a family member who play soccer were more likely to quit. However, unlike earlier models, having met friends through refereeing did not significantly predict role exit.

Model 3 of Table 13 also shows that adding commitment along with rewards and costs explains only the effect that age had on role exit. For all other significant factors, adding commitment as well as rewards and costs did not explain any of the additional effect that the background factors have on role exit. In fact, in some cases, commitment makes variables more significant. For example, commitment had no effect on explaining the relationship between role conflict. However, adding commitment did make the effect of assignor support/treatment and the number of children between the ages 7 to 12 on role exit more significant. Similarly, the more children referees had between the ages of 13 and 18 reduced the likelihood of role exit, but only when adding commitment. The effect of the background factors on role exit when adding rewards and costs and commitment explained an additional 8% (18% total) of the variation in role exit.

Model 4 of Table 13 shows that identity centrality was a significant predictor of role exit when added to the background factors and rewards and costs. However, identity centrality did not explain any additional effect that the background factors had on role exit. In fact, adding rewards and costs by themselves explained the relationship between the significant variables just as well as adding identity centrality and rewards and costs together. The only effect identity centrality had on the background factors was to make age more significant. As people get older they were less likely to drop out. And even less likely to drop out if refereeing was important to them. By adding identity centrality, the model explained an additional 2% of the variation (15% total) more than just the effect that the background factors had on role exit while adding for rewards and costs alone.

Finally, Model 5 of Table 13 shows that even when adding identity centrality, commitment, and rewards and costs to the relationship between the background factors and role exit, none of the relationships were significantly different when just commitment and rewards and costs were added alone. Identity centrality was still a significant predictor of role exit, but the effect it had on explaining the relationship between the background factors and role exit was minimal when added along with rewards and costs and commitment. In fact, adding identity centrality on top of commitment and rewards and costs only explained an additional 1% (19% total) of the variation in role exit over and above adding just commitment and rewards and costs alone.

“Table 14 About Here”

Finally, Models 1 through 4 of Table 16 presents logistic regressions of the effect of the background factors and each component of the model on role exit. Model 1 of Table 14 presents the logistic regression results of the effect of the background factors on referee role exit. Again, the role-set factors of league support and treatment and injuries decreased the likelihood of role exit while assignor support and treatment, role conflict, forced to become a referee increased the likelihood of role exit. Among the significant social characteristics, age and having children ages 7 to 12 decreased the likelihood of role exit.

I discuss how each significant background factor affected role exit when adding each additional component in Figure 1. First, Model 1 shows that the more referees agreed that the assignors they work for supported and treated them well the less likely referees exit the role. While this relationship was a strong predictor of role exit directly, when adding cognitive processes and the rewards and costs in Model 2 (of which only

abuse was a significant predictor of role exit), the relationship was partially explained, yet still significant. The more support that referees received from their assignors the more likely referees continued with refereeing.

Adding commitment in Model 3 and identity centrality in Model 4 did not explain any of the additional relationship between assignor support and treatment and role exit. So while commitment and identity centrality may be important variables in explaining role exit, only the cognitive processes and rewards and costs significantly explained the relationship between assignor support/treatment and role exit.

The same general trend holds for how league support and treatment, forced to referee, and having an injury affected role exit. Model 1 shows that, contrary to the hypotheses, the more referees agreed that the leagues that they work for support and treat them well, the more likely referees exit the role. However, as hypothesized, the more referees agreed that they felt forced to referee, the more likely they exit the role. Finally, contrary to hypotheses, referees who had an injury are less likely to exit the role than referees who had no injury. Adding cognitive process and rewards and costs in Model 2 explained the effect that these variables had on role exit. Adding commitment and identity centrality in Models 3 and 4, respectively, did not explain any of the additional effect that these background factors have on role exit.

Therefore, the cognitive processes and rewards and costs had the most influence in explaining the effect that the background factors had role exit. However, this is only true for the effect that injuries and whether referees felt forced to be referees had on role exit. I cannot determine if it is rewards and costs or cognitive processes that explain this effect since both account for the relationship between these variables and role exit

However, the rewards and costs variables that best explain the effect that league and assignor support and treatment had on role exit.

In Model 1, referees with role conflict were about 1.7 times more likely to quit refereeing than those without role conflict. This relationship was still significant when adding cognitive processes and rewards and costs in Model 2, commitment in Model 3, and identity centrality in Model 4.

In Model 1, for every year increase in age, referees were actually about 2% less likely to quit refereeing. Adding cognitive processes and rewards and costs in Model 2 did not explain any of the relationship between age and role exit. However, adding commitment in Model 3 explained the relationship between age and whether referees quit. It did not matter what one's age was, being highly committed to refereeing kept the referee involved. Finally, adding identity centrality did not affect the relationship between age and role exit.

Interestingly, the results demonstrate that adding commitment and identity centrality actually made the effect of the number of children referees had between the ages of 7 and 12 more significant. According to Model 1, with each additional child ages 7 to 12, referees were about 39% less likely to quit refereeing. By adding the cognitive processes and rewards and costs, for each additional child ages 7 to 12, referees were about 45% less likely to quit. But, the significance level did not change, implying that the cognitive processes and rewards and costs did not explain any of the effect that the number of children referees had between the ages of 7 and 12 had on role exit.

However, when adding commitment, the cognitive processes and rewards and costs, for each additional child referees had between the ages 7 to 12, referees were about

64% less likely to quit refereeing. Finally, when adding identity centrality, for each additional child between the ages 7 to 12, referees were about 66% less likely to quit refereeing, also highly significant but no more so than when adding commitment alone.

A similar relationship exists for referees with children ages 13 to 18. Having children ages 13 to 18 did not significantly predict role exit as a background factor by itself and was still not significant when adding the cognitive processes and rewards and costs. However, when adding commitment, for each additional child referees had between the ages of 13 to 18, referees were about 42% less likely. Once identity centrality was added, having children ages 13 to 18 made one about 43% less likely to quit refereeing, but still at the same significance level.

Commitment and identity centrality also had their own effects on referee role exit. First, Model 2 indicated that the only rewards, costs, or cognitive process that was significant was verbal abuse, which actually had the opposite hypothesized effect. There is a relationship between verbal abuse and quitting. Those who endured some form of verbal abuse were about 67% less likely to quit refereeing than those who had endured no verbal abuse. Not surprisingly, even when holding commitment and identity centrality constant in Models 3 and 4, there was no effect on the relationship between verbal abuse and role exit. Referees who endured verbal abuse still quit, especially when referees they were committed to refereeing and had a strong identity as referees.

Among the commitment variables in Model 3, having a family member who played soccer and the amount of training that a referee received in the past year were the only significant predictors of role exit among soccer referees when added along with the background factors, cognitive processes, and rewards and costs. Having a family

member who played actually made referees more likely to quit. Adding identity centrality did not affect the relationship between a family soccer player and role exit.

Finally, in model 4, and as hypothesized, when examined in conjunction with all other variables, identity centrality was a significant predictor of role exit. For every unit increase in the importance of officiating to referees, referees were about 11% less likely to drop out of refereeing.

Though no formal hypotheses were proposed, several potential interaction effects, mentioned in the literature review, were tested in this analysis. Most of the interaction effects concerned how gender interacted with other background factors to predict role exit. Gender was predicted to interact with expectations about refereeing, injury, marital status, and grade level (measure of commitment). Also, grade level was predicted to interact with injury to predict role exit. However, no significant relationships were found when testing for these interaction effects in the model.

Certainly, the mediating factors explained some of the effect that the background factors had role exit. However, what was also important was the amount of variation explained by adding the identity components in Panels 2 and 3. The background factors alone explained about 10% of the variation in role exit. But, adding all the different the components of the model explained about 19% of the variation in role exit among soccer referees. In adding just the cognitive processes and rewards and costs the background factors explained an additional 4% of the variation (14% total) in role exit. In adding commitment as well as the cognitive processes and rewards and costs, the background factors explained an additional 5% of the variation in referee role exit (19%). Finally, adding identity centrality explained no additional variation in referee role exit (19%

total). Therefore, while many of the variables that predicted role exit might not be significant, we should not discard the model. Instead, further research should continue to further refine the variables that predict role exit.

Open-ended Questions

The remainder of this analysis presents the results of the two qualitative questions asked on the survey. Though not the focus of this research, the qualitative data provide interesting findings for potential future research. The themes that emerged from the analysis of the data reveal differences in why some referees continue while others quit. Those who keep coming back to refereeing do so for several reasons. Some see refereeing as an opportunity to give back to the game of soccer that they feel has given them so much. As one respondent indicated, "I played soccer ever since elementary school through college and still play both indoor and outdoor. It is my way of giving back to the kids today in the same way someone gave to me when I was a kid."

Others referee to give to the community and specifically the children that they are refereeing. As one respondent indicated, "I do it for the kids (players); and I try to mentor the young refs so that they will not become disheartened by the bad behavior of the bad apple parents." Or they referee with "the hope of making a difference in the way games are played and officiated." But others note that they have to give back because of the "obligation to and **** team that is required to field one referee per game." Finally some see refereeing as an opportunity to "improve the game" through their officiating.

Some continue to referee because of the opportunity for camaraderie with others. For some, refereeing gives people the chance to enjoy the camaraderie of other referees and those who run the leagues. For others, especially those with children and other

family members who referee, officiating provides an opportunity to spend time with the family. As one respondent indicates, “as my own children have grown up playing soccer (all travel now) and my husband and girls are certified referees, it is way for us to spend Saturdays doing something we love as a family.”

Finally, many referees continue to referee for personal reasons. For some, refereeing is an opportunity to earn a “little extra money.” Others enjoy the opportunity to get out “into the fresh air” and “exercise.” Still others see refereeing as a “challenge to referee the perfect game,” or something that is both “physically” and “mentally” challenging to the person, and that many feel a sense of accomplishment for doing well. But, many also enjoy the positive feedback they get from parents, coaches, and players for refereeing a good game. Some see refereeing as an opportunity to keep abreast of the laws and the nuances of the game so that they can improve as a player or a coach. Referees also indicate that they referee for the opportunity to watch soccer while “having the best seat in the house.” But referees most often mention that they referee because the “love the game” or “enjoy the experience.” Though, it is uncertain as to what many mean by “love” and “enjoy.”

The majority of respondents indicated that they no longer referee because of some conflict with refereeing. Conflict for some involved “moving away to attend college.” For others, job conflicts interfered with the opportunity to referee. For those who were involved with refereeing because their children were, they dropped out because their children were no longer refereeing. Finally, several people indicated that they had taken a different direction in soccer and that refereeing was becoming “too time consuming.”

Several people quit because of problems within the organization of refereeing. Some indicated frustration with the recertification process, whether it was the fact that they had to recertify every year, or the amount of time they were being asked to spend recertifying every year. Others indicated “I didn’t feel I had the support of the assignor and colleagues as referees, nor the tournament assignors.” Still others indicated that they quit because of the inflexibility of some leagues to work with time constraints. Finally, some noted the difficulty in the upgrading process, specifically “difficulty getting assessments from experienced referees.”

Finally, many individuals did quit because of injury. But, several respondents indicated that they were fed up with the verbal abuse they were getting from parents, coaches, and sometimes players. One respondent summed up his views about abuse quit emphatically: “I quit because of the parents. They are brutal. What gets me is the comments they make. Yet, they have never refereed at all! They don’t have a clue! I thought I could make a change by becoming a referee, but I was wrong.” Often this abuse resulted in a “lack of confidence” that did not make refereeing “worth the time.”

Overall, these results indicate the power of this model in predicting not only why referees quit, but also explaining how mediating factors explain the relationship between the background factors and role exit. Similarly, the qualitative results pose potential questions for future research on referees. The next section discusses some of the implications of this research theoretically in terms of role exit and identity theory, and practically in terms of how these findings may benefit refereeing organizations.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This research attempted to answer three general questions. First, what social factors lead a referee to want to quit? Second, how do identity processes affect the relationship between the social factors and whether referees quit? Finally, how do gender and age affect whether referees quit? The results of this research have theoretical implications for role exit theory and identity theory. The results also have practical implications for referee organizations about what factors may help retain referees.

This section focuses on the theoretical and practical implications of this research. I begin by addressing the theoretical implications for role exit theory and then identity theory. In doing so, I also discuss how gender affects the role exit process, drawing on status characteristics theory. I also discuss how age affects role exit. I then address the practical implications of this research, discussing what these results mean for referee organizations. Next, I discuss some of the limitations of this research. Finally, I draw some conclusions about the implications for role exit theory and identity theory as well as practical implications, and I pose questions for future research.

Implications for Role Exit Theory

Ebaugh (1988) identifies some of the conditions that influence role exit. In this research, I use those factors plus other research to determine what factors influence the role exit process for soccer referees. Surprisingly, several factors proposed by Ebaugh (1988) are not significant predictors of role exit among soccer referees. For example, referees' initial doubts about the role do not predict role exit. Similarly, organizational

change and referees' expectations about the role do not predict role exit. In addition, gender and marital status do not predict role exit.

Nevertheless, many of the conditions that Ebaugh (1988) and others identify do explain role exit. For example, the support that referees receive from assignors affects role exit (Ebaugh 1988). Like an employer, the assignor determines the ability of the referee and assigns appropriate games. Referees who believe the assignor supports them tend to continue with refereeing, while referees who perceive that the assignor does not support them tend to quit.

Support comes from soccer leagues as well. However, the more referees feel that the leagues support and treat them well, the more likely they are to quit. This finding is contrary to organizational literature that suggests that organizational support helps retain employees (Wilson and Musick 1999). Because this finding was opposite of predictions, I tested league support and treatment and assignor support and treatment for multicollinearity. Both were highly correlated. Additionally, when looking at the variance in role exit that each explains, assignor support and treatment explains about .08% of the variation in role exit while league support explains only .01% of the variation. Even though it is a significant predictor, I do not consider the variable a valid measure because it explains so little variation in role exit.

Role conflict increases the likelihood of role exit. Role conflict strongly influences whether referees quit, even for referees who consider the refereeing identity important. With role exit theory then, all other mediating factors such as cognitive processes, rewards and costs, commitment, and identity centrality have little effect when

the individual cannot participate in the role. For example, even if referees receive rewards and the costs are minimal, many referees with role conflict may still quit.

Referees who felt forced to referee were more likely to quit than those who did not feel forced. This is not surprising. However, even referees who felt forced to participate in the role, if they receive rewards, if the costs are reduced, if they receive positive appraisal, support from family, and compare themselves positively against others, people will likely continue with the role. While role exit theory already takes into account support, it should now consider the importance of rewards and costs of the role in the determining whether individuals quit.

Having an injury makes referees less likely to quit. Much of the literature though, indicates that injuries increase the likelihood of role exit (Burke and Wilcox 1972; Shamian et al. 2003; Walters and Roach 1979). Some literature does note that injuries have a positive effect on the retention of referees (Howe 2001). For some, an injury is a sign of status. Injuries represent intense involvement in an activity. Status accrues to injured individuals because they display the masculine ethic of sacrificing their body. Many referees may view their role as a sporting role, part of a masculine ethic (Howe 2001).

This finding may also apply to women referees. Theberge (1997) argues that for women to be successful in sport they must often take on the masculine characteristics of sport, for example playing through the pain. As such, women referees may understand that in order to participate successfully in the refereeing role, they must abide by the masculine ethic and accept their injuries as a part of the role.

Despite the importance of injuries in predicting role exit, this effect goes away once the model controls for rewards and costs and cognitive processes. Again, this points to the importance of the identity variables to predicting role exit. People can be injured, but if people receive rewards, if the costs are minimal, and if the person receives positive reflected appraisals, social support from the family, and social comparisons, then having an injury will not affect role exit.

In terms of the social characteristics age and number of children significantly affect role exit. Age is similar to the influence that injuries have on role exit. Older individuals do eventually quit refereeing. But, the findings reveal that younger individuals quit more.

The voluntarism and job turnover literature confirms this finding that younger individuals change jobs more and are more likely to try different voluntary activities (Wilson and Musick 1997). Younger individuals change roles more than older individuals, who tend to be more established in their careers and activities (Oesterle, Johnson, and Mortimer 2004). For younger individuals, shifting between multiple roles is a search for identity. Trying out many different roles allows younger individuals to explore what identity(s) most suits them. It is likely that older referees are more established in the role and are less likely to exit.

In terms of how age affects role exit theory, the context of the role may affect role exit (Wacquant 1990). Older individuals may continue with low physical activity volunteering longer than they continue with high-impact volunteer activities (Miller et al. 1990). In the context of refereeing, people may see refereeing as lower impact than playing soccer. Many referees are former soccer players who retired because of age or

injury. As such, individuals may continue with refereeing as they age because they see that refereeing impacts their bodies less than does playing soccer. However, the effect of age goes away for people committed to the role. In terms of role exit theory then, while people will probably quit roles as the age, the context of the role and how committed individuals are to the role may decrease the likelihood of exiting the role.

Finally, having children between the ages of 7 and 12 keeps people in the role. Here, it is likely that having young children probably means that those children are also involved in the role in some way. Many children start playing soccer between these ages. As such, many parents get involved in the role by becoming a referee. In terms of role exit theory, having members who have young children involved in the role may prevent role exit.

I had expected to find that women exit the role more than men because soccer refereeing is an avocation that men dominate (85% male to 15% female). However, there is no significant difference between men and women in role exit even when controlling for other factors. This finding is surprising considering that refereeing is part of the sporting domain dominated by men. It may be that some female referees adhere to the masculine ethic supported by sport and refereeing. As such, women may continue to referee because they may feel comfortable participating in refereeing with men.

I also set out to determine how identities and identity processes affect the role exit process. I examine briefly how cognitive processes, rewards and costs, commitment, and identity centrality affect role exit. The study found that, among the cognitive processes, reflected appraisals, social support from family, and social comparisons do not affect role exit. The lack of finding was not entirely unexpected. In reviewing the literature on

identities, appraisals support, and comparisons actually have an indirect effect on the performance of a role. For example, people were blood donors only if they had an identity associated with the role of blood donor (Grube and Pilliavin 2000). I will elaborate more below. But, the cognitive processes do explain identity centrality. In turn, identity centrality affects role exit. Therefore, reflected appraisals, social support, and social comparisons do not directly predict role exit, but instead affect how important an identity is to the person. Identity centrality then affects whether referees quit the role.

Because the cognitive processes had little direct effect on role exit, I did not anticipate that they would significantly explain the relationship between some of the background factors and role exit. As mentioned above, the cognitive processes do explain the relationship between league support/treatment and role exit. However, rewards and costs also explain this relationship. When putting them together in the model, I am unable to determine if it is rewards and costs or the cognitive processes that explain role exit.

In fact, this same difficulty exists for trying to determine which factors explain the relationship between assignor support and treatment, whether referees felt forced to referee, and injuries on role exit. In each case, both rewards and costs and the cognitive processes explain the relationship between these factors and role exit. Since the model controls for both rewards and costs and cognitive processes at the same stage in the model (because both are mutually exclusive), I am unable to determine which better explains how the background factors affect role exit. Therefore, role exit theory must consider both cognitive processes and rewards and costs as potential mediating factors in predicting role exit.

For the most part, the rewards and costs variables as well as the cognitive processes are significant as mediating variables rather than variables that directly affect role exit. Interestingly, the only cost that was significant was verbal abuse, and its effect was opposite that predicted. Perhaps referees enter into the role understanding that a certain amount of abuse comes with the position. Therefore, many referees expect it. An ANOVA suggested that the longer referees have officiated, the more likely they are to have experienced verbal abuse. On average, referees who had not endured any verbal abuse had refereed for 3.3 years, while referees who had endured verbal abuse had refereed for 7.8 years.

Perhaps with age and experience, referees develop the ability to deal with the abuse. I tested the hypothesis that older referees are better able to deal with the abuse by regressing intrinsic rewards on age, verbal abuse, and an interaction between age and verbal abuse. However, the interaction of age and verbal abuse had no effect on the intrinsic reward of refereeing. Therefore, I cannot conclude that older referees are more immune to verbal abuse. Since referees expect that abuse may occur, it does not affect their perceptions of the role and subsequently does not increase the likelihood of role exit. However, the finding that enduring verbal abuse is negatively associated with role exit presents a puzzle that the data cannot explain. In terms of role exit theory, if there are expectations of potential costs such as verbal abuse, the effect that the cost has on role exit may be minimal.

Unlike the cognitive processes and the rewards and costs variables, commitment explains role exit and mediates the relationship between the background factors and role exit. In other words, commitment has additive (explains role exit) and mediating effects

on role exit (influences how age affects role exit). The amount of training that a person receives is an investment in the role. Literature suggests that more training helps to further tie individuals to a role (Jamison 2003; Martin 2003). Additional training takes time and financial resources. Only those who want to continue with the role and potentially advance seek out extra training.

Similarly, additional training often involves coming into contact with others involved in the role. This contact creates relationships that can serve as a means of support and encouragement (Ebaugh 1988). To seek out more training is to further strengthen the tie between the individual and the role, or in terms of identity theory, to strengthen the commitment that an individual has to the role.

But, then why does having a family member who plays soccer have the opposite effect hypothesized? Having a family member who plays soccer measures commitment to a role. However, the role one is committed to is as a supporter of the family member's soccer player. Therefore, if individuals are committed to the soccer playing of the other person, they are less likely to be committed to refereeing. These two roles are mutually exclusive; to do one means to reduce or abandon the other. Therefore, having family members in another role may take time and energy away from participating in another role; committing the person to the significant other doing their own role rather than to the roles that they participate in.

The study suggests that multiple roles within a specific situation may be mutually exclusive and may require more than one person to do. For example, being a coach and being a referee are mutually exclusive roles. One person must do each. In committing to be a coach or a referee, individuals must choose one role and role distance themselves

from the other; for, it is nearly impossible to commit to both roles. However, future research will be needed to determine the validity of this speculation.

Thus, future research should consider the effect that commitment has on the role exit process both directly and as a mediating factor. Training may increase commitment to the role and subsequently prevent role exit. However, role exit research should consider the role that mutually exclusive roles play in determining whether or not a person will exit a role. Finally, role exit research should consider how commitment mediates other background factors.

Finally, these findings provide support for the importance of identity centrality in explaining role exit. However, identity centrality has little effect as a mediating variable. The more important a role is for the individual, the less likely he or she is to quit. If the role is not important to the individual, then he or she is less likely to continue with the role. Future research on identity theory should consider identity centrality as an additional factor influencing the role exit process. Research should recognize that the importance of background and earlier mediating factors in the model (such as cognitive processes and rewards and costs) on role exit might be indirect with identity centrality as the intervening factor. In other words, cognitive processes, rewards and costs, and commitment may affect identity centrality, which in turn may affect role exit (I will describe this process below).

These findings provide support for the model of role performance proposed by Ervin and Stryker (2001). This model shows how the background factors and identity processes affect role exit. The fact that including cognitive processes, rewards and costs,

commitment, and identity centrality explains an additional 9% of the variation lends support for their consideration in the role exit process.

However, the model is not perfect. Several background factors will require either refinement or abandonment altogether. Similarly, some situational variables are more important than others in the prediction of role exit. But, what needs the most research is how the cognitive processes and rewards and costs affect the role exit process. It may be that the factors are simply in the wrong stage of the model. However, it may be that the cognitive processes and rewards and costs have an indirect affect on role exit, affecting identity centrality that in turn affects role exit. Future research should re-specify the components of the model to determine if some components would be better placed at other points in the model.

Implications for Identity Theory

While the main goal of this research was to understand how the background and mediating factors affect role exit, these results also have implications for identity theory. Specifically, this research tests how identity processes influence identities (as measured by identity centrality) as proposed in research such as Ervin and Stryker's (2001) and House (1981). In this section, I focus on how the background factors influence identity processes such as the cognitive processes, rewards and costs, commitment, and identity centrality. I also discuss the importance of these identity processes in explaining identity centrality and subsequent role performance.

These results provide evidence for the connection between the background factors and cognitive processes made in Figure 1. This is one of the first pieces of research to examine what factors affect the cognitive processes. Most research examines the

cognitive processes as exogenous variables that influence other processes (Donnelly and Young 1988; Felson 1981).

In this study, several background factors affect the cognitive processes of reflected appraisals, social support, and social comparisons. Whether referees felt forced to referee is the only common factor affecting all three of these processes. This should not be surprising considering that when forced into a role, people may create a negative perception about the role. Being forced into a role may indicate to the family that the individual does not want to participate in the role and as such, the family will withhold support.

Other factors are important for specific cognitive processes. For example, league support and treatment, whether refereeing meets expectations, initial doubts, and injuries all explain reflected appraisals. Perceptions of league support and treatment is similar to perceiving organizational support for the role. Support may signify that those in the organizations think that individuals are good at role, generating positive reflected appraisals. Similarly, if individuals feel that the role meets expectations individuals may feel good about the role and their competence at it. Also, having doubts decreases positive reflected appraisals. To have doubts is not only to question the role, but also to question individuals' competence at the role and whether others think that individuals are good at the role. Finally, I attribute the finding that injuries generate positive reflected appraisals to the same explanation about why injuries keep referees in the role. Injuries are a sign of status for those in the role (Howe 2001), they represent intense participation and those injured may perceive that others see them as good at the role.

It is not surprising to find that the support and treatment that individuals perceive from others in the role may influence how their family sees the role. If individuals feel that they receive support from others then positive perceptions about the role may result. Families who see that individuals enjoy the role may continue to give support. Role conflict and children however decrease support. These are similar in how they affect perceptions of support. Having other duties in their lives means the family of the individual must decide which role to give support to. The family may withdraw support if, in considering all the other roles, the family decides that participating in a certain role does not benefit the family. Similarly, children are a form of role conflict that requires the individual to withdraw from the role in order to spend time with the children.

The significant results predicting social comparisons are similar to those predicting reflected appraisals. In fact, the same explanations as to why the significant background factors explain reflected appraisals, also explain how these factors affect social comparisons. For example, if individuals have doubts about the role, they probably also question their ability in the role and their competence compared to others. Similarly, if the role meets individuals' expectations, they likely consider themselves good at the role compared to others. Finally, like above, having an injury is a sign of status that one is intensely involved in the role. Individuals intensely involved in a role may think that they are good compared to others.

I want to briefly discuss the effect that gender has on social comparisons. I argued earlier that since gender reveals differences in perceptions of competence, women do not see themselves as good at refereeing as men do. SCT may explain how perceptions of competence affect task behavior. Even if women are good referees, many

may still use their gender to determine their competence at the task. I argue that research needs to incorporate SCT in predicting social comparisons and subsequent identity processes.

The results show that the background factors explain the rewards and costs that referees' receive. This discussion considers all the different measures of rewards together and all the measures of costs together. Not surprisingly, to perceive support for the role, whether from organizations or from significant others in the role set, increases the likelihood of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Support denotes that others see the person as good at the role, if this is true, people will probably enjoy the role and receive rewards for it. If the role meets individuals' expectations, people probably feel more positive about the role. Similarly, if the role meets expectations, people probably perform the role better and thus receive more rewards.

The background factors may affect rewards. If people feel forced into the role, it is likely that they do not enjoy the role and do not perform it well leading to fewer rewards. The same explanation about the effect of injuries on cognitive processes applies to rewards. Those with an injury are intensely involved, increasing the likelihood of rewards.

Women may find refereeing less rewarding than men because refereeing is part of the sporting role, one that values men more than women. Women within the referee role may perceive resistance to their participation. That resistance may affect how they see the role, specifically, whether it is rewarding or not. Gender differences in the perception of rewards for a role should be an avenue for future research.

The background factors also have different affects on the costs of refereeing. In terms of the costs of the role, certainly not having support for the role whether from the organization or significant others in the role set may mean individuals see the role as costly. Similarly, the role takes away from individuals' ability to do other roles, generating a perception that the role costs too much. Since no one likes to be forced to do something, if they are, they may perceive that the role costs too much. However, if the referee has a positive mindset about the role because the role meets expectations, it is likely that they will not consider the role costly.

Rewards and costs explain the effect that four of the five significant variables have on amount of training. Similarly, rewards and costs explain the effect that three of the five background factors have on whether referees have friends they met through refereeing. Therefore, this research demonstrates that the background factors do affect commitment. Additionally, rewards and costs explain the effect of some of the background factors on commitment and also explain commitment as well. Future research should consider how the background factors affect commitment. But, research should not ignore the effect that rewards and costs have in explaining the relationship between the background factors and commitment.

This research demonstrates that the mediating factors of cognitive processes, rewards and costs, and commitment explain the effect of all of the background factors on identity centrality except for one. The negative effects of organizational change will still decrease the importance of an identity for a person even when controlling for these other factors. This supports current research about the potential negative affect of organizational change on identities (Pratt 2001). Individuals in this study do not like

change. Change affects the ability to do the role and forces people to reconsider how they do the role. As a result, change allows people to question their participation in the role, thereby potentially decreasing its importance to the person.

But, as stated, this research points to the importance of commitment in explaining how central an identity is to a person. These results support previous research that the more committed a person is to the role, the more a person will consider the role important (Burke and Reitzes 1991; Cassidy and Trew 2001). Future research should continue to consider the importance of commitment, both interactional and affective, as an identity process affecting how central an identity is to the person.

This research also shows that identity centrality does explain role performance. As such, this research lends support to Ervin and Stryker's (2001) and House's (1981) model of role performance. While future research should continue to explore those background factors that affect identities, the research should not ignore the effect of the cognitive processes, rewards and costs, and commitment on identity centrality and role performance.

Finally, this research reveals that identity processes do provide additional explanation for role exit. By adding in the identity processes an additional 10% of the variation was explained over and above just the background factors. However, it seems that the model does a better job at predicting identity centrality rather than predicting role exit. It is possible that the variables presented in this model are better predictors of the importance that an individual places on an identity rather than on role exit. In fact many of the variables do not directly predict role exit but instead predicts identity centrality that in turn predicts role exit.

Practical Implications

This research has practical importance for informing referee organizations why referees' quit. Following the model in Figure 1, it would seem that referee organizations can retain referees through rewards and reducing costs, helping current and future referees commit to refereeing, and making refereeing important to individuals' self-concept. It is also important that referee organizations recognize the importance of background factors. I will address each of the significant background factors that affect role exit and how referee organizations can deal with them. I then will examine the significant mediating factors that referee organizations can work to improve.

Assignor support significantly predicts role exit among soccer referees. The assignor/referee relationship is similar to the employer/employee relationship in the business world. For many referees, the relationship that the referee has with the assignor is the only connection that the referee has to the refereeing organization. As such, the assignor is a representative of the refereeing organization for the referee. Referee organizations might find it beneficial to improve the relations between the assignor and the referee. Beneficial programs may include educating assignors about ways to support their referees. Referee organizations may want to instruct referees as to how the assignor/referee relationship works.

Referees who have other duties in their lives that compete with refereeing are much more likely to quit refereeing than those who do not. Referee organizations cannot predict what other duties a referee has or could potentially have in their lives that could interfere with refereeing. However, referee organizations can emphasize the commitment required of referees and discourage individuals who may have other duties in their lives

from participating in refereeing. This is a double-edged sword, though. Referee organizations struggle to retain referees and rarely turn people away from refereeing. Dealing with competing identities will require a delicate balance between cautioning those with other duties to deal with and encouraging more people to become referees.

The study does not suggest that referee organizations should encourage referees to get injured. We must be careful of this finding because it could be taken the wrong way. Yes, those with an injury are less likely to quit. It is likely that referees who are continuing with refereeing are those who are older. With age comes the increased risk of injury. Older referee may understand and accept the risk of injury. As a result, they may see injuries as normal in the course of a season and be less likely to drop out because of an injury.

At first, the finding that as referees age they become less likely to quit was quite surprising. However, one can infer from this data that younger referees may be more likely to quit while older referees continue in the role. Referee organizations might do well to focus their efforts of retention on younger referees who have only refereed for a short time. For it seems that if they can keep referees for more than just 2 years, that they may retain more referees.

The finding about the effect of age is similar to the finding that referees with more children between the ages of 7 and 12 continue as referees. Usually referees with children ages 7 to 12 tend to be older and as a result, more committed to, and have a stronger identity as a referee, than younger referees. Recruitment efforts should focus on individuals with children between the ages of 7 and 12. By doing so, referee

organizations can potentially retain referees longer than if they recruit people with older children as a referee.

We must though be careful with the finding that those with children between the ages of 13 to 18 are less likely to quit. For this finding is only possible among referees already committed to refereeing. Really, referees with children ages 13 to 18 are referees recruited when they had children between the ages of 7 and 12, and by the time those children reach the ages of 13 to 18, they are already highly committed to refereeing and have an identity as a referee. Thus, once again, it may be better for referee organizations to focus their recruitment efforts on those with children ages 7 to 12 rather than those with older children.

Finally, among the background factors, as expected, respondents who felt forced to become a referee are more likely to quit. This should not be surprising, considering that people do not like to be forced to do something. However, this is again a double-edged sword for refereeing organizations and leagues. With the overwhelming number of games in the state of Virginia, it is important to have referees to officiate the games. As a result, many leagues demand that one parent from every soccer team be a certified referee.

Having a family member who plays soccer actually increases the likelihood that a referee will quit. Even among referees who have a strong identity as a referee, having a family member who plays increases the likelihood that referees will quit. It may be that referees with family soccer players may quit in order to spend more time with the family member who is playing. Referee organizations may find it beneficial to inform referees that they can follow their family soccer player while being a referee. While referees can

often not referee the games of the family member, some complexes have many fields. It is possible that referees can work games that do not conflict with time and game that their family member is playing.

Refereeing organizations might also do well to provide more opportunities for training. The more training that a referee has, the more referees commit to refereeing. The amount of training is still important even for referees who have a strong identity as a referee. Referee organizations must be careful about the amount of training, requiring too much may actually drive referees away. Even more so, the type of training is important as well. For example, per the qualitative findings that mention verbal abuse as a major factor, referee organizations might do well to include some psychological training to help referees deal with the potential abuse.

Finally, referee organizations should work towards increasing the importance of refereeing to the official. How can organizations make an identity important to a person? If a referee organization can prevent too much negative change, make refereeing rewarding to the person, provide extra financial rewards for doing well, reduce the negative financial impact of refereeing, encourage others and the referees' family to support the referee, and provide the opportunity for referees to meet friends through refereeing, then referees may generate a stronger identity as a referee and be less likely to quit.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. First, recall bias, particularly among referees who quit refereeing more than one year ago, may affect how individuals responded to the survey. Referees, who quit more than a year ago, may not recall their

experiences as referees as well current or former referees who have quit more recently. Future research could alleviate this problem by asking questions in such a way that recall is easier.

A second limitation is the sample itself. An over-sampling of current referees and an under-sampling of former referees limit the generalization of findings to former referees. Since this research set out to gather responses from all referees, i.e., there was no random sampling therefore, I cannot assume that the respondents are a reliable distribution of referees. As such, it is possible that another sample of referees may find different results. Future studies may generate a different sample with different results. Future research should not be limited geographically. Any research should use a random sample of referees across the United States and even the world.

Third, the sample was drawn largely from current referees. It is likely that those who chose to answer the survey are highly committed referees. As a result, their answers may skew the results in favor of committed referees; potentially masking the effects that moderately committed referees may have towards refereeing. Future research should attempt to generate a more random sample that captures the variations in commitment among referees.

Fourth, several of the variables demonstrated a lack of variation. For example, nearly 95% of individuals agreed or strongly agreed that they received assignor support. Similarly, only 2.7% of respondents said they had negative reflected appraisals while 79.4% said they received positive reflected appraisals (17.9% did not know). The lack of variation may lower the explanatory power of these variables for understanding role exit.

Fifth, 6.7% of referees indicated that they received no training last year. Yet, to recertify referees must have a minimum of 6 hours of training. Therefore, the referees who indicated no training may be those who are considering quitting refereeing and have yet to formally announce their exit of the role. These individuals may be in a transition point of role exit, debating whether to continue or not. As such, they may not have gotten any training because they are debating whether to continue or not.

Sixth, because of oversight on the part of the author, grade levels 10 and 15 were not included as response categories. Grade 15 is a designation for referees of higher-level games. Only those who achieved a Grade 6 designation during their refereeing career can earn a Grade 15 designation. Grade 15 referees are usually older. This designation allows them to continue refereeing games at lower-levels while still granting the status of a higher-level referee. Grade 10 Referees certify provisionally often in order to provide a family member's team a referee that the leagues require so that the team can compete. It is possible that grade 15 referees indicated their last highest grade (for example grade 6). Grade 10 referees may have indicated either grade 9 or grade 12, as these are both provisional grades.

Seventh, one component of the referee role exit model is commitment. As indicated in the literature, there are two types of commitment, interactional and affective. However, I only measured interactional commitment. I was unable to develop a valid measure of affective commitment for referees. Future research would do well to include a measure of affective commitment that explores the emotional connection referees have with the role-identity. It is possible that qualitative data that discusses the importance of

camaraderie and family bonding as reasons why referees continue may be used to construct a measure of affective commitment for the model.

The final limitation is that even though the model itself explains a significant amount of variation in why referees exit a role (20%), other measures, not addressed here, may influence the role exit process. Similarly, examining how referees perceptions of refereeing and their identities as referees change over time may help better explain the role exit process. Both limitations require refinement of the model, probably including some unmeasured variables while excluding others. Also, following referees throughout their careers, with a survey as they enter into refereeing, one while they are involved in their careers, and then one as they decide to exit the role, may provide insight into the role that changing identities play in the role exit process.

Conclusions

This research shows that identity processes are an important part of the role exit process. While much of role exit theory and identity theory implies that identities affect role performance and role exit, this research is the first to test that claim using a theoretical model. Overall, several background factors mentioned in various studies retain their importance. However, this research shows that their importance may not be direct. Instead, factors such as rewards or costs and commitment explain the effect that some of the background factors have on role exit. Additionally, this study finds that while identity centrality may not explain any of the relationship between the background factors, rewards and costs, and commitment, and role exit, it does add to the explanation of role exit. Therefore, even though previous literature touts the background factors as

causes of role exit, new research must now consider cognitive processes, rewards and costs, commitment, and identity centrality when explaining role exit.

This research is also important for understanding the different types of background factors that affect role exit. Research should focus on the causes of role exit as one of two types, role-set background factors and social characteristics. By role-set causes, I mean factors specific to the context of the role. For example, assignor support will only affect referees since only referees have assignors who give them their games. By social characteristics, I mean those factors that result from some assigned or accrued status. Here, referees' age affects the role exit process. Future research should try to understand the role exit process in terms of this typology of background factors. Doing so would allow for further efficiency in predicting the causes of role exit.

Qualitative data analysis reveals several potential issues that need further research by refereeing organizations. First, referee organizations may find it interesting to examine in more detail what referees mean when they say that they "love" and "enjoy" the game of soccer. Next, the qualitative data can also provide refereeing organizations with the opportunity to explore in more detail the reasons that referees quit. Of interest is how individuals respond to verbal abuse. Specifically, this research shows that most referees endure some verbal abuse. Practically, referee organizations may want to include in training some behavioral assistance for abusive situations that arise. In terms of research though, why then do some continue with refereeing despite the abuse while others quit because of the abuse? Next, refereeing organizations may find it beneficial to seek out the different time conflicts that lead referees to quit. Doing so may allow the refereeing organizations to tailor programs designed for that specific reason. Finally, referee

organizations should explore in more depth the frustration that referees have with the recertification process.

Where does the research on identities continue from here? Future research should continue to explore other factors that may explain role exit. These factors should include background factors as well as the identity processes of cognitive processes, rewards and costs, commitment, and identity centrality as presented in Figure 1. In terms of the identity theory, future research should continue to address how identities affect role performance. For example, some research could examine how changing identities affect role performance (Burke 2006). To fully understand the role performance and role exit process, research must address how the instability of identities leads to role performance or role exit.

The previous questions deal with the future of identity theory and role exit theory. But, what questions does this research raise in terms of referees and the sport literature. Three questions stand out for future research. First, the findings reveal that older referees quit less than younger referees. Future research should explore why referees are different from athletes in terms of how age affects role exit. Is it that referees see refereeing as a job more than as an athletic pursuit? If so, then it is likely that younger referees are similar to young adults in the job search and volunteer process, they tend to change careers and identities many times. But, this research reveals that referees are similar to athletes in other how other factors such as injuries and commitment affect the role exit process. So, are referees more like volunteers or employees? Are they more like athletes? Or, does their role combine elements of both?

A second question for future researchers to address is why people with injuries continue with the role? Certainly the masculine ethic may affect why men (and in some cases women) continue with refereeing even after an injury. But, is this finding all related to masculinity? Other factors not related to masculinity or identity may affect the injury process. It may be that individuals see the injury as temporary and maintain the role, particularly if they have an identity associated with the role.

Finally, this research takes a quantitative approach to understanding the role exit process. However, future research may do well to utilize a qualitative approach to understand the process of role exit among referees. A qualitative approach could examine the careers of referees over time, exploring the conditions that arise as referees move through their careers. An ethnographic study of referees may provide more information for understanding other issues referees deal with while refereeing.

This research demonstrates the importance of understanding a typology of background factors as role-set background factors, and social characteristics. This research also demonstrates that several background factors affect role exit despite controlling for identity processes. This research shows that while age affects the role exit process, gender does not. This research reveals that rewards and costs and commitment may affect the role exit process. This research demonstrates that while identity centrality may not affect the relationship between the background factors and role exit, it does help explain role exit. Finally, and most importantly, this study demonstrates the importance of considering how identity processes affect role exit.

APPENDIX A

CURRENT AND FORMER REFEREE SURVEYS

“Informed Consent Statement”

The following survey asks about your experiences as a referee. This survey is voluntary. If you are uncomfortable with a question, you may leave it blank. You may stop at any time. The survey will take approximately 8 minutes to complete. All answers to this survey will be confidential. No one will know your identity. Protocol requires that I inform you of any health risks that might be involved with your participation in this research. It is anticipated that the only risks associated with the survey would be related to normal computer use. Please designate your consent by clicking on the "I agree" button before continuing with the survey. Thank you.

1. As of 2005, are you certified as a United State Soccer Federation (USSF) certified referee?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

2. What is your referee grade level?
 - a. 12
 - b. 9
 - c. 8
 - d. 7
 - e. 6
 - f. 5
 - g. 4
 - h. 3
 - i. 2
 - j. 1

3. How long have you been a referee?
 - a. 0-1.0 year
 - b. 1.1-2.0 years
 - c. 2.1-3.0 years
 - d. 3.1-4.0 years
 - e. 4.1-5.0 years
 - f. 5.1-6.0 years
 - g. 6.1-7.0 years
 - h. 7.1-8.0 years
 - i. 8.1-9.0 years
 - j. 9.1-10 years
 - k. More than 10 years

In this section, please respond how you feel about officiating.

4. The soccer leagues that I work for treat me well as a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

5. The assignors whom I work for treat me well as a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

6. The leagues that I work for support my decisions as a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

7. The assignors whom I work for support my decisions as a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

8. The soccer leagues that I work for have changed in ways that I do not like.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree
 - e. There has been no change

9. Refereeing interferes with other duties in my life.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

10. I feel that I was forced to become a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

11. Compared to other referees, I feel that I am a good referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

12. Coaches think that I am a good a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

13. I have met many of my good friends through refereeing.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

14. Other referees think that I am a good referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

15. My assignors think that I am a good referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

16. Fans think that I am a good referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

17. Players think I that am a good referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

18. My family or significant other is in favor of my refereeing.
- Strongly Agree
 - Agree
 - Disagree
 - Strongly Disagree
19. Refereeing is rewarding to me.
- Strongly Agree
 - Agree
 - Disagree
 - Strongly Disagree
20. I feel emotionally drained from refereeing.
- Never felt this way at all
 - Less than once a month
 - About once a month
 - About once a week
 - Every time I refereed
21. I don't enjoy having to referee.
- Never felt this way at all
 - Less than once a month
 - About once a month
 - About once a week
 - Every time I refereed
22. Refereeing really puts a lot of strain on me.
- Never felt this way at all
 - Less than once a month
 - About once a month
 - About once a week
 - Every time I refereed
23. I feel burned out by refereeing.
- Never felt this way at all
 - Less than once a month
 - About once a month
 - About once a week
 - Every time I refereed

For this section, please respond to the following with the answer that is most appropriate.

24. Have you ever received any financial reward for being a good referee?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

25. Have you ever been nominated as an outstanding referee for a league?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

26. Have you ever been rewarded for good refereeing with an invitation to a special tournament (such as the State Cup, a Regional or National Championship)?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

27. When you first started to referee, how did refereeing compare to your expectations?
 - a. It was worse than I expected
 - b. It was better than I expected
 - c. It was about what I expected

28. Before you started refereeing, how serious were your doubts about refereeing?
 - a. Very serious
 - b. Mildly serious
 - c. Not serious at all
 - d. I had no doubts whatsoever

29. How does refereeing affect your financial situation?
 - a. It improves it greatly
 - b. It improves it somewhat
 - c. It has no impact
 - d. It costs me some money
 - e. It costs me a lot of money

30. How much referee training (including camps, classes, etc.) have you had in the past year?
 - a. None
 - b. 6 hours or less
 - c. 7 to 10 hours
 - d. 11 to 20 hours
 - e. More than 20 hours

The next question is for referees who have been injured or temporarily disabled in the past five years. If you have not been injured or temporarily disabled enough in the past five years that you could not referee, please click "continue" and move to the next question. If you have been injured or temporarily disabled enough in the past five years that you could not referee, please answer the following question.

31. How long were you unable to referee because of an injury or temporary disability?
 - a. Less than 1 month
 - b. 1-6 months
 - c. 7-12 months
 - d. More than 1 year

32. Have you ever been verbally harassed by a coach, player, parent or fan while refereeing?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

33. Have you ever been physically assaulted by a coach, player, parent, or fan while refereeing?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

34. Do you currently have a family member in your household who plays soccer?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

35. On a scale from 0 to 10, with 0 being not at all important and 10 being most important, how important is refereeing for who you are as a person?
 - a. 0
 - b. 1
 - c. 2
 - d. 3
 - e. 4
 - f. 5
 - g. 6
 - h. 7
 - i. 8
 - j. 9
 - k. 10

36. In what year were you born? _____

37. What is your marital status?
- a. Not married and not living with a partner
 - b. Not married and living with a partner
 - c. Married
38. How many children do you have in each age group?
- a. Ages 0-6 _____
 - b. Ages 7-12 _____
 - c. Ages 13-18 _____
39. Your sex?
- a. Male
 - b. Female
40. What is it about refereeing that keeps you coming back?

FORMER REFEREE SURVEY

“Informed Consent Statement”

The following survey asks about your experiences as a referee. This survey is voluntary. If you are uncomfortable with a question, you may leave it blank. You may stop at any time. The survey will take approximately 8 minutes to complete. All answers to this survey will be confidential. No one will know your identity. Protocol requires that I inform you of any health risks that might be involved with your participation in this research. It is anticipated that the only risk associated with this survey would be related to normal computer use. Please designate your consent by clicking on the "I agree" button before continuing with the survey. Thank you for your participation.

1. As of 2005, are you certified as a United State Soccer Federation (USSF) certified referee?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

2. What was your referee grade level when you quit?
 - a. 8
 - b. 7
 - c. 6
 - d. 5
 - e. 4
 - f. 3
 - g. 2
 - h. 1

3. How long were you a referee?
 - a. 0-1.0 year
 - b. 1.1-2.0 years
 - c. 2.1-3.0 years
 - d. 3.1-4.0 years
 - e. 4.1-5.0 years
 - f. 5.1-6.0 years
 - g. 6.1-7.0 years
 - h. 7.1-8.0 years
 - i. 8.1-9.0 years
 - j. 9.1-10 years
 - k. More than 10 years

In this section, please respond how you feel about officiating.

4. The soccer leagues that I worked for treated me well as a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

5. The assignors whom I worked for treated me well as a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

6. The leagues that I worked for supported my decisions as a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

7. The assignors whom I worked for supported my decisions as a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

8. The soccer leagues that I worked for changed in ways that I did not like.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree
 - e. There was no change

9. Refereeing interfered with other duties in my life.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

10. I felt that I was forced to become a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

11. Compared to other referees, I felt that I was a good referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

12. Coaches thought that I was a good a referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

13. I met many of my good friends through refereeing.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

14. Other referees thought that I was a good referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

15. My assignors thought that I was a good referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

16. Fans thought that I was a good referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

17. Players thought that I was a good referee.
 - a. Strongly Agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Disagree
 - d. Strongly Disagree

18. My family or significant other was in favor of my refereeing.

- a. Strongly Agree
- b. Agree
- c. Disagree
- d. Strongly Disagree

19. Refereeing was rewarding to me.

- a. Strongly Agree
- b. Agree
- c. Disagree
- d. Strongly Disagree

20. I felt emotionally drained from refereeing.

- a. Never felt this way at all
- b. Less than once a month
- c. About once a month
- d. About once a week
- e. Every time I refereed

21. I did not enjoy having to referee.

- a. Never felt this way at all
- b. Less than once a month
- c. About once a month
- d. About once a week
- e. Every time I refereed

22. Refereeing really put a lot of strain on me.

- a. Never felt this way at all
- b. Less than once a month
- c. About once a month
- d. About once a week
- e. Every time I refereed

23. I felt burned out by refereeing.

- a. Never felt this way at all
- b. Less than once a month
- c. About once a month
- d. About once a week
- e. Every time I refereed

For this section, please respond to the following with the answer that is most appropriate.

24. Did you ever receive any financial reward for being a good referee?

- a. Yes
- b. No

25. Were you ever nominated as an outstanding referee for a league?
- Yes
 - No
26. Were you ever rewarded for good refereeing with an invitation to a special tournament (such as the State Cup, a Regional or National Championship)?
- Yes
 - No
27. When you first started to referee, how did refereeing compare to your expectations?
- It was worse than I expected
 - It was about what I expected
 - It was better than I expected
28. Before you started refereeing, how serious were your doubts about refereeing?
- Very serious
 - Mildly serious
 - Not serious at all
 - I had no doubts whatsoever
29. How did refereeing affect your financial situation?
- It improved it greatly
 - It improved it somewhat
 - It had no impact
 - It cost me some money
 - It cost me a lot of money
30. In your last year of refereeing, how much referee training (including camps, classes, etc.) did you have?
- None
 - 6 hours or less
 - 7 to 10 hours
 - 11 to 20 hours
 - More than 20 hours

The next question is for referees who were injured or temporarily disabled in the past five years. If you were not injured or temporarily disabled enough in the past five years that you could not referee, please click "continue" and move to the next question. If you were injured or temporarily disabled enough in the past five years that you could not referee, please answer the following question.

31. How long were you unable to referee because of an injury or temporary disability?
 - a. Less than 1 month
 - b. 1-6 months
 - c. 7-12 months
 - d. More than 1 year

32. Did a coach, player, parent, or fan while refereeing ever verbally harass you?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

33. Did a coach, player, parent, or fan while refereeing ever physically assault you?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

34. When you were refereeing, did you have a family member in your household who played soccer?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No

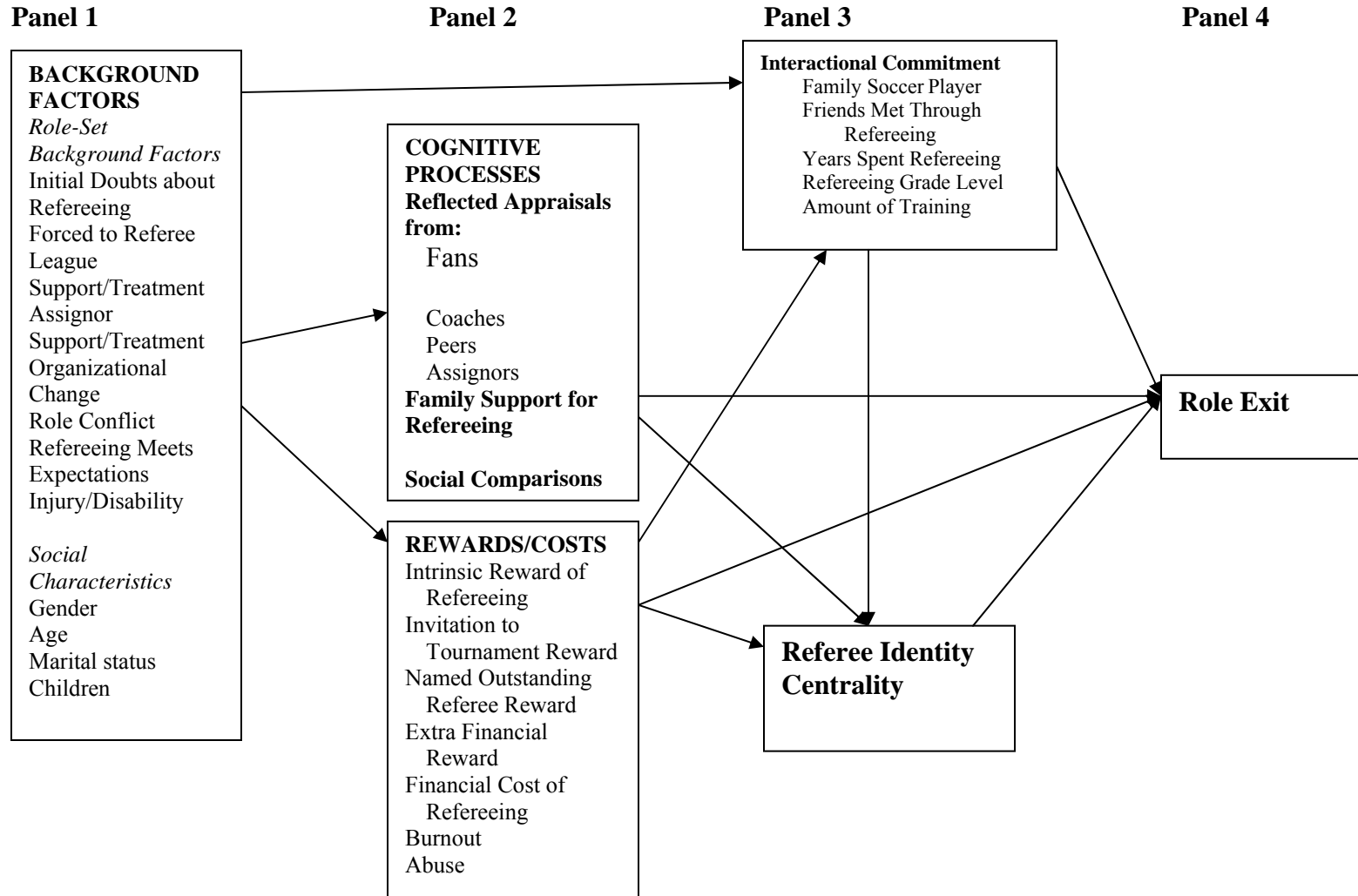
35. On a scale from 0 to 10, with 0 being not at all important and 10 being most important, how important was refereeing for who you are as a person?
 - a. 0
 - b. 1
 - c. 2
 - d. 3
 - e. 4
 - f. 5
 - g. 6
 - h. 7
 - i. 8
 - j. 9
 - k. 10

36. In what year were you born? _____

37. What is your marital status?
- a. Not married and not living with a partner
 - b. Not married and living with a partner
 - c. Married
38. How many children do you have in each age group?
- a. Ages 0-6 _____
 - b. Ages 7-12 _____
 - c. Ages 13-18 _____
39. Your sex?
- a. Male
 - b. Female
40. What are some reasons that you decided to quit refereeing?

APPENDIX B

Figure 1: Theoretical Model of Referee Role Exit



APPENDIX C
LETTERS TO REFEREES

Two Days before Letter

Dear Referee,

Having been involved with refereeing, many of you recognize that there is an enormous amount of turnover among referees. There is currently little information about why some referees decide to keep refereeing while others drop out. To help clarify our understanding of this issue, the Metro DC-Virginia State Referee Program has given me permission to survey both current and former referees about their experiences with refereeing. This information will be invaluable for developing future programs

Within the next couple of days, you will be receiving a brief survey about your refereeing experiences at this same email address. I would greatly appreciate if you would take a few moments and complete it. The information you provide will be anonymous. At no time will anyone but me be able to see your email address, and your name will not be linked to the information you provide.

If you have any questions, feel free to contact me, Jake Milne, at jamilne@vt.edu.

Sincerely,

Jake Milne
Department of Sociology
Virginia Tech
Blacksburg, VA 24060

Letter with Survey

Dear Referee,

A few days ago, I sent you an email requesting your participation in a brief survey about your experiences as a referee. The Metro DC-Virginia State Referee Program has given me permission to conduct this survey to find out more about why some referees continue refereeing while others drop out. Your thoughts and experiences will provide valuable information that will help us to understand the problem.

Please click on one of links below to connect to the survey. At the beginning of the survey is a consent statement. Please read it and answer it before continuing with the survey. Once you are done with the survey, please click on “submit.”

If you have any questions, you can reach me, Jake Milne, at jamilne@vt.edu.

Sincerely,

Jake Milne
Department of Sociology
Virginia Tech
Blacksburg, VA 24060

Follow-Up Letter

Dear Referee,

About a week ago, I sent you a survey via email asking about your experiences as a referee. I would like to thank everyone who has taken the time to fill out the survey. However, if you have not yet had a chance to fill it out, please know that the information you provide will be invaluable. As mentioned before, all answers are anonymous. Below you will find a link to the survey. Thank you for your participation.

If you have any questions or concerns, feel free to contact me (Jake Milne) at jamilne@vt.edu. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Jake Milne
Department of Sociology
Virginia Tech
Blacksburg, VA 24060

APPENDIX D

PROPOSAL TO STATE REFEREE OFFICE AND APPROVAL

UNDERSTANDING WHY REFEREES QUIT

Research Proposal Submitted By:

Jason S. Milne

Department of Sociology

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

Referee programs and soccer leagues in the Commonwealth of Virginia and the District of Columbia struggle to retain qualified soccer referees. Organizations such as the Metro DC-Virginia Soccer Referee Program face almost a 50% turnover rate every two years. There is excellent research on the psychological motivations of soccer referees to continue. This research provides valuable information for referee programs. However, social factors such as referees' experiences with players, coaches, and parents may also influence retention. Referee programs may need to address these factors in order to develop a program to keep qualified officials.

This study will investigate the social factors that lead some adult referees to decide to continue with refereeing while others quit. I am conducting this research in partial fulfillment of my Ph.D. in Sociology at Virginia Tech. I believe this research will provide valuable information for the State Referee Soccer Program in its efforts to retain qualified officials for the ever-increasing number of matches played in Virginia and DC.

To conduct this research, I will distribute a survey to current and former soccer referees over the age of eighteen in Virginia and the District of Columbia. Current

referees are those who are USSF-certified for the year 2005. Former referees are those who did not re-certify for the years 2004 or 2005. I will use the referee databases from the years 2002, 2003, 2004, and 2005 to determine who is currently certified and who has quit refereeing within the past 2 years.

I will send an initial e-mail notice on February 27th, 2006 to all current and former referees. This e-mail will inform current and former referees that they will be receiving a web-based survey in 2 days. Two days after the initial notification, I will e-mail one survey to current referees and a different one to former referees. Approximately 1 week later, I will send out another notice requesting those who have not completed the survey to participate. While I appreciate any and all responses, no respondent will be compelled to respond. I anticipate completion of data collection by March 2006 and expect that initial results will be available in May 2006. I will submit a report of my findings to the Metro DC-Virginia State Referee Program by August 2006.

I request that the Metro DC-Virginia State Referee Program supply the referee databases for the years 2002, 2003, 2004, and 2005, including email addresses. I also request that the State Referee Program emphasize the legitimacy of this study by allowing me to use its name in association with this research.

My study fulfills all ethical requirements of Virginia Tech as well as those of the State Referee Program. I am only authorized to use email addresses in order to contact individuals for participation in this study. Emails will be sent to each individual separately and in no case will other respondents be able to see an email address of another referee. Any data that is gathered from this survey will only be used for this project. This includes but is not limited to the respondents name, addresses, date of birth,

referee grade, or any other information related to the survey. All respondents will be anonymous as the information given will not be connected to any name.

I thank the Metro DC-Virginia State Referee Program for its interest in my research. If there are any questions, you may reach me via e-mail: Jake Milne (jamilne@vt.edu) or you may contact my advisor: Professor Jill Kiecolt (kiecolt@vt.edu).

Thank you for your consideration. I look forward to collaborating with the State Referee Program on this valuable research.

APPENDIX E

TIMETABLE FOR DISSERTATION

Get together with State Ref Org: Late October

Complete Chapters 1-3: September 30th- January 23rd.

Proposal Defense: February 10th

IRB: Submit February 13th

Collect Data: February 27th-March 10th

Analyze Data: March 10th- April 14th

Write Up Results and Conclusion: April 14th – Aug. 13th

Defend Dissertation: September 15th

APPENDIX F

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD INFORMATION

Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
With
Metro DC-Virginia State Referee Program

Informed Consent for Participants in Research Projects Involving Human Subjects.
Title of Project: An Identity Theory of Role Exit among Soccer Referees

Principle Investigator: Jason S. Milne

Faculty Advisor: K. Jill Kiecolt

Purpose of this Research/Project

The purpose of this research is to examine the factors that affect why soccer referees stop officiating. Approximately 5000 current and former referees will be surveyed via a web-based survey. These referees are all adults 18 years of age or older who are currently certified as soccer referees or who have quit refereeing within the past 2 years.

Procedures

Both current and former referees will be determined by using a database supplied by the Metro DC-Virginia State Referee Program. An email will be sent to all current and former referees notifying them of their selection. Two days later all referees will be sent an email linking them to one of two the web-based surveys. Current referees will receive a survey written in present tense while former referees will receive a survey written in past tense. Referees will complete the survey once. The survey will take approximately 8 minutes to complete. Approximately one week later, a follow-up email will be sent to the referees thanking those who participated and requesting participation from those who have not.

Risks

I anticipate that there will be only minimal risks associated with using a computer.

Benefits

There are no tangible benefits for the referees who complete this survey.

Referees who do complete the survey will receive no compensation and no guarantee or benefit will be used to encourage the referee to participate. Benefits accrue to the Metro DC-Virginia State Referee Program to help develop programs to retain referees.

Extent of Anonymity and Confidentiality

This survey is anonymous. Referees will receive a link to the survey. Once directed to the website for the survey, there will be no way to identify who is taking the survey. Similarly, respondents will not know the email addresses of other's participating in the survey. All results will be kept on an electronic storage device owned by the Co-Investigator.

Compensation

Referees will not receive any compensation for their time.

Freedom to Withdraw

This survey is completely voluntary. Referees are free to withdraw at anytime. There is no penalty for withdrawing from the survey. Similarly, referees are free not to answer any question.

Subject's responsibilities

The survey is voluntary. The referee does not have to supply any personal information.

Subject's Permission

Subjects will give their informed consent before filling out the survey. The statement of informed consent is located at the beginning of the survey. By clicking on "I agree" the respondent indicates that they have read and understand the Informed Consent Conditions of this project, that all of their questions have been answered, and that they give their voluntary consent.

Should I have any pertinent questions about this research or its conduct, I may contact:

Jason S. Milne [540-231-6455](tel:540-231-6455)/jamilne@vt.edu

K. Jill Kiecolt [540-231-8978](tel:540-231-8978)/kiecolt@vt.edu

Departmental Reviewer/Department Head

Telephone/Email

David M. Moore [540-231-4991](tel:540-231-4991)/moored@vt.edu
 Chair, Virginia Tech Institutional
 Review Board for the Protection
 of Human subjects

Office of Research Compliance –CVM Phase II (0442)
Research Division

This Informed Consent is valid from _____ to _____.

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH

The purpose of this research is to understand why soccer referees quit. Currently approximately 50% of all referees quit within two years of becoming a referee. Using several sociological theories, I provide and test a model of why referees quit. This model is tested using surveys of current and former soccer referees in Virginia and the District of Columbia. This research is intended to provide the Metro DC-Virginia Soccer Referee Program with information such to better retain referees. Additionally, this research is intended to examine how factors affecting one's identity can explain why individuals stop performing a role.

In order to collect the data, I will survey approximately 5000 current and former referees over the age of 18. To determine this list, I will obtain databases of referees for the years 2002, 2003, 2004, and 2005. Databases will be obtained from the Metro DC-Virginia Soccer Referee Program per their approval of this project. Using these databases, I will send a survey via email, to all current and former referees. No email addresses will be visible to other referees. The email will contain a link to a web-based survey. The survey will take approximately 8 minutes. Referees will voluntarily fill out the survey and submit it to a general database where all raw data will be kept. This raw data will be stored on a device owned by the Co-Investigator.

It is anticipated that there will be only minimal risks to the respondent associated with the use of a computer. No information will be used for future solicitation. While

there is no direct tangible benefit to the referee for filling out the survey, the benefit accrues to referee administrators so that they might construct programs to better retain referees.

All information provided by referees is anonymous. Each email will contain a link to the survey. However, the investigators will no indication as to who filled out the survey or the person's computer from which they filled out the survey. No names will be connected to any data received. All data will be collected and stored in a database owned by the co-investigator. Since this is an electronic survey, no hard copies will be kept.

The surveys (including an informed consent statement at the top of each) and letters used to contact the referee are all attached to this document.

APPENDIX G
TABLES AND GRAPHS

Table 1. Hypotheses of Background Factors on Role Exit, Cognitive Processes, and Rewards/Costs

	<u>Role Exit</u>	<u>Reflected Appraisals</u>	<u>Family Support</u>	<u>Social Comparisons</u>	<u>Rewards</u>	<u>Financial Costs</u>	<u>Burnout</u>	<u>Verbal Abuse</u>
<i>Background Factors</i>								
League/assignor support/treatment	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-
Organizational Change	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+
Role Conflict	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+
Refereeing meets expectations	-	+	-	+	+	-	-	-
Initial doubts about refereeing	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+
Forced to Referee	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	-
Injury (1=injury)	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+
Gender (1=female)	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	-
Age	+	-	-	-	+	-	+	-
Marital status (1=married)	-	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
Number of Children	-	?	+	?	?	+	?	?

Table 2. Hypotheses of Background Factors on Commitment and Identity Centrality

	<u>Friends Met Through Refereeing</u>	<u>Family Soccer Player</u>	<u>Length of Time as Referee</u>	<u>Grade Level</u>	<u>Amount of Training</u>	<u>Identity Centrality</u>
<i>Background Factors</i>						
League/assignor support/treatment	+	+	+	+	+	+
Organizational Change	-	-	-	-	-	-
Role Conflict	-	-	-	-	-	-
Refereeing meets expectations	+	+	+	+	+	+
Initial doubts about refereeing	-	-	-	-	-	-
Forced to Referee	-	?	-	-	-	-
Injury (1=injury)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gender (1=female)	+	?	+	+	+	+
Age	+	?	+	+	+	+
Marital status (1=married)	+	+	+	+	+	+
Number of Children	?	+	+	?	?	?

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Metric	Mean	SD	N
<i>Background Factors</i>				
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>				
Role Exit	0 = "certified" 1 = "not certified"	.24	.43	940
Assignor Treatment/Support	0 = "strongly disagree" to 4 "strongly agree"	2.95	1.02	940
League Treatment/Support	0 = "strongly disagree" to 4 "strongly agree"	2.61	.98	940
Organizational Change	0 = "no league change" to 2 = "league change"	.33	.47	924
Role Conflict	0 = "strongly disagree" to 3 = "strongly agree"	1.47	.79	934
Refereeing meets expectations	0 = "It was worse than I expected" 2 = "It was better than what I expected"	1.09	.57	935
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	0 = "I had no doubts whatsoever" to 3 = "very serious doubts"	1.11	.81	936
Forced to Become a Referee	0 = "strongly disagree" to 3 = "strongly agree"	.34	.56	933
Injury	0 = "no injury" 1 = "had an injury in the past year"	.28	.45	940
<i>Social Characteristics</i>				
Gender	0 = male 1 = female	.11	.32	935
Age	Continuous	43.89	13.19	924
Marital Status	0 = never married 1 = married	.75	.43	940
Children Ages 0-6	Continuous	.11	.38	940
Children Ages 7-12	Continuous	.26	.58	940
Children Ages 13-18	Continuous	.69	.87	940
<i>Cognitive Processes</i>				
Reflected Appraisals	1 = "disagree" to 4 "strongly agree"	3.24	.54	940
Family Support for Referee	0 = "strongly disagree" to 3 = "strongly agree"	2.16	.63	923
Social Comparisons	0 = "strongly disagree" to 3 "strongly agree"	2.23	.54	924
<i>Rewards/Costs</i>				
Refereeing is Intrinsically Rewarding	0 = "strongly disagree" to 3 "strongly agree"	2.32	.62	927
Extra Financial Reward	0 = "no" 1 = "yes"	.12	.33	936
Named Good Referee Reward	0 = "no" 1 = "yes"	.11	.32	936
Invitation to Tournament Reward	0 = "no" 1 = "yes"	.31	.46	936
Financial Cost of Refereeing	0 = "it improves it greatly" to 4 = "it costs me a lot of money"	1.68	.75	939
Burnout	0 = "never felt this way at all" to 4 = "every time I referee"	.92	.83	937
Verbal Abuse	0 = "no", 1 = "yes"	.90	.30	925
<i>Commitment</i>				
Refereeing Grade Level	0 = "grades 8 and 12"	.19	.40	940

Years Spent as Referee	to 1 = "grades 1-7" .5 = "less than 1 year"	7.15	5.20	940
Friends Met Through Refereeing	to 15 = "15 or more years"	1.51	.81	917
Family Soccer Player	0 = "strongly disagree" to 3 "strongly agree"	.62	.49	925
Amount of Training	0 = "no," 1 = "yes"	8.90	7.46	935
<i>Identity Centrality</i>	0 = "none"			
Identity Centrality	to 25 = "more than 20 hours"	5.29	2.76	928
	0 = "not at all important" to 10 = "most important"			

Table 4. OLS Regression Effects of the Background Factors on the Cognitive Processes

<i>Background Factors</i>	Reflected <u>Appraisals</u> b	Family Support <u>for Referee</u> b	Social <u>Comparisons</u> b
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>			
Assignor Treatment/Support	.03 (.02)	.06* (.02)	.02 (.02)
League Treatment/Support	.07*** (.02)	.06* (.03)	.04 (.02)
Organizational Change	-.06 (.03)	.02 (.04)	-.07 (.04)
Role Conflict	-.02 (.02)	-.19*** (.03)	.00^ (.02)
Refereeing Meets Expectations	.12*** (.03)	.06 (.03)	.08** (.03)
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	-.08*** (.02)	-.05 (.02)	-.08*** (.02)
Forced to Referee	-.09*** (.03)	-.14*** (.04)	-.14*** (.03)
Injury (1 = yes)	.13*** (.03)	.06 (.04)	.16*** (.04)
<i>Social Characteristics</i>			
Gender (1 = female)	-.06 (.05)	.09 (.07)	-.20*** (.06)
Age	-.00^ (.00)	-.01 (.00^)	-.00^ (.00^)
Marital Status (1 = married)	-.01 (.05)	.00^ (.06)	.04 (.05)
Children Ages 0-6	.00^ (.04)	-.13** (.05)	.02 (.05)
Children Ages 7-12	.05 (.03)	-.01 (.03)	.01 (.03)
Children Ages 13-18	-.02 (.02)	-.08*** (.02)	-.04 (.02)
Constant	2.79*** (.09)	2.56*** (.12)	2.23*** (.11)
N	891	878	880
Adjusted R ²	.13	.18	.10

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test).

^ Absolute value $< .005$

Table 5. OLS and Logistic Regression Effects of Background Factors on Rewards/Costs

<i>Background Factors</i>	Refereeing is <u>Rewarding</u> b	Invitation to <u>Tournament</u> Exp (B)	Named Good <u>Ref for League</u> Exp (B)	Money Reward <u>for Refereeing</u> Exp (B)
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>				
Assignor	.06**	1.16	.96	1.17
Treatment/Support League	(.02)	(.09)	(.13)	(.13)
Treatment/Support Organizational Change	.09***	.81*	1.01	.98
	(.02)	(.10)	(.14)	.13
Role Conflict	-.03	.69*	.68	.64
	(.04)	(.18)	(.25)	(.24)
Refereeing Meets Expectations	-.07**	1.28*	.91	1.00
	(.02)	(.10)	(.14)	(.14)
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	.21***	1.80***	1.94***	1.80***
	(.03)	(.14)	(.20)	(.19)
Forced to Referee	-.03	1.08	1.01	1.26
	(.02)	(.10)	(.14)	(.13)
Injury (1 = yes)	-.27***	.54***	.83	1.44*
	(.03)	(.17)	(.22)	(.18)
	.16***	2.16***	1.64*	1.66*
	(.04)	(.17)	(.23)	(.22)
<i>Social Characteristics</i>				
Gender (1 = female)	-.22***	.65	1.32	.70
	(.06)	(.28)	(.33)	(.37)
Age	.00^	1.00	.99	1.00
	(.00^)	(.01)	(.01)	(.01)
Marital Status (1 = married)	-.07	1.20	1.35	.73
	(.06)	(.24)	(.33)	(.31)
Children Ages 0-6	.05	1.17	1.12	1.12
	(.05)	(.21)	(.30)	(.29)
Children Ages 7-12	.01	.76	.42**	.90
	(.03)	(.16)	(.33)	(.20)
Children Ages 13-18	-.03	.57***	.74	.92
	(.02)	(.11)	(.15)	(.13)
Constant	1.88***	-1.22**	.16**	.04***
	(.11)	(.47)	(.63)	(.65)
N	882	888	888	888
Adjusted R ²	.23			
Cox and Snell		.13	.05	.03

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test).

^ Absolute value $< .005$

Table 5. OLS and Logistic Regression Effects of Background Factors on Rewards/Costs (cont.)

	Verbal <u>Abuse</u> Exp (B)	Financial Impact <u>of Refereeing</u> b	<u>Burnout</u> b
<i>Background Factors</i>			
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>			
Assignor Treatment/Support	1.38* (.15)	-.06* (.03)	.06* .03
League Treatment/Support	.60*** (.16)	-.02 (.03)	-.17*** .03
Organizational Change	.71 (.25)	.03 (.05)	-.06 .05
Role Conflict	1.03 (.15)	.12*** (.03)	.19*** .03
Refereeing Meets Expectations	1.00 (.22)	-.13*** .04	-.18*** .04
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	1.12 (.15)	.03 (.03)	.20*** .03
Forced to Referee	.56** (.19)	.14*** (.04)	.15*** .05
Injury (1 = yes)	1.19 (.29)	.10 (.05)	.05 .06
<i>Social Characteristics</i>			
Gender (1 = female)	.67 (.34)	-.04 (.08)	.14 .08
Age	1.02 (.01)	.02*** (.00)	-.01*** .00^
Marital Status (1 = married)	1.46 (.36)	.14* (.07)	-.01 .08
Children Ages 0-6	.86 (.30)	.00^ (.06)	-.07 .07
Children Ages 7-12	.62** (.18)	.08 (.04)	-.11* .04
Children Ages 13-18	.70* (.15)	.08 (.03)	-.03 .03
Constant	11.00*** (.71)	.88*** (.14)	1.24*** .14
N	879	891	889
Adjusted R ²		.19	.21
Cox and Snell	.05		

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test).

^ Absolute value $< .005$

Table 6. OLS Regression Effects of Background Factors and Rewards/Costs on Commitment (Years Spent Refereeing)

	<u>Model 1</u>	<u>Model 2</u>
	B	b
<i>Background Factors</i>		
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>		
Assignor Treatment/Support	.03 (.18)	-.18 (.17)
League Treatment/Support	-.38* (.19)	-.16 (.18)
Organizational Change	-1.24*** (.32)	-.99*** (.31)
Role Conflict	-.04 (.19)	-.20 (.19)
Refereeing Meets Expectations	1.08*** (.27)	.58* (.26)
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	-.43* (.19)	-.55** (.18)
Forced to Referee	-.82** (.28)	-.26 (.28)
Injury (1 = yes)	1.67*** (.34)	1.13*** (.33)
<i>Social Characteristics</i>		
Gender (1 = female)	-.95 (.49)	-.81 (.47)
Age	.15*** (.02)	.16*** (.01)
Marital Status	-.43 (.45)	-.59 (.43)
Children Ages 0-6	.40 (.41)	.33 (.39)
Children Ages 7-12	-1.08*** (.27)	-.67** (.26)
Children Ages 13-18	-1.68*** (.18)	-1.30*** (.18)
<i>Rewards/Costs</i>		
Refereeing is Intrinsically Rewarding		.68* (.28)
Extra Financial Reward (1 = yes)		-.27 (.45)
Named Good Referee Reward (1 = yes)		1.53*** (.47)
Invitation to Tournament Reward (1 = yes)		2.44*** (.35)
Financial Cost of Refereeing		-.25 (.21)
Burnout		.45* (.20)
Verbal Abuse (1 = yes)		2.11*** (.49)
Constant	3.17*** (.89)	-1.02 (1.15)
N	891	858
Adjusted R ²	.28	.38

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test), ^ Absolute value $< .005$

Table 7. OLS Regression Effects of Background Factors and Rewards/Costs on Commitment (Amount of Training)

	<u>Model 1</u>	<u>Model 2</u>
	b	b
<i>Background Factors</i>		
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>		
Assignor Treatment/Support	-.11 (.30)	-.27 (.29)
League Treatment/Support	.03 (.32)	-.03 (.32)
Organizational Change	-1.03 (.54)	-.65 (.53)
Role Conflict	.45 (.32)	.30 (.32)
Refereeing Meets Expectations	1.06* (.44)	.37 (.45)
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	-.06 (.31)	-.07 (.31)
Forced to Referee	-1.74*** (.46)	-1.14* (.47)
Injury (1 = yes)	1.48** (.56)	.34 (.56)
<i>Social Characteristics</i>		
Gender (1 = female)	-.07 (.82)	.43 (.81)
Age	.04 (.02)	.02 (.03)
Marital Status (1 = married)	1.52* (.76)	1.28 (.74)
Children Ages 0-6	.32 (.68)	.05 (.67)
Children Ages 7-12	.32 (.44)	.32 (.44)
Children Ages 13-18	-.72* (.30)	-.49 (.30)
<i>Rewards/Costs</i>		
Refereeing is Intrinsically Rewarding		1.83*** (.48)
Extra Financial Reward (1 = yes)		2.30** (.77)
Named Good Referee Reward (1 = yes)		1.54 (.81)
Invitation to Tournament Reward (1 = yes)		2.99*** (.60)
Financial Cost of Refereeing		1.28*** (.36)
Burnout		-.33 (.35)
Verbal Abuse (1 = yes)		.55 (.84)
Constant	5.30*** (1.49)	-.29 (1.97)
N	886	854
Adjusted R ²	.05	.14

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test), ^ Absolute value $< .005$

Table 8. OLS Regression Effects of Background Factors and Rewards/Costs on Commitment (Friends Met Through Refereeing)

	<u>Model 1</u>	<u>Model 2</u>
	B	B
<i>Background Factors</i>		
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>		
Assignor Treatment/Support	.05 (.03)	.03 (.03)
League Treatment/Support	.02 (.03)	.01 (.03)
Organizational Change	-.13* (.06)	-.11* (.05)
Role Conflict	-.05 (.03)	-.04 (.03)
Refereeing Meets Expectations	.10* (.05)	-.01 (.05)
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	-.02 (.03)	-.01 (.03)
Forced to Referee	-.16*** (.05)	-.05 (.05)
Injury (1 = yes)	.17** (.06)	.09 (.06)
<i>Social Characteristics</i>		
Gender (1 = female)	-.09 (.09)	-.04 (.08)
Age	.02*** (.00)^	.02*** (.00)^
Marital Status (1 = married)	.00^ (.08)	-.03 (.08)
Children Ages 0-6	.05 (.07)	.03 (.07)
Children Ages 7-12	-.01 (.05)	.02 (.05)
Children Ages 13-18	-.05 (.03)	-.01 (.03)
<i>Rewards/Costs</i>		
Refereeing is Intrinsically Rewarding		.21*** (.05)
Extra Financial Reward (1 = yes)		.03 (.08)
Named Good Referee Reward (1 = yes)		.26** (.08)
Invitation to Tournament Reward (1 = yes)		.27*** (.06)
Financial Cost of Refereeing		-.06 (.04)
Burnout		-.02 (.04)
Verbal Abuse (1 = yes)		.08 (.09)
Constant	.73*** (.15)	.23 (.20)
N	872	843
Adjusted R ²	.11	.20

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test), ^ Absolute value $< .005$

Table 9. Logistic Regression Effects of Background Factors and Rewards/Costs on Commitment (Refereeing Grade Level)

	<u>Model 1</u> Exp (B)	<u>Model 2</u> Exp (B)
<i>Background Factors</i>		
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>		
Assignor Treatment/Support	1.06 (.11)	.97 (.11)
League Treatment/Support	.85 (.11)	.83 (.12)
Organizational Change	.70 (.20)	.84 (.22)
Role Conflict	1.39** (.12)	1.36* (.13)
Refereeing Meets Expectations	1.32 (.16)	1.01 (.18)
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	.82 (.11)	.78* (.13)
Forced to Referee	.80 (.18)	1.12 (.20)
Injury (1 = yes)	1.45 (.19)	1.00 (.21)
<i>Social Characteristics</i>		
Gender (1 = female)	.57 (.34)	.77 (.36)
Age	.98 (.01)	.98 (.01)
Marital Status (1 = married)	1.24 (.27)	1.30 (.29)
Children Ages 0-6	1.06 (.23)	.91 (.26)
Children Ages 7-12	.89 (.17)	.94 (.18)
Children Ages 13-18	.56*** (.13)	.67** (.14)
<i>Rewards/Costs</i>		
Refereeing is Intrinsically Rewarding		2.29*** (.20)
Extra Financial Reward (1 = yes)		.91 (.29)
Named Good Referee Reward (1 = yes)		1.33 (.27)
Invitation to Tournament Reward (1 = yes)		4.22*** (.21)
Financial Cost of Refereeing		1.17 (.14)
Burnout		1.09 (.14)
Verbal Abuse (1 = yes)		.72 (.37)
Constant	.25** (.52)	.03*** (.81)
N	892	859
Cox and Snell	.07	.15

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test), ^ Absolute value $< .005$

Table 10: OLS Regression Effects of the Background Factors, Rewards/Costs, and Commitment on Identity Centrality

	<u>Model 1</u>	<u>Model 2</u>	<u>Model 3</u>	<u>Model 4</u>	<u>Model 5</u>	<u>Model 6</u>
Background Factors			B	B	B	B
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>						
Assignor Treatment/Support	.12 (.11)	.10 (.11)	-.02 (.10)	.06 (.10)	-.03 (.10)	-.03 (.10)
League Treatment/Support	.22 (.11)	.12 (.11)	.09 (.10)	.21* (.11)	.09 (.10)	.07 (.11)
Organizational Change	-.61*** (.19)	-.54** (.19)	-.55** (.18)	-.37* (.18)	-.45** (.17)	-.41* (.17)
Role Conflict	-.33** (.11)	-.24* (.12)	-.20 (.11)	-.29** (.11)	-.16 (.11)	-.12 (.11)
Refereeing Meets Expectations	.67*** (.16)	.55*** (.15)	.08 (.15)	.51*** (.15)	.06 (.15)	.06 (.15)
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	-.03 (.11)	.05 (.11)	.04 (.10)	.01 (.11)	.03 (.10)	.05 (.10)
Forced to Referee	-1.01*** (.16)	-.82*** (.16)	-.41** (.16)	-.76*** (.16)	-.32* (.16)	-.27 (.16)
Injury (1 = yes)	.53** (.20)	.39* (.20)	.16 (.19)	.25 (.19)	.08 (.18)	.06 (.19)
<i>Social Characteristics</i>						
Gender (1 = female)	-.94*** (.29)	-.79** (.29)	-.54* (.27)	-.90*** (.28)	-.56* (.26)	-.49 (.27)
Age	-.01 (.01)	.00^ (.01)	-.01 (.01)	-.03** (.01)	-.02 (.01)	-.01 (.01)
Marital Status (1 = married)	-.10 (.27)	-.09 (.27)	-.00^ (.24)	-.19 (.25)	-.05 (.24)	-.03 (.24)
Children Ages 0-6	-.03 (.24)	.01 (.24)	-.23 (.22)	-.11 (.23)	-.25 (.22)	-.19 (.22)
Children Ages 7-12	-.11 (.16)	-.09 (.15)	-.10 (.15)	-.13 (.15)	-.15 (.15)	-.13 (.15)
Children Ages 13-18	-.27** (.11)	-.19 (.11)	-.11 (.10)	-.14 (.11)	-.11 (.11)	-.06 (.11)
<i>Cognitive Processes</i>						
Reflected Appraisals		.11 (.24)				.42* (.19)

Family Support for Referee		.60***				.42**
		(.15)				(.14)
Social Comparisons		.65**				-.49*
		(.20)				(.23)
<i>Rewards/Costs</i>						
Refereeing is Intrinsically Rewarding		1.73***			1.56***	1.51***
		(.16)			(.16)	(.16)
Extra Financial Reward (1 = yes)		.59*			.55*	.57*
		(.25)			(.25)	(.25)
Named Good Referee Reward (1 = yes)		.04			-.14	-.27
		(.27)			(.27)	(.27)
Invitation to Tournament Reward (1 = yes)		.65***			.45*	.39
		(.20)			(.21)	(.21)
Financial Cost of Refereeing		-.29*			-.27*	-.29*
		(.12)			(.12)	(.12)
Burnout		-.10			-.10	-.09
		(.11)			(.11)	(.11)
Verbal Abuse (1 = yes)		.29			.18	.18
		(.28)			(.28)	(.28)
<i>Commitment</i>						
Refereeing Grade Level (1 = grades 1-7)				.09	-.28	-.21
				(.23)	(.22)	(.22)
Years Spent as Referee				.03	-.00^	-.01
				(.02)	(.02)	(.02)
Friends Met Through Refereeing				.88***	.61***	.61***
				(.12)	(.11)	(.12)
Family Soccer Player (1 = yes)				.12	.06	.02
				(.19)	(.18)	(.18)
Amount of Training				.05***	.04***	.04
				(.01)	(.01)	(.01)
Constant	5.24***	2.02*	2.03**	4.17***	1.88**	1.45
	(.52)	(.83)	(.65)	(.53)	(.65)	(.91)
N	880	857	854	855	834	815
Adjusted R ²	.13	.16	.30	.23	.33	.34

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test).

^ Absolute value $< .005$

Table 11. Logistic Regression Effects of Background Factors, Cognitive Processes, and Identity Centrality on Role Exit

	<u>Model 1</u> Exp(B)	<u>Model 2</u> Exp(B)	<u>Model 3</u> Exp(B)
<i>Background Factors</i>			
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>			
Assignor Treatment/Support	.74** (.10)	.76* (.11)	.78* (.11)
League Treatment/Support	1.26* (.11)	1.22 (.12)	1.24 (.12)
Organizational Change	1.39 (.18)	1.28 (.18)	1.16 (.19)
Role Conflict	1.70*** (.11)	1.73*** (.12)	1.70*** (.12)
Refereeing Meets Expectations	.86 (.16)	.88 (.16)	.95 (.16)
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	.92 (.11)	.91 (.11)	.93 (.11)
Forced to Referee	1.41* (.15)	1.30 (.16)	1.17 (.16)
Injury (1 = yes)	.65* (.21)	.68 (.21)	.69 (.21)
<i>Social Characteristics</i>			
Gender (1 = female)	1.09 (.26)	1.20 (.27)	1.08 (.28)
Age	.98** (.01)	.98** (.01)	.98** (.01)
Marital Status (1 = married)	.72 (.25)	.71 (.25)	.67 (.26)
Children Ages 0-6	.81 (.25)	.79 (.25)	.79 (.25)
Children Ages 7-12	.61** (.19)	.59** (.19)	.57** (.20)
Children Ages 13-18	.95 (.11)	.90 (.11)	.88 (.12)
<i>Cognitive Processes</i>			
Reflected Appraisals		1.08 (.24)	1.08 (.25)
Family Support for Referee		.88 (.15)	.97 (.16)
Social Comparisons		.72 (.20)	.79 (.21)
<i>Identity Centrality</i>			
Identity Centrality			.86*** (.04)
Constant	.74 (.49)	1.81 (.83)	
N	892	869	858
Cox and Snell	.10	.11	.14

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test).

^ Absolute value $< .005$

Table 12: Logistic Regression Effects of Background Factors, Commitment and Identity Centrality on Role Exit

	<u>Model 1</u> Exp (B)	<u>Model 2</u> Exp(B)	<u>Model 3</u> Exp(B)
<i>Background Factors</i>			
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>			
Assignor Treatment/Support	.74** (.10)	.72** (.11)	.73** (.11)
League Treatment/Support	1.26* (.11)	1.27* (.12)	1.30* (.12)
Organizational Change	1.39 (.18)	1.27 (.19)	1.20 (.20)
Role Conflict	1.70*** (.11)	1.83*** (.12)	1.79*** (.13)
Refereeing Meets Expectations	.86 (.16)	.93 (.17)	.98 (.17)
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	.92 (.11)	.96 (.12)	.96 (.12)
Forced to Referee	1.41* (.15)	1.21 (.16)	1.11 (.16)
Injury (1 = yes)	.65* (.21)	.82 (.22)	.83 (.22)
<i>Social Characteristics</i>			
Gender (1 = female)	1.09 (.26)	1.04 (.27)	.93 (.28)
Age	.98** (.01)	.99 (.01)	.99 (.01)
Marital Status (1 = married)	.72 (.25)	.74 (.26)	.70 (.26)
Children Ages 0-6	.81 (.25)	.79 (.27)	.79 (.27)
Children Ages 7-12	.61** (.19)	.51*** (.20)	.49*** (.20)
Children Ages 13-18	.95 (.11)	.70** (.13)	.68** (.14)
<i>Commitment</i>			
Refereeing Grade Level		1.43 (.25)	1.45 (.26)
Years Spent as Referee		.95* (.02)	.95* (.02)
Friends Met Through Refereeing		.94 (.13)	1.05 (.13)
Family Soccer Player (1 = yes)		2.34*** (.21)	2.43*** (.22)
Amount of Training		.93*** (.02)	.93*** (.02)
<i>Identity Centrality</i>			
Identity Centrality			.89*** (.04)
Constant	.74 (.49)	.64 (.56)	1.01 (.58)
N	892	856	856
Cox and Snell	.10	.16	.17

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test).

^ Absolute value $< .005$

Table 13: Logistic Regression Effects of Background Factors, Rewards/Costs, Commitment, and Identity Centrality on Role Exit

	<u>Model 1</u> Exp (B)	<u>Model 2</u> Exp(B)	<u>Model 3</u> Exp(B)	<u>Model 4</u> Exp(B)	<u>Model 5</u> Exp(B)
<i>Background Factors</i>					
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>					
Assignor Treatment/Support	.74** (.10)	.76* (.11)	.74** (.11)	.77* (.11)	.73** (.11)
League Treatment/Support	1.26* (.11)	1.24 (.12)	1.25 (.13)	1.25 (.12)	1.27 (.13)
Organizational Change	1.39 (.18)	1.35 (.19)	1.28 (.20)	1.22 (.19)	1.19 (.20)
Role Conflict	1.70*** (.11)	1.62*** (.12)	1.71*** (.13)	1.59*** (.12)	1.70*** (.13)
Refereeing Meets Expectations	.86 (.16)	1.03 (.17)	1.03 (.18)	1.03 (.17)	1.03 (.18)
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	.92 (.11)	.90 (.11)	.93 (.12)	.91 (.12)	.93 (.12)
Forced to Referee	1.41* (.15)	1.23 (.16)	1.10 (.17)	1.18 (.16)	1.05 (.17)
Injury (1 = yes)	.65* (.21)	.68 (.22)	.79 (.23)	.67 (.22)	.77 (.23)
<i>Social Characteristics</i>					
Gender (1 = female)	1.09 (.26)	1.03 (.27)	1.01 (.28)	.96 (.28)	.93 (.29)
Age	.98** (.01)	.97** (.01)	.99 (.01)	.97*** (.01)	.98 (.01)
Marital Status (1 = married)	.72 (.25)	.71 (.26)	.72 (.27)	.69 (.26)	.69 (.27)
Children Ages 0-6	.81 (.25)	.84 (.26)	.81 (.28)	.82 (.26)	.80 (.28)
Children Ages 7-12	.61** (.19)	.57** (.20)	.48*** (.21)	.54** (.20)	.46*** (.21)
Children Ages 13-18	.95 (.11)	.91 (.12)	.70** (.14)	.89 (.12)	.68** (.14)
<i>Rewards/Costs</i>					
Refereeing is Intrinsically Rewarding		.86 (.17)	.94 (.19)	1.12 (.19)	1.15 (.20)
Extra Financial Reward (1 = yes)		.97 (.29)	1.08 (.32)	1.06 (.30)	1.16 (.32)
Named Good Referee Reward (1 = yes)		.68 (.32)	.78 (.35)	.67 (.33)	.76 (.35)
Invitation to Tournament Reward (1 = yes)		.80 (.22)	1.09 (.25)	.89 (.23)	1.17 (.25)
Financial Cost of Refereeing		1.24 (.13)	1.30 (.14)	1.19 (.13)	1.26 (.14)
Burnout		1.14 (.12)	1.16 (.13)	1.12 (.12)	1.14 (.13)
Verbal Abuse (1 = yes)		.42*** (.27)	.43** (.29)	.41*** (.28)	.44** (.30)
<i>Commitment</i>					
Refereeing Grade Level			1.41 (.26)		1.36 (.26)
Years Spent as Referee			.96 (.03)		.96 (.12)

Friends Met Through Refereeing			1.00 (.13)		1.08 (.14)
Family Soccer Player (1 = yes)			2.46*** (.22)		2.54*** (.22)
Amount of Training			.93*** (.02)		.93*** (.02)
<i>Identity Centrality</i>					
Identity Centrality				.86*** (.04)	.88** (.04)
Constant	.74 (.49)	1.76 (.68)	1.02 (.73)	2.51 (.69)	1.25 (.74)
N	892	859	835	855	835
Cox and Snell	.10	.13	.18	.15	.19

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test).

^ Absolute value $< .005$

Table 14: Logistic Regression Effects of Background Factors, Cognitive Processes, Rewards/Costs, Commitment, and Identity Centrality on Role Exit

	<u>Model 1</u> Exp (B)	<u>Model 2</u> Exp(B)	<u>Model 3</u> Exp(B)	<u>Model 4</u> Exp(B)
<i>Background Factors</i>				
<i>Role Set Background Factors</i>				
Assignor Treatment/Support	.74** (.10)	.78* (.11)	.75* (.12)	.75* (.12)
League Treatment/Support	1.26* (.11)	1.21 (.12)	1.22 (.13)	1.23 (.13)
Organizational Change	1.39 (.18)	1.26 (.19)	1.18 (.20)	1.11 (.20)
Role Conflict	1.70*** (.11)	1.67*** (.12)	1.75*** (.13)	1.75*** (.13)
Refereeing Meets Expectations	.86 (.16)	1.03 (.17)	1.02 (.18)	1.02 (.18)
Initial Doubts about Refereeing	.92 (.11)	.90 (.12)	.95 (.13)	.95 (.13)
Forced to Referee	1.41* (.15)	1.17 (.17)	1.05 (.17)	1.00 (.17)
Injury (1 = yes)	.65* (.21)	.68 (.22)	.78 (.23)	.76 (.23)
<i>Social Characteristics</i>				
Gender (1 = female)	1.09 (.26)	1.15 (.28)	1.14 (.29)	1.06 (.30)
Age	.98** (.01)	.97** (.01)	.98 (.01)	.98 (.01)
Marital Status (1 = married)	.72 (.25)	.69 (.26)	.70 (.27)	.68 (.27)
Children Ages 0-6	.81 (.25)	.81 (.43)	.77 (.29)	.78 (.28)
Children Ages 7-12	.61** (.19)	.55** (.20)	.46*** (.21)	.44*** (.22)
Children Ages 13-18	.95 (.11)	.88 (.12)	.68** (.14)	.67** (.14)
<i>Cognitive Processes</i>				
Reflected Appraisals		1.00 (.25)	1.14 (.27)	1.05 (.28)
Family Support for Referee		.91 (.16)	.88 (.17)	.93 (.28)
Social Comparisons		.89 (.21)	.90 (.17)	.96 (.23)
<i>Rewards/Costs</i>				
Refereeing is Intrinsically Rewarding		.89 (.18)	.98 (.19)	1.19 (.20)
Extra Financial Reward (1 = yes)		.96 (.30)	1.06 (.32)	1.15 (.32)
Named Good Referee Reward (1 = yes)		.69 (.33)	.77 (.35)	.74 (.35)
Invitation to Tournament Reward (1 = yes)		.81 (.23)	1.08 (.25)	1.15 (.26)
Financial Cost of Refereeing		1.25 (.13)	1.32 (.15)	1.28 (.15)
Burnout		1.14 (.12)	1.17 (.13)	1.15 (.13)

Verbal Abuse (1 = yes)		.43** (.28)	.44** (.30)	.45** (.31)
<i>Commitment</i>				
Refereeing Grade Level			1.47 (.27)	1.44 (.27)
Years Spent as Referee			.96 (.03)	.96 (.03)
Friends Met Through Refereeing			1.00 (.14)	1.08 (.58)
Family Soccer Player (1 = yes)			2.32*** (.22)	2.39*** (.23)
Amount of Training			.92*** (.02)	.93*** (.02)
<i>Identity Centrality</i>				
Identity Centrality				.89** (.04)
Constant	.74 (.49)	2.66 (.99)	1.19 (1.06)	1.38 (1.07)
N	892	840	816	816
Cox and Snell	.10	.14	.19	.19

Note: Numbers in parentheses are standard errors

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (one-tailed test).

^ Absolute value $< .005$

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VITA

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