NOTE TO USERS

Page(s) not included in the original manuscript and are unavailable from the author or university. The manuscript was scanned as received.

97-101

This reproduction is the best copy available.

Ice Hockey Team Captains' Perceptions of their Behaviors

Martin Dupuis

Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education

McGill University, Montréal

September, 2004

A thesis submitted to McGill University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

of the degree of

Master of Arts

Canada

Abstract

Research on leadership in sport has primarily focused on the behaviors of coaches despite the claim that leadership behaviors of athletes are considered by many to be an important component of success. More precisely, ice hockey team captains are recognized as having a significant leadership role. The purpose of this study was to identify and examine the key leadership behaviors exhibited by athletes, specifically ice hockey team captains. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with six former university male ice hockey team captains. Data were analysed inductively, following the guidelines of Côté, Salmela, and Russell (1995). Three main areas emerged from the data analysis which were called: (a) the *interpersonal characteristics and experiences*, (b) the *social interactions*, and (c) the *task behaviors*. These results identified the influence of background experiences of team captains, the types of behaviors displayed, how the behaviors were manifested, when and where the behaviors were exhibited, and the individuals involved in these behaviors.

Résumé

La recherche sur le leadership dans le sport a principalement mis l'emphase sur les comportements des entraîneurs malgré que le leadership des athlètes soit considéré par plusieurs comme un facteur important au succès d'une équipe. Plus précisément, les capitaines d'équipe de hockey sur glace sont reconnus pour avoir un rôle significatif en tant que leader. Le but de cette étude était d'identifier et d'examiner les comportements clés de leadership manifestés par les athlètes, spécifiquement les capitaines d'équipe de hockey sur glace. Des entrevues semi structurées et en profondeur ont été réalisées avec six anciens capitaines de hockey sur glace de niveau universitaire. Les données ont été analysées de façon inductive, suivant les directives de Côté, Salmela, et Russell (1995). Trois catégories principale ont émergé de l'analyse des données : (a) *les caractéristiques interpersonnelles et les expériences*, (b) *les interactions sociales*, et (c) *les comportements axés sur la tâche*. Les résultats ont identifié l'influence des expériences passées des capitaines d'équipe, les types de comportements et comment ils étaient manifestés, quand et où les comportements étaient manifestés, et les individus impliqués dans ces comportements.

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my recognition to many people who helped me complete my master's thesis during my years at McGill:

- My advisor, Dr. Gordon Bloom, for all his help conceptualizing and reviewing the numerous drafts of my thesis. As well, for his guidance through my entire graduate career.

- My colloquium committee members: Dr. Greg Reid, Dr. René Turcotte, and Coach Martin Raymond, for their great insights and comments.

- Dr. Todd Loughead, for his expertise on peer leadership and for our frequent discussions on the performance of the Montreal Canadiens!

- All of the participants that generously gave their time and thoughts for the interviews.

- Marc Dagenais for being my peer reviewer during the data analysis process.

- Jon Stein and Josh Berg for their time and patience transcribing interviews.

- Matthew Davies who became a good friend from day one of my studies.

- To my other sport psychology colleagues (Kim, Erin, Kerry, Amey, Tammy, Tracy, Chantal St-P., Julie, Amanda, and Chantal V.) who helped me enjoy my years at McGill and taught me how to speak English!

- Finally, I would like to thank my dad Michel, my mom Marie-Paule, and my brothers Patrick and François, for supporting me in many ways throughout my academic career.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figure

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

What makes a good leader? The answer to this question is not straightforward. In fact, it is easier to name some great leaders than to explain what great leadership is (Cox, 1998). For example, in the sport context, several coaches were well known for their great leadership skills. John Wooden, Vince Lombardi, and Scotty Bowman were some of them. Similarly, it is easy to name several athletes who had great leadership influences on their teams. Micheal Jordan, Wayne Gretzky, John Elway, and Mark Messier were examples of great athlete leaders. Do these individuals have something in common? Do they share specific leadership characteristics?

Qualities like dependable, cooperative, decisive, knowledgeable, organized, willing to assume responsibility, adaptable, self-confident, diplomatic, and energetic have been identified as characteristics of great leaders (Reed, 1997). A strong desire to succeed, excel, and win, can also describe great leaders (Cox, 1998). In ice hockey, captains like Ron Francis, Mark Messier, Doug Gilmour, Mario Lemieux, and Steve Yzerman are well known for their great leadership skills. As team captain, athlete leaders need to be mature, intelligent, somewhat extroverted, articulate, empathetic, and possess athletic ability (Mosher, 1979). Based on a comment by a former NHL team captain, one can assume that team captains work hard, have strong character, lead by example, earn respect both as a locker-room presence and as a productive player on the ice, are individuals the coach believes in, can communicate effectively, are not afraid to call a player out or give suggestions, and have experience (Ferraro, 2002).

In addition to some specific characteristics, team captains are expected to fulfill several roles on their team. Mosher (1979) divided the role of team captain into three categories. First, team captains act as a liaison between coaches and other players. Second, team captains act as a leader in every situation and context. During games, practices, and other activities, team captains should direct the actions of other players. Third, team captains act as a team official. Team captains must interact with officials during games and must represent the team at different receptions and meetings. However, the question still remains: What do captains actually do to be considered great leaders? Specifically, what leadership behaviors do team captains exhibit to fill their roles? Previous and current research on leadership might help to give an answer to these questions.

Definition of Leadership

Leadership is one of the most studied concepts in the social sciences (Klenke, 1993). Leadership has been defined, constructed, and researched from numerous theoretical frameworks over the years such as trait theories, behavioral approaches, and transactional, transformational, and charismatic theories (Klenke, 1993). In spite of the rich background of research on leadership, this complex concept is one of the least understood phenomena because the entire subject of leadership is riddled with paradoxes (Burns, 1978). Almost every finding about leadership can be contradicted by other results (Klenke, 1993). For example, conflicting results can be found on several research areas on leadership, like personality characteristics, leader effectiveness, gender differences in leadership, and the validity and utility of leadership theories (Klenke, 1993).

Despite no generally accepted theory and the various ways to define leadership, some common components have emerged as central to this concept. Leadership may be defined as "the behavioral process of influencing individuals and groups toward set goals" (Barrow, 1977, p. 232). Similar to the definition of Barrow, Northouse's (2001) definition of leadership included four main components: "leadership is (a) a process (b) whereby an individual influences (c) a group of individuals (d) to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, p.3). First, the process component of leadership is the interaction between the leader and the followers. It is not a one-way process. The leader affects the followers, and the followers affect the leader (Northouse, 2001). Second, the influence component of leadership is the key component of this concept (Northouse, 2001). It is concerned with how the leader affects the followers (Northouse, 2001). Third, the group component of leadership is the context where leadership emerges (Northouse, 2001). And fourth, the common goal component involves the task of a leader to direct the energy of the followers to accomplish a goal (Northouse, 2001).

An individual can be viewed as a leader because of his/her formal position in a group or because of the interactions and responses of others with them. Then, two types of leadership can be named: formal leadership (i.e., assigned or prescribed) and informal leadership (i.e., emergent) (Carron & Hausenblas, 1998; Northouse, 2001). Coaches, directors, and team captains are examples of formal leaders. According to Carron and Hausenblas, every formal leader, whatever his/her domain, has two fundamental responsibilities. First, the leader has to ensure that his/her group achieves the demands of the organization. Second, the leader needs to ensure that the members/followers are satisfied. On the other hand, a person who is perceived as the most influential member of

a group without an assigned leadership position is an example of an informal leader. The different approaches on leadership discussed later in this chapter apply to the two types of leadership.

In brief, leadership has been defined in several ways through the years (Northouse, 2001). However, some components are common to almost all conceptualizations of leadership. Thus, leadership is a process of influence, in a group, to attain a common goal (Northouse, 2001). In addition, leaders can be assigned or emergent.

Leadership in Sports

In sport, the majority of research on leadership has been conducted on coaches, especially on their characteristics and behaviors (Chelladurai, 1990). In particular, research on sport leadership has followed three different approaches (Chelladurai, 1993). For one, Smith, Smoll, and their colleagues (e.g., Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1978; Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977; Smoll & Smith, 1989) created the Mediational Model of Leadership and the Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS) as the framework of their approach. They assessed the relationship between the coaches' behaviors and the players' reactions. The second approach was a normative model of decision styles in coaching initiated by Chelladurai and Haggerty (Chelladurai, 1993). This model focused on the participation in decision-making preferred by athletes and/or allowed by coaches (Chelladurai, 1993). Finally, the third approach was based on the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai, 1978) and the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). This model suggested that group performance and member satisfaction were influenced by the congruence among three states of leader behaviors

(required, preferred, and actual) and their antecedents (characteristics of the situation, the leader, and the members) (Chelladurai, 1993). Interestingly, research using these three approaches as their framework has almost only used coaches as their leadership figures.

In spite of the great value that both coaches and athletes give to leadership and the importance of each other in the leadership process in a team, very few studies have examined peer leadership in the sport setting (Glenn & Horn, 1993). The few studies on peer leadership in sport have focused on three main topics. First, the majority of these studies examined traits and/or behaviors that distinguished sport team leaders from their non-leader peers (Glenn & Horn, 1993). For example, Yukelson, Weinberg, Richardson, and Jackson (1981), found that collegiate male baseball and soccer athletes who were rated high in leadership status, tended to be the more highly skilled players on the team, were upperclassmen, and also scored higher on internal locus of control than the players who were rated low in leadership status. In brief, this first line of inquiry of research on peer leadership differentiated peer leaders from their non-leader peers by different traits and behaviors.

Second, research on peer leaders also studied the influence of team interaction and particular field position of an athlete with the emergence of leadership. Specifically, athletes who played central positions (e.g., goalie, catcher, center forward) were more likely to be identified as team leaders (Glenn & Horn, 1993). However, Tropp and Landers (1979) suggested that the spatial location and the high interaction positions might not be the key element in developing peer leaders. They proposed that the nature of the position might have the greatest influence of the development of leadership. Further research on the social and vocal interactions of a player in a team may be important to

fully explain the role of the position of a player on his/her leadership (Wright & Côté, 2003).

Third, a recent study by Wright and Côté (2003) examined the development of leadership in sport. By interviewing peer leaders on male varsity teams, they found that peer leaders emphasized the importance of having high levels of skill in their sport, strong work ethic, superior tactical sport knowledge, and good relationship with their teammates. The development of these four central tenets was influenced by their interactions with peers, coaches, and parents.

In sum, despite the claim that leadership behaviors among athletes are considered by many coaches to be an important component of success (Gould, Hodge, Peterson, & Petlichkoff, 1987), research on peer leaders is limited. Moreover, research on peer leaders has tended to focus on emergent leaders, and on their psychological and personal characteristics (Glenn & Horn, 1993). As such, no empirical study has been conducted specifically on formal peer leaders, such as team captains, and on the behaviors they exhibited to fulfill their leadership role.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of the current study was to identify and examine the behaviors of male ice hockey team captains. In particular, this study identified the influence of the sporting and leadership experiences of team captains, the types of leadership behaviors displayed, how the behaviors were manifested, when and where the behaviors were exhibited, and the individuals involved in these behaviors.

Significance of the Study

This study will augment the small amount of literature on peer leadership in sport, will clarify the leadership process in ice hockey, and will help develop a better understanding of the behaviors of ice hockey team captains.

Delimitations and Limitations

This study has some delimitations. First, six team captains will be interviewed. They will be male team captains of Canadian university ice hockey teams. Second, the interviews will focus only on the team captains' perceptions of their behaviors. The views of coaches and teammates will not be examined. Finally, only formal peer leaders (i.e., team captains) will be interviewed. The perceptions of emergent leaders (i.e., informal leaders) will not be studied.

The delimitations of this study lead to some limitations. In particular, the results of this research may only be specific to Canadian male team captains who compete at the university level. Also, the findings may only apply to ice hockey. Moreover, the results may only unveil team captains' perceptions of their behaviors.

Operational Definitions

Team captain: player of a team with a formal leadership status. This status was assigned by coaches and/or teammates. In ice hockey, team captains wear a "C" on their jersey.

University player: athlete from a team of the CIS (Canadian Interuniversity Sport) league.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

Leadership has been studied from several different approaches. Behling and

Schriesheim (1976) provided a typology of these approaches to classify the different

theories of leadership (see Appendix A). Their classification scheme had two dimensions.

First, some leadership theories have focused on the traits that leaders have, while others

have focused on their behaviors. Second, some theories have studied leadership in

general, while others have studied leadership in specific situations (Carron & Hausenblas,

1998). Thus, Behling and Schriesheim's typology revealed four main approaches to study

leadership: universal trait, situational trait, universal behavior, and situational behavior

(Carron & Hausenblas, 1998). These four approaches will first be discussed, followed by

a review of studies on sport leadership using the Multidimensional Model of Leadership

(Chelladurai, 1978, 1990). This Multidimensional Model of leadership has been the most

extensively used framework to study elite sport leadership. Finally, peer leadership

research in sport and business will be reviewed.

Universal Trait Approach

The universal trait approach has frequently been named the *Great Person Theory*

of Leadership because it focused on the identification of personality traits and innate

qualities and characteristics of great leaders (Northouse, 2001). This approach assumed

that human progress was the result of these great leaders (Carron & Hausenblas, 1998).

This approach was very popular in the early 1900s (Northouse, 2001). However, in the

mid-1900s, the universal trait approach was questioned by Stogdill (1948) who found no

consistent pattern of personality traits among successful leaders. Specifically, no

universal pattern of personality traits distinguished successful leaders from less successful ones and to the general population (Carron & Hausenblas, 1998). In recent years, support for the universal trait approach has returned to research on leadership (e.g., Bryman, 1992; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986; Taggar, Hackett, Saha, 1999). For example, Kirkpatrick and Locke claimed that leaders were a distinct type of person based on several personality traits: drive, desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business. In the same way, Lord et al. conducted a meta-analysis and argued that intelligence, masculinity, and dominance were related to how people perceived leaders. However, these studies did not agree with each other on a definitive set of traits of leaders demonstrating the complexities of personality.

According to Northouse (2001), the universal trait approach had several strengths. First, it was an intuitively appealing approach because it fit with the general perception that leaders were special persons who could do special things. Second, the universal trait approach had a century of research behind it. The abundance of studies and the resurgence of them in the recent years gave credibility to this approach. Finally, it provided insight on which traits were important for prediciting future leaders.

According to Northouse (2001), the universal trait approach also had numerous weaknesses. First, the studies in this approach were unable to delimit a clear list of traits for leaders. Some traits appeared more often in research, but no studies agreed with each other. Second, the universal trait approach did not take the situation into consideration. A great leader in one situation may not be as effective in another context. Third, this approach did not relate leadership traits to productivity or followers' satisfaction.

Research using this approach only related personality traits to the emergence of leadership. Last, this approach was not very useful in developing or improving leaders because of the stability of personality traits

In brief, the universal trait approach provided some interesting insights on the different personality traits of leaders. However, no clear pattern of leader traits emerged. Furthermore, the usefulness of this approach is questionable because of the stable quality of personality traits. Thus, other approaches to study leadership must be taken into consideration.

Situational Trait Approach

This approach focused on identifying specific personality traits in specific contexts or situations (Carron & Hausenblas, 1998). The most known theory of this approach was called the Contingency Theory developed by Fred Fiedler (Carron & Hausenblas, 1998). The root of this theory was that leadership effectiveness depended on the leader's style and the favourableness of the situation. According to Fiedler (1967), the style of a leader varied on a continuum from task-oriented to person-oriented. Task-oriented leaders were more satisfied by the productivity and performance of the group. On the other hand, person-oriented leaders were more satisfied by the social contacts and the successful interpersonal relationships in the group. To measure the leadership style, Fiedler created the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) scale. Low LPC represented a task-motivated person and a high LPC represented a relationship-motivated person. The favourableness of the situation involved three components: the power position of the leader, the leader-member relations, and the task structure. The power position of the leader was the amount of authority and control and the organizational support a leader

had to punish or reward the followers. The leader-member relations referred to the quality of the group atmosphere and the degree of attraction between the leader and the followers. The task structure was the degree of clarity of the requirements of the task. A strong power position, good relationship between leader and followers, and defined tasks was a situation rated as most favourable. On the other hand, a weak power position, poor relationship, and unstructured task were rated as least favourable.

The contingency theory defined eight specific leadership situations that differed in the degree of favourableness determined by the three situational factors (leader-member relations, task structure, and position power). The contingency theory argued that task-motivated individuals were effective in both very favourable and very unfavourable situations (Northouse, 2001). On the other hand, a relationship-motivated person was effective in moderately favourable situations. However, research showed only limited support for the contingency theory. Two meta-analyses on this theory found divergent results. Strube and Garcia (1981) obtained good statistical support for almost each of the eight leadership situations, while Vecchio (1983) found several conceptual shortcomings of this previous meta-analysis. Thus, Vecchio's re-examination of the contingency theory studies was less supportive of the model.

Northouse (2001) outlined several strengths for the contingency theory. First, the contingency theory had a long tradition in research (e.g., Fiedler, 1967; Rice, 1978; Strube & Garcia, 1981; Vecchio, 1983; Yulk, 1989). Second, it was one of the first theories to consider the impact of the situation on leaders. Third, this theory can be predictive of the type of leadership that will be better in a specific situation. Fourth, the contingency theory postulated that a leader cannot be as effective in every situation.

Northouse (2001) also noted the weaknesses of this theory. First, the contingency theory failed to adequately explain the link between the leadership style and the favourableness of the situation. Second, research done on the contingency theory used the LPC scale, which lacked face validity and workability.

In brief, the situational trait approach (e.g., contingency theory) brought new avenues of research by adding the situation variable to the traditional trait theories of leadership. However, the lack of scientific support and the methodological problems of this approach demonstrated a need to find other ways to study leadership.

Universal Behavior Approach

The universal behavior approach emphasizes the behaviors of the leader, in contrast with the universal trait approach, which emphasizes the personality traits of the leader (Northouse, 2001). Thus, the universal behavior approach focuses on what leaders do. After World War II, research on leadership shifted its focus on the universal behaviors of leaders (Cox, 1998). Researchers assumed that successful leaders behaved in a universal way (Cox, 1998). This approach believed that universal behaviors could be taught to potential leaders (Cox, 1998).

Early research using this approach was completed at the Ohio State University and University of Michigan. Their research uncovered two important findings. First, they developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), which most research using this approach was derived (Cox, 1998). Second, they identified two important factors characterizing leader's behaviors: consideration and initiating structure (Cox, 1998). Consideration referred to the human relationship aspect between the leader and subordinates, such as friendship, respect, and trust (Cox, 1998). Initiating structure

referred to the establishment of organization, good communication, and effective

methods of procedure between the leader and the subordinates (Cox, 1998). These two

concepts were considered independent, so a leader could score high or low on both

dimensions (Cox, 1998). In a recent meta-analysis, Fisher (1988) found that a leader with

high consideration and high initiating structure was likely to show leadership

effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness was defined and measured by job performance,

satisfaction, and low turnover and grievances.

More recently, in the sport context, Smoll, Smith, and their colleagues (e.g., Smith,

Smoll, & Curtis, 1978; Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977; Smoll & Smith, 1989) used the

universal behavior approach to help create the Mediational Model of Leadership from

which they created guidelines to train coaches (Chelladurai, 1993). The creation of this

model was a significant step to study leadership in youth sports (Chelladurai, 1993).

Mediational Model of Leadership

The Mediational Model of Leadership (Smoll & Smith, 1989) (see Appendix B)

emphasizes the cognitive processes, the affective processes, and the individual

differences that influences the relationship between the behaviors of leaders, its

antecedents, and consequences (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). The model has three basic

components: coach behaviors, player perceptions and recall, and player evaluative

reactions. The model also focuses on the effects of antecedents, such as the coach's

individual difference variables, the situational factors, and the player's individual

difference variables. To test their model, Smoll, Smith and their colleagues developed

several measures (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). In developing these measures, they

found and described 12 categories of leader's behavior in sport (Chelladurai & Riemer,

1998). These 12 dimensions formed the basis to measure the actual coach behavior, player perception of their coach behavior, and the coach perception of self-behavior. Specifically, these behavioral dimensions formed the Coaching Behavioral Assessment System (CBAS).

The CBAS is an observational tool used to assess the actual leader's behaviors. The observed coaching behaviors are categorized into 12 dimensions, which are either reactive behaviors or spontaneous behaviors (Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). Reactive behaviors are immediate responses to a player or team behavior. They include responses to desirable performances (i.e., reinforcement and nonreinforcement), responses to mistakes (i.e., mistake-contingent encouragement, mistake-contingent technical instruction, punishment, and punitive technical instruction), and ignoring mistakes (i.e., responses to misbehavior, and keeping control). On the other hand, spontaneous behaviors are those initiated by the coach, in opposite to a response to an earlier behavior (Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). They include game related behaviors (i.e., general technical instruction, general encouragement, and organization), and game irrelevant behaviors (i.e., general communication) (Smoll, Smith, & Hunt, 1977).

Research based on the CBAS can be divided into three categories: general player attitudes, player self-esteem and coach behavior, and effects of training coaches (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). The first study using the CBAS was conducted by Smith, Smoll, and Curtis (1978) on player attitudes. They observed 5 Little League Baseball coaches by measuring the coaches' perceptions of their own behaviors and the players' postseason attitudes. Among their conclusions, they found that dimensions of supportiveness and instructiveness of the CBAS were positively significant with the

player's attitudes toward the coach, the sport, and their teammates. In a second study, Smith, Smoll, and Curtis (1979) trained coaches to relate more effectively with children on their team. They found that children playing for the trained coaches exhibited higher levels of self-esteem than a year before. This increase was not found among children playing for non-trained coaches. This allowed the authors to conclude that youth sport coaches could be trained to exhibit positive coaching behaviors, both quantitatively and qualitatively. In addition, players' enjoyment, satisfaction, and evaluation of their coach were enhanced.

In sum, the Mediational Model of Leadership advanced knowledge related to leadership in sports. This model argues that effective coaching behaviors can be learned (Cox, 1998). However, it must be noted that this model has been restricted to the domain of youth sport (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). The next section will discuss a different approach by focusing on the situation.

Situational Behavior Approach

The situational behavior approach focused on the identification of specific behaviors of different leaders in different situations (Carron & Hausenblas, 1998). In the sport psychology field, one theoretical model has been extensively used to investigate leadership: Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai, 1978, 1990).

Multidimensional Model of Leadership

The Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai, 1978) synthesizes several models and theories of leadership, such as Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of leadership effectiveness, Evan's (1970) and House's (1971) path-goal theory of

leadership, Osborne and Hunt's (1975) adaptive-reactive theory of leadership, and Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model of leadership (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). These earlier models and theories emphasized only one critical dimension of leadership (i.e., the leader, the member, the situation) (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). On the other hand, Chelladurai's multidimensional model of leadership places an equal focus on each dimension of leadership (see Appendix C). This model also expands earlier models and theories of leadership to the athletic context (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998).

According to Chelladurai's multidimensional model of leadership, leadership effectiveness, defined by the performance of the group and the satisfaction of the members, is the product of the congruence between the required, preferred, and actual behaviors of the leader (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Required behaviors of the leader are expected behaviors related to certain norms, boundaries, or standards (Chelladurai, 1978). Preferred behaviors are those favoured by the players or the organization (Chelladurai, 1978). Finally, actual behaviors are those exhibited by the leader, regardless of the norms of the organization (Chelladurai, 1978). Three antecedents influence the types of leader behaviors: the situational characteristics, the leader characteristics, and the member characteristics (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). First, the characteristics of the situation create demands and constraints on the leader behaviors. The goal of the team, the formal structure of the team, the social norms, and the cultural values are examples of situational characteristics (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Second, the leader characteristics are the personal attributes of the leader, such as his/her personality traits, ability, and experience (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Third, the member characteristics are defined by such factors as gender, age, and ability (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998).

In conjunction with the multidimensional model of leadership, Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) created The Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) which is composed of 40 items describing five dimensions of leader behavior: training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback/rewarding behavior (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). First, the training and instruction dimension includes aspects of clarification, coordination, and coaching. It consists of the leader behavior aimed at improving the performance of the athletes by a strenuous, rigorous, structured, and coordinated training program (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Second, democratic behavior allows the athletes a greater participation in the decisions taken for the team (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Third, autocratic behavior involves independence, authority, and sole responsibility of the leader over the decisions for the team (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Fourth, social support is characterized by a concern of well-being, great atmosphere in the team, and good relationship between members (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Finally, the positive feedback dimension is used to reinforce the athlete by rewarding and praising him/her for his/her performance (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Recently, Zhang, Jensen, and Mann (1997) created the Revised LSS, by adding a sixth dimension to the original scale, called "situational consideration behavior". This dimension is defined by "coaching behaviors aimed at considering the situation factors (such as time, individual, environment, team, and game); setting up individual goals and clarifying ways to reach the goals; differentiating coaching methods at different stages; and assigning an athlete to the right game position" (Zhang et al., pp.109-110). In addition to this new dimension, this study supported the original five leadership behavior dimensions of the LSS.

In contrast to the Mediational Model of Leadership, which has been restricted to youth sports, the Multidimensional Model of Leadership has largely focused on adult and elite sports. More particularly, the emphasis has been on coach's leadership behaviors.

Research on Sport Leadership Using the Multidimensional Model of Leadership

Research related to the Multidimensional Model of Leadership can be divided in two categories. First, studies dealing with antecedents of leadership influencing the perceived and preferred leader behaviors. The antecedents studied were grouped under individual differences and situational variables. Second, the influence of the congruence between the perceived and preferred leader behaviors on the consequences of leadership, such as performance and satisfaction (Chelladurai, 1993).

Antecedents of Leadership

Individual differences

The majority of research using the multidimensional model of leadership was descriptive in nature (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). One approach to study this model assessed the influences of antecedent variables on perceived and/or preferred behaviors of the leader by focusing on gender differences (Chelladurai, 1993). Based on their study of physical education students, Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) found that male students preferred more autocratic and supportive coaches than female students. Similarly, Erle (1981) found that male varsity and intramural hockey players preferred more training and instruction, more autocratic behaviors, more social support, and less democratic behaviors than female players. In a recent study using the Revised LSS, Beam, Serwatka, and Wilson (2004) re-examined the differences of student-athletes' preferred leadership behaviors of their coaches. They found a significantly higher preference for autocratic

and social support leader behaviors among male athletes, while female athletes had significantly greater preferences for situational consideration and training and instruction behaviors.

Personality is another individual difference associated with preferred leadership (Chelladurai, 1993). Varsity and intramural hockey players who scored high on task motivation preferred more training and instruction, while players who scored high on affiliation and extrinsic motivation preferred more social support (Erle, 1981). In addition, athletes with high impulsivity preferred more social support behavior from their coach than less impulsive athletes (Chelladurai & Carron, 1981).

Moreover, age and experience were related with preferred leadership style of athletes (Chelladurai, 1993). Serpa (1990) found that younger women basketball players in Portugal (12 to 15 years old) preferred more social support and democratic behavior, and less autocratic behavior, compared to older ones (17 to 29 years old). In addition, experienced athletes in competitive sports were characterized by a higher preference for positive feedback autocratic behavior, and social support (Erle, 1981). In brief, older athletes have been found to prefer autocratic behavior, while younger athletes preferred democratic behavior by their coaches.

Ability of athletes also influenced their perception of their coaches. Garland and Barry (1988) formed three groups of football players: (a) regular players who were starters and/or players who took part in more than 50% of the plays, (b) substitutes who were starters and/or players who took part in less than 50% of the plays, and (c) survivor players who just played when the outcome was not important. Assuming this grouping was a measure of ability, the more skilled players perceived their coaches to focus more

on training and instruction. In addition, skilled players perceived their coaches to be more

participative and less autocratic, to be more socially supportive, and to provide more

positive feedback, compared to the less able players (Chelladurai, 1993).

Situational variables

In the sport leadership literature, the situational variables that have been studied

were limited to organizational goals, task type, and culture. For example, Erle (1981)

studied the influence of organizational goals on preferred leadership behaviors. The

results of this research found that preferred leader behaviors were different between

intercollegiate and intramural hockey teams. Members of intercollegiate teams preferred

higher degrees of training and instruction, greater social support, less positive feedback,

and less democratic behavior from their coaches (Erle, 1981). However, no difference

was found between athletes from Division 1 and Division 2 universities for their

preferred leadership behaviors (Beam et al., 2004).

Second, the task type (interdependence vs. independence) of a sport was also

found to influence the preferred leadership behaviors of athletes. More specifically,

Chelladurai (1978) found that athletes in team sports (interdependent tasks) preferred

more training and instruction, and autocratic behavior than did the athletes of individual

sports (independent tasks). In the same way, Beam et al. (2004) found that independent

sport student-athletes had significantly greater preferences for democratic, positive

feedback, situational consideration, and social support behaviors. However, in this same

study, the task variability did not produce significant findings on the preferred leadership

behaviors. Task variability referred to the degree the environment changed and the extent

the student-athletes responded to these changes. Open sports required athletes to respond

to objects that moved in space (e.g., baseball, basketball, and volleyball). Closed sports

required athletes to perform in an environment with relatively unchanging stimuli (e.g.,

golf, track, and cross-country).

Finally, a third situational variable that was studied was culture. Terry (1984)

found no difference in the preferred leadership between the athletes from Canada, United

States, and Great Britain, who competed in the 1983 Universiade. This finding can

possibly be explained by the similar culture and sporting ideologies of these countries

(Terry, 1984). More recently, Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinuma, and Miyauchi

(1988) conducted a similar study comparing Japanese and Canadian university athletes.

The results of this study found that Japanese athletes preferred more autocratic behavior

and social support, while the Canadian athletes preferred more training and instruction.

In brief, research on the antecedents of the different types of leadership behavior

tested only parts of the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai, 1993). For

example, almost no study tested the relationship of antecedent variables on the required

leadership behavior component of the model. Only one attempt has been made at

operationalizing this concept (e.g., Chelladurai, 1978). Overall, more research is needed

to test the causal linkages of this model by using more sophisticated methodologies

(Chelladurai, 1993).

Consequences of Leadership

In addition to the first line of inquiry studying antecedents of leadership

behaviors, a second line of inquiry has studied the congruence between the preferred and

perceived leadership behaviors in relation to the consequences of leadership (Chelladurai

& Riemer, 1998). Three consequences of leadership have been studied: satisfaction,

performance, and coach-athlete compatibility. First, Chelladurai (1993) summarized research on athletes' satisfaction with leadership and concluded that satisfaction of athletes was higher when the coach focused on training and instruction to enhance the ability and coordinate the effort of the members. In addition, athletes were satisfied with leadership when positive feedback was used to reward good performance (Chelladurai, 1993). For example, Schliesman (1987) found that satisfaction of track and field athletes was higher when their perceived leadership behavior on training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback was higher than their preferred leadership behavior on these same dimensions.

A second consequence of leadership came from Weiss and Friedrich (1986) who studied the relation between perceived leadership and performance. They found that university basketball players' perceptions of their coaches on the five LSS dimensions were associated with performance. They found that the probability of athletes to achieve the desired outcomes was better if they were compatible with the coach's leadership style. In addition, when teams were the units of analysis, perceived leadership was predictive of win/loss percentage.

A third and final consequence of leadership focused on coach-athlete compatibility. For example, Horne and Carron (1985) found that in compatible dyads, the athletes perceived their coaches to provide positive feedback equal or more than their preference. In addition, they perceived their coaches to be less autocratic than their preference.

In sum, very few studies have examined the relationship between coaches' behaviors and consequences of leadership. From these few studies, it can be suggested

that the performance of the team and the satisfaction of the athletes were greater when the three types of leader behaviors (preferred, actual, and required) were congruent.

Peer Leadership Research in Sport

Research on leadership in sport has primarily focused on the behaviors of coaches despite the claim that leadership behaviors of athletes are considered by many coaches to be an important component of success (Gould, Hodge, Peterson, & Petlichkoff, 1987). This is somewhat unfortunate since the definition of leadership indicates that it is a process of individuals influencing other individuals; therefore, every team member (i.e., coaches and athletes) can display leadership. The research that has been conducted on peer leaders in sport will be explored in the following five sections: (a) the role of formal structure in developing and identifying leadership, (b) psychological characteristics of peer leaders, (c) peer leadership research using the Leadership Scale for Sport, (d) research from the business setting, and (e) non-empirical research on peer leadership.

Role of Formal Structure in Developing and Identifying Leadership

Grusky (1963) defined formal structure as "a set of norms which define the system's official objectives, its major offices or positions, and the primary responsibilities of the positions' occupants" (p. 345). In addition, he formulated an organizational-structure model along three interdependent dimensions: 1) spatial location, 2) nature of task, and 3) frequency of interaction. His model specified that "all else being equal, the more central one's spatial location: (1) the greater the likelihood dependant or coordinative tasks will be performed, and (2) the greater the rate of interaction with the occupants of other positions" (p. 346). Supporting his model, Grusky found that players of high interacting positions (e.g., catchers and infielders in baseball) were more likely

selected as managers than low-interacting positions players (e.g., pitchers and outfielders) after their career ended. Grusky stated that central positioning in baseball was a key element in leadership development because players in central positions interacted with other teammates more often than other players. Similarly, Glenn and Horn (1993) found that female soccer players who played in central field positions were more apt to be rated high in leadership quality by themselves and their coaches than players from peripherical positions.

In contrast, Tropp and Landers (1979) conducted a study with women's varsity field hockey players and found that players in a position of low interaction were higher in leadership and attraction than players in a position of high interaction. For example, goalies were rated highest in leadership characteristics and behaviors despite their low-interacting position. However, goalies performed unique tasks and skills that were critical to a team's success. In contrast to Grusky's (1963) conclusion, Tropp and Landers suggested that the crucial factor in predicting leadership and attraction in team sports was the nature of the task required for a position, rather than the spatial location or the frequency of interaction.

Other factors associated with leadership identification and development have also been studied. Weese and Nicholls (1986) found the number of years experience on a varsity team and a player's popularity as perceived by their teammates were significant in identifying team leaders. Similarly, Tropp and Landers (1979), in their study with women varsity field hockey players, found the number of years on the varsity team was significantly associated with being chosen as team captain.

In brief, the role of formal structure in developing and identifying leaders on a team is multidimensional. Research on this topic has not reached any definitive conclusions. However, it can be suggested that factors identifying team leaders are sport and/or level specific.

Psychological Characteristics

In addition to the role of formal structure to develop and recognize peer leaders in sport, other research on peer leadership has identified psychological characteristics of peer leaders. For example, using all the members of varsity baseball and soccer teams, Yukelson, Weinberg, Richardson, and Jackson (1981) found that players scoring high in leadership status (rated by their teammates) tended to be better performers, upperclassmen, and had an internal locus of control. In contrast, individuals low in leadership status tended to be poorer performers, underclassmen, and exhibited an external locus of control.

In another study, Glenn and Horn (1993) administered a number of questionnaires and inventories to female high school soccer players and interviewed seven head coaches of these teams to identify the personal and psychological characteristics associated with emergent team leaders. They found that athletes who were rated high in leadership skills by their peers exhibited high levels of competitive trait anxiety, masculinity, skill, and perceived soccer competence. In contrast, coaches' ratings of leadership ability of their athletes was only associated with the actual skill competence of the players. For self-rating, players who rated themselves as high on leadership ability also rated themselves as high on the masculinity, feminity, and perceived soccer competence variables. In the same way, Rees (1983) and Rees and Segal (1984) found that peer leaders on intramural

basketball and NCAA football teams exhibited both instrumental (task) and expressive (social) behaviors. Task behaviors are concerned with task success or goal attainment, while social behaviors are concerned with maintaining group solidarity and cohesion (Rees, 1983; Rees & Segal, 1984).

In spite of the different perception of effective leadership between coaches, teammates, and leaders, previous studies on the psychological characteristics of peer leaders advanced the leader-athlete research in sport by exploring important personal characteristics of these athletes (e.g., Glenn & Horn, 1993; Rees, 1983; Rees & Segal, 1984; Weese & Nicholls, 1986; Yukelson, Weinberg, Richardson, & Jackson, 1981). However, research has failed to explore how these characteristics developed (Wright & Côté, 2003). In a recent study, Wright and Côté interviewed six Canadian male varsity athletes from three team sports (basketball, volleyball, and ice hockey) who were identified as a team leader by their peers. The purpose of their study was to examine the impact of social and contextual variables in the development of leader-athletes. The results of this study indicated that leadership development in sport came from four main components: high athletic skills, strong work ethic, advanced tactical sport knowledge, and good rapport with people (Wright & Côté, 2003). Several social influences played an active role in the formation of these four components, such as being exposed to a fun and non-threatening sport environment, having parents who provided feedback, acknowledgement, and support, playing with older peers, and having mature and involving conversations with adults.

In brief, in spite of the few studies on peer leadership, several psychological characteristic differences have been found in research between team leaders and non-

leaders. In addition, how these characteristics developed has been studied to find the influence of the social context. However, the different characteristics varied as a function to the leadership rating system (Glenn & Horn, 1993). Then, coaches, teammates, and the leaders themselves had different perceptions of effective peer leadership.

Peer Leadership Research Using the Leadership Scale for Sport

Research on leadership in elite sport in the last two decades has mainly utilized the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML) as its framework (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Furthermore, this work has used the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) to measure leadership of coaches. This scale measures coaches' behaviors on five dimensions: training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback. In spite of the great value of this tool in the coach-leadership research, the LSS has rarely been used to study peer leadership. Only two known studies on peer leaders have used this well-known scale (e.g., Kozub & Pease, 2001; Loughead & Hardy, in press).

Kozub and Pease (2001) examined the relationship between coaching leadership behaviors and athlete leadership in high school basketball teams. The coaching leadership behaviors were measured by the five dimensions of the LSS. In contrast, athlete leadership was measured by a tool created for their study using two general leadership dimensions, task and social leadership. The findings of their research showed a positive relationship between athlete task leadership and the coaching behaviors of training and instruction, democratic behavior, and social support. Similarly, they also found a positive relationship between athlete social leadership and the coaching behavior dimensions of training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback.

Thus, this research showed a clear positive relationship between coaching leadership behaviors and player leadership behaviors. In particular, coaches' social support behavior and democratic leadership style appeared to have the most important implications for player leadership. However, using only two dimensions to measure peer leader behavior (e.g., task and social) limited the determination of specific behaviors of peer leaders.

To assess specific types of behaviors that peer leaders exhibited, Loughead and Hardy (in press) operationalized the peer leader behaviors by the five dimensions of the LSS. Specifically, they created a leadership scale for peer leaders by modifying the items of the original LSS. Thus, one of the purpose of this study was to allow a direct comparison between coach and athlete leadership behaviors on a team. The participants were 238 athletes representing fifteen teams from various sports, such as ice hockey, soccer, track and field, badminton, and cheerleading. Loughead and Hardy found that coaches were perceived to exhibit more training and instruction and autocratic behaviors than peer leaders. On the other hand, peer leaders were perceived to manifest more social support, positive feedback, and democratic behaviors than coaches. Thus, the results of this study showed that coaches exhibited more task or performance related behaviors, while peer leaders displayed higher level of interpersonal or social behaviors. Among their suggestions for future research, Loughead and Hardy stated that a logical starting point to study leadership behaviors of peer leaders would be to conduct an inductive and qualitative study to address the full extent of the behaviors manifested by peer leaders.

Research from Business Setting

Due to the paucity of research on peer leaders in sport, research from the business and industry setting may help to understand and highlight the importance of peer leaders

in a sport setting. According to Keidel (1987), "the world of sports mirrors the world of work... game or play structures parallel work structures" (p. 591). Research in the business setting has not study explicitly team captains, but the research has discussed peer, informal, member, and/or emergent leaders (e.g., Bednarek, Benson, & Mustafa, 1976; Hackman, 1992; Keer & Jermier, 1978; Pescosolido, 2001; Wheelan & Johnston, 1996). For example, Wheelan and Johnston (1996) examined the emergence of peer leaders in work groups with an actual assigned leader. This study was conducted with 31 participants attending a conference on group and organizational processes. Each group session was audiotaped and transcribed verbatim for a qualitative analysis. The results found the behaviors of peer leaders contrasted the behaviors of formal leaders. For example, peer leaders defied the authority of formal leaders by building coalitions with other members who supported this antiauthority stance (Wheelan & Johnston, 1996). These findings suggest the emergence of peer leaders might counterbalance the behaviors and influences of assigned leaders. In addition, in some work groups, peer leaders had a greater influence on their work teams than the formal leaders (Wheelan & Johnston, 1996).

In another study using a work group as their participants, Bednarek et al. (1976) found that co-workers identified peer leaders on four different leadership dimensions: task leadership, maturity, social influence, and flexibility. Peer leaders were not necessarily the same on each dimension. For example, if a group member needed to talk on personal matters, the member turned to peer leaders who were viewed as a good confidant. Similarly, if a group member needed technical information, the member turned to peer leaders who were viewed as knowledgeable on that technical matter. Thus, these

findings seemed to indicate that different types of peer leaders are used for different situations and that peer leaders might perform functions that formal leaders failed to fulfil (Hackman, 1992). Similarly, it has also been suggested that peer leaders are substitutes for formal leadership in some leader activities (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). For example, peer leaders provided support, as guidance and good feelings, which are not being supplied by other sources.

In addition, a team leadership model has been developed by Hugues, Ginnett, and Curphey (1993) to integrate what we know about teams, leadership, and team effectiveness in the business setting (Kogler Hill, 2001). This model can be applied for leader or member acting as a leader (e.g., peer leader). It provided specific behaviors that leaders could perform to improve team effectiveness (Kogler Hill, 2001). Behaviors were divided in two level of process: internal and external team leadership behaviors. First, the internal behaviors were here divided again in two categories: task and relational. Internal task leadership functions included behaviors to improve task performance, such as goal focusing, structuring for results, facilitating decision making, training team members, and maintaining standards (Kogler Hill, 2001). Internal relational leadership functions included behaviors to enhance team relationships, such as collaborating, managing conflict, building commitment, satisfying individual needs, and modeling ethical and principled practices (Kogler Hill, 2001). Second, the external behaviors reflected those the leader needed to implement to improve team environment. They included functions such as networking, representing team, negotiating, and sharing environmental information with team (Kogler Hill, 2001). All these internal and external behaviors were ingredients of team excellence. It was the role of the team leader to select the right

behavior(s) to meet the demands of the current situation (Kogler Hill, 2001). However, no known study used this model as its theoretical framework or tested their different dimensions of leadership behaviors.

Non-Empirical Research on Peer Leadership in Sport

In spite of their non-empirical value, important insights can be acquired by reviewing the roles and responsibilities of peer leaders in sport (e.g., Kennedy, 1991; LeBoeuf, 1989; Manos, 2000; Mosher, 1979; Wilson & Sullivan, 1998). For example, from their experience, Wilson and Sullivan identified three key sport leadership skills for peer leaders. First, peer leaders were good followers. They demonstrated appropriate responses to leadership, such as a low expression of anger or withdrawal. In addition, they performed appropriately within their role on their team, such as their work ethic and playing skill (Wilson & Sullivan, 1998). Building relationships was the second leadership skill. Peer leaders demonstrated concern for, interest in, encouragement of, respect for, and inclusion of team members. Building relationships with teammates was the medium from which team leaders influenced their teammates. Then, they were the cornerstones of all leadership behaviors (Wilson & Sullivan, 1998). Resolving conflict was the third and last sport leadership skill. This skill included confronting, mediating, and moderating. Team leaders developed good relationships with their teammates to decrease the strong negative reaction from players who are being confronted (Wilson & Sullivan, 1998).

Mosher (1979) also wrote about the roles and responsibilities of team captains in sport. This paper was unique due to its focus on a formal type of peer leader (i.e., volleyball team captains). Mosher divided the duties of the captain into three categories: (a) to act as a liaison between the coaching staff and the players, such as giving additional

information to a coach on a player's situation or explaining a concept or strategy to the players, (b) to act as a leader during all the team's activities, such as being a leader in games and practices, and (c) to act as a team official, such as interacting with game officials and represent the team at receptions, meetings, and press conference.

In addition to three general responsibilities, Mosher (1979) listed some duties of team captains. Team captains must ensure there was a constant flow of information between the coaching staff and the players. To accomplish this, the captain may set team meetings and/or individual discussion with players and coaches. Team captains need to set examples for other players, such as arriving early for practice, always working hard during practice, leading warm-up, encouraging others, and helping younger players. Also, team captains should help coaches set and apply team norms and schedules. Furthermore, team captains have duties before, during, and after games. Before games, team captains may meet the referee and opposing captain. During games, team captains may discuss issues that arise with the referee and explain them with their teammates. After games, team captains may lead the team to shake hands with the opponents and officials.

While these papers provided great insights on the behaviors of peer leaders in sport, no empirical study has specifically focused on the behaviors of formal peer leaders in sport (i.e., team captains). Thus, the purpose of this study was to address this oversight by identifying and examining the behaviors of male ice hockey team captains.

CHAPTER 3

Method

This chapter will outline the qualitative methodology that was used to conduct the current exploratory study. The data analysis of this study followed the guidelines of Côté, Salmela, and Russell (1995). The participants, procedures, data analysis, and trustworthiness aspects of this study will follow.

Participants

The participants in this study were former university male ice hockey team captains. Six former team captains from the Canadian Interuniversity Sport (CIS) organization were interviewed individually. This study was limited to the sport of ice hockey because of the importance of the team captain in this sport. For example, ice hockey team captains have several roles to fulfill, such as interacting with coaches, teammates, referees, media, etc. They also have a particular formal status on the team wearing a "C" on their jersey. Furthermore, ice hockey is arguably the national sport in Canada and creates a lot of passion and interest in our society. In addition, this study was limited to male team captains. As stated in the literature, gender has been found to be an important determinant of preferred and perceived leadership behaviors (e.g., Erle, 1981).

The team captains were identified and located with the assistance of experienced head coaches of successful Canadian university male ice hockey teams. The selection of the team captains was based on five criteria to ensure that chosen participants demonstrated outstanding leadership withing their team and therefore would provide the richest source of information. First, they played at the university level (CIS) for at least two full seasons. Second, they completed a minimum of one full season as team captain

at the university level. Third, if retired, they were team captain at the university level in the last five years. Fourth, they were identified by current CIS coaches as one of the best team captains they have coached with or against. Fifth, a minimum winning percentage of 50% while they were team captain was required.

Participants were contacted by email or phone, provided with a brief summary of the purpose and nature of the study, and asked to participate. Each team captain was interviewed individually with each interview lasting between 45-60 minutes, in a convenient and quiet place on the participant's campus or at the researcher's campus. Each interview was conducted by the graduate student researcher.

Participants came from four universities of the Ontario University Athletics Far East (OUA FE) division of the CIS men's ice hockey league. The overall record of these teams, when the participants were team captain, was 114 wins, 41 losses, and 15 ties (73.5% winning percentage). At the university level, the participants played an average of 3.8 seasons, were assistant captain for an average of 1.0 season, and were team captain for an average of 1.2 seasons. Before their university years, but after 14 years old, they were named team captain for an average of 3 seasons. At the university level, three team captains were wingers, two were centers, and one was defenseman. In addition, two participants won the CIS National Championship as team captain. Table 1 provides a detailed summary of the six participants' history and accomplishments.

Table 1

History and Accomplishments of Each Team Captain

	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6
Season(s) as assistant captain at the CIS level	1	0	1	1	2	1
Season(s) as team captain at the CIS level	1	1	2	1	1	1
Season(s) as team captain after 14 years old, before university	4	5	1	4	1	3
CIS Winning % (range) while team captain	80-90	90-99	60-70	50-60	50-60	90-99
Highlights	- First All-Canadian team -Randy Gregg Trophy (athletics / academics)	-National Champion -2 seasons as team captain in the CHL	- First All-Canadian team -Award for combined leadership / athletics / academics	-2 seasons as assistant captains in the CHL -2x President Cup finalist in major junior hockey	-4x Academic All-Canadian -Guy Lafleur, Laurie Brodick, Millennium, and Ed Enos Scholarship winner	-National Champion -One season as team captain in the CHL

Procedures

For the purpose of this study on the behaviors of ice hockey team captains, a

qualitative data collection technique was implemented. This section will discuss the type

of interview used, the organization of the interview guide, the ways of building rapport

with participants, and the types of questions.

Qualitative interviewing is a way of finding out what others feel and think about

their world. According to Fontana and Frey (1994), interviewing is one of the most

powerful ways to try and understand human beings. In this study, semi-structured individual interviews were conducted. In a semi-structured interview, open-ended questions are asked to guide the discussion (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Each interview followed the same format outlined in the interview guide (see Appendix D). This allowed the researcher to suggest the topic and provided the participant an opportunity to answer freely, with few restrictions (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Rather than asking questions that suppose a limited set of responses, the semi-structured and open-ended interviews resembled an ordinary conversation with the participant doing most of the talking.

An interview guide was created specifically for this study. The guide was created by the current student, four university faculty members with knowledge and experience in qualitative methods and/or ice hockey, and one current CIS men's ice hockey head coach. The interview guide was developed using Chelladurai's MML as a theoretical framework and included introductory questions, key questions, summary, and concluding questions. The introductory questions were designed to initiate the discussion (e.g., How did you get involved in university ice hockey?), as well as preface the main topic of this study (e.g., When and how did you become the team captain of your university team?). They focused on the *leader characteristics* dimension of the MML. The key questions focused primarily on the situational characteristics of the MML by exploring the behaviors of team captains in a variety of settings (i.e., practices, games, in the locker room, and off-ice situations). A summary question was created to tie together the most important points (i.e., What are the key behaviors exhibited by a team captains?). Finally, concluding questions were developed to allow the participants an opportunity to add any new information. It should be noted, the researcher asked follow-up questions and probes

based on the answers of the participants. These questions explored the different leader behaviors of the MML (i.e., required, actual, and preferred). In addition, the five dimensions of coach behavior in sport (i.e., training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback) measured by the LSS were not explicitly included in the interview questions in order to let the peer leader behavior dimensions emerge by themselves. However, the five dimensions of the LSS were used as probes during the interviews.

Prior to data collection, the researcher ensured the participant felt welcome and at ease with the interviewer. Establishing an honest and constructive relationship with the participant is vital to a successful interview (Lincoln & Guba, 1995). This was accomplished by having an informal discussion with the participant to put him at ease. Their hockey career before playing at their current university, as well as discussing their area of study are examples of topics that were discussed. Next, the interviewer moved into the more formal introduction. At this time, the participant read and signed the consent form (see Appendix E) and completed the short demographic questionnaire (see Appendix F). The researcher then informed the participant that the interview will be audio recorded and that a full verbatim transcript will be sent back to him for approval before any data analysis begins. The researcher explained the purpose of the study and made sure the participant understood there were no right or wrong answers. The researcher also ensured the participants' that their answers were confidential. The participant's anonymity was protected through the use of a coding system that would replace each name with a number (P1-P6). To establish a good relationship and help the participant be at ease, the researcher also showed emotional understanding, such as

sympathetic tone of voice and head nodding. In addition, the researcher asked follow-up questions and probes according to the answers of the participant.

The same interview guide was used with each participant to ensure consistency. During the interview, three types of questions were asked. First, the main questions were used to direct the discussion on the principal topics of the current study. Second, probe questions were used when responses lack sufficient detail, depth, or clarity. They helped give the specific level of depth the researcher wanted. In addition, probes demonstrated that the interviewer was listening to the participant's answers (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Third, follow-up questions were used to pursue the central themes discovered, elaborate the context of answers, and explore the implications of what has been said (Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

Finally, conversational repair (Rubin & Rubin, 1995) was used to clear any misunderstanding. The researcher asked the participant to repeat or clarify some ideas. In the same way, when the participant misunderstood a question, the researcher rephrased the question more clearly, without making reference to the mistake. In addition, a debriefing session took place at the end of the interview to clarify what the participant said.

Data Analysis

The main objective of the data analysis process was to create an organized system of categories; these emerged from the unstructured data, regarding the behaviors of ice hockey team captains. The analysis was inductive and followed the guidelines outlined by Côté, Salmela, and Russell (1995). Côté and colleagues method of analysis consisted

of three main steps: creating tags, creating properties, and creating and conceptualizing categories.

Prior to data analysis, each interview was transcribed verbatim with only minor edits, such as removing names that threaten anonymity and adding relevant information in brackets to clarify ambiguous pieces of text (Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995). Then, each interview was analyzed and divided into 425 pieces of information, named meaning units. A meaning unit is a piece of text that expresses a single idea (Tesch, 1990). This portion of text can be a few words, a phrase, or an entire paragraph. Next, each meaning unit was named or tagged based on its content. Meaning units of the same topic received the same tag. This process produced 54 tags (e.g., leading by example, off-season training, recruiting, and team spirit).

Second, similar tags were grouped into larger divisions. These divisions were called properties. Each newly formed property were also named or tagged. These properties were named according to the common features their meaning units shared (Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995). This process produced nine properties. For example, 100% on the ice, leading by example, offs-season training, practices-attitudes, pre-game preparation, and working with young players were first-level tags grouped together to form a new property called *setting the example*.

Finally, the next level of classification consisted of grouping similar properties into higher-level divisions, called categories. These new categories were also tagged according to the common features of their properties. Three categories emerged from this process. For example, the properties of *evolution of team captain, personal characteristics*, and *sporting/hockey background* were grouped together to form a new

category called *interpersonal characteristics and experiences*. This step was similar to the earlier stage of creating properties; however it was done at a higher and more abstract level of analysis (Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995). Data were examined until saturation of information was reached and no new level emerged at each level of classification (Côté, Salmela, & Russell, 1995).

Trustworthiness

Establishing trustworthiness is vital considering the qualitative methodology of any study (Sparkes, 1998). It ensures that the research process was conducted correctly and the findings were worth paying attention to (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The trustworthiness of a qualitative study can be compared to the notions of internal validity, external validity, reliability, and credibility of a quantitative study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba created analogous criteria for qualitative research called credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. This section will explain different techniques to increase trustworthiness, such as member checks, peer review, prolonged engagement, persistent observation, peer debriefing, pilot studies, and referencial adequacy (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). No recipes or rigid formulas exist among the multitude of techniques to ensure trusworthiness (Sparkes, 1998), thus the current ones were chosen because they were best suited for this study.

Member checks are a very important trustworthiness technique to ensure the credibility of a study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Member checks occur when the findings are tested by the participants of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, member checks were used by a debriefing session at the end of each interview. At this time, the researcher summarized what was heard and gave the participant an opportunity to add or

correct any answer or thought said during the interview. A second check occurred when each participant received a full verbatim transcript of the interview. Again, each participant had the opportunity to verify, clarify, add, or remove any sections of the interview. Of the six transcripts that were sent back to the participants, four participants changed nothing, one had minor edits and one did not reply. Finally, a last check consisted of sending a summary of the results to each participant to include any additional comments or clarification (Sparkes, 1998). Of the six summaries that were sent to the participants, four replied indicating they were satisfied with the results.

Peer review is another technique that was used to improve the credibility, dependability, and confirmability of this study. A peer assistant examined 25% of the meaning units created by the researcher from the data and matched each meaning unit with a tag previously labelled by the researcher. The peer assistant placed each meaning unit under the tag that best represents what he or she felt was most appropriate. A reliability rate of 83% of agreement was reached for the meaning units. An analysis of the 17% of disagreement showed that some meaning units were misplaced because of a lack of context. For example, P3 talked about his years playing the Manitoba Championship. The peer reviewer thought that this Championship was at the university level, but in fact, it was from his junior years. Other meaning units were mismatched because some tags needed clarification. For example, the *recruiting* tag was redefined to the peer reviewer as the involvement of team captain in the recruiting aspect of his team, in contrast to his own recruitment as a player. One meaning unit was also divided into two meaning units, to adequately reflect two single ideas. The rest of the misplaced meaning units were mistakes agreed by the peer reviewer and/or the researcher.

The same peer reviewing procedure also took place when the properties and categories were created. The peer reviewer classified the 54 tags into the nine properties and got a reliability rate of 94%. Three tags were more ambiguous, but each discrepancy between the researcher and the peer assistant was discussed until a consensus was reached. At the end, no change was made. At the next stage, the nine properties were grouped in three categories by the peer reviewer with a reliability rate of 100%. This trustworthiness technique helped to counter any biases of the researcher by providing an external check on the coding process.

As well, investing time to learn the culture and build trust with the participant is a trustworthiness technique called prolonged engagement (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This technique increases the credibility of the study. In this study, prolonged engagement was achieved by having the researcher attends CIS games and practices in order to be familiar with the jargon, the environment, and the nature of the interactions between the players and the coaches. In addition, the researcher has been part of the ice hockey culture for several years and still plays in a recreational league and regularly watches hockey on television.

Persistent observation is another technique that was used to enhance the credibitiliy of the findings of this study. The purpose of this technique was to identify the relevant characteristics or elements of the topic being studied and to focus on them in detail (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Persistent observation provided depth to a study. Reading books and articles on leadership helped accomplish this technique. In this study, participants were probed on relevant points to ensure that essential factors were explored

in detail (Bloom & Salmela, 2000), especially the five dimensions of the Leadership

Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980).

In addition, peer debriefing sessions were conducted after each interview to

establish credibility. The researcher explored aspects of each interview with his

supervisor to find new ideas, find new working hypotheses, improve the methodology,

and also to talk about the process and feelings emerging from the interviews.

Also, pilot studies were conducted prior to data collection. The pilot studies

helped the researcher gain understanding of the participants (Maxwell, 1996), provided

opportunity to practice and improve interview skills, and helped to test the relevance and

the comprehensiveness of the questions of the interview guide. The researcher conducted

two pilot interviews. Someone with extensive experience in qualitative research

methodology and interviewing was present to provide feedback. As well, the interviewer

has acquired experience by assisting three interview sessions for different studies, and

has completed courses on qualitative research methods and active listening.

Finally, the credibility of the research process was increased by the referential

adequacy technique. This technique is defined by the storage of raw data for later recall

and comparison (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The NUD*IST 4.0 software was used to help

the researcher in the storing, coding, and organizing of the data. This software was

especially created for qualitative research. This software was used to record, sort, and

explore patterns in the data. In addition, the NUD*IST 4.0 software created a

computerized index system where data was more easily retrieved. Moreover, each

interview was audiotaped.

CHAPTER 4

Results

This chapter presents the results of the inductive qualitative analysis of this study. This section begins with a brief summary of the nature of the data. Next, the three higher-order categories, *interpersonal characteristics and experiences*, *social interactions*, and *task behaviors* will be summarized. Quotes from the interviews will illustrate the key properties of each category. Each quote is followed by a label (P1 to P6) to credit the participant that provided the excerpt.

Nature of the Data

The six interviews of the study resulted in a total of 425 meaning units. From these 425 meaning units, a total of 54 tags emerged. Table 2 (see Appendix G) presents an alphabetical listing of the frequency of each tag discussed by each participant. The number of meaning units discussed by each participant varied from 55 (P3) to 110 (P2). This did not mean that the interview of P2 was better than the one of P3. More meaning units did not mean more quality information. Some participants simply expressed their ideas in more and less words than others. This was due to the open-ended and semi-structured nature of the interviews. For example, P2 discussed his sporting/hockey background, especially differing university and junior hockey, more extensively than the other participants. He had many experiences and years playing junior to discuss about. Also, due to the open-ended nature of the interviews, the same topics were not discussed by every participant. The frequency of each tag varied from two to 19. For example, the tags of choosing university hockey and pre-university – playing were some of the most often discussed tags (n = 19) by the participants. This can be explained by the fact that

these two topics were direct answers of the opening question of the interview guide on their hockey background (i.e., How did you get involved in university ice hockey?). In contrast, the tags of alumni interactions and feedback – players – information were some of the least often discussed tags (n = 2) by the participants. These two topics were each discussed by only one team captain. Some topics were discussed more frequently by participants from the same university. For example, two team captains from the same university (P2 and P6) discussed about interacting with reporters. They were the only two participants of this study to participate and win the CIS Championship. The 54 tags were organized into nine properties based on their similarities of content and are displayed in Table 3. Each property was also named with a proper tag.

Table 3

Properties and Tags with Frequencies as Expressed by Each Participant

Properties and Tags	n	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6
Administrative Duties	**20**	**1**	**8**	**2**	**2**	**6**	**1**
• Alumni interactions	2	0	0	0	0	2	0
• Off-season team planning	3	0	1	1	1	0	0
• Organizing team functions	4	0	2	1	0	1	0
• Recruiting	2	0	1	0	0	1	0
• Reporters	2	0	1	0	0	0	1
• Representing team/university	7	1	3	0	1	2	0
Athlete Interaction	**56**	**3**	**18**	**7**	**14**	**4**	**10**
• Attentive to players' attitude/perf.	15	0	6	1	3	0	5
• Feedback - players - autocratic	16	2	4	2	7	0	1
• Feedback - players - democratic	8	0	4	1	2	0	1
• Feedback - players - information	2	0	2	0	0	0	0
• Feedback - players - positive	4	0	1	0	1	0	2
• Feedback - timing	11	1	1	3	1	4	1
Coach Interaction and Relationship	**45**	**6**	**13**	**9**	**8**	**7**	**2**
• Coach has authority	5	1	1	0	1	2	0
• Coaching style	2	0	1	0	0	1	0
• Feedback - coach - choose what to say	6	2	3	0	1	0	0
• Feedback - coach - opinion	13	0	3	5	4	0	1
• Feedback - coach - voice of players	12	0	5	2	2	2	1
• Relationship with coach	7	3	0	2	0	2	0
Evolution of Team Captain	**51**	**11**	**11**	**3**	**5**	**9**	**12**
• Being chosen TC - feelings	11	2	4	0	0	1	4
• Being chosen TC - process	17	3	5	2	2	2	3
• Goal to be TC	3	0	0	0	0	3	0
• Learning from other TC and coaches	12	3	0	1	2	2	4
• Pre-university - team captain	8	3	2	0	1	1	1
Interactions with Team Leaders	**42**	**6**	**4**	**8**	**8**	**9**	**7**
• Assistant captains - choosing	9	2	1	1	1	2	2
• Assistant captains - relationship	5	1	0	1	1	1	1
• Assistant captains - roles	19	2	2	5	5	3	2
• Roles of informal leaders	6	1	1	1	1	0	2
• Using the strengths of teammates	3	0	0	0	0	3	0

Table 3 (continued)

Properties and Tags	n	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6
Personal Characteristics	**60**	**12**	**13**	**7**	**11**	**12**	**5**
• Being in control	6	1	1	2	1	1	0
• Being yourself	10	2	1	1	2	1	3
• Effective communicator	7	0	3	1	0	3	0
• Personality of TC	12	5	1	0	3	2	1
• Pressure as TC	3	0	0	0	2	1	0
• Punctuality	4	0	2	0	0	2	0
• Respect/trust/honesty	15	4	3	3	3	2	0
• Staying positive	3	0	2	0	0	0	1
Roles with Team Issues	**33**	**4**	**8**	**2**	**2**	**11**	**6**
• Referee interactions	11	3	3	1	0	1	3
• Setting rules	3	0	0	0	0	3	0
• Team decisions	3	0	0	1	0	2	0
• Team problems	3	0	0	0	1	2	0
• Team spirit	10	1	5	0	1	0	3
• Team vision	3	0	0	0	0	3	0
Setting the Example	**47**	**16**	**14**	**5**	**4**	**2**	**6**
• 100% on the ice	13	2	7	0	1	0	3
• Leading by example	12	8	0	3	1	0	0
• Off-season training	6	2	2	1	1	0	0
• Practices - attitudes	7	1	2	1	1	0	2
• Pre-game preparation	4	1	1	0	0	2	0
• Working with young players	5	2	2	0	0	0	1
Sporting/Hockey Background	**71**	**12**	**21**	**12**	**7**	**8**	**11**
• Choosing university hockey	19	4	5	3	2	2	3
• Differing university and junior hockey	13	0	10	2	0	0	1
• Early sport years	4	1	0	3	0	0	0
• Playing university hockey	9	3	0	0	0	4	2
• Pre-university – playing	19	3	2	4	4	1	5
• Pro hockey	7	1	4	0	1	1	0
Totals	**425**	**71**	**110**	**55**	**61**	**68**	**60**

The third and final stage involved grouping the nine properties (i.e.,

administrative duties, athlete interaction, coach interaction and relationship, evolution of

team captain, interaction with team leaders, personal characteristics, roles with team

issues, setting the example, and sporting/hockey background) into three higher-order

categories. These categories were labeled *interpersonal characteristics and experiences*,

social interactions, and *task behaviors*. The nine properties regrouped under the three

higher-order categories are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4

Categories and Properties with Frequencies as Expressed by Each Participant

Categories and Properties	n	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6
Interpersonal Characteristics and Experiences	**182**	**35**	**45**	**22**	**23**	**29**	**28**
• Evolution of Team Captain	51	11	11	3	5	9	12
• Personal Characteristics	60	12	13	7	11	12	5
• Sporting/Hockey Background	71	12	21	12	7	8	11
Social Interactions	**143**	**15**	**35**	**24**	**30**	**20**	**19**
• Athlete Interaction	56	3	18	7	14	4	10
• Coach Interaction and Relationship	45	6	13	9	8	7	2
• Interactions with Team Leaders	42	6	4	8	8	9	7
Task Behaviors	**100**	**21**	**30**	**9**	**8**	**19**	**13**
• Administrative Duties	20	1	8	2	2	6	1
• Role with Team Issues	33	4	8	2	2	11	6
• Setting the Example	47	16	14	5	4	2	6
Totals	**425**	**71**	**110**	**55**	**61**	**68**	**60**

Interpersonal Characteristics and Experiences

The higher-order category of *interpersonal characteristics and experiences* included 182 meaning units and represented 43% of the total data base. This category embraced the interpersonal characteristics of team captains, as well as information pertaining to the experiences they had (e.g., experiences as team captain and as hockey player). This comprised the properties of sporting/hockey background, evolution of team captain, and personal characteristics.

Sporting/Hockey Background

This property included team captains' personal experiences, choices, and feelings in sport, especially hockey, leading up to their university career. For example, team captains discussed their early sport years, their years playing junior hockey, their choice of university hockey, and their years playing university hockey. This property was the largest with 71 meaning units and included topics related mainly to the opening questions.

The participants began playing their sport early in life. They enjoyed playing hockey at a young age, as evidenced in the following quotes:

> I am from Canada. I was young, probably skating since I was about three or four years old and started playing organized hockey at about five or six years old. I have played all my life, I was never pushed into it, and I always loved the game and kept playing through university and luckily after university. (P1)

> I was four or five when I started playing hockey in the back yard rink. We also had a creek behind our place. Every small town has their own rink so there is no problem finding ice time in a small town. (P3)

The team captains also discussed their pre-university hockey years, including the impact of their success, failures, and experiences. In particular, playing a high level of junior hockey helped them gain experience and knowledge as a hockey player.

> In my first year in the CHL, we were a brand new team and we set a bunch of records for expansion teams which was nice. With my other CHL team, we got to the finals both years and it was a real good experience. (P4)

> Oui, durant trois ans, on avait une équipe gagnante, en haut de .500 au niveau des victoires. En séries, nous n'avons pas vraiment été loin. Ma dernière année, on avait une très bonne équipe. On a fini haut au classement, mais on a perdu en sept parties en deuxième ronde. On a un peu "chocké" comme on peut dire. Ma dernière année à 20 ans, j'ai été échangé. C'est la plus belle chose qui pouvait m'arriver au niveau équipe, organisation, partisans, joueurs. J'ai eu la chance de jouer avec X, Y, Z, des grands joueurs de maintenant. On a perdu en final de la coupe du Président cette année là. (P6)

After their junior years, the team captains were faced with an important choice

regarding whether to play university ice hockey. This topic was discussed by all the

participants, perhaps indicating its importance:

> For me, after playing major junior hockey, it was a good option that I wanted to do. I wanted to get my degree, so if later ice hockey didn't work out, it would be something I could fall back on. (P4)

> Ça c'est après mes saisons junior majeur. J'avais le choix d'aller jouer dans des ligues professionnelles mineurs qu'on appelle, ou bien faire des études. J'avais fait mon choix à 19 ou 20 ans, vu que je n'avais pas de possibilité de jouer dans la LNH étant donné mon âge. J'ai décidé de me concentrer sur mes études. Il y a avait plusieurs de mes chums qui allaient là aussi. C'était près de chez nous aussi. (P6)

> Avant mon stage junior, je n'avais aucune intention d'aller jouer universitaire. Quand tu es un premier choix junior majeur, la prochaine étape, c'est d'être un premier choix dans la LNH. Donc, moi j'avais juste ça en tête. Puis en plus, j'avais un agent depuis Midget. Donc, je pensais plus ligue nationale dans mon stage junior, que d'aller à l'universitaire. Mais là, plus les années avançaient et quand ton année de repêchage passe et que tu n'es pas repêché et que tu ne vas pas à un camp d'entraînement de la LNH, c'est justement là que tu dois prendre une décision. Tu commences à penser à d'autres choses. Et c'est ça que j'ai fait. C'est comme ça que j'ai décidé de venir jouer universitaire. (P2)

As university hockey players, they had to deal with many positive and negative

situations (e.g., winning a championship, losing a big game, and injury). They gained

experience as a hockey player and as a person during their years playing at the university level. The next quotes gave example of university hockey situations:

> My years playing university were great, I loved them. We had a lot of fun on and off the ice. It is a great program here and the coach is great. He helped me and a lot of the players. I reached high levels because my coach worked a lot with me and that was the reason I got a full career afterwards. I had a lot of fun especially my last year. I think we only lost three or four games, but in the playoffs it was a question of injuries. We didn't make it all the way. We lost to the same team again. (P1)

> I wouldn't say a disappointment; our team did everything we could possibly do. And the interesting part about university is it's the hardest championship you could ever win, because there are no trades and there is only a certain amount of time you are eligible to play. So if you look at it from that point of view, you do as much as possible with the recruiting you have and the players that you have. I am satisfied; we gave it what we could and that's it. That is how you live, that is how I live life as well. If you can do what is in your control and try to achieve the highest performance in whatever you are doing, then you can't ask for more. (P5)

Evolution of Team Captain

This property encompassed ways in which an athlete acquired knowledge on becoming an effective team captain. This contained learning from other team captains, pre-university experiences as team captain, and all the facets of being chosen team captain.

The team captains of this study played for many teams and many team captains. What they liked and disliked from their former team captains shaped their own style and behaviors as team captain. The next quotes showed how they learn to be team captains:

> Definitely, you remember what bothered you about your previous captains and what was good. You can learn from those things. I am sure people learned from me both good and bad things. There is no perfect captain or leader, everyone is a leader in their own way. (P1)

> I don't think you can teach someone to be a team captain. I think it has to do with a lot of experiences that you have had throughout your life, and it's learning from other people. I have had great captains and I have had terrible captains. It is

looking at the qualities that these individuals have and seeing the perception of what you would want to bring to a team and using that. (P5)

The team captains also discussed how their own experiences as team captain, before being named team captain at the university level, helped them becoming effective team captains at this level. For example, "Yes, it is like everything in life. With your job you will get better with time and experience. This is the same thing as being a team captain" (P1).

> Souvent, ceux qui se retrouvent capitaine et assistants, c'est ceux qui ont le plus d'expérience dans la ligue, ceux que ça fait le plus longtemps qu'ils sont là. Comme moi, j'ai été capitaine junior, j'ai été capitaine universitaire, mes assistants c'est la même chose. Quand tu es leader junior, tu es leader universitaire, tu ne changes pas du jour au lendemain. (P2)

What they learned from other team captains and their own previous experiences as team captain led them to become team captain at the university level. The participants discussed the process of being named team captain at the university level. Depending of the coaching philosophy, this selection was a coaching decision, a players vote, or a mix of both. The next quotes gave an example of a coach's choice and a players' vote :

> It was a coaching decision, I mean the coaches had the final say and that's all I have to say about it really. It is not something that I asked for and not something that I really worried about, but obviously it was an honour. The coaches wanted it that way so that's how it was. (P4)

> The players voted for the team captain. In my fifth and final year it was players that voted for their captain as well as the three assistants and when the votes were all tabulated, I was named the unanimous captain. (P5)

Following their nomination as team captain at the university level, the team captains had different feelings about this process. In general, they were all proud to be named team captain of their university and it was not really a surprise for them.

> Je m'en attendais un peu cette année là. C'était ma dernière année, l'année avant j'étais assistant capitaine et j'étais le dernier assistant qui était encore là. Donc, je n'étais pas surpris. C'était un honneur aussi, une bonne tape dans le dos. (P6)

> No, I was not surprised to be named team captain; it was something I was thinking about for five years. And I knew that there were certain qualities that I had, certain experiences that I had. I am not trying to sound arrogant, it was just something I knew was going to happen. (P5)

Personal Characteristics

The personal characteristics property encompassed team captains' perceptions of traits and qualities that felt were important to become an effective team captain. It included characteristics such as being yourself, communicating effectively, and being honest and respectful.

Each team captain discussed the importance of being yourself as a team captain. According to them, team captains needed to be authentic. It was not because a player was chosen team captain that he felt he had to behave in a certain way. For example, "Honestly you just have to be yourself, I would never change my style just because I have a letter, that's just not productive" (P4). "It's just the way I play and who I am. So it is not a lot of trying to be captain but its more that's the way I am" (P3).

Team captains also discussed personality factors. Some thought that each effective team captain had similar personality traits, while others felt there were no right or wrong personality traits.

> I think there are definitely some personality traits that are similar for team captains. I think you have to be fairly confident in yourself and I think that you have to be fairly assertive but I've played with some captains that are funny, some like to joke around, some that are just tough guys, loud and rough. (P4)

> Yes I do think that captains require a certain personality. I have seen different captains. I have seen captains who are very independent and didn't deal with situations or stand up for the cause of the actual core of the team and that is detrimental to anything. I honestly do believe a captain has to be outgoing, and

comfortable dealing with their players, and not judging the players. And for sure, do not put the player on a spot in front of everybody, because that will only cause problems with that player and other players will perceive it as another thing. It is all a matter of perception of what players think and do. I could tell you something right now, you look at it one way, and he does another, thinking what the hell is going on. That is just how things work and I do believe that there are certain qualities that captains have and this is one of them. One who is also humble, not looking to steel the spotlight or use it as an advantage over his colleagues. (P5)

In spite of the divergence between each team captain on the personality traits of effective team captains, they stressed the importance of some qualities that team captains had to acquire, such as the importance of communication skills.

For me, my role is like an hour glass. As a team captain I am the middle of the hourglass. You obviously have to deal with what is going on with the team, and this funnels up to you and you have to take that information and funnel it back up to who ever is making the decisions at the top. And likewise, when the sand runs down, you've got to flip it, it goes both ways. It is just transferring, being the channel that transfers information from coach to players, or players to coach or athletic director etc...A captain has to be a great listener and excellent communicator. (P5)

Et hors glace, bien communiquer, toujours être en communication avec les joueurs et faire sentir aux gars qu'ils ne doivent pas être gênés de venir te voir. Il faut qu'ils aient confiance en toi. Il faut qu'ils sachent que quand ils viennent te dire quelque chose, ça ne passe pas dans l'oreille d'un sourd. Tu écoutes les problèmes de autres. Moi je suis quelqu'un qui va donner son opinion, même si je sais que ça ne fera pas l'affaire de la personne. (P2)

Other examples of qualities that team captains need, such as respect, trust, and honesty, were also discussed by the participants. These occurred between team captain and players, and between team captain and coaches, in both directions. This topic was discussed by almost all team captains.

My coach listened to me because he was a player. So as a former player he respects what I see on the ice. He would do the same thing with his former coach when he was an ice hockey team captain. (P3)

In addition, treat everyone equally and do not think of yourself as a better person because you are team captain. Your teammates named you captain because of the

respect they have for you. If you start being an idiot and not treating people well then the letter on your jersey won't mean a thing. (P1)

In summary, the higher-order category of *interpersonal characteristics and experiences* focused on who the team captains were, where they came from, and their experiences. It included three main components, which were called sporting/hockey background, evolution of team captain, and personal characteristics.

<div align="center">*Social Interactions*</div>

The higher-order category of social interactions comprised 34% (n = 143) of the total meaning units. This category included elements specific to team captain interactions, including how (e.g., autocratic and democratic) and why (e.g., positive feedback and general information) they interacted with other individuals. This category comprised the properties of athlete interaction, coach interaction and relationship, and interactions with team leaders.

Athlete Interaction

Athlete interaction encompassed ways in which these individuals communicated with teammates, including using a specific style to relay information. This also included observing teammates and choosing the right moment to give feedback. Before giving any feedback to teammates, team captains had to observe and be attentive to teammates' attitudes and performances. This process was essential to give accurate and concrete feedback to teammates. For example, "In the locker room, you're more observant, you watch things, you watch how people are reacting, and you know body language. You've got to decide if the team's ready to play or not" (P4).

> Oui, il faut que tu analyses les situations assez rapidement pour pouvoir te donner une idée de ce qui se passe et de réagir rapidement. Entre les périodes, tu as 15 minutes, donc si tu dois faire des ajustements, ça doit se faire assez vite. Il faut

> que tu aies eu le temps d'analyser les choses. Pour te rendre compte que quelqu'un
> ne travaille pas, il faut que tu aies analysé la situation. Il faut que tu bases sur des
> choses concrètes pour ne pas dire à un joueur qu'il ne travaille pas assez fort
> lorsqu'au contraire, il revient au banc la langue à terre. (P2)

> Avant les parties, quand quelque chose ne va pas bien et que les gars n'ont pas
> l'air à s'en apercevoir, le capitaine doit donner un " wake up call". Tu dois dire aux
> gars que ça ne marche pas. Si vous ne l'avez pas vu, bien moi je l'ai vu. Il faut
> faire quelque chose pour que ça se passe mieux. (P2)

Team captains seemed to use different ways to interact with their teammates depending on the situation. The majority of the participants felt they used an autocratic style of interaction with teammates at key moments. For example, "Well you try to get him going, get in his face, ask him what's going on. I find you have to find a balance. Some guys you have to challenge and get in their face" (P4). "If you talk to any of the guys I played with I was pretty intense and not afraid to lose it every now and then to get a message across" (P1).

> En brassant la cage, en prenant le problème de front. Moi, quand j'ai quelque
> chose à dire à quelqu'un, je vais lui dire dans sa face. Je ne me cacherai pas, même
> si je sais que ça ne lui fera pas plaisir, que le gars va m'haïr pour une semaine.
> (P2)

Team captains also used a democratic style of interaction with other teammates or in different situations. For example, "Well, personally it depends on the problem. There's a bunch of ways: you can just joke about it, or bring a guy to the side and have a talk with him" (P4).

> Si c'est un petit problème mineur et que c'est un individu qui cause le problème, tu
> peux aller voir l'individu concerné et faire un petit meeting avec lui. Tu essaies de
> le ramener dans le concept d'équipe pour ne pas qu'il cause d'autre problème. (P2)

> Mon style était surtout démocratique, tout monde participe, je vais chercher les
> jeunes joueurs. Des fois les nouveaux qui arrivent, on ne pense pas qu'ils sont des
> leaders, mais tu dois les chercher et leur dire d'embarquer dans la gang. (P6)

Democratic behaviors were explicitly affirmed in some cases (see above quotes) and were implicitly stated in others, such as being the voice of the players, interacting with assistant captains, dealing with team spirit, decision, and problems. Then, the number of meaning units in the feedback – players – democratic property did not accurately represent the importance of using a democratic style for a team captain.

In addition to the different styles that team captains used, their interactions with teammates was also differentiated by the content of the message. For example, some messages were to give positive feedback to a player and other were simply to give general information to the team. For example, "But I like to give guys compliments as well, especially the young guys that are new to the team. Make them feel comfortable so that they know the team appreciates what they are doing" (P4).

> Surtout pour mettre le joueur en confiance. Si je vois que quelqu'un n'est pas satisfait de sa performance, mais que moi j'analyse sa performance et que je trouve qu'il a une bonne performance, là j'ai tendance à aller le voir et lui dire qu'il fait une maudite bonne job et de continuer comme ça. Souvent les gars s'en demandent trop, puis même s'ils font un bon travail, ils s'en demandent plus. Ils ne sont jamais satisfaits de leur travail. Moi, je veux que les gars soient satisfaits d'eux-mêmes quand ils font un bon travail. Ça l'augmente leur confiance. Si tu coures toujours après la meilleure performance, tu sens jamais que tu performes à ton niveau, donc ta confiance ne sera jamais à son plus haut. Donc moi j'aime ça, quand je vois qu'un gars qui manque un peu de confiance, je vais lui parler un peu plus. Pour essayer d'augmenter sa confiance. (P2)

> Comme au Championnat Canadien, l'avant-veille de la final, il y avait des joueurs qui avait reçu des téléphones, juste pour les réveiller comme ça, pour leur nuire dans le fond. Donc, la journée avant le match, l'entraîneur m'a demandé de faire le tour pour demander aux joueurs de débrancher leur téléphone pour ne pas se faire déranger. Souvent c'est des messages à faire et ça vient souvent de l'entraîneur. (P2)

For any style of interaction or content of message, team captains had to choose the right moment to communicate with teammates. Each team captain discussed about this point, thus highlighting its importance. Three examples included: "Bien connaître ton

équipe, c'est certain que si tu parles tout le temps, si tu cris tout le temps ça marchera pas. Saisir l'occasion de parler à certains joueurs. Saisir les bons moments" (P6).

> Ça ne sera pas la journée d'un match pour donner du feedback négatif. Il faut que la journée d'un match soit réservée à la préparation individuelle du joueur, parce que chaque joueur se prépare de façon différente. Il y en a que ça ne leur dérangera pas que tu leur parles ou que tu leur dises un peu de négatif, mais il y en a que ça leur dérange. Donc, ils vont arriver à l'aréna et ils ne seront pas focussés sur leur match. Donc quand je dis moment opportun, c'est sûr que si la personne n'est pas de bonne humeur, je vais peut-être attendre une journée. Les autres journées, c'est toutes des bonnes journées parce que je ne peux pas savoir l'horaire individuel de chaque joueur et l'agenda de chaque joueur. Donc, pour moi, quand j'ai quelque chose à dire, il ne faut pas que ça soit la journée d'un match. Et à moins de quelque chose d'exceptionnelle, toutes les autres journées sont bonnes pour ça. (P2)

> If there is something that happens during a game... never say it in front of the team. We will go in the back and I will tell him to his face in private. Never embarrass someone in front of the team. This is something that I always did, if this type of situation occurred in a game. Otherwise I'm quiet. I let the assistant captains lead most of the room discussions and when it comes time to say something that is when you step in because that is when it will have impact. (P5)

Coach Interaction and Relationship

The property of coach interaction and relationship focused on communicating with the coach. This property included topics such as, their relationship with the head coach and the different aspects of giving feedback to the coach.

Some team captains highlighted the importance of having a good relationship with their coach. Their thoughts were based on the different experiences they had throughout their careers. For example, "If the team captain and the coach don't get along, you're going to have trouble during the year. I have seen it happen, it leads to poor communication, and wrong messages go to the coach and the players" (P1).

> Definitely, some coaches did not respect the team captain because in their perception, it was all about them. Some used their team captains tremendously and even set up situations. For example, a coach came in and specifically picked on you, but it was all pre-determined. The captain knew and the coach was trying

to stimulate a kind of responsibility and a shock reaction from the players, but the captain in himself knew it was just a set-up. It was all about being capable to read a coach's personality and style. (P5)

The coach/team captain connection influenced what team captains said to their

coach throughout the season. However, one aspect converged among team captains, they

only said part of what they knew about the team to their coach.

Yeah, I mean if someone comes up to me with something that I don't think makes any sense, I'm not going to bother the coach. I go see the coach when most of the guys on the team are saying the same thing. (P4)

Comme l'an passé, quand je te parlais du meeting qu'on a eu avant les séries, l'entraîneur n'était même pas au courant. Il n'a pas été au courant et ça s'est très bien passé. Souvent il y a des joueurs dans l'équipe qui vont faire des petites gaffes, à l'extérieur de la glace par exemple. Si ça vient aux yeux de l'entraîneur, il peut "péter sa coche", il peut se mettre sur le dos du joueur sans que ça soit nécessaire. Quand ce n'est pas vraiment important, pas besoin de lui dire pour ne pas créer de la tension pour rien entre le coach et le joueur. (P2)

Some captains try to become coaches. They say everything that happens, almost like an agent to the coach in the room. You are still a player. When the players have a concern with a player or the coach you are the voice of the team to the coach. You are in the dressing room with the players. You get the sense and pulse of the team. You report to the coach what needs to be dealt with. You are a kind of medium, but at the same time don't try to be like a coach. (P1)

I will never name a player by saying this player isn't happy with that, or those five players are not happy with that. All I say is, guys say this and that. I have had coaches get mad with me because I won't say who. It is part of your role sometimes. (P1)

The relationship between coach and team captain also influenced how a coach

used his team captain. For example, coaches often asked the opinion of their team captain

on different topics:

My coach asks for my opinion on different stuff. It really depends, but most of the time they'll let me know what's going on before hand anyways. You know if there is going to be big changes, or someone is leaving or some new guy's coming in. They'll ask me what I think and that type of thing. (P4)

> The coach would come to me and ask me what should we do in this situation or what do you think the guys would want on the ice or off the ice in this situation. What should we do for pre-game or what should we do on the power play. He would want my opinion on many different things. (P3)

When team captains were interacting with their coach, it was not always to give their own opinion or idea. Team captains were the bridge between the coach and the players. The next quotes are examples of a team captain becoming the voice of his teammates:

> You know practice is getting stale. It's getting boring. We need to change things up. Sometimes guys have problems. You know they want a later curfew or other small things. You go to the coach and deal with things like that. You just kind of negotiate. If things are going well, and you're on a winning streak, go up to the coach and ask 'you know maybe the guys want to go out and have a few beers after the game' and I'll go up and approach him and just ask to see how it is. (P4)

> Si chaque joueur va voir l'entraîneur et lui dit ce qu'il pense, ça ne marchera pas. Donc moi, je prend ce que les gars disent, je fais une synthèse de tout ça, et puis je vais voir l'entraîneur. La job principale, c'est pour que le coach sache ce que les joueurs pensent dans la chambre et c'est quoi le « thinking » du groupe. (P2)

Interactions with Team Leaders

This property included interactions with assistant captains and other team leaders, involving aspects related to choosing team leaders, communicating with them, and using them to improve team dynamics.

Each team captain discussed the process of choosing their assistant captains. This process was similar to their own nomination as team captain. In most cases, the team members voted on the assistant captains: "The assistant captains were also voted by the players, like me, but if it was only my decision, they would have been my assistant captains anyway" (P3). "Assistant captains were voted as well. Who had the most votes was captain and the two or three afterwards were the assistant captains" (P1).

Team captains also discussed their positive relationships with their assistant captains. The participants highlighted the importance of this chemistry for the team success. In addition, some team captains have remained close friends with their assistants after their university playing career finished. For example, "The relationships with my assistant captains were great. Still to this day, we have Christmas party's together, summer gatherings and other stuff like that" (P5).

> Oh yeah, I had a great relationship with them. We are different people, that's for sure. But we got along really well on and off the ice. I think we did really well together so yeah, it was a great experience. (P4)

> De ce côté là, c'est pour ça qu'il doit y avoir une bonne relation entre les assistants et le capitaine. Ça doit être une relation amicale, il ne doit pas y avoir de cachettes, il faut que le capitaine et les assistants s'entendent bien ensemble, il ne faut pas qu'il y ait de mur entre les deux. Je me pourrais pas être capitaine et avoir un assistant qui m'haït la face. Peut-être dans la ligue nationale ça se fait, mais pas dans l'universitaire, où le concept d'équipe est primordial. C'est un travail d'équipe pour moi avec les assistants. Faire en sorte que l'esprit d'équipe soit à 100%. (P2)

Roles of assistant captains were frequently discussed by each team captain. One common trend about this topic was the complementary aspect of the roles of assistant captains with the roles of team captains.

> They complement me because they are both defensemen so they're on the ice a long time which is important. They are like opposites of what I am. They're rah-rah sort of guys. They get mad at people whereas I'm more laid back. I let them do a lot of the talking in the dressing room. I would let them, you know, pump the guys up before a game. So talking to a group or the team I wouldn't have to worry about that, they would take care of that, whereas I would talk to the players more on an individual basis. When there would be a problem I wouldn't try to preach to my teammates but sort of try to make it more of a suggestion. On the ice I would try to be under control. Whereas sometimes my assistant captains would get a lot more excited, I would try to calm things down and try to think things out. (P3)

> Assistant captains have almost the same role than team captain. When the captain has a meeting with the coach, the assistant captains usually go in with him. The captain is the one who normally talks. I remembered a few times with McGill, we were not player very well and I told my friend, the assistant captain, to back me

up, get up and say something. Sometimes the guy is in the heat of the moment, he yells or something, but he has someone backing him up. You need to be on the same page as your assistant captains, so you know and they know what to do, and they'll back you up. (P1)

It was great because I had three assistant captains that were different in many aspects. One who was a great organizer. I would use his organizational skills to organize different events. Another was very good with the other players socially. I would use that aspect of him when dealing with social situations, making sure things didn't get out of hand. I was lucky in the sense that the three other captains that I had, had different areas of their personalities that we could use for the positive. (P5)

In addition to the importance of assistant captains, team captains stressed the significant roles of informal leaders on the team. Informal leaders were any members on the team that showed leadership, without having a letter on their jersey. These informal leaders had a significant leadership role on the team:

I think there are a lot of older guys on team that can offer a lot to the team and for some reason just weren't being captain. I played with a ton of guys that were never letters that were great leaders. Every team has those guys and it's just a benefit to the team. It makes our job easier. (P4)

There are guys on the team who put everything into playing which can be a huge motivator to the other guys. One of the forwards who is playing defense this year has accepted every role that we gave him. I would say next year he'll be assistant captain or maybe even captain. You know, he'll go down and block shots in his face. That's an example of a guy who leads by example. It means that's the best work ethic on the team so when you see this guy blocking shots in his face you say to yourself, now maybe if I skate a little harder I might not let him get that shot. So there are a lot of people that you can feed off that aren't captains or assistant captains. (P3)

It's about taking the strengths of what other players you have and utilizing them. Obviously there are certain qualities that certain players have and it's taking those qualities and using them to your advantage to achieve the team goals. Everybody is different. You've just got to learn how to control their positive strengths and how to use them to the advantage of the team. (P5)

Task Behaviors

The higher-order category called *task behaviors* contained 23% (n = 100) of the total meaning units. This category referred to team captains' leadership responsibilities and behaviors designed to improve team climate, norms, functioning, and image. It included the properties of administrative duties, roles with team issues, and setting the right example.

Administrative Duties

This property comprised duties off the ice, including helping the coach with off-season tasks, such as planning team rosters and game system, and representing the team during the season in a variety of capacities.

One task of team captains was helping the coach with off-season team planning. This task was only discussed by team captains who knew they were going to be team captain for the upcoming year. For example, "We might have one or two meetings with the coaches during the summer just to touch base and talk about the upcoming year, who we're losing and who's coming in, but that's about it" (P4). "Yeah, because last summer I would try to plan for the upcoming year. I would be worried about kind of system we were playing and if the guys were training hard" (P3).

Another off-ice task of team captains was to organize team functions. For example, team functions were formal meetings to deal with team issues, activities to raise money for the team, or informal get-togethers to improve team cohesion. For example, "When the players do come back after summer, go out and spend a weekend with just the guys, a great team building function" (P5).

> L'an passé, l'esprit d'équipe n'était pas bon. On n'avait pas connu une bonne saison, puis il y avait des petites cliques dans l'équipe qui s'affrontaient parfois. Il

y avait des différences d'opinion dans l'équipe. Tout ce qu'on a fait, c'est qu'on a organisé un meeting d'équipe, puis on a mis carte sur table. On a discuté de nos différences, puis ça très bien fini puisqu'on s'est rendu en final du Championnat Canadien. Je pense que si on n'avait pas mis les choses au clair, on n'aurait pas réglé nos problèmes de différence d'opinion. (P2)

In addition, team captains had to represent their team in different situations, such as, taking official face-off before games, talking to the fans after a Championship, or simply being at a reception for sponsors or awards. Some individuals also stressed that they represented more than their team; they represented the whole university.

Quand on est arrivé à la maison après notre victoire au Championnat Canadien, j'ai pris la parole devant les gens. C'est sûr que quand l'équipe gagne quelque chose, c'est toi qui représentes l'équipe. Donc c'est toi qui vas prendre le micro. Aussi, quand il y a des activités de promotion, si le capitaine est là, ça va être mieux parce qu'il représente l'équipe. C'est le leader de l'équipe, donc s'il est là, les gens vont dire qu'il représente bien son équipe et qu'il a à cœur son équipe. (P2)

As team captain, you are also representing the university. Other students and student athletes recognize your position with the team. You can't go out and act like a clown, a fool, because that will reflect on the actual team, coaches and the athletic department itself. (P5)

Similar to their role of team representative, some team captains had to interact with reporters. Only the team captains who played at the National Championship discussed this topic. For example, "Au Championnat Canadien, il y a eu une conférence de presse. J'ai donc dû y aller avec le coach et faire un petit discours devant les journalistes par rapport à l'équipe" (P2).

Roles with Team Issues

This property included roles dealing with on-ice and off-ice team situations in order to improve and manage team dynamics. In particular, it included referee interactions, setting team rules, and dealing with team problems, decisions, and team spirit.

Almost all team captains discussed their role surrounding referee interactions. For example, university team captains had to shake the hand of the referees before games, discuss team penalties, and try to maintain good relations with them:

> Quand l'arbitre donne cinq punitions sur le même jeu, il faut que tu ailles le voir pour démêler tout ça. Des fois, tu vas le voir parce que tu trouves que l'autre équipe ambitionne un peu trop sur notre équipe. Si on se fait donner des coups de bâtons et que ça n'arrête pas et que l'arbitre ne donne jamais de punition, je peux aller le voir pour lui dire que ça exagère un peu et de faire attention aux coups de bâton. Je ne sais pas si ça donne des résultats, mais au moins, il sait que tu es là, il sait que tu as observé ça. De nos jours, les arbitres aiment de moins en moins que les capitaines viennent leur parler. Ils sont plus fermés. Aussi, au niveau universitaire, avant chaque partie, on va serré la main aux arbitres. C'est une règle d'éthique. Le capitaine et les entraîneurs serrent la main des arbitres avant le match. (P2)

> Especially during a game, the coach is right there and the captain is the middle man. You have to go and talk to the ref for him. If you are too emotional, you might end up in the box with the other guy. So you calm down and go and talk to them. Sometimes, two minutes later, they make up for their mistakes, calling something else on the other team. Refs are human too. They don't like people getting mad at them, yelling at them. You play around with them a little bit. (P1)

> I talked to the officials if there was a bad call or anytime throughout the game, but there are ways to deal with them. Some individuals will be very temperamental with them, but I wasn't. I always used a nice, polite way, just having them explain the situation, letting them feel important and in control. I don't want to change the ref's behavior and have it reflect on the team, with the ref thinking, this is my show, who is this captain to tell me what I am doing, (a little bit of the god complex on the ice). Unfortunately, with the university refereeing, there is a little bit of that. What should be done is take the situation and not increase it in an aggressive way. Mostly be a buddy with the referee, because in the long run, he may eventually throw you a break because you respect him and his decisions. (P5)

In addition to some on-ice roles, team captains had off-ice roles to fill, such as setting rules for the team. However, only one team captain discussed specific rules that he set for his team:

> During travel, what we created was that the first year students carry the sticks, bags and first aid box. I went through it too. It is a tradition type thing. But there were some players who wouldn't do anything. I created a list so they had a specific task. Only one task, and if, for example, you didn't bring the medical kit,

we knew where the responsibility was going to be. Simple. We never had a problem. From the start of the year, everyone was assigned their certain thing and they were responsible for that item the entire year. No questions asked, case was closed, move on to the next thing. It was the same thing with laundry. We got all the students' class schedules and arranged it so that the individuals who didn't have class after would be the ones to take the laundry down. It is basically putting a structure in the year, so the players know what the hell they are doing. If you don't have any direction, what are you going to do? Very structured, that is how I am in life. At least you know who is responsible for what, that things will be done at a certain time, and that your goals and objectives are laid out in a plan for the year. Everyone knows what they have to do, where to go, at what time, etc... They can do what ever they want to on their own time. They have to accept it, it is their responsibility. They don't know how things go and they learn throughout the year. Everyone had a role, not certain individuals. (P5)

Team captains had other off-ice roles, especially relating to team problems and decisions. The opinions of team captains were important to their teammates and they were the "go to guy" when important decisions were required. For example, "Definitely, in my opinion, the team captain is there to make the hard decisions" (P5). "You have to be good at juggling things, figuring out how to handle each problem and making sure everything is still running smoothly" (P4).

Players would come to see me to sort of clear things. They would ask, "Hey, you know, do you think I should do this?" and I'd say, "Yeah, that's a great idea". For example, once the goalie came to see me about giving out free passes to go play paintball. So I made the announcement and we went and played paintball. I usually made the announcements about the activities, but I wasn't necessarily always the guy that would plan it. I don't know if it was like that because I was team captain, but that's the way it was. Players would come and see me and ask me about certain things. If I thought it was a good idea and if, you know, they asked me, "should I do this?" I'd say, "Yeah, sure, more power to you, go ahead and do it." (P3)

Team captains also stressed the importance of team spirit. According to some of them, this was their primary preoccupation as team captain:

Pour moi, mon rôle est que tout aie bien dans la chambre de hockey. Je ne suis pas un capitaine qui faisait des discours tout le temps. J'étais plutôt à ma place et tranquille. Je devais m'assurer que tout aille bien et qu'aucun joueur ne parle contre un autre. (P6)

Le rôle premier du capitaine d'équipe au hockey est faire sûr que l'esprit d'équipe est bon. Aussitôt qu'on s'aperçoit que l'esprit d'équipe s'en va à la dérive, il faut faire quelque chose pour ramener ça dans le droit chemin. (P2)

Faire sentir aux autres que tu prends à cœur ton travail et faire sentir aux autres que l'équipe est toujours plus importante que l'individu. Ça c'est primordial. Sinon, tu ne peux pas arriver à grand chose sans le concept d'équipe. Le comportement premier, c'est faire sentir aux gars que l'équipe est plus importante que la personne. (P2)

Well, making sure that everyone is up for the game, making sure that things are running smoothly in the room, that everyone is getting along, that there are no small arguments or little cliques. We just get things concentrated in one direction. (P4)

Setting the Example

This property encompassed leading by example in your behaviors on and off-ice in. For example, team captains had to give 100% effort on the ice, had to work-out hard during off-season, had to exhibit good attitudes and habits during practices, and had to help the young players.

Team captains discussed the importance of always working hard and being intense on the ice. Some claimed this was the best way to show leadership:

C'est vraiment de faire la job sur la glace qui est la qualité primordiale. Travailler fort et de montrer aux autres que tu travailles fort. Donc, lorsque tu as des critiques à faire, ça ne te sautera pas dans la face. L'autre gars ne pourra pas te dire de faire ton travaille et de revenir lui parler après. C'est pour ça qu'on entend souvent parler de capitaine qui prêche par l'exemple. Sa qualité principale, c'est de faire son travaille sur la glace. Il obtient son leadership comme ça. Il y a des capitaines qui ne se lèveront jamais dans la chambre, ils vont laisser ça pour d'autres. Ça va être sur la glace qu'ils vont donner l'exemple. Selon moi, le leadership le plus puissant se fait sur la patinoire. Parce que le hockey, ça se joue sur la glace. (P2)

Pas obligé de faire 50 buts, il n'est pas obligé d'être le meilleur pointeur ou le meilleur défenseur. Il faut que le gars soit à 100%, qu'il travaille fort à tous les soirs, tous les matches, toutes les pratiques. Il faut qu'il montre aux autres que le hockey est un jeu où il faut travailler fort, où il ne faut pas avoir de relâchement. En montrant ça aux joueurs, ça les force à te suivre, à travailler aussi fort. (P2)

Similarly, team captains stressed the importance of leading by example to show leadership. In every situation, they had to set an example for their teammates:

> Basically I'm more of a leader by example type of guy, not a rah-rah yelling in the dressing room. But I'm more a guy that play hard and I think I'm well enough respected by the team that when they see me give my all, hopefully, they're going to do the same. (P3)

> It all comes back to leading by example. The one quality of a good team captain is leading by example, during practice and games, and even off the ice. If you work hard at games and every now and then you drink up and come to practice a little hung over, (it's okay) as long as you work hard and lead by example. It is the best way to be a leader and get respect. Not leading with talking all the time, the best leader is being accountable for his actions. Lead by giving your all. It is the same thing outside the sports world. If you work for a bank and your boss is a slacker, it doesn't make you want to work harder. Hard work is the best way to be. (P1)

Setting the example was almost an all year job for team captain. Off-season, team captains were working hard to be ready and in shape for the start of the season:

> Il faut toujours donner le bon exemple sur la glace et hors glace. C'est comme s'entraîner l'été. Ce n'est pas tout le monde qui le fait, mais moi je le fais, parce que je veux montrer l'exemple. Je veux que les gars s'entraînent plus parce que au niveau universitaire, souvent les gars ne s'entraînent pas l'été. Moi, je le fais. (P2)

> If you come to camp out of shape, you don't set a good example. If you slack off, why should the others work hard? Let's say you play pro and you are 35 years old and the other guys are 21 years old and you are in better shape than them, that shouldn't happen, (P1)

Additionally, team captains discussed their behaviors and attitudes during practices. For example, team captains had to be intense and to show enthusiasm:

> See, that's a little different because, after a while, no matter what anyone says, practice gets boring but you can't show that you're lazy, bored or tired. You have to work hard. As soon as you start slipping, it gives everyone an excuse. As soon as that happens, you can't justify screaming at someone when you're going 50%. It's tough in that sense that you always have to be going. (P4)

> C'était d'amener de l'entrain au pratique. Moi, j'aimais ça pratiquer. Je m'assurerais que les exercices aient bien. Il faut aussi être intense dans les pratiques parce qu'on joue comme on pratique. Alors de montrer qu'il faut avoir

des bons lancers, des bonnes passes, qu'il faut avoir de l'aplomb dans les pratiques. J'aimais être le premier à commencer le drill pour montrer que j'étais prêt. (P6)

Dans les pratiques, lorsqu'un exercice commence, tu essaies de te mettre en avant, de faire l'exercice en premier pour montrer aux autres. Moi, en tant que capitaine, je suis ici depuis plusieurs années, avec le même entraîneur. Je suis plus aux faits de ce qu'il fait comme entraînement. Comme capitaine, il faut toujours être attentif aux directives durant les pratiques, parce que des fois, il y a des joueurs qui n'écoutent pas au tableau. Puis, ils te demandent c'est quoi le drill. Donc, toi il faut que tu observes parce que si tu n'es pas capable de répondre, ça n'ira pas mieux. Tu essaies de te mettre en premier pour faire le drill durant les pratiques pour montrer que tu sais ce que tu fais et que tu es capable de le faire. Donc, toujours être prêt et essayer d'amener un enthousiasme. Il faut que tu aies de l'entrain, parce que si c'est une ambiance de funérailles, l'ambiance va être lourde, et c'est toujours plus intéressant de travailler en ayant du plaisir. Tu essaies de faire une couple de blagues. Il faut qu'il y ait une bonne ambiance dans l'air pour bien travailler et pour que tout se fasse correctement. (P2)

Finally, team captains also had to work with young players to help them in several situations. This help was about hockey, academics, or any other situations:

For the younger guys, if they have a concern, they go and talk to the captain. If the captain can't help them, then he will bring it up with the coach without saying their name. Most of the time, with the younger guys, you can help them without even going to the coach. If it is his first year and he is having trouble with his academics, you can tell him where to go. You don't always have to go to the coach. (P1).

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to identify and examine the behaviors of male ice hockey team captains. In particular, this study identified the influence of the sporting and leadership experiences of team captains, the types of leadership behaviors displayed, how the behaviors were manifested, when and where the behaviors were exhibited, and the individuals involved in these behaviors. Three higher-order categories emerged from this study: *interpersonal characteristics and experiences*, *social interactions*, and *task behaviors*. The following chapter will discuss these categories as they relate to previous research on leadership behaviors. As well, attention will be given to Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML), which was used as the theoretical framework for this study.

Interpersonal Characteristics and Experiences

The higher-order category labelled *interpersonal characteristics and experiences* included the personal qualities and skills of team captains, as well as information pertaining to their sporting and leadership experiences. It comprised elements such as their hockey background, previous experiences as team captain, as well as some common traits and characteristics of effective leaders. This higher-order category was similar to the *leader characteristics* dimension of Chelladurai's MML. According to Chelladurai (1994), a leader's personal characteristics included elements such as personality, ability, and experience. In addition, the leader's characteristics had a strong influence on the actual leader behaviors (Chelladurai, 1994). It appeared that the *leader characteristics* dimension of Chelladurai's MML was consistent with the current study since the higher-

order category of *interpersonal characteristics and experiences* seemed to provide the foundation of team captains' leadership behaviors. Similar to Chelladurai's MML, this category can be conceptualized as an antecedent of the leaders' behaviors, since the experiences and personal characteristics of team captains seemed to shape how they behaved. For example, a more introverted team captain may primarily lead by example by delegating the vocal aspect to other peer leaders on the team. With regard to this category, various aspects of team captains' development and characteristics emerged. More specifically, this section will discuss the participants' sporting background and personal characteristics.

Sporting/Hockey Background and Evolution of Team Captain

In the current study, each team captain came from a diverse background (e.g., born in a different province), had different sport experiences as a child, and made different choices relating to their sporting career (e.g., played junior major vs. prep. school). Despite these differences, they all participated in sports early in their life, competed at high levels of minor hockey, and were influenced by their former team captains and coaches. It can be speculated that their varied backgrounds influenced who they were and how they behaved as university team captains.

The current results were similar to those found in qualitative studies on leadership development of coaches and peer leaders (e.g., Miller, 1996; Miller et al., 1996, Wright & Côté, 2003). In particular, the results of these studies showed that leaders started their athletic career early, acquired their leadership skills from different sources (i.e., books, mentors, clinics), and had early leadership positions. The results of the current study suggested a similar pattern of leadership development for formal peer leaders in sport

(i.e., ice hockey team captains). This early exposure to sport and leadership may have helped the team captains develop their own sporting and leadership skills in a challenging and nonthreatening environment (Côté, Baker, & Abernethy, 2003). This challenging environment, along with their early sport experiences and leadership models (i.e., coaches and previous team captains), may have help the current participants developed greater amount of (a) sporting skills, (b) work ethics, (c) tactical knowledge, and (d) good rapport with teammates compared to other players. These four components were perceived by university leader athletes to be central for their leadership development (Wright & Côté, 2003). Thus, any team members should try to learn from many sources about their sport to enhance their sporting and tactical skills. In addition, any team members should try to follow the steps of great players and leaders to enhance their work ethics and rapport with teammates. These acquired skills and knowledge may lead players to become effective peer leaders, in particular effective team captains.

Personal Characteristics

In addition to their sporting background and leadership experiences, the personal characteristics of the current participants appeared to influence their behaviors. These personal characteristics referred to the traits, qualities, and skills that were central to being an effective team captain. Despite this, each participant had his own personal characteristics. For example, some seemed more extroverted and noted it was important to talk to their team and voice their opinions, while others, who were more introverted, left the vocal aspect to their assistant captains. Despite these differences, some characteristics seemed more important than others for effective ice hockey team captains since they were discussed more frequently by the current participants. For instance,

characteristics such as being an effective communicator (e.g., Miller et al, 1996; Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2003; Stodgill, 1974), in control of their emotions (e.g., Wilson & Sullivan, 1998), respectful (e.g., Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991), trustful (Dirks, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1979), and maintaining a positive attitude (e.g., Miller, 2002) were discussed by the participants and supported by previous literature on leadership in different settings (i.e., sport and business).

In particular, since the inception of scientific research on leadership, effective communication has been suggested as a key element in the emergence and effectiveness of leaders (e.g. Stodgill, 1974; Riggio et al., 2003). Thus, it was not surprising that the current participants discussed the importance of being effective communicators. For example, team captains discussed their interactions with officials during games or with the media during a season. As well, team captains' strategic hierarchical position on a team suggested the need of good communication skills to be an effective bridge between each individual (i.e., coaches, players, and team leaders). Their leadership effectiveness may be a function on how they managed this flow of information between coaches, players, and team leaders. Analogously, in a business setting, employees working in central hierarchical positions (e.g., Director's secretary) were often designated as leaders by their peers since they possessed good communication skills to deal with a constant flow of information (Bednarek, Benson, & Mustafa, 1976). The centrality topic was also previously studied in research on emergent leaders in sport (e.g., Glenn & Horn, 1993; Grusky, 1963; Tropp & Landers, 1979). For example, Glenn and Horn found that female soccer players playing in central field positions were more apt to be rated high in leadership quality, while Grusky suggested that the frequency of interaction was a better

predictor of leadership emergence. In contrast, the current study suggests that effective communication skills seemed essential for the leadership effectiveness of every leader, especially team captains, because of their centrality in the organization hierarchy. Being the bridge between coaches and players appears to require effective communication skills. Further research may want to quantitatively measure the communication skills of effective peer leaders compared to the other players to explore any difference.

In addition, the ice hockey setting seemed particularly relevant for the emergence of some other characteristics of team leaders, such as being in control of their emotions. For example, the team captains discussed the importance of not losing their temper after a bad call or not losing their positive attitude after a bad goal by the opposition. Similarly, Wilson and Sullivan (1998) stated that peer leaders in sport must demonstrate appropriate responses to leadership or any game situations by a low expression of anger. In the same way, Bloom, Durand-Bush, and Salmela (1997) found that coaches emphasized the importance of controlling their emotions and adopted different behaviors to appropriately deal with their team's performance and outcome. It can be suggested that controlling emotions is important for any leader, particularly for formal leaders (i.e., coaches and team captains) since they were looked by players to know how to react and behave. According to Mosher (1979), players will respect and follow a team captain who provides a suitable example. Given that emotions play a central role in sport performance (e.g., Crust, 2002; Jones, 2003), each player may enhance their team performance by pursuing the emotional control of their leaders. The psychological strategies used by leaders to control their emotions may be an area of future investigation.

In spite of the agreement between the results of the current study and the previous leadership literature, the current results could not cover every characteristic of effective leadership. For example, internal locus of control (e.g., Yukelson et al., 1981) and sex-role orientation of masculinity and femininity (e.g., Glenn & Horn, 1993) were common characteristics of emergent peer leaders in sport that were not discussed by the participants. The methodology used to find these characteristics may explain this divergence. The present study used a qualitative methodology letting the participants discuss their perceptions of the characteristics of team captains. On the other hand, the majority of previous studies on leadership used questionnaires measuring the difference between leaders and non-leaders on specific characteristics. In addition, since exploring the personal characteristics of team captains was not the principal purpose of this study, it was probable that not every one emerged. As well, little consistency was found between the perceptions of coaches, players, and peer leaders on the personal characteristics of effective peer leaders (Glenn & Horn, 1993). Coaches and players' perceptions should also be considered to fully explore the personal characteristics necessary for effective peer leaders. While the results of this study provided some interesting insights on important personal characteristics of team captains in ice hockey, clear conclusions cannot be made on a specific set of characteristics of effective team captains.

Social Interactions

Another higher-order category, labeled *social interactions*, examined the importance of interacting with other individuals on the team, such as teammates, coaches, and other team leaders. This category highlighted the importance of communicating effectively, and developing and maintaining good relationships. This category is different

from having good communication skills discussed previously. It rather discussed about

fulfilling a social role by interacting and communicating with other individuals. This

category is similar to previous literature on leadership which regularly suggested two

dimensions of leadership behaviors, *social* (i.e., relational and expressive) and *task* (i.e.,

instrumental) behaviors (e.g., Carron & Hausenblas, 1998; Cox, 1998; Kogler Hill, 2001;

Rees, 1983). In respect to this category, various aspects of *social* factors emerged

between teammates, coaches, and team leaders. Thus, information in this section will

focus on various *social interactions* between team captains and their teammates, coaches,

and other team leaders, while the following section will address *task* factors.

Athlete Interaction

Team captains interacted with many individuals. In particular, the current

participants stated that communication with teammates was a major part of their role as a

team leader. Team captains communicated with teammates in different ways (e.g.,

autocratic vs. democratic style) and for many purposes (e.g., confidence to a player vs.

general information to the team). These results were consistent with many dimensions of

Chelladurai and Saleh's (1980) Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS), such as democratic

behavior, autocratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback. However, the LSS

was only created to study coaches' behaviors. Using the LSS and a peer leader version of

it, Loughead and Hardy (in press) found that peer leaders in sport teams exhibited more

social support, positive feedback, and democratic behaviors than coaches. In the same

way, the participants of the current study noted that they manifested democratic

behaviors with teammates to a greater extent than any other behaviors. They stated that at

the university level, it was easier to have an adult conversation with each player since

they attained a certain level of maturity. As well, at this level, ice hockey did not seem to have the same significance for each player (e.g., stage before playing professional hockey vs. playing high-level hockey when studying). Thus, the team captains of this study felt that a democratic style of interaction was more appropriate with teammates to make sure that the needs and wants of everyone were openly discussed. By communicating with their teammates using mostly a democratic style of interaction, it appeared that team captains have a particularly important social (i.e., relational) role. Since one of the most important functions of coaches is to improve the performance of athletes (Marten, 1987), athletes may turn to peer leaders (e.g., team captains) to ensure that their social needs are satisfied (Loughead & Hardy, in press). The interpersonal or social behaviors of any leaders appear to be more important for peer leaders.

In addition to the different ways and purposes to communicate with teammates, the team captains of the current study discussed the importance of the quality and timing of effective communication. They discussed the importance of being attentive to players' attitude (i.e., psychological state) and performance and choosing the right moment to give feedback to players. For example, they never gave negative feedback to players' right before a game. This result can be related to a new dimension of the LSS added by Zhang, Jensen, and Mann (1997). The *situational consideration behavior* dimension referred to the leader behaviors aimed at considering situational factors such as time, individual, environment, team, and game. It appeared that the timing and the quality of communication were more important than the quantity of talking for effective team captains' leadership. Since a great amount of talking generally characterized extraverted individuals, this result suggested that extraversion may not be an essential characteristic

for effective team captains. Effective team captains may only talk at key moments to create a greater impact. Similarly, in the business setting, Wheelan and Johnston (1996) found that peer leadership status was not simply a function of who spoke the most. Possessing tactful communication skills (i.e., being able to say the right things at the right time) was suggested to be more important than mere extraversion for leadership emergence (Riggio et al., 2003).

In addition to the timing of their interventions, the team captains of the current study also mentioned that they behaved differently depending on the players. For instance, some team captains discussed using more autocratic behaviors with young players and more democratic behaviors with veteran players. This is also similar the *situational consideration behavior* dimension of the RLSS (i.e., Revised LSS), discussed previously, which considered factors such as individuals. Likewise, Chelladurai (1978) suggested that coaches may vary their behaviors based on player preferences and needs. Previous research using the LSS and exploring the effect of age and experience of the preferred leadership behaviors of athletes found differences between younger and older athletes. For instance, Erle (1981) found that more experienced athletes preferred more positive feedback, autocratic behavior, and social support from their coaches. In the same way, Serpa (1990) found that younger women basketball players preferred more social support and democratic behavior, and less autocratic behavior than older ones. It appears that athletes may have different behavior preferences for their team captains and their coaches. For example, more experienced players may prefer a participatory style of interaction with team captains and a more autocratic style with their coaches. Loughead and Hardy (in press) found that athletes perceived their coaches and peer leaders to

exhibit behaviors to a different extent. In particular, coaches were perceived to exhibit greater amounts of autocratic behaviors, while peer leaders were perceived to exhibit more democratic behaviors. However, it is still unclear whether these perceived behaviors were congruent with the preferred leadership behaviors of athletes. Further research exploring athletes' preferred leadership behaviors of their team captains may help clarify this topic. As well, the preferred leadership behaviors of veteran vs. young players from the same level is another area of future investigation.

Coach Interaction and Relationship

The current participants stressed the importance of a good relationship with their coach to maximise the effectiveness of their interactions. Some of the team captains noted that coaches' characteristics and leadership style influenced their behaviors and their interactions with them. For example, some coaches involved team captains in almost every team decision, while other coaches simply made decisions on their own. It appears that coaches used both a participatory leadership style (i.e., democratic behavior) and autocratic leadership style with their team captains. However, at the university level the participatory leadership style seemed to be predominant between coaches and team captains. Since each team captain mentioned having a good relationship with their coach, it can be suggested that the coaches' democratic style of interaction contributed to team captains' satisfaction. A democratic decision-making style was identified as the leader behavior that contributed most to the satisfaction of athletes in basketball teams (Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986). This coaching style appears to contribute not only to players' satisfaction, but also to team captains' appreciation of their coach. Thus, university

coaches should favour a democratic leadership style to enhance the satisfaction of players and peer leaders.

Team captains' interaction and relationship with their coach may also be discussed in relation to the *situational characteristics* of the MML where demands and constraints created by the organization and/or environment, such as formal structure of the team, social norms, and values, would require that the leader behaved in definite ways (i.e., required behaviors) (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1993). The results of the current study suggested that team captains were able to adapt to the demands and constraints of their coach since they all reported good and collaborative relationships with him. This result did not support the study of Wheelan and Johnston (1996) who studied a group of individuals attending a conference on organizational dynamics. They found that member leaders often challenged formal leaders' authority and built coalitions with other members who supported their antiauthority stance. Explaining these divergent results, team captains are formal leaders whereas the emergent leaders from Wheelan and Johnston's study were informal leaders. Without a formal role and status, peer leaders may be more disposed to go against formal leaders' directions. The university setting of the current study may also reduce any antiauthority stance, since players are not playing for money. In addition, at the university level, players are often named team captain at the end of their university career. Thus, team captains and coaches already know each other very well, decreasing the probability of major conflict.

In addition to the importance of a good relationship between team captains and coaches, the current participants discussed being the voice of the players, such as requesting changes for practices or travelling. Similarly, Mosher (1979) suggested that

one of the three key functions of team captains was to act as a liaison between the coaching staff and the players. Mosher stated that this liaison provided additional information for the coach and was vital for team success. In the same way, Hughes et al. (1993) included, in their team leadership model, a set of behaviors reflecting those the leaders exhibited to monitor the environmental context of the team (e.g., organization and coaches). Team captains had to exhibit those external environmental leadership functions (e.g., representing players' opinion and negotiating travel conditions) with their coaches to enhance team development, maintenance, and performance. This result suggested that team captains communicated and interacted effectively with their coach for the satisfaction of every team member. A team that perceives their leader to be competent and effective will be more likely to bind together and follow the leader's behaviors (Horn, 2002). Being an effective liaison between coaches and players appeared to influence team cohesion (Horn, 2002).

Interactions with Team Leaders

In addition to the interactions with teammates and coaches, the current participants discussed the importance of their interactions with other peer leaders, such as assistant captains and informal leaders (e.g., teammates occupying an informal leadership role within the team). The current participants noted that each peer leader offered his qualities to improve team dynamics, satisfaction, and performance. This was similar to the results found by Bednarek et al. (1976), Hackman (1992), and Kerr and Jermier (1978) on their studies in the business setting. They found that each peer leader helped different members according to their specific qualities and performed functions that formal leaders failed to fulfil. The results of the current study suggested that many

players exhibited leadership behaviors on a team, not just the team captains. In fact, the behaviors demonstrated by other peer leaders seemed different and complementary to those filled by the team captains. Thus, it appears that ice hockey team captains may not be able to meet the leadership needs of every teammate. Each team may need many leaders who are each skilled at meeting different types of needs, thus explaining why teams typically have multiple formal (i.e., coaches, team captains, assistant captains) and informal leaders.

In addition, these results extend the work of Loughead and Hardy (in press) who found that coaches and peer leaders exhibited different leadership behaviors. The present study suggested comparable findings where team captains exhibited different behaviors than other peer leaders. Therefore, each level of leadership on a team (i.e., coaches, team captains, assistant captains, and informal leaders) seemed to complement each other. Other team leaders (e.g., assistant captains and informal leaders) are likely to be more involved in social leadership roles since no formal status seemed necessary to influence the relationships between each member of the team. This is similar to the results found by Rees (1983) and Rees and Segal (1984) on football and basketball teams. They found peer leaders who were perceived to be task specialist had high formal status, whereas the social specialists were not as high in formal status. It appears that team captains should be particularly effective in task roles, since other peer leaders may be more helpful in social roles. Further research exploring the perceptions of other leaders, such as assistant captains, on their leadership roles and behaviors may help clarify this topic.

Task Behaviors

A final category emerging from the current study was labelled *task behaviors*. The team captains of the current study discussed leadership responsibilities and behaviors designed to improve team climate, norms, functioning, and image. In contrast to the last category suggesting *social* (i.e., relational) behaviors of team captains, this category included *task* behaviors, similar to many previous studies of leadership behaviors (e.g., Carron & Hausenblas, 1998; Cox, 1998; Hughes, et al., 1993; Kogler Hill, 2001; Rees, 1983). These studies highlighted the importance of organizing, planning, making decisions, solving problems, educating, and getting the job done, in order to improve task performance. Information in this section will explain various aspects of task behaviors, such as administrative duties, roles with team issues, and ways to set the right example to teammates.

Administrative Duties

Each of the current team captains discussed responsibilities they had to fill off-ice (and often off-season), such as helping the coach with planning, recruiting, and representing the team at meetings or press conferences. Similar results were found in the business industry literature (e.g., Hughes et al. 1993; Kogler Hill, 2001) and in the sport context (e.g., Mosher, 1979). In particular, Mosher stated different administrative duties of volleyball team captains, such as representing their teammates at receptions, organizing team reunions, and meeting their coach for planning and decision making. In the same way, Hughes et al. discussed environmental leadership behaviors needed to manage the organization and societal context of a work team (e.g., networking, representing the team and sharing information). However, each team captain of the

present study exhibited different behaviors and filled different administrative duties according to how their coach involved them in this leadership area. Whether their coach used a more democratic or autocratic leadership style influenced their responsibilities as team captains. Specifically, team captains who discussed having a coach with a more democratic style exhibited more administrative duties. These results suggested that coaches with a democratic style provide more opportunities for peer leaders to exhibit their leadership qualities by filling more administrative duties. Consistent with this suggestion, Kozub and Pease (2001), in their study with high-school basketball teams, found that a perceived democratic coaching style was associated with higher players' task leadership rating. A democratic coaching style facilitated the demonstration of desirable task leadership behaviors by athletes (Kozub & Pease, 2001). Therefore, coaches who use a democratic leadership style with their team captains will get the most of their team captains' leadership potential.

Roles with Team Issues

In addition to administrative duties, each team captain dealt with on-ice and off-ice team situations in order to improve and manage team dynamics. Similar to previous studies on peer and/or informal leadership in sport and in the business setting, team captains discussed interacting with game officials (e.g., Mosher, 1979), setting rules and norms (e.g., Mosher, 1979; Wheelan & Johnston, 1996), making decisions and dealing with problems (e.g., Pescosolido, 2001; 2002), and enhancing team spirit (e.g., Yukelson, 1997). Using a democratic style to deal with these team issues, the current participants may enhance their team cohesion. Cohesion has been found to be related with coaches who were perceived as high in democratic behaviors (Gardner, Light Shields, Light

Bredemeier, & Bostrom, 1996; Westre & Weiss, 1991). In other words, coaches who were perceived as high in democratic behaviors had teams that were more cohesive. This result may be similar for peer leaders. In particular, team captains using a democratic style to make decisions or set rules for the team are likely to enhance their team cohesion. It also seems more likely that players be more satisfied if team captains involve them in the decision process on different team issues. By knowing that every member had a say in the decisions and the structures (i.e., norms and rules) of the team had a significant impact on athletes' satisfaction with the team, coach, and teammates (Turman, 2003).

According to the MML, athletes' satisfaction and performance are function of the congruence between their preferred leadership behaviors and the actual leadership behaviors of the leader. However, previous research on the preferred athletes' leadership behaviors did not support the preference for democratic behaviors of male ice hockey players. More specifically, male athletes were found to prefer more autocratic behaviors than female and athletes from independent sports (i.e., individual sports) were found to prefer more democratic behaviors than athletes from interdependent sports (i.e., team sports) (Beam et al., 2004). However, this study only explored athletes' preferred leadership behaviors for their coaches. Athletes' preferred leadership behaviors for other leaders, such as team captains, is an area of future investigation. While Loughead and Hardy found that peer leaders were perceived to exhibit greater amount of democratic behaviors compared to coaches, it is still unclear if players preferred this type of behavior for team captains.

In addition, team captains' leadership roles with team issues had similarities with the *training and instruction* dimension of the LSS (i.e., coordination and clarification

aspects). For example, this dimension includes explaining to athletes what they should do or not and specifying in detail what is expected of each of them. However, the coaching aspects (i.e., teaching the skills, techniques, and tactics of the sport) of this dimension did not emerge in the current study. This result suggested that team captains focused on other roles, such as the clarification of team issues and coordination of team activities. It appeared that team captains still wanted to be perceived by their teammates as players, in contrast as assistant coaches, by exhibiting more interpersonal leadership behaviors than their coaches. Consistent with this suggestion, coaches were perceived to exhibit leadership behaviors to a different extent than peer leaders (Loughead & Hardy, in press). Specifically, Canadian athletes from different levels perceived their coaches to exhibit a greater amount of training and instruction as well as autocratic behaviors, while peer leaders were perceived to display higher levels of positive feedback, social support, and democratic behaviors (Loughead & Hardy, in press).

Setting the Example

Most team captains of this study emphasized the importance of setting the example for teammates in their behaviors on-ice and off-ice in all facets of the sport. They stated that setting the example was the most powerful way to show leadership. Previous studies also considered leading by example as a way to convince members to follow their direction (e.g., Hermalin, 1998; Mosher, 1979). As well, peer leaders who work hard during practice and competition were found to influence their teammates to exhibit similar behavior (Glenn, Burton, Horn, & Pickering, 2003). These results suggested that team captains should always work hard during practices, games, and off-season, particularly to set the example for young players. Young players often have

relatively little information to help them make performance assessment (Pescosolido, 2001). Because of this high level of ambiguity, they may turn to veteran players or peer leaders to know how to behave (Hawkins & Tolzin, 2002; Pescosolido, 2001). They may turn to these leaders for a variety of reasons. For example, the peer leaders may serve as parental figures for the team or may have the greatest amount of knowledge and experience (Pescosolido, 2002). Thus, team captains should be particularly attentive to young players needs since they are likely to be their primary human resource. As well, team captains may be helpful for young players for a variety of needs, not only about hockey (e.g., school and traveling).

According to the MML, member characteristics defined by such factors as gender, age, and ability would influence the required behaviors of the leader. More specifically, young players would require specific behaviors from their leader. Thus, team captains should be aware of the influences they may have on young players and behaves consequently. In particular, the current participants discussed ways of leading by example in team sports, such as hard work, off-season training, enthusiasm during practices, and pre-game preparation. Mosher (1979) stated that players will follow a team captain that provides a suitable example. This may be particularly true for young players searching for guidance. Further research may want to consider young players' perspective of the role of team captains for them. The more powerful ways to set the example for young players is another area of future investigation.

Setting the right example may also be a way to mentor young players. Similarly, several authors have emphasized the importance of mentoring in facilitating one's progress through a career in management (e.g., Dreher & Ash, 1990; Scandura, 1992),

education (e.g., Grosshans, Poczwardowski, Trunnell, & Ransdell, 2003) and sports (e.g., Abney, 1991; Miller, Salmela, & Kerr, 2002; Weaver & Chelladurai, 1999). For example, Abney stated that the mentor should provide encouragement, instruction, opportunities, advice, and inspiration to assist the protégé to deal with problems and obstacles. In addition, while the study of Miller, Salmela, and Kerr provided important evidence of the presence of coach-athlete mentoring in university sport, the current result suggests the presence of team captain-young players informal mentoring in university sport. This informal relationship appears significant for young players to get support and guidance. This mentoring may also benefit all parties (i.e., protégé, mentor, and organization). While the team captains (i.e., mentor) will make an effort to set the right example, young players (i.e., protégés) will follow their footsteps. Thus, the team (i.e., organization) may only perform in a better way. Further research should explore the factors that may influence the specific nature of team captains-young players mentoring relationship.

CHAPTER 6

Summary

This chapter includes a summary, concluding statements, recommendations for future research on peer leadership, and practical implications of the current study.

Summary of Study

In sport, the majority of research on leadership has been conducted on the characteristics and behaviors of coaches. This is somewhat unfortunate since the definition of leadership indicates that it is a process of individuals influencing other individuals; therefore, every team member (i.e., coaches and athletes) can display leadership. Furthermore, despite the great value that both coaches and athletes have attributed to leadership, no empirical study has specifically focused on the behaviors of formal peer leaders (i.e., team captains). The purpose of the current study was to identify and examine the key behaviors exhibited by male ice hockey team captains.

The participants were six former highly-regarded Canadian university male ice hockey team captains. They were identified and located with the assistance of respected head coaches of successful Canadian university hockey teams. The selection of the team captains was based on five criteria. First, they played at the university level (CIS) for at least two full seasons. Second, they completed a minimum of one full season as team captain at the university level. Third, if retired, they were team captain at the university level in the last five years. Fourth, they were identified by current CIS coaches as one of the best team captains they have coached with or against. Fifth, a minimum winning percentage of 50% while they were team captain was required.

A qualitative methodology was used due to the exploratory nature of the study. An interview guide was created specifically for this study using Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership and Leadership Scale for Sports as a guide. Semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with the participants. Data were analysed inductively, following the guidelines of Côté et al. (1995).

The results identified the influence of the sporting and leadership experiences of team captains on their behaviors, the types of behaviors displayed, how the behaviors were manifested, when and where the behaviors were exhibited, and the individuals involved in these behaviors. Three main areas emerged from the data analysis: (a) the *interpersonal characteristics and experiences*, (b) the *social interactions*, and (c) the *task behaviors* (see Figure 1).

Interpersonal characteristics and experiences included qualities and skills of team captains, as well as information pertaining to their hockey and leadership experiences. In spite of the differences between each team captain on their sporting background and leadership experiences, the current study identified some common characteristics for the development of effective team captains. These included an early exposure to sport and to a high level of competition, influences and knowledge from previous team leaders, and their own early experiences as team captain. In the same way, certain personal qualities emerged that were found to be important for team captains, such as being effective communicators, in control of their emotions, respectful of their teammates and coaches, and positive in every situations. In brief, it seemed that the previous sporting and leadership experiences and personal characteristics of team captains provided the roots of their leadership behaviors.

Social interactions explained how and why team captains interacted with other individuals, such as teammates, coaches, and other team leaders. The results of this category suggested an important *social* role for team captains on their team. Due to their strategic hierarchical position, they appeared to be the communication bridge between coaches, players, and other leaders. In addition, the team captains of the current study identified different ways they interacted, such as using a democratic or autocratic interaction style with their teammates. As well, they interacted for many purposes, such as giving general information (e.g., schedule) or positive feedback. For any style of interaction, they also stressed the importance of good timing. For example, they never gave negative feedback to a player just before a game. Team captains also discussed the importance of a good relationship with their coach in order to maximize the effectiveness of their interactions. As well, this category included team captains' relationships with their assistant captains and other leaders. A good relationship between each team leader allowed the team captains to take full advantage of the qualities of every leader on the team.

Task behaviors were exhibited to improve team climate, norms, functioning, and image. While the importance of *social* behaviors emerged in the *social interactions* category, this category suggested key *task* behaviors to improve team functioning and hopefully, team performance. On and off the ice behaviors were included in this category, such as helping the coach with administrative duties (e.g., off-season planning and organizing team functions), dealing with team issues (e.g., setting rules and taking decisions), and setting the example for teammates. Each team captain had different administrative duties and team issues to deal with according to how their coach involved

them in this leadership area. According to their coach's style (e.g., democratic and autocratic), some team captains had more responsibilities than others. In addition, team captains stated that the most powerful way to show leadership was to lead by example in every situation, such as working hard on ice, having a good attitude during practices, training hard during off-season, and helping young players on and off the ice.

A visual representation of the categories and properties found in this study can be seen in Figure 1. The *interpersonal characteristics and experiences* provided the foundation of team captains' leadership behaviors because it shaped how team captains interacted and communicated with other individuals and how they managed team functions and issues. In other words, team captains, through their own *interpersonal characteristics and experiences*, exhibited *social interactions* and *task behaviors*. In spite of their distinct attributes, these last two categories were interrelated since team captains interacted and communicated with other individuals to fill task exhibit team leadership behaviors. For example, to improve team spirit, team captains may organize meetings, talk to many players, and interact with other team leaders. In addition, it was previously suggested that member-focused behaviors (i.e., social behaviors) improve leaders' skill at task-focused behaviors (i.e., task behaviors) (Wolff et al., 2002).

In sum, the current results suggested that ice hockey team captains exhibited both social behaviors (i.e., *social interactions*) and task (i.e., *task behaviors*) behaviors. It appeared that team captains possessed a high degree of leadership role integration, fulfilling both expressive (i.e., social) and instrumental (i.e., task) leadership roles. In sport teams, such as ice hockey, social behaviors may be perceived as part of task leadership since maintaining group solidarity and cohesion is essential for the successful

coordination of task activities and the realization of group goals. In other words, each member of a team has to integrate their skills in order to attain the group goal (i.e., victory). In this context, maintaining harmony is essential for task success. This suggests that team captains should by picked according to their ability to fulfill both social and task roles. A team captain who is not as good with one of these roles may choose assistant captains able to fill his needs.

It can therefore be concluded that the three categories of the current study interacted with one another to explain and clarify (a) the influence of the sporting and leadership experiences of team captains on their behaviors, (b) the types of behaviors displayed, (c) how, when and where the behaviors were exhibited, and (d) the individuals involved in these behaviors.

Figure 1. Visual representation of the relationship among the higher-order categories of leadership behaviors of university male ice hockey team captains
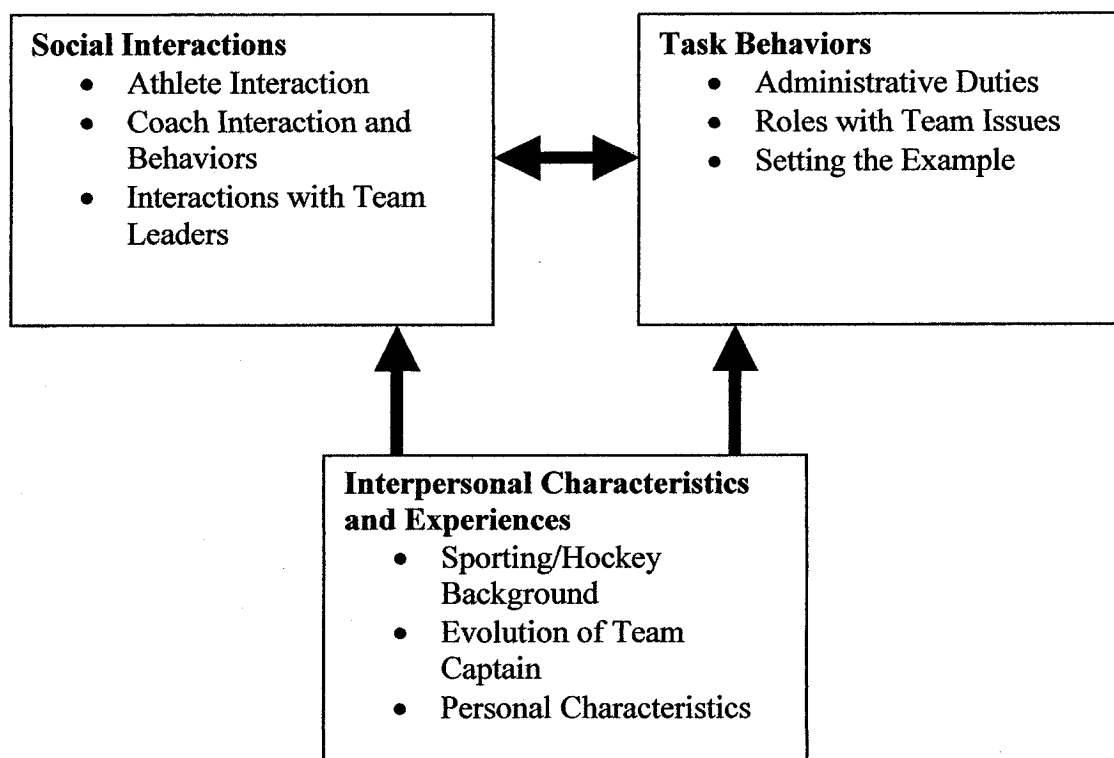
Conclusions

- Team captains started playing hockey early and have played at a high level of competitive hockey throughout their lives.

- For most team captains, playing professional hockey was their primary goal. Playing university hockey was only a second option for their hockey career.

- At the university level, the participants were often named team captains by their teammates. They were all proud and honoured to be named team captain of their university team.

- The participants learned how to be successful team captains by watching their former team captains and by their own previous experiences as team leader.

- While each team captain had a different personality, some common characteristics emerged from all of them. These included being an effective communicator, in control of their emotions, respectful of their teammates and coaches, and positive in every situation.

- Team captains interacted with teammates in different ways, such as using an autocratic or democratic style. They also interacted for many purposes, such as giving general information (e.g., schedule) or positive feedback.

- Team captains had to be attentive to players' attitudes and performance to give accurate feedback at the right moment.

- Team captains had a good relationship with their coach and were able to communicate effectively with him. This relationship influenced the content of the message and the amount of information travelling between them.

- Team captains frequently interacted with assistant captains and informal leaders. This relationship was important for effective peer leadership on the team by using the qualities of every team leader.

- Team captains filled different administrative duties off-ice such as helping their coach with planning and recruiting, representing their team at meetings and press conferences, and organizing team functions.

- Team captains were the "go to guy" with most off-ice issues, such as setting rules, making decisions, and improving team spirit. On-ice, they interacted with team officials and relayed information to teammates and coaches to ensure everyone was on the same page.

- Team captains set the example for their teammates. They worked hard on the ice, showed enthusiasm during practices, trained hard during off-season, and helped young players in all facets on and off the ice.

- In conclusion, team captains' sporting background, previous leadership experiences, and personal characteristics influenced the leadership behaviors they exhibited as university team captains. These leadership behaviors were interacting with teammates, coaches, and team leaders, and filling team leadership functions such as completing administrative duties, dealing with team issues, and setting the right example on and off the ice.

Practical Implications

The current study is of interest to the entire sport community because it explains what team captains do, and how, when, and where they do it. In particular, the current study can help future and current peer leaders to improve their own leadership behaviors

by learning about qualities, relationships, interactions, duties, and roles of team captains. Specifically, future and current peer leaders may gain knowledge of how team captains learned to be effective leaders, how they interacted with other individuals, when they gave feedback to teammates, why good relationships with everyone was important, how they utilized their assistant captains and informal leaders, and how they set the example for teammates. With this new information, future and current peer leaders may question themselves on their actual leadership behaviors. By changing and adding some leadership behaviors, they may become more effective peer leaders and consequently, may enhance their team satisfaction and performance. In addition, effective peer leadership was previously suggested to be one of the markers of future entry and success of coaching (Miller et al., 1996). Thus, the current study may indirectly help to develop successful coaches by enhancing their leadership skills and behaviors as athlete leaders.

In addition, the current study may help coaches to learn about the importance of peer leadership and to be aware of the variety of behaviors exhibited by team captains. This knowledge can lead coaches to involve and utilize their team leaders, in particular team captains, in more effective and suitable ways. Since team captains adapted their behaviors according to the coach's style, coaches may want to give more freedom to their team captains and utilize their skills, knowledge and influences in a full extent. Coaches should also be aware that team captains do not have a particular set of personality traits, a specific sporting background, and similar leadership experiences. They simply used their strengths, characteristics, and experiences in effective ways to be successful.

Glenn, S. D., Burton, D., Horn, T. S., & Pickering, T. (2003). *Filling the leadership void.* Paper presented at the meeting of the Northwest Student Symposium for Sport Psychology, Portland, OR.

Glenn, S. D., & Horn, T. S. (1993). Psychological and personal predictors of leadership behavior in female soccer athletes. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 5,* 17-34.

Gould, D., Hodge, K., Petersen, K., & Petlichkoff, L. (1987). Psychological foundations of coaching: Similarities and differences among intercollegiate wrestling coaches. *The Sport Psychologist, 1,* 293-308.

Grosshans, O., Poczwardowski, A, Trunnell, E., & Ransdell, L. (2003). Senior faculty retrospectives on mentoring. *American Journal of Health Education, 34,* 146-153.

Grusky, O. (1963). The effects of formal structure on managerial recruitment: A study of baseball organization. *Sociometry, 26,* 345-353.

Hackman, J. R. (1992). Group influences on individuals in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. H. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (2nd ed., Vol. 3, pp. 199-267). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Hawkins, K. & Tolzin, A. (2002). Examining the team/leader interface: Baseball teams as exemplars of postmodern organizations. *Group & Organization Management, 27,* 97-112.

Hermalin, B. E. (1998). Toward an economic theory of leadership: Leading by example. *The American Economic Review, 88,* 1188-1206.

Horn, T. S. (2002). Coaching Effectiveness in the Sport Domain. In T. S. Horn (Ed.), *Advances in sport psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 101-184). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Horne, T., & Carron, A. V. (1985). Compatibility in coach-athlete relationships. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 7,* 137-149.

House, R. J. (1971). A path-goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 16,* 321-338.

Hughes, R. L., Ginnett, R. C., & Curphey, G. J. (1993). *Leadership: Enhancing the lessons of experience.* Homewood, IL: Irwin.

Jones, M. V. (2003). Controlling emotions in sport. *Sport Psychologist, 17,* 471-486.

Keer, S., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitutes for leadership: Their meaning and measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 22,* 375-403.

Keidel, R. W. (1987). Team sports models as a generic organizational framework. *Human Relations, 40,* 591-612.

Kennedy, S. (1991). Role of the captain. *Coaching Update, 4,* 9.

Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1991). Leadership: Do traits matter? *The Executive, 5,* 48-60.

Klenke, K. (1993). Meta-analytic studies of leadership: Added insights or added paradoxes? *Current Psychology: Developmental, Learning, Personality, Social, 12,* 326-343.

Kogler Hill, S. E. (2001). Team leadership. In P. G. Northouse (Ed.), *Leadership: Theory and practice* (2nd ed., pp. 161-187). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Kozub, S. A., & Pease, D. G. (2001). Coach and player leadership in high school

basketball. *Journal of Sport Pedagogy: Teaching and Coaching in Sport, 7,* 1-15.

LeBoeuf, J. N. (1989). The role of a team captain. *Coaching Women's Basketball, 2,* 26-

28.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* London: Sage.

Lord, R. G., DeVader, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relation

between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity

generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71,* 402-410.

Loughead, T. M. & Hardy, J. (in press). An examination of coach and peer leader

behaviors in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise.*

Manos, K. (2000). Navigating with captains: team captains need to be responsible,

dependable, and cool at the helm. Here are some tips on choosing and using them

properly. *Athletic Management, 12,* 18-19.

Martens, R. (1987). *Coaches guide to sport psychology.* Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Maxwell, J. A. (1996). Qualitative research design: An interactive approach. *Vol. 41.*

Applied Social Research Methods Series. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Miller, D. (2002). Successful change leaders: What makes them? What do they do that is

different? *Journal of Change Management, 2,* 359-368.

Miller, P. S. (1996). In the beginning... In J. H. Salmela (Ed.), *Great job coach: getting*

the edge from proven winners (pp. 1-35). Ottawa, ON: Potentium.

Miller, P. S., Bloom, G. A., & Salmela, J. H. (1996). The roots of success: From athletic

leaders to expert coaches. *Coaches Report, 2,* 18-20.

Miller, P. A., Salmela, J. H., & Kerr, G. (2002). Coaches' perceived role in mentoring

athletes. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 33*, 410-430.

Mosher, M. (1979). The team captain. *Volleyball Technical Journal, 4*, 7-8.

Northouse, P. G. (2001). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA:

Sage Publication, Inc.

Osborn, R. N., & Hunt, J. G. (1975). An adaptive-reactive theory of leadership: The role

of macro variables in leadership research. In J. G. Hunt & L. L. Larson (Eds.),

Leadership frontiers (pp. 27-44). Kent, OH: Kent State University.

Pescosolido, A. T. (2001). Informal leaders and the development of group efficacy. *Small

Group Research, 32*, 74-93.

Pescosolido, A. T. (2002). Emergent leaders as managers of group emotion. *The

Leadership Quarterly, 13*, 583-599.

Reed, G. (1997). Public schools teachers of the second congressional district of the state

of Mississippi perceptions of important leadership characteristics associated with

principal effectiveness. *Dissertation Abstracts International.* Vol. 57 (11-A) May.

4617.

Rees, C. R. (1983). Instrumental and expressive leadership in team sports: A test of

leadership role differentiation theory. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 6*, 17-27.

Rees, C. R., & Segal, M. W. (1984). Role differentiation in groups: The relationship

between instrumental and expressive leadership. *Small Group Behavior, 15*, 109-

123.

Rice, R. W. (1978). Construct validity of the least preferred co-worker score.

Psychological Bulletin, 85, 1199-1237.

Riggio, R. E., Riggio, H. R., Salinas, C., & Cole, E. J. (2003). The role of social and

emotional communication skills in leader emergence and effectiveness. *Group*

Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 7, 83-103.

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (1995). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data.*

London: Sage.

Scandura, T. A. (1992). Mentorship and career mobility: An empirical investigation.

Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13, 169-174.

Schliesmen, E. S. (1987). Relationship between the congruence of preferred and actual

leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction with leadership. *Journal of Sport*

Behavior, 10, 157-166.

Serpa, S. (1990). *Reseach work on sport leadership in Portugal.* Unpublished manuscript.

Lisbon Technical University.

Smith, R. E., Smoll, F. L., & Curtis, B. (1978). Coaching behaviors in little league

baseball. In F. L. Smoll & R. E. Smith (Eds.), *Psychological perspective on youth*

sports (pp.173-201). Washington, DC : Hemisphere.

Smith, R. E., Smoll, F. L., & Curtis, B. (1979). Coach effectiveness training : A

cognitive-behavioral approach to enhancing relationship skills in youth sport

coaches. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 1,* 59-75.

Smith, R. E., Smoll, F. L., & Hunt, E. B. (1977). A system for the behavioral assessment

of athletic coaches. *Research Quarterly, 48,* 401-407.

Smoll, F. L., & Smith, R. E. (1989). Leadership behaviors in sport: A theoretical model

and research paradigm. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 19,* 1522-1551.

Sparkes, A. C. (1998). Validity in qualitative inquiry and the problem of criteria:

   Implications for sport psychology. *The Sport Psychologist, 12,* 363-386.

Stodgill, R. (1948). Personality factors associated with leadership: A review of the

   literature. *Journal of Psychology, 25,* 35-71.

Stodgill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership.* New York: Free Press.

Strube, M., & Garcia, J. (1981). A meta-analytic investigation of Fiedler's contingency

   model of leadership effectiveness. *Psychological Bulletin, 90,* 307-321.

Taggar, S., Hackett, R., & Saha, S. (1999). Leadership emergence in autonomous work

   teams: Antecedents and outcomes. *Personnel Psychology, 52,* 899-926.

Tajfel, H. & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S.

   Worschel & W. G. Austin (Eds.). *Psychology of intergroup relations* (2nd ed., pp.

   33-47). Chicago: Nelson-Hall.

Terry, P. C. (1984). The coaching preferences of elite athletes competing at the

   Universiade '83. *The Canadian Journal of Applied Sport Sciences, 9,* 201-208.

Tesch, R. (1990). *Qualitative research analysis types and software tools.* New York:

   Falmer.

Tropp, K., & Landers, D. (1979). Team interaction and the emergence of leadership and

   interpersonal attraction in field hockey. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 1,* 228-240.

Turman, P. D. (2003). Coaches and cohesion: The impact of coaching techniques on team

   cohesion in the small group sport setting. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 26,* 86-104.

Vecchio, R. (1983). Assessing the validity of Fiedler's contingency model of leadership

   effectiveness: A closer look at Strube and Garcia. *Psychological Bulletin, 93,*

   404-408.

Weaver, M. A., & Chelladurai, P. (1999). A mentoring model for management in sport and physical education. *Quest, 51*, 24-38.

Weese, J., & Nicholls, E. (1986). Team leadership: Selection and expectations. *Physical Educator, 44*, 269-272.

Weiss, M. R., & Friedrichs, W. D. (1986). The influence of leader behaviors, coach attributes, and institutional variables on performance and satisfaction of collegiate basketball teams. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 8*, 332-346.

Westre, K. R., & Weiss, M. R. (1991). The relationship between perceived coaching behaviors and group cohesion in high school football teams. *The Sport Psychologist, 5*, 41-54.

Wheelan, S. A., & Johnston, F. (1996). The role of informal member leaders in a system containing formal leaders. *Small Group Research, 27*, 33-55.

Wilson, D. J., & Sullivan, P. A. (1998). Developing leaders on athletic teams. *Strategies, 1*, 18-21.

Wolff, S. B., Pescosolido, A. T., & Druskat, V. U. (2002). Emotional intelligence as the basis of leadership emergence in self-managing teams. *The Leadership Quarterly, 13*, 505-522.

Wright, A. & Côté, J. (2003). A retrospective analysis of leadership development through sport. *The Sport Psychologist, 17*, 268-291.

Yukelson, D. (1997). Principles of effective team building interventions in sport: A direct services approach at Penn State University. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 9*, 73-96.

Yukelson, D., Weinberg, R., Richardson, P., & Jackson, A. (1981). Interpersonal

   attraction and leadership within collegiate sport teams. *Journal of Sport Behavior*,

   6, 29-36.

Yulk, G. (1971). Toward a behavioral theory of leadership. *Organizational Behavior and*

   Human Performance, 6, 414-440.

Yulk, G. (1989). *Leadership in organizations* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-

   Hall.

Zhang, J., Jensen, B. E., & Mann, B. L. (1997). Modification and revision of the

   Leadership Scale for Sport. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 20*, 105-122.

Appendices 110

Appendices

Appendix A

Typology of Approaches to Leadership

	Traits	Behaviors
Universal	e.g., the "Great Person" Theory	e.g., Ohio State and Michigan Studies, and the Mediational Model of Leadership
Situational	e.g., the Contingency Theory of Leadership	e.g., the Multidimensional Model of Leadership

Adapted from:

Behling, O., & Schriesheim, C. (1976). *Organizational behavior : Theory, research, and application.* Boston : Allyn and Bacon.

Appendix B

Mediational Model of Leadership
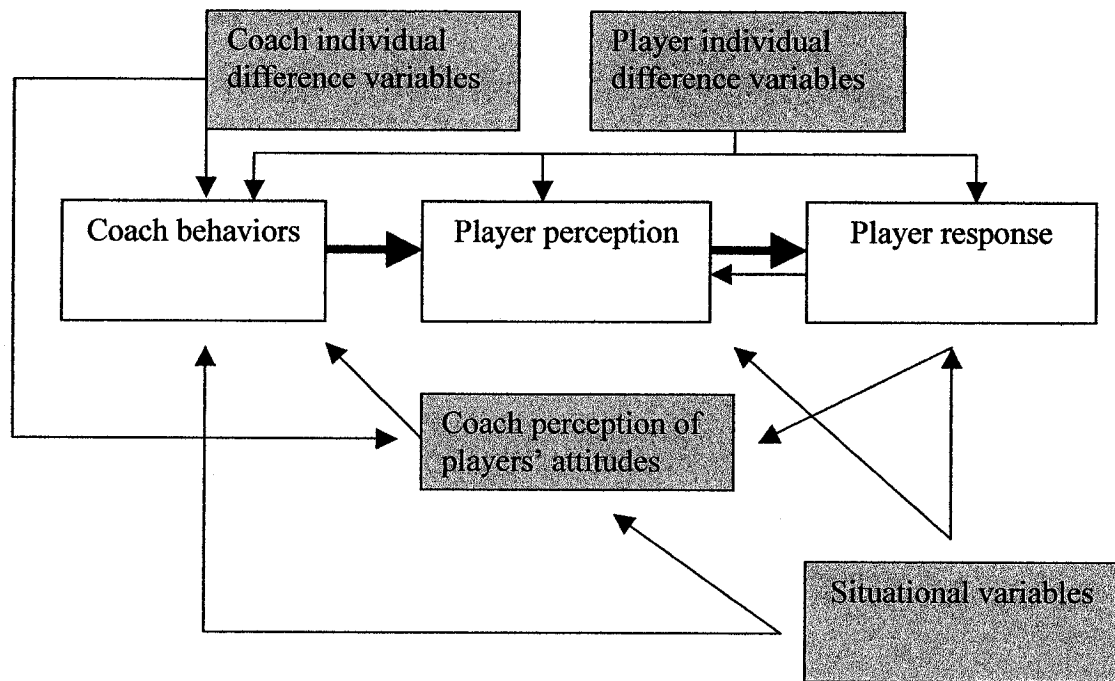
Adapted from:

Smoll, F. L., & Smith, R. E. (1989). Leadership behaviors in sport: A theoretical model

and research paradigm. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 19*, 1522-1551.

Appendix C

Multidimensional Model of Leadership

```
┌──────────────┐                  ┌──────────────┐
│ Situational  │                  │  Required    │
│Characteristics│─────────┐   ┌──▶│  Behavior    │───────────┐
│     (1)      │         ╲ ╱     │     (4)      │           │
└──────────────┘          ╳      └──────────────┘           │
                         ╱ ╲            │                    ▼
┌──────────────┐        ╱   ╲           ▼              ┌──────────────┐
│   Leader     │       ╱     ╲    ┌──────────────┐     │ Performance  │
│Characteristics│─────────────▶  │   Actual     │◀ - - │              │
│     (2)      │                  │  Behavior    │────▶│ Satisfaction │
└──────────────┘                  │     (5)      │◀ - - │              │
                                  └──────────────┘     │     (7)      │
┌──────────────┐                        ▲              └──────────────┘
│   Member     │                        │                    ▲
│Characteristics│──────────────────▶┌──────────────┐         │
│     (3)      │                  │  Preferred   │───────────┘
└──────────────┘                  │  Behavior    │
                                  │     (6)      │
                                  └──────────────┘
```
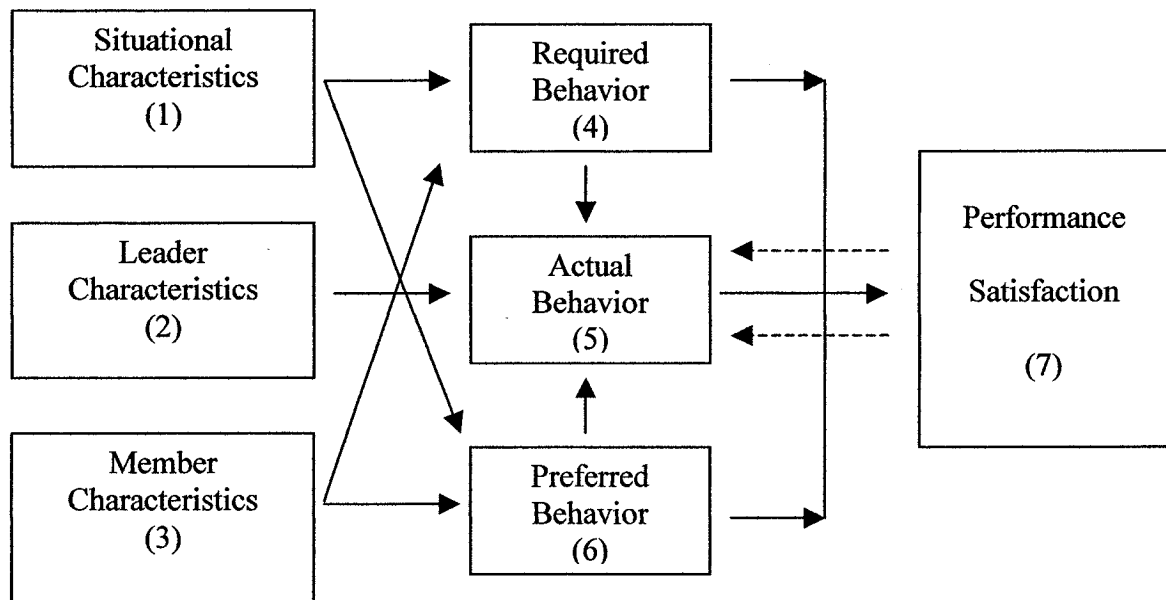
Adapted from:

Chelladurai, P. (1978). *A contingency model of leadership in athletics*. Unpublished

doctoral dissertation, University of Waterloo, Ontario, Canada.

Appendix D

Interview Guide

Introduction

Consent Form
- Master's thesis
- Approx. 60 min.
- Confidential
- Drink
- Speak slowly and loud
- I will write down answers
- No right or wrong answers (you are the expert)
- Take time to think before answering

Demographic Questionnaire

Opening Questions

1. How did you get involved in university ice hockey?
   a. Played junior?
   b. Team captain there?
   c. Winning/losing team

2. When and how did you become the team captain of your university team?
   a. Winning/losing team

Key Questions

3. How do you define your role as a team captain?
   a. Autocratic vs. democratic behaviors
   b. Relationship with your assistant captains and informal leaders
   c. Difference between team and assistant captain

4. How did you learn to be a team captain?
    a. Other team captains
    b. Coaches

5. As a team captain, what behaviours do you exhibit during games
    a. Interaction with coaches, officials, teammates?

    b. Positive feedback/constructive feedback
    c. Instruction

6. How does being team captain influence what you do during practice?
    a. Training and instruction
    b. Positive feedback
    c. Observing teammates/team

7. How does being team captain influence what you do in the locker room?
    a. Motivation
    b. Instruction
    c. Social support/emotional support
    d. Autocratic vs. democratic behaviors

8. How does being team captain influence what you do off-ice?
    a. Traveling, meetings, off-season?

    b. Social support
    c. Training and instruction
    d. Communication with coaches (planning, solving problem...)

Summary Question

9. In your opinion, what are the key behaviors exhibited by an ice hockey team captain?

Concluding Question

10. Is there anything else you would like to add?

11. Do you have any final questions or concerns?

Appendix F

Demographic Questionnaire

Name: _____

Age: _____

E-mail Address: _____

Mailing Address: _____

Current or former university: _____

Number of seasons played at the university level (list seasons): _____

Position(s): _____

Number of seasons as an assistant captain at the university level, if any: _____

_____

Number of seasons as a team captain at the university level: _____

Number of seasons as a team captain from 14 years old to the university level (not including university): _____

Appendix G

Table 2

Alphabetical Listing of the Frequency of Topics Discussed by Each Participant

Tags (Level 1)	n	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6
100% on the ice	13	2	7	0	1	0	3
Alumni interactions	2	0	0	0	0	2	0
Assistant captains - choosing	9	2	1	1	1	2	2
Assistant captains - relationship	5	1	0	1	1	1	1
Assistant captains - roles	19	2	2	5	5	3	2
Attentive to players' attitude/perf.	15	0	6	1	3	0	5
Being chosen TC - feelings	11	2	4	0	0	1	4
Being chosen TC - process	17	3	5	2	2	2	3
Being in control	6	1	1	2	1	1	0
Being yourself	10	2	1	1	2	1	3
Choosing university hockey	19	4	5	3	2	2	3
Coach has authority	5	1	1	0	1	2	0
Coaching style	2	0	1	0	0	1	0
Differing university and junior hockey	13	0	10	2	0	0	1
Early sport years	4	1	0	3	0	0	0
Effective communicator	7	0	3	1	0	3	0
Feedback - coach - choose what to say	6	2	3	0	1	0	0
Feedback - coach - opinion	13	0	3	5	4	0	1
Feedback - coach - voice of players	12	0	5	2	2	2	1
Feedback - players - autocratic	16	2	4	2	7	0	1
Feedback - players - democratic	8	0	4	1	2	0	1
Feedback - players - information	2	0	2	0	0	0	0
Feedback - players - positive	4	0	1	0	1	0	2
Feedback - timing	11	1	1	3	1	4	1
Goal to be TC	3	0	0	0	0	3	0
Leading by example	12	8	0	3	1	0	0
Learning from other TC and coaches	12	3	0	1	2	2	4
Off-season team planning	3	0	1	1	1	0	0
Off-season training	6	2	2	1	1	0	0
Organize team functions	4	0	2	1	0	1	0

Table 2 (continued)

Tags (Level 1)	n	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6
Personality of TC	12	5	1	0	3	2	1
Playing university hockey	9	3	0	0	0	4	2
Practices - attitudes	7	1	2	1	1	0	2
Pre-game preparation	4	1	1	0	0	2	0
Pressure as TC	3	0	0	0	2	1	0
Pre-university - playing	19	3	2	4	4	1	5
Pre-university - team captain	8	3	2	0	1	1	1
Pro hockey	7	1	4	0	1	1	0
Punctuality	4	0	2	0	0	2	0
Recruiting	2	0	1	0	0	1	0
Referee interactions	11	3	3	1	0	1	3
Relationship with coach	7	3	0	2	0	2	0
Reporters	2	0	1	0	0	0	1
Representing team/university	7	1	3	0	1	2	0
Respect/trust/honesty	15	4	3	3	3	2	0
Roles of informal leaders	6	1	1	1	1	0	2
Setting rules	3	0	0	0	0	3	0
Staying positive	3	0	2	0	0	0	1
Team decisions	3	0	0	1	0	2	0
Team problems	3	0	0	0	1	2	0
Team spirit	10	1	5	0	1	0	3
Team vision	3	0	0	0	0	3	0
Using the strengths of teammates	3	0	0	0	0	3	0
Working with young players	5	2	2	0	0	0	1
Totals	425	71	110	55	61	68	60