

THE UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY

THE RETIREMENT OF PROFESSIONAL HOCKEY PLAYERS:

A PROCESS OF CHANGE IN CAREER IDENTITY

BY

Sally Gross

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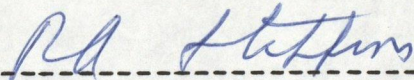
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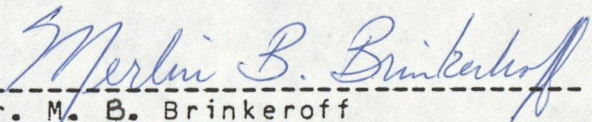
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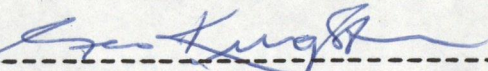
The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Retirement of Professional Hockey Players: A Process of Change in Career Identity", submitted by Sally Gross in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Masters of Arts.



Supervisor, Dr. R. A. Stebbins
Department of Sociology



Dr. M. B. Brinkerhoff
Department of Sociology



Dr. George E. Kingston
Faculty of Physical Education

Date April 1, 1987

ABSTRACT

An examination of the potential difficulties experienced by professional hockey players as a result of ending their playing career is approached in a comprehensive fashion by viewing the problem as a three-stage process, beginning with the stage of the hockey career, and continuing into the post-hockey stages of transition and the second career. Two groups are studied. One group includes active players who played for a National Hockey League Club during the 1985 - 1986 season. The second group includes retired players who had formerly played for the National Hockey League or one of its minor league affiliates.

The research is conducted in two phases. The first phase is exploratory, using in depth interviews with 14 active and 16 former players to develop a grounded theory and subsequent model for testing. The second phase tests this model by analyzing questionnaire data from 115 active players and 514 former players. A number of variables are measured by scales developed through a combination of theoretical considerations and the use of exploratory factor analysis. A series of hypothesized relationships linking the hockey career to the two post-hockey stages are examined by means of thirteen multiple regression analyses. Four secondary hypotheses are formulated and tested by means of cross-tabulation.

The variable, degree of identification with hockey, occupies the initial position in a sequence of social-psychological variables operative during the hockey career. Identification with hockey is found to have direct and indirect effects on post-hockey adjustment variables. Its strongest direct effect appears in its positive

relationship with the variable, negative feelings experienced by former players within the first year following the end of their playing career. The latter variable, negative feelings, is positively correlated with the length of time it takes the former player to find a job that really interests him. This, in turn, is shown to be negatively correlated with third-stage adjustment variables, satisfaction with present job and present life satisfaction. This series of relationships provides only one example of how identification with hockey indirectly affects post-hockey adjustment. The other indirect effects of identification with hockey are evident through its relationship with other variables operative during the hockey career. Of these variables, self-initiative in matters primarily unrelated to hockey, which is negatively affected by identification with hockey, has the strongest implications for successful post-hockey adjustment. A second hockey career variable, negatively influenced by identification with hockey, also has positive implications for adjustment. This variable is entrepreneurial action, which reflects whether a player actually takes steps to prepare himself for a second career by learning about occupations unrelated to hockey.

Certain situational and structural variables were also accounted for but, nonetheless, career identity issues were demonstrated to be the most significant for post-hockey adjustment. In short, job commitment and job satisfaction were the foremost factors influencing life satisfaction. And further, respondents tended to rank lower on these factors if they ranked high on identification with hockey and if they did not begin to initiate changes in this career identity prior to the end of their hockey career.

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And finally, I owe much to the patience and tolerance of my son, Kevin. I simply hope that his often quizzical observations of a mother struggling to overcome the rigors of academia will not deter him from his own future academic pursuits.

DEDICATION

To my son, Kevin

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CHAPTER ONE

ENDING THE HOCKEY CAREER

In recent years, the retirement problems of professional and elite amateur athletes have drawn considerable attention from sports personnel, the media and the athletes themselves. The general focus of this concern is on those problems encountered by former athletes in defining and mastering a new career and, in many cases, in adjusting to a new social environment.

The following study examines the professional hockey player and his hockey career for the purpose of gaining a more thorough understanding of the nature of these problems as well as the conditions of the player's career that may either predict or explain them. It would appear that certain characteristics of the hockey career are particularly conducive to the appearance of problems on retirement. For this reason the professional sport of hockey may provide a strong case in point with the potential to shed some light on problems, encountered in varying degrees, by other professional and elite athletes.

It is generally acknowledged that the development of an elite amateur or professional athlete is not limited strictly to the improvement of physical skill. Rather, it

involves socialization and identification processes that ensure the high degree of commitment necessary for success at a top sporting level. What is perhaps notable with hockey is the strength and extent of these processes. The initial commitment of an aspiring hockey player may begin as early as the age of four when he first begins to play. Formal training follows soon after when he begins playing organized hockey. For the majority of young players,(1) this means involving themselves with the highly developed Canadian hockey system that will no doubt become a major factor in their lives to follow. These early roots mark the beginning of a process of identification with hockey accompanied by a process of socialization into the hockey career that clearly goes beyond occupational boundaries. For during this time, the player is not only learning hockey skills but also the values and standards of behavior of his coaches and teammates. Because hockey has been legitimized by most Canadians as part of the Canadian way of life, these values and standards are usually readily supported by parents, friends and community, thus reinforcing the socialization and identification processes.

(1) An examination of the National Hockey League's Official Guide and Record Book - 1985 - 1986 revealed that 80 percent of all player personnel were born in Canada.

Incentives to pursue a hockey career are strong. During childhood, the player soon learns from others that the ultimate goal in hockey is to play one day for the National Hockey League. At the same time, he learns of the social and monetary rewards that may be gained from such an achievement inasmuch as Canadians attribute a high degree of prestige to the NHL player. Faced with strong competition, he must intensify his commitment, and likewise his hockey identity, if he is to attain this ultimate goal.

Once a player becomes part of the NHL system, he finds himself under a high degree of external control which further reinforces his identification with hockey. Hockey clubs tend to discourage the development of other life interests by a player if they believe it will distract him from his commitment to hockey. While clubs may differ in their policy toward extra-hockey activities, the player must still operate within this policy and be careful not to overstep its limits. In addition, management shields the player from the mundane concerns of everyday life. Hill and Lowe (1974) comment:

Thus the professional athlete, like the soldier, has day to day responsibilities taken away from him in order to ensure a more efficient performance of his 'job'. . . . Protectiveness carried to this degree can be extremely

detrimental to the athlete in light of the abruptness of retirement. (8)

Other factors reinforcing the hockey identity, such as the extensive travelling required of a player during the course of the lengthy hockey season, also minimize the opportunity to develop other interests.

This singular focus can create a situation which has been described by some players as the 'hockey vacuum'. What are the implications of such a situation? If a player is limited in his knowledge and experience of the outside world and if a strong hockey identification is carried to the extreme, a player's perception of his own success and failure as a person may become one and the same with the course and outcome of his hockey career. This has ominous overtones, particularly for those who are not so successful. It becomes even more significant when one considers that playing hockey is not a lifetime career, but instead engages only a portion of the lifespan of the individual.

The above extreme condition suggests that retirement and transition into a new career could be severely traumatic for the individual. However, it is more likely that many players are not so isolated from the outside world and that the degree of identification with hockey can

be tempered by individual attributes and circumstances. And yet, even if many players may not experience severe trauma, they may still undergo considerable stress if they are faced with some very real, practical issues. That is, many players, unless they find work in a hockey-related job, have few skills that are directly transferrable from hockey to another field of work. This often means 'starting at the bottom' at a time when most of their age cohorts in the general work force have established themselves in their careers. Haerle (1975) points out, in his study on professional baseball players, that the retired player is "a relative newcomer to the job market in competition with many peers who have reached that stable occupational plateau" (501). Moreover, this problem may be compounded by a lack of education since many players either forego or defer schooling to meet the demands of their hockey career.

No matter what the nature or degree of difficulty experienced by a retired player, the end of his hockey career is likely to mark a very dramatic turning point in his life. For the hockey career has been not only a particular way of work for him but a particular way of life. Therefore, on retirement, most players must adjust to changes that extend beyond the occupational sphere.

They must make changes in their identity and undergo a new socialization process if they are to overcome the 'ex-player' or 'has-been' image. This can be a difficult task in that their hockey role has been prominent in the public eye and many people tend to persist in identifying them in terms of this role. This issue may be complicated if a player resists a change in his identity by attempting to hold on to the glamour of the past.

From the foregoing, it would appear that the period following the end of a hockey career should be viewed more as a period of transition than retirement. For this reason, this study will take a comprehensive processual instead of a narrow static approach by examining first the hockey career and then the transition and adjustment stages that follow retirement. The underlying rationale for using this approach is that it is necessary to understand the properties of the hockey career in order to understand the properties of change that occur in the latter two stages. The first phase of research explored this process by means of in depth interviews with both active and former hockey players.

The use of exploratory methods in the initial phase of research can be justified by the lack of a firm foundation of knowledge concerning athletic retirement and retirement

from hockey in particular. A review of the existing literature shows that only a small number of studies have been conducted on this subject matter and that many of the premises underlying these inquiries have been based on conjecture. Therefore, the present study attempted to learn the relevant issues and concerns from the players themselves. Using the open-ended approach, proposed by Glaser and Strauss (1967), interviews were designed to be flexible so that new or unforeseen issues could emerge. Hence, the study was based on a form of grounded theory whereby the central concepts were developed primarily from the interviews as opposed to being developed a priori.

On a general level, the initial questions were: What factors or processes, operative during the hockey career, can predict or explain the degree of difficulty encountered by a player in the transition and adjustment stages? How influential are situational and structural factors on adjustment? To what extent does the content of the socialization process during hockey differ from the content of the process after hockey? And, should the degree of identification with hockey be given primary consideration in explaining problems of adjustment?

The exploratory phase addressed these issues and, at the same time, remained sensitive to any new issues that

appeared to be relevant to the hockey career and life beyond it. The findings of this phase of research are presented in Chapter 3. In Chapter 4, a theoretical model developed from insights gained through the interviews is presented. This model was tested in the second phase of research by analyzing the results of a mail out questionnaire sent to a large number of active and former hockey players. The method of data collection is described in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 includes a statistical analysis and substantive interpretation of the collected data. But first, because it is important to become familiar with the topic by examining the perspectives and findings of other writers, this thesis will begin with a review of the existing sports career and retirement literature in Chapter 2.

CHAPTER 2

THE SOCIOLOGY OF ATHLETIC RETIREMENT

An overview of the sport sociology literature reveals that the examination of the retirement and adjustment problems of former professional athletes by sociologists and psychologists has been a relatively recent development. Few formal studies have been undertaken specifically on this subject and none, to the writer's knowledge, published within the context of hockey. Instead, the bulk of the existing literature includes either journalistic accounts or hypothetical arguments suggesting alternatives for focusing the problem and formulating a framework for analysis. And it is apparent that, in consideration of the number and variety of these alternatives, the issue of theoretical approach is still very much a matter of debate that perhaps only testing and evaluation of practical application can resolve. The first section of this chapter examines the issue of theory by reviewing the approaches taken by different authors. It is important to point out that any attempt to categorize theoretical approaches is bound to encounter some ambiguity in that one theory is not necessarily mutually exclusive of another. In fact, a

social-psychological perspective prevails through most of the sports retirement literature and different theoretical categories are simply variations on this general theme. Therefore the different orientations presented in this section are meant merely to represent a rough breakdown based on the main theoretical focus of each author and the degree to which they maintain a social-psychological approach. The second section includes a discussion of the literature from the standpoint of assessing the nature and degree of the problem. It concludes with an examination of the handful of formal studies that have tested some of the major propositions.

THE QUESTION OF THEORY

Gerontological Theory

Several authors have suggested that a useful orientation for studying athletic retirement could be developed by drawing on certain aspects of gerontological theory. Rosenberg (1981b) has been one such advocate. He presents an outline of various theories that have been applied by gerontologists which include disengagement

theory, activity theory, subculture theory, continuity theory, social breakdown theory and exchange theory. He concludes that the latter two have the most merit within the context of athletic retirement.

Rosenberg notes that social breakdown theory, adapted to aging by Kuypers and Bengston (1973), refers to a cyclic process that may occur after an individual has experienced role loss such as in retirement. The individual may become labelled unfavorably and, as a result, he "withdraws and reduces or eliminates certain activities" (1981b: 120). This reinforces the labelling process and so the cycle continues. Social reconstruction is necessary through counselling, or other techniques designed to improve self-image, in order to counteract this process. Rosenberg argues that this theory is all the more worthy of consideration because it subsumes the main messages of activity, subculture and continuity theory. Activity theory "maintains that lost roles are to be substituted for so that one's total activity level declines little if at all" (120) and "subcultural theory identifies norms counter-productive to planning for retirement" (124). Continuity theory implies that the individual, after experiencing the loss of a role, does not so much replace

it with a new role, but shifts his activity to other roles that were of secondary importance to him in the past.

In addition to social breakdown theory, Rosenberg recommends adapting exchange theory to athletic retirement because it "assumes competitive adversary relationships" (123) wherein the strength of the individual is measured by the maximum returns he can generate from his employer. Rosenberg feels this concept would be useful in helping the athlete understand the mercenary nature of his relationship with coach or management so that he can be better prepared for retirement by realizing that, in all likelihood, he will be rejected once his skills, his main source of bargaining power, have diminished.

A few other authors have proposed that gerontological theory may provide a useful framework for athletic retirement (Lerch, 1981; McPherson, 1980; Hill and Lowe, 1974). One of these authors, Lerch (1981), directly applied this theory in his study of the life satisfaction of former professional baseball players. He utilized continuity theory to postulate that, ". . . optimal adjustment . . . would characterize the ex-athlete whose job following his active career remained connected to sports, whose income did not decrease substantially following retirement, and whose level of subjective and

behavioral commitment to sport was "maintained" (140). As well, he extended his hypotheses by adding in other predictors of life satisfaction which included three variables commonly used by gerontologists: education level, positive pre-retirement attitudes and good health.

The results of his study did not support the hypothesized relationships that were based on continuity theory. Only two variables, health and present income, had any substantial predictive power. However, it would be misleading to credit gerontological theory with shedding light on the problem of athletic retirement on the basis that these two particular variables predicted life satisfaction. That is, health and income are explanatory tools that may be applied within several theoretical contexts. Therefore, they cannot be considered inherent to gerontology or any one particular theory.

Perhaps an earlier article by Hill and Lowe (1974) suggests a more comprehensive schema related to gerontology that may have useful explanatory and practical import. After drawing several parallels between athletic retirement and permanent retirement in old age, they point to a general model of retirement based on Sussman's (1972) analytical framework. In support of Sussman, they advocate that retirement be viewed as a process and that situational

and structural variables, as well as individual social psychological variables, be incorporated within one model. At the same time, the two authors question the usefulness of a static approach, restricted to focusing on a change in status, as characterized by Goffman (1963): ". . . retirement carries with it an accompanying stigma and suggests that people assign to it a degraded or devalued status" (1974: 6).

Sussman's model was intended to apply to retirees withdrawing permanently from the job market. However, his emphasis on process makes it amenable to utilization in athletic retirement even though the latter type of retirement commonly implies a change in careers. To explain, Sussman (1972) emphasizes that "retirement need not be a negative event" and that it is important to point out that "for some retirees options are available, recognized and used" (32). In most cases the most salient option for the retiring athlete is, in fact, a second career. In addition to this acknowledgement that retirement is not a 'dead end' but instead a process that continues to offer alternatives, another feature of Sussman's model has potential for use in athletic retirement. Sussman describes his model:

It delineates the sequential steps, and therefore makes possible recommend-

ations regarding interventions to increase the probability of success in a retirement career or retirement program. (33)

By substituting 'second career' in place of 'retirement career' in the above passage, the practical implications for programs designed to assist athletes in their retirement from sports become apparent.

As mentioned in the opening paragraph of this chapter, the present attempt to categorize authors according to theoretical approach is only meant to represent a rough breakdown. However, constructing even a rough breakdown of authors was neither simple nor straightforward due to the prevailing uncertainty of many authors concerning the most preferred theoretical approach. For example, Rosenberg (1981a), in an article that appeared shortly after his review of gerontological theory, acknowledges that athletic retirement most often does imply a career change rather than actual retirement and therefore suggests that work perspectives may offer insights for research on this subject. In an even more recent article (1982), Rosenberg takes quite a different posture, by focusing on disengagement from sport and the possible advantages thanatology may have for enlightenment in this area. Thanatology, the study of death and dying, approaches the

problem almost exclusively from a social-psychological point of view and therefore is discussed under the following heading.

Withdrawal or Transition?

A Strong Social-Psychological Focus

A number of authors have investigated the problem of athletic retirement by emphasizing withdrawal as a focal issue. Rosenberg (1982), who admittedly has not confined himself to this issue and has undertaken serious examination of other perspectives, is one example. In his article on thanatology, Rosenberg remarks: "Another way of looking at death is socially. Social death does not refer to the biological death of an individual, but rather to social isolation and ostracism from another individual or group" (247). He continues to describe how this concept has been applied within different contexts, notably within the hospital setting where a terminally ill patient may be treated by staff as socially dead. Rosenberg quotes Charmaz (1980): "Social death is . . . intimately connected with issues of professional and moral accountability. Social death permits doctors to turn away from their 'failures'. It legitimizes staff treating

patients as nonpersons without human qualities" (1982: 249). According to Rosenberg, this phenomena parallels the situation of the retiring athlete. He turns to Ball (1976) to illustrate his point.

Ball's article does not center on athletic retirement per se but instead on failure in sport as characterized by being sent down to a minor league team or being released outright from a major league team. By emphasizing the reaction of others as the critical factor in determining the reaction of the individual who has 'failed', Ball concludes that two concepts best describe group reactions. First, there is degradation, which refers to the isolation of a player leading to identity destruction. This most nearly approaches the concept of social death. The other mechanism of group reaction is cooling out whereby a certain degree of empathy is extended by others and, as a result, the identity of the individual is "altered and estranged rather than destroyed" (728). While the latter reaction is the preferable mode, Ball claims that both forms are functional in relieving the anxieties of teammates, a relief that occurs in much the same manner as previously described for hospital staff.

Their (teammates) actions justify the failure's placement as such, but more than that, ratify their own status within the system of the team.

Recognition of the failure, and its symbolic and behavioral affirmation, remind the non-failure that, indeed, he has not yet failed. Thus, it emotionally reinforces his occupancy of a legitimate position . . . " (732)

The consequences for the individual who has failed can be severe. He suffers a dislocation of self from role and will likely react with feelings of embarrassment or humiliation.

Other authors who have emphasized the withdrawal aspect of athletic retirement have taken a position based on Kubler-Ross' model (1969) centering on personal reactions to death and dying. Ogilvie and Howe (1983) in their examination of several case studies of professional and amateur athletes, propose that every retiring athlete, regardless of situation, experiences the following sequence of feelings as outlined by Kubler - Ross in reference to dying patients: shock and denial, anger, bargaining, depression and finally acceptance. Werthner and Orlick (1983) also support this model and the idea that the end of an athletic career can be viewed more in terms of a 'loss' than retirement. However, perhaps in an attempt to broaden their focus, they go one step beyond the concept of loss, or withdrawal, by suggesting that personal growth be added

to the model as a final component following the acceptance stage.

Stevenson (1983), rather than conceptualizing retirement as withdrawal, takes a different orientation. He views the athlete as undergoing a change in identity or self as opposed to the loss or destruction of identity proposed by the foregoing authors. Change, he argues, tends to be incremental in that, in the process of understanding himself, the individual reinterprets old information at the same time that he adds new information.

In the same vein, Coakley (1983: 8) remarks: "Former athletes can most easily redefine their identities when they are able to become involved in roles, activities, and relationships that nurture and extend new dimensions of their self-concepts". Coakley distinguishes his emphasis on role transition from what he calls the traditional social-psychological approach which conceptualizes the adjustment problems of retiring individuals in terms of role detachment. In fact, he departs almost completely from a social-psychological perspective by stressing the importance of social structural factors in determining the outcome of role transitions. Support systems, age, race, gender, education and socio-economic status are all factors

that should be considered relevant to the analysis of athletic retirement.

Social-Psychological Dimensions within
an Occupational Perspective

Focusing social-psychological dimensions from within an occupational perspective bridges the gap between structural factors on the one hand and how the individual interprets these factors and his interpersonal relationships on the other. Structural factors, within the occupational domain, include such concepts as career, career contingencies, power relationships, occupational socialization and organizational values. The individual then assigns meanings to these concepts and reacts according to his interpretation. Several sociologists have adopted this approach in their examinations of the content of sports careers, thus providing an informative base for understanding the transition out of sport into a second career.

Stebbins (1986), in a study of professional football players, defined occupational career as "the typical course or passage of people through the various stages that carry them into and through an occupational role, as well as

their adjustments to and interpretations of the contingencies and turning points encountered while in each stage" (352). He goes on to explain that career contingencies refer to circumstances beyond the influence or control of the individual pursuing that career and that a turning point, which may or may not be contingent, "is a juncture at which the nature or direction of a career is seen by the people in it as having changed significantly" (363).

The incorporation of both structural and individual factors in this study is evident in the two perspectives taken by Stebbins. First, in the structural sense, he examines career history which refers to the chronological view and includes five stages - beginning, development, establishment, maintenance and decline. Second, the subjective career focuses on the individual's interpretation of events, especially the turning points of his career. Contingencies and turning points may be encountered in any one of the five stages. However, those that appear in the decline stage, such as age or injury, have the most influence on the retirement decision. In other words, if the player interprets these contingencies negatively in terms of his football future, he will be more likely to retire.

In addition, Stebbins, who gathered his information through personal interviews with 30 active and retired professional football players, further examines the predisposition of each player for retirement in relation to their level of education and plans for a second career. His findings reveal that most players resisted leaving football even though they had relatively high levels of education and attractive plans for a second career.

Another study focusing on the career aspect of sports is pertinent in the present context. Although Jackson and Lowe (n.d.) do not directly examine the retirement issue, they do signify how the concept of career can be extended to understand retirement as well as other stages of life. They make reference to Dunkerly (1975) who included retirement as a final stage in his career model. And, alluding to the comprehensiveness of a career perspective, they paraphrase Krause (1971):

. . . the concept of career may be viewed as a device for tracing patterns of individual's lives through social structures at given points in a social history. (n.d.: 21)

Haerle's analysis (1975) of the professional baseball career is one example of a study that extended the concept of sports career to include the post-playing period. He

specifies that adjustment to a second, post-playing career constitutes the third and final phase of a baseball player's career. The first phase is the pre-baseball period and the second phase, the period of active play. Using standard occupational and career models, he emphasizes structural influences that appear in the form of career contingencies. These contingencies reveal components of structure either common to a variety of other occupations or unique to baseball or other professional sports.

However, Haerle does not limit his analysis to a structural perspective, as is evident in his examination of interpersonal aspects at the social-psychological level. This examination assesses the meaning of contingencies for the player, in the sense that these meanings are what constitute the player's orientation to his job. In the third phase of adjustment to a second career, Haerle discovers age(1) to be the primary contingency and source of psychological strain. At the structural level, Haerle found that baseball fame was the strongest predictor of

(1) (Faulkner (1975), one of the few authors who directly examined the hockey career, also stressed the importance of age as a career contingency. While he did not focus the post-playing period, this variable was significant during the hockey career depending on its interpretation by the player in terms of his opportunity structure.)

occupational achievement in the first post-playing job. But he also found that this was only a short term effect. In the long term, level of education was shown to be the most significant predictor. These findings were based on the results of a path analysis conducted by Haerle on data available from a 1958 study of 335 retired baseball players.

To complete this section, one final author who incorporated both career aspects and psychological dimensions into his examination should be regarded. McPherson (1980) specifically focuses on those aspects of the athletic career that are most relevant to problems of psychological adjustment to the end of a sports career. He begins by describing socialization into a professional sports career and the implications this process has for an athlete's self-image: " . . . because the career socialization process begins so early in life, one's definition of self is closely tied to involvement in sport" (128). As a result, the development of other interests and social relationships are limited. This, together with contingencies of the active career, such as a lack of autonomous decision-making due to control by management who commonly discourages the development of outside interests, are detrimental to the athlete's chances of success in

post-athletic adjustment. McPherson emphasizes that the former athlete does not simply change jobs but must be resocialized into a new career. This process may be frustrated in the sense that the athlete usually does not have transferable skills and may have difficulty accepting the loss of prestige he enjoyed as an athlete. McPherson points out that the latter factor may be a salient problem even for athletes who are prepared in other ways to take on another career: " . . . they may still experience psychological stress as they adjust their lifestyle to a social world wherein they are not a central actor with high prestige. " (139).

To this point, the review of literature has primarily been concerned with the range of theoretical perspectives taken by different authors. It is evident that the problem of adjustment by former athletes has been viewed from several different positions and that an optimal approach has not yet been established. The majority of these authors have based their perspective on what they consider the most pressing problems for the athlete after retirement, taking journalistic accounts and a small number of empirical studies as a point of departure. It would appear that a better understanding of the actual nature and degree of the problems of retired athletes is necessary to

increase the validity and usefulness of any one theory. It is interesting to note that one of the studies already discussed, examined again in a second article by Lerch (1982), found that former baseball players were relatively well-adjusted with only 15 percent of the respondents measuring low on life satisfaction. The important question then becomes how serious is the problem of athletic retirement? The following section examines this issue within the context of some of the relevant literature.

UNDERSTANDING THE PROBLEM

Many of the perceptions of the content and extent of potential athletic problems are vague and simply presumed to exist. Authors and researchers have identified likely causes, but have not been so effective in connecting these causes to probable outcomes. Some of the causes that have been proposed by authors are the narrow identity of the athlete (Stevenson, 1983; Botterill, 1983) and the athlete's isolation from the real world due to his intensive socialization into sports (Andrews, 1981; McPherson, 1980). As well, Rosenberg (1981b) summarizes several factors that are seen to exacerbate retirement problems. He refers to factors already mentioned, namely

loss of prestige, and lack of education and transferable skills, together with over-protection by management and the athlete's work schedule and lifestyle which differ considerably from the more routine patterns of other occupations. Given these factors or causes, the natural tendency is to conclude that problems will likely ensue. But how much of this is based on conjecture? And is there another side to the issue that warrants consideration?

Shafer's paper (1976) illustrates how the issue of whether or not post-sports adjustment should be problematic can easily become a matter of debate. He contrasts the content of athletic socialization with that of the youth counterculture. Admitting his observations are less than definitive, he describes the effects of socialization into sports:

. . . . athletics contribute to an instrumental or goal orientation, to achievement as a virtue second only to godliness, to a commitment to hard work, to learning to adjust oneself to others within a formal organization, to accepting standards of personal conduct defined as desirable by the mainstream, dominant part of the adult population and passed on by the coach, to the development of an apolitical or politically conservative stance toward social problems, to an elitist stance toward sport (participate only if you are an expert), and to conditional self-worth. (184)

Shafer contends that these values, which are opposite to those of the youth counterculture, should facilitate the athlete's assimilation into the mainstream because they support the dominant norms and behavior currently valued by our society.

Batten (1979) focused on the issue of transition into a second career in interviews with former professional athletes. He found that these former athletes held a variety of views regarding whether their sports career had been a valuable asset in terms of their present career. Batten quotes several former athletes. One of these, Danny O'Shea, a bond dealer who once played NHL hockey, said: "I can't apply anything I learned in hockey to the business world" (14). On the other hand, Mike Wadsworth, a criminal lawyer and former professional football player, expressed a different viewpoint in comparing his present career to football. "Football is the same - you schedule a game, you prepare for it, play it and somebody wins. A criminal case is like a football season. Conclusive. I find that carryover immensely satisfying, the perfect way for me to function in life" (17).

Ken Dryden (1983), who enjoyed a highly successful hockey career as a goalie for the Montreal Canadiens, refers to two skills that must necessarily be learned by

the hockey player. A player must learn to be articulate and maintain an image pleasing to the fans, in short, the skills of the public person (p.160). Charnofsky (1968) describes this career requirement using concepts from Goffman (1959). A player engages in the "art of impression management" by presenting a "front region" to the public which may differ from his true conception of self in the "back region" (1968: 51). The development of this skill may well be an asset to the player in a second career for it is generally considered a valuable attribute by many businessmen and professionals.

However, notwithstanding the positive implications a professional sports career may have for subsequent careers, it is difficult to discount the potential for problems at the time of retirement from professional sports participation. Dryden, within the hockey setting, may be considered atypical in that he acquired a law degree prior to retirement from hockey. It is more likely that a player is less prepared to let go of the game. Dryden mentions the desire of Guy Lafleur, when he was an active player, to continue working in hockey after the end of his playing career. Lafleur, now retired and once a superstar with the Canadiens said: "What else could I do? . . . when you play as a kid, you have no time to learn or study anything.

After fifteen or twenty years, what else do I know?" (139). Tiger Williams (1985), still an active player with a reputation as a pugilist, expresses his anxiety at the thought of leaving hockey: " . . my hockey background may not be worth much when I stop playing. It could be that one day I'll have to walk into a room where the guys I'm doing business with don't give a shit about hockey, and they'll be asking the old question, "What are you going to do for me today?" And they won't be asking for something simple, like checking the crap out of Mike Bossy" (176 - 177). Williams concludes his book by declaring the strength of his personal attachment to the game: "(My feelings are) . . so deep that I'm not sure how I'll leave. There is a possibility that they'll have to attach some chains to the Zamboni, wrap the chains around my neck, and drag me off the ice" (177).

Are these sort of anxieties well-justified in the sense that moving to another career may actually prove to be a difficult, traumatic experience? The remainder of the discussion in this chapter will focus on the few empirical studies that have directly examined athletic retirement to see if they indicate whether or not these fears are, in fact, justified. Thus the concern is twofold. First, how extensive is the problem of adjustment by former athletes?

And second, can any apparent problems be considered a direct outcome of the fact that the individual pursued an athletic career?

Two baseball studies, mentioned previously, did not find any strong evidence supporting the belief that problems occur for retired players as a result of their baseball career. Haerle (1975) did find that education was the most important predictor of occupational achievement, but he also observed that 177 out of 335 respondents (more than half) had attended college prior to professional baseball. This proportion compares favorably to that of the general population. Therefore it may indicate that education, as it takes place in the training period, is positively related to the baseball career. It is possible that education could be negatively affected if baseball prevents or delays completing a degree. However, this is difficult to determine because an analysis based on actual level of education is not presented.

Haerle's second finding, that baseball fame is positively correlated with occupational achievement in first job, suggests that baseball, instead of creating problems, can have a positive influence, if only temporarily, on post-playing opportunities. Similarly, Lerch (1981) did not identify adjustment problems that

could clearly be considered an outcome of the baseball career. Health and present income were the strongest predictors of life satisfaction. However, there was no evidence given that linked these two variables to baseball. And, as indicated previously, the majority of respondents were satisfied with their life, and claimed that they had no adjustment problems after leaving baseball. (Lerch, 1982)

McPherson (1980) referred to one study that did find some connection between sports related variables and the life satisfaction of former baseball players. Arviko (1976) found that adjustment was dependent on not only education, income and religiosity but also on sports career variables such as nature of retirement (voluntary or not) and number of social roles occupied during the playing career.

In an earlier study of 44 Yugoslavian soccer players, Mihovilovic (1968) emphasized how players resist leaving the game. In addition to players, he also interviewed a group of coaches and management to assess player reaction to retirement from their team. The latter group indicated that immediately after retirement players engage in behaviors of escapism, projecting blame, increased drinking, indifference and self-deception. Based on this

finding, it may be concluded that problems existed at the time of retirement, although no confirmation is given supporting the idea that these behaviors persisted over any length of time or that the sports career had a lasting negative effect on adjustment.

More recently, Reynolds (1981) examined the occupational satisfaction of former National Football League players. A brief summary of his findings shows that voluntary retirement has a small positive relationship with self-esteem; that education, father's occupation, race and status of offseason job explain 18 percent of the variance in job status; and that job status, at a high level of support from significant others, is a reasonably strong predictor of job satisfaction. These findings provide only mild support to the notion that problems may arise as a result of an athletic career. For example, self-esteem may be only slightly affected by involuntary retirement. The other variable that may be considered sports related is status of offseason job. This is a vague classification, however, in that it is difficult to determine how contingent it is on the athletic career. And it should be noted that, while significant in predicting present job status, this variable was of secondary importance to education as an indicator. The importance of education

would imply that the situation for the majority of former players, in terms of job status, was positive since only twelve percent of the respondents had not received a bachelor's degree.

An overview of the empirical studies undertaken on the subject of athletic retirement does not reveal any conclusive evidence that potential adjustment problems experienced by the individual are conditional on having pursued a sports career. However, these studies have been valuable and enlightening, perhaps by indicating the need for some re-evaluation and refocusing of the overall problem, if indeed it is a problem. With this in mind, the present study begins with an exploratory approach by probing the feelings and opinions held by both former and active hockey players on this subject matter. The results of the interviews with these players, which laid the foundation for the development of a grounded theory, are presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

FROM THE PLAYERS' POINT OF VIEW

Open-ended interviews were conducted with both active and former hockey players. These interviews addressed a broad range of concerns which were divided into general categories so that the responses could be classified and analyzed in order to develop more specific conceptual categories that could be tied together in a theoretical argument.

Methodology

Interviews took place over a two month period during January and February, 1986 with 14 active and 16 former players for a total of 30 interviews. Twenty-two of the 30 interviewed were playing or had played professional hockey at one time. Eight respondents were amateurs who were either former or active members of the Canadian national team. Active players were included in the sample because they could offer insights on the hockey career based on their immediate experience in contrast to the group of former players. This permitted a closer examination of the

hockey career and, as well, provided the opportunity to compare the perspectives of the two groups to see if certain characteristics of the hockey career tend to change over time. In addition, the expectations of active players, concerning the nature and circumstances of their future retirement from hockey, could be compared to the actual experiences of former players. It was felt that this comparison could provide some information on whether or not the expectations of active players are realistic.

Respondents were selected so as to obtain a cross-section in terms of age, education, talent, length of career and different teams. Arrangements for interviews with active NHL players were facilitated by the National Hockey League Players' Association who enlisted the co-operation of the player representative for each of the six teams that became involved in the study. Hockey Canada assisted in setting up interviews with active national team members. Former players were interviewed in Calgary, Edmonton, Toronto and Montreal. The two eastern locations were included because they provided a large pool of potential respondents and a safeguard against geographical bias.

During the course of the interviews, the decision was made to exclude from the analysis those active and former

players who had played solely for the National team because of the need to limit the study to more manageable proportions and also to concentrate on a more homogeneous group which, in this instance, is players with a common background in professional hockey. Thus, the focus of the results of the interviews that follow and all subsequent research was narrowed to professional players who at one time or another had played for the National Hockey League or for minor league teams associated with the NHL.

The interviews were designed to be flexible and, as a result, they ranged in length from one to three hours. They explored a range of concerns that were divided into the following general categories: 1) the nature and degree of their early involvement in hockey, 2) the nature of their career ambitions as a youth, 3) their perceptions of the advantages and drawbacks of a hockey career, 4) their perception of and reaction to recognition from the public, 5) team relationships, 6) the nature and degree of their preparation during hockey for a second career, 7) the transition stage and its emotional contingencies, 8) and background characteristics of the sample.

Some of these categories were not defined beforehand but emerged in the process of interviewing according to areas of concern stressed by the respondent. An

explanation of each category together with a description and interpretation of the responses within that category are presented below. The chapter concludes with a summary of the interviews and a discussion of those factors felt to have a significant impact on adjustment to life after hockey.

Description and Interpretation of the Interviews

1) Nature and degree of early hockey involvement

The nature and degree of their early involvement in hockey centers on three factors that operated prior to their hockey career. These factors are: the influence of parents on the player's hockey ambitions from childhood through to the decision to make a career out of hockey, the amount of time actually spent playing hockey and the number of their friends that also played hockey.

Almost all the players interviewed described their parents as being very supportive and involved with their hockey. At the same time, not one player felt that their parents had applied pressure on them at any time. This last notion was questioned by one retired player who believed that the actions of parents of NHL prospects are

not necessarily different from those of other parents who may be perceived as pressuring their children. However, the NHL prospect does not interpret his parent's behavior as pressure because of his ability to play and his enjoyment of the game. He further commented that, in most cases, it is necessary for parents to channel the child through the hockey system if that child is to be successful. He inferred that some parents may become slightly overzealous in their efforts being well aware of the money that can be made in professional hockey. Nevertheless, many players said their parents stressed the importance of education as much or even more than a hockey career and several players said their parents had a low to medium influence on their decision to actually pursue a hockey career. What appears to be important is that whether or not the parents, in fact, were overzealous in their encouragement, the young player did not see this as pressure but rather interpreted it more as support. This finding is important inasmuch as it suggests that most players had a high degree of internal motivation as children.

The amount of time actually spent playing hockey or practising was fairly extensive for most players. Free time was limited for those who took their schoolwork

seriously and for those whose hockey schedule included travel. One player was told by his coach that there were three important things in life - school, sports and a social life - and since there was time to do only two of them properly, the latter should be forsaken. The lack of free time indicated that much of the player's childhood was highly organized and programmed and controlled by others, thus limiting his opportunity to engage in more creative or spontaneous activities that may require him to make decisions for himself.

The number of a player's friends that did not play hockey varied. One might think that a player would tend to identify more with hockey if the majority of his friends played hockey. However, no evidence was found to support this idea. What perhaps had a more significant influence on his identification with hockey was the fact that the player did spend a great deal of time with hockey players and that many of his friends, whether they played hockey or not, tended to identify him in terms of hockey.

2) Career ambitions prior to their hockey career

The players' career ambitions prior to their hockey career were strongly focused on playing professional hockey within the National Hockey League. Their overall level of awareness and knowledge of hockey alternatives, such as playing for the National team or playing in Europe, was low in comparison, reflecting the general level of awareness of the public. At the same time, many players had contingency or "back-up" plans in the event they did not "make" the NHL. Most often these plans did not include playing at a lower level of hockey, but rather furthering their education or pursuing another line of work. However, not one respondent reported experiencing any difficulties in opting for the hockey career when the opportunity came. They explained that any second thoughts were outweighed by the love of the game.

The players who were more likely to have alternative plans were those who were drafted out of the university system. The ambitions of players that were drafted out of the Junior system, historically the primary source of recruitment into the NHL, tended to be more singular in their focus. One former player from the Junior system commented:

When I look back on those years its scary because hockey is a very rough sport, very violent - and every practice, every game could have been my last . . . and I hated school so I dropped out of school quick and just concentrated on the hockey and so therefore if I hadn't been drafted, hadn't played pro, I'd have had nothing But, then, it never crossed my mind.

Whether or not they had considered alternatives, most of the respondents confirmed that their primary objective had been to play at a major league level, preferably in the NHL. Their clearly defined ambitions differed from the ambitions of youth in general who, for the most part, are inclined to be less certain of their ultimate goals.

3) Perceptions of the advantages and drawbacks of a hockey career

The advantages and drawbacks of a hockey career were examined in order to look at those aspects of the hockey career that were either valued or disliked by the player and then to compare these aspects to more conventional careers. The significance of this comparison was to consider whether certain aspects of the player's situation, as he perceives it, are likely to improve or worsen in a second career. The second concern in this part of the

study was to identify specific characteristics of the hockey career that may either facilitate or impede their adjustment to another lifestyle.

Valued aspects of the hockey career were the money, player bonds, the recognition from fans and the excitement and fun of the game. Most players realized that these factors would be difficult to replace to the same degree in another career and that adjustments would have to be made. However, on the first three aspects, there was disagreement on whether or not they felt adjustment should be a difficulty. Rather than expanding on these particular aspects at this point, they will be given special treatment in subsequent subject categories.

Players did generally agree that replacing the fun and excitement of the game would be problematic. One former player suggested that this may be the reason why some ex-hockey players live in the past. The following comments from three players were typical of the overall reaction of the respondents to this issue.

The biggest problem (is that) working nine to five would drive me crazy. You know that you won't make as much money, which doesn't bother me, but changing my lifestyle would.

I would miss the excitement of the game
- the immediate rewards of your work .

. I enjoy the travel, the camaraderie, the youth and innocence of it all. I would be concerned replacing this.

Fun is a big part of the game. It makes you a better player. Hockey is a game - when you retire, you grow up.

Many authors have argued that much of the fun and enjoyment of the game is lost, even during childhood, because of its emphasis on hard work and winning. Vaz (1974: 34) supports this view: "Youngsters who play organized hockey are engaged in worklike activity and it is a myth to believe that their sole motivation is the pursuit of pleasure." However, based on the findings of this study, this notion is open to question. While pleasure, or fun, may not be the sole motivating factor, it appears to be a very important one and, therefore, a potential source of concern if lacking in a second career.

Aspects of the hockey career that were disliked were: intimidation and violence, management control of their career, the "politics" such as in the lack of honest communication from coaches and management, and the lack of job security. The last three factors will be discussed here because they are concerns that are more typical of careers in general. However, it should be noted that intimidation and violence increase the chance of injury

and, therefore, are strongly related to lack of job security.

Most all respondents expressed frustration with the high degree of control that management held over their career. Yet, degree of control seemed to vary according to the status and age of the individual. For example, journeymen players were subject to greater control than the elite or star players.

I don't think there was ever a time when you were in control at all. For me, I was always kinda a fringe player . . . I never thought at any time in my career that I was not expendable. . . . I don't think that at any time I had the upper hand.

Another player remarked:

. . . (for the fringe player) management control can be devastating. They have played so long as kids growing up . . . always wanting to play in the National Hockey League, and you see decisions made that you know aren't the right decisions. But they're made (based on) how much money a guy makes or on how high he was drafted.

He explained this last comment by pointing out that management tends to give the opportunities to players with big contracts because they don't want to be embarrassed for

having exercised poor judgement in drafting top players or signing major contracts. He went further to say:

The fringe players that play third or fourth line are shuffled back and forth to the minors. . . . they're just living on a string, they're walking a tightrope and management really controls their life. (And) its just not always fair who gets sent down or brought up (from the minors).

Also, control was more likely to be stronger for younger players. One player described his initiation into the NHL.

When they sent me to the minors at the beginning of my career, I was stubborn . . . I didn't think it was fair. So I went home for a couple of days. I had to decide how bad I wanted to play - put things in perspective. Their reaction was if you don't play, you don't get paid. So I realized I could do nothing about it (and went to the minors).

Most players agreed that, while frustrated with this aspect of hockey, it was important to learn to accept management control as part of the game. Resistance, shown most often by younger players, must be overcome if one is to survive.

How does this situation compare with more conventional careers? Most of the former players said that they felt they had greater control over their second careers and, as a result, were more independent. The value they placed on

this condition was reflected in the future aspirations of active players. Several respondents said that "control of their destiny' was very important to them when considering a second career and, as well, a just system whereby any rewards or penalties resulted from their own efforts. In the words of one active player:

I would want to get into a business and own it myself because then there is only one guy I can blame . . . It would all be on my shoulders . . . (and) I would like to be in control of it.

The issues of politics and job insecurity are strongly connected to the issue of management control. Stebbins (1986:) defines politics in football as: " . . . the attempts by players, on the one hand, and coaches and management, on the other, to acquire and maintain control over their interests as individuals and, occasionally, as conflicting groups". More specifically, within the present context, politics refers to some of the unfair practices alluded to above and to the feeling that players are manipulated by management who may be less than open in their communication regarding their future plans for the player. One player expressed a strong reaction to this: " . . . it's really, really sad, but I feel like I've played the sport and been lied to for 16 years." While

many players are disheartened by this aspect of the game, again it is something that they try to learn to live with. A former player explained that, in hockey, it is very easy to get caught up in politics because you live and work in such an intimate group. You see the coach every day in contrast to other types of work where contact with your boss may not be as frequent or as close. For this reason, it is all the more important that you get along.

The degree of management control and politics varies among teams, depending upon philosophies and procedures within the organization. Its extent is important because of its noticeable effect on feelings of job insecurity. Comments such as, "the system sets the scenario for lack of security", "you're at the whim of the coach" and "hockey players are very insecure . . . its all brought on by the way management treats them", illustrate this point. To protect his position on the team, the player must perform which is a pressure that can take its toll emotionally. And the fact that his performance is highly visible not only to the coach, his boss, but also to fans and media who are often quick to offer criticism that is not always accurate or fair, can further increase his anxieties. One player remarked: "Hockey can be an emotional rollercoaster". Reinforcing this uncertainty is the ever

present threat of injury, of which all players are keenly aware. But, once more, learning to accept insecurities is part of the game and those who fail at this are likely to have a short career. It is true that job insecurity can exist to varying degrees in other careers and it is also true that players are somewhat protected by their contracts. Still, insecurity appears to be more exaggerated or pervasive in hockey than in more conventional careers, suggesting that in a second career the player's situation could improve in this regard.

Respondents were asked to identify specific characteristics of the hockey career that may affect adjustment to another career and lifestyle. They responded by first naming several attributes, developed through hockey, that they felt would have a positive effect on adjustment. The greatest emphasis was placed on their ability to work as a team and get along with others. Other attributes were self-confidence, handling pressure, self-discipline, humility, patience, commitment and perseverance, competitiveness and the ability to work hard and make sacrifices. One former player added that hockey teaches you how to work within a system and still keep your individuality. Another former player remarked that learning to deal with uncertainty was also an important

factor. He further commented: "What was good yesterday might be totally gone tomorrow", suggesting that life was a risky business and hockey players are well aware of this fact.

Some of the characteristics of the hockey career that were felt to either directly or indirectly affect adjustment in a negative manner were: the narrow focus of the activity that restricts their knowledge of the outside world, the ego boosting attention from fans, the removal of many day-to-day concerns by management, the short work day, the clear, unambivalent hockey goals and the definition and control of their time by management. The players went on to explain some of these characteristics and their significance. On the subject of removal of day-to-day concerns, a former player said:

When you get out into the real world,
you're not really that prepared . . .
You've sorta been insulated, you've
been babied. If you had a sore toe,
the trainer took care of you.

He also reflected on the loss of recognition and attention from fans.

You get caught up in the euphoria of
being a professional athlete. But
(when your career winds down) . . .
if you don't sorta realize it then,
what its going to be like when you get

out of it, you're only fooling yourself.

The clearcut, unambivalent goals that exist in hockey and the explicit means of attaining them were mentioned as another concern because most players did not feel that this condition was typical of the outside world. A former player explained it was now more difficult for him to set goals and a direction for himself.

In hockey, I knew what was expected of me . . . what my role was on the team. Now, I am out on my own and there is different options . . . I could go different routes and I have to be the one that decides.

Management's definition and control of their time was also thought to have significant implications for the adjustment period after hockey. During hockey, their life is highly organized and regimented and, therefore, the player is less likely to be burdened with learning how to manage his time. One former player described this factor and the effect it had on his life.

What was really apparent to me when I quit was that, for the first time in my life, I had to manage my life. For twenty years, someone told me what to eat, when to sleep, when the games were going to be, when the practices were going to be. So I didn't have to do a lot of planning . . . They put the schedule in front of me (with) another year mapped out for me . . . When I

quit, it was becoming quite apparent that my life was becoming quite unmanageable. I was on an emotional treadmill . . . running to try and keep up.

It is apparent that the influence of the hockey career on adjustment to life after hockey can be both beneficial and harmful. However, it is possible that the negative effects may outweigh the positive, especially if one considers that some of those characteristics felt to have a positive effect may be altered in some way in a second career. For example, commitment may be less in a second career depending on job satisfaction. All the same, it is important to realize that the issue is not simply one-sided and that professional hockey in itself is a learning experience that can benefit the player later in life.

4) Perception of and reaction to public recognition

How the player perceives and reacts to public recognition is an important social-psychological dimension that may have a strong impact on the player's evaluation of both himself and others. What then does this imply for the player after hockey when, in all likelihood, he leaves the limelight behind?

A former player stressed that after retirement from hockey, the loss of feeling special underpinned all emotional adjustments. He believed that it affects most all players in that only a handful of the elite can maintain it. He continued to say that while hockey demands are unforgiving, the player, because of being 'special', has the upper hand in other areas of his life and certain behaviors considered irresponsible by most people, such as being late for appointments, are frequently tolerated from him because of his status. However, other players noted that this factor is more significant for some than others. The degree of special treatment and attention received from the public varies according to the status of the player and, in addition, to the location of the team and how much value is placed on hockey within that locality. Nevertheless, several former players, whose personal and team statuses differed, implied that hockey can be a life of delusion. If public attention and adulation is 'bought for real', it can lead to a false sense of security. One player remarked:

(Public attention) is a big ego booster. (Its) an added incentive to your own confidence level but I think . . . that sometimes it can give you a false sense of your own self worth. You start thinking that I'm invincible, I can do whatever I want, whenever I want. Nobody's going to tell me what

to do . . . and well, the mighty
have fallen periodically.

Comments from other players suggested that some players are afraid to reveal any weakness and, therefore, use their public image as a cover. But this reliance on image can increase their initial self-doubt, because they must constantly worry about how to live up to it. Thus, a certain ambiguity emerges as to how a player's self-image is affected by the limelight. One player described how public attention can increase a player's level of confidence and, at the same time, increase their level of self-doubt.

I guess sometimes bullshit baffles the brain and we quite often swallow it hook, line and sinker . . . and you almost start to believe it and I think we get to think that we are damn near immortal and that it's never going to end for us . . . and that's our egos and what people have told us . . . at times you almost needed it to reinforce you . . . we'd sometimes search that out and other times try to get as far away as possible (from it). But you couldn't stay away from it for too long. All insecurities came into that.

He continued to say that subconsciously you know it won't last forever and you look at the end of your hockey career with fear, wondering whether people then are going to care about you at all.

Thus public attention may raise confidence at the conscious level, but it is less effective in removing self-doubt at the subconscious level. And, as the comments of the player above disclose, it is possible that, in the present context, self-doubt may be strongly linked to doubt or distrust of other people. This possibility, together with the loss of a strong source of ego reinforcement after the hockey career, may potentially aggravate problems of adjustment in the transition stage. And yet, most of the former players interviewed appeared to have made this particular adjustment, for they all said that they did not miss the limelight even though they may have been initially troubled by its loss.

5) Relationships with teammates

When players were asked what they valued most in hockey, a frequent response was their relationships with their teammates. They stressed the importance of player bonds, team loyalties, support of teammates on and off the ice and the need to put team interests above their own. The unanimous endorsement of these values by the respondents first led the interviewer to believe that hockey provided an enviable model whereby the individual, in the course of his work, could develop many strong,

personal friendships. However, after the completion of several interviews, the issue emerged in a new light.

While it was true that the values noted above were important to the individual and the team, they were not necessarily akin to the development of long lasting relationships. Rather, these values were instrumental in nature, focusing on the improvement of job performance. The team must come first because the most effective team is a united team. Both active and former players referred to the "chemistry" that creates a balance on a team, a chemistry which cannot be upset if that team is to be successful. They explained that even their social activities were geared to maintaining this balance and that 'going for a beer with the guys' is like a ritual that functions to promote team solidarity. If a teammate does not at least 'show up' on these occasions, he is judged, according to certain respondents, to have violated a certain code and, therefore, is likely to be the topic of conversation.

A former player elaborated on how these social activities were necessary for group solidarity. He said they provided off-ice group reinforcement, which was important considering that a team often works together for only two hours a day. If they are to develop strong bonds,

they must also become involved together in other activities away from the rink.

What is important is that, even on the informal, social level, the common ground of their relationships is focused on hockey. Several players said that they knew little about the lives of their teammates apart from hockey. They claimed that typically players do not like to reveal their personal side, especially if this means uncovering some weakness or flaw. As well, teammates are not comfortable with a player who is candid about his feelings. A former player described the reaction of teammates to one such player.

(The player) voiced a lot of the fears, anxieties and difficulties that (his teammates) felt . . . and suddenly they were a little bit afraid of him and suddenly they didn't want to associate with him because there was guilt by association. He lost the respect of his teammates and it affected his career - whereas his teammates should have been more respectful of him.

This is not to say that team relationships are all superficial or that players are not capable of developing solid friendships based on more than the task at hand. It is true that some former players had developed lasting friendships with teammates. Nonetheless, the functional

focus does underlie the dynamics of the vast majority of team relationships. What then are the implications for the player once he leaves professional hockey? One active player commented:

(Teammates) are all parts . . . one way or another, and parts get old and have to be replaced. (With) the guy that's gone, you don't have anything in common anymore.

By likening the team to a mechanical apparatus, this player underlined the instrumental nature of team relationships and, as well, the indelicate dismissal of a retired player. How does the retired player react to this situation? It is possible that if a player does not perceive the nature of team relationships as instrumental, but instead perceives them as genuine, he will be more likely to interpret his rejection personally and, as a result, may be hurt or embittered. Actually, the retired player should not be surprised by the idea of rejection, having witnessed or experienced during his hockey career the trading of players. A few players claimed that the rejection of a retired player is much like the rejection of a traded player. One player explained that in neither case was it a conscious rejection but that it happens all the same. He went on to describe the distancing of teammates from a traded player.

The twenty players on your team are very close . . . they live together for eight months of the year, they travel together, they do everything together . . . but the day you go to another organization, you're forgotten and replaced. If the guy was the comedian in the dressing room, someone else will take his spot or if the guy was the clubhouse lawyer, someone else will take his spot . . . As soon as you're gone, you're forgotten by your teammates.

He added that the intimacy between a team and the traded player is lost because he is no longer a functional part, striving to win for that team.

However, in spite of the fact most players are familiar with the social contingencies of a trade, many are not prepared for such an abrupt withdrawal from their teammates when they retire from hockey. Because they have become close to certain players, they often expect their association with them to continue which does not always happen. One former player expressed his disillusionment when he said that it was not until three years after his retirement that he realized the transient nature of his team friendships.

And so, on retirement from hockey, the player is faced with having to accept his new role as an 'outsider' to the team. It is possible that this adjustment would be

somewhat easier for the player who, during his hockey career, had developed and maintained friendships out of professional hockey. This player would be less likely to feel isolated than the player whose social network had been entirely made up of team members. Most players interviewed claimed they had few to no close friends out of hockey as active players, although there were exceptions to this. They explained that it was often difficult to sustain close friendships with people external to the game, because of their own unconventional schedule and time spent 'on the road'. Therefore, it seems reasonable to believe that most players must adjust to at least some degree of change in their social network when they leave professional hockey. This factor, together with coping with possible feelings of rejection, adds another social-psychological dimension to the problems of adjustment after hockey.

6) Preparation during hockey for a second career

During their hockey career, approximately 50 percent of the players interviewed said they had taken steps to prepare for a second career by either working during the summers or taking courses. The remaining players explained how preparation was difficult due to the demands of hockey. Some felt that because hockey requires their full mental

concentration and commitment, outside activities and interests may distract them from their job. One former player pointed out that in light of the sizeable salary he received he would have felt guilty taking time away from hockey. Another pointed out that the summers did provide an opportunity to work or take courses but that he preferred to use this time to relax and spend time with his family explaining that both these things were difficult to do during the hockey season. As well, he added that if he were to take courses, he wouldn't know what to take because he had not defined an area of interest. Overall, the interviews did disclose that those players who had prepared in some way during their hockey career tended to be single at the time, whereas those who had not tended to be married with family responsibilities. One married player explained that hockey and his family demanded all his time and energy and that it was unrealistic to believe that he could properly handle any additional responsibilities.

When asked whether the thought of what they would do after hockey was a deep concern for them during their hockey career, most said no. Several said they were not very concerned because their hockey career had opened up many doors for them. One former player said that while it is true that hockey players do make business and

professional contacts while playing, they are mistaken if they believe they can rely on these contacts for a job after hockey.

I think the door factor is a myth . . .
. There was a time when . . .
players were really national heroes.
The promotional factor is still there
for the superstars but the substrata is
a lot larger now than it used to be and
there (really) aren't that many
superstars.

He went on to say that, because of the large number of players, it is very difficult for most players to carry over a profile into post-hockey high enough to benefit a prospective employer. He added that a 'contact' may want to play golf with a former player or may inform him of a job opportunity but would likely be quite reluctant to offer him a salary if he has no qualifications or experience, especially when there are so many qualified people looking for work. The belief that only players with a high profile are likely to benefit from contacts is supported by the findings of Haerle's study (1975), previously discussed in the review of literature in Chapter 2. To reiterate, Haerle found that baseball fame was positively correlated with the status of a player's first job; but that this relationship was weakened with the passage of time.

Former players were asked if they had held realistic perceptions of what life would be like after hockey when they were active players. Most players indicated their perceptions had been fairly naive. One player was surprised to discover how hard people work in the outside world, having himself been accustomed to a two hour work day. Another player said that he thought there would be more choice in selecting a job, and yet another said it took him a while to understand the business world and realize that, as in hockey, it is based on performance, on what you do and not what you say.

The future career expectations of active players were also examined. One player said that his hockey career, and the self-esteem it has provided him, has raised his personal expectations. Initially, he had felt that if hockey didn't work out he would take a labor job, but that now he wanted more. One other player expressed a somewhat different viewpoint saying his expectations were more moderate because of hockey. He explained:

. . . (Because of) the goals and the things I've achieved in hockey, there won't be a lot more disappointments for me in life because hockey has always been number one so I'm going to treat everything . . . from the time I retire on in as bonus stuff, as gravy. The actual things I've wanted to achieve in life, I've achieved already.

He did qualify this last statement by saying "that's not to say that life's over", but he continued to emphasize his point. "(Retirement) is not going to be a big disappointment to me because I've got a lot of self-satisfaction. Probably enough to carry me on through the rest of my life with what I've done."

It is difficult to say whether this perception is typical of many active players, but it was not deemed to be highly realistic according to the experiences of the former players. They stressed that there is a lot of life remaining at the end of a hockey career, and that most players struggle to find an interesting and rewarding job rather than resigning themselves to live in the past. They generally agreed that, in order to achieve this, it is necessary to develop special skills by working or going to school. If this is not done during the hockey career, then it is important for a player to have saved a sufficient amount of money so that he can afford to take time off to prepare himself after his hockey career.

In summary, former players emphasized that most players maintain high aspirations after hockey is over and that it is their skills and not their hockey reputation that are likely to influence their success in a second career.

It is important to note at this point that the references to former players in much of the foregoing discussion and the discussion to follow is directed to those who did not immediately move into a professional hockey job. For example, a player's hockey reputation would be highly significant in securing a job in professional hockey. Two of the players interviewed fell into this category. However, it is generally understood that, due to the shortage of available positions, only a minority of players are able to secure a job in professional hockey. For this reason, it is felt that the issues presently under examination are relevant and applicable to most former hockey players.

7) Transition stage and emotional contingencies

While some players may not be sufficiently prepared to move into a job they desire right after leaving hockey, many players are not prepared for the emotional difficulties they are likely to experience at this time of transition. Even players who were well prepared in other ways claimed that this time was not easy for them. Several potential sources of negative feelings have already been mentioned. However, a more extensive discussion of this

topic is necessary at this point for a fuller appreciation of the problem.

One former player, who had a university degree plus considerable extra-hockey job experience at the time of his retirement from hockey, said that "when your hockey career ends, its like a whole part of your life died". Many players perhaps anticipate this feeling and therefore resist the idea of leaving hockey. However, it is possible that delaying the inevitable only aggravates problems of emotional adjustment. Several of the players interviewed said they were glad they had taken the initiative to retire before someone else told them they were no longer good enough. Because their retirement was voluntary, they experienced fewer negative feelings than they might have otherwise. They said that for physical or mental reasons, or a combination of both, they realized it was time. One of these players explained that he felt he could have lasted longer physically, but that it was becoming too difficult mentally to prepare himself for each game and he was starting to enjoy it less. Another, who had suffered a series of injuries, also felt he could have played longer but, in his words, "because of my . . . [injuries], the heart went out of me".

Players who left the game involuntarily tended to experience feelings that ranged from disappointment to bitterness, feeling they had not been given the opportunity to develop their sport career to its full potential. However, one player who was forced to retire because of a career-ending injury, said that, although he felt disappointment, this reason for retirement was perhaps easier for him to cope with because it couldn't be taken personally.

Other negative feelings, such as the loss of feeling special and rejection by the team, have already been discussed. Most of the players interviewed did not outwardly admit that the latter feeling was a big problem for them. But it is possible they were handling any rejection they may have felt by reacting defensively as some appeared to overemphasize that they no longer had a need to be socially accepted by former teammates who are still active and that they had made a clean break with this group. And most players said that they never attend professional hockey games although this was not the case for the former players who had played for Montreal. These players explained that management had provided them with a viewing room of their own, making them feel accepted and welcome at games.

Nonetheless, several of those players who had cut their ties with professional hockey had still maintained their contact with the game of hockey either by playing recreationally or coaching at an amateur level. Most players felt that involvement of this sort was fine as long as it didn't become all-consuming to the point where the player began living in the past.

While it was apparent that nearly all players were determined to build a new life for themselves after leaving hockey, there were few who did not acknowledge feeling some degree of fear as they faced the uncertainties of their future. This problem was greater for those who didn't have a job waiting or for those who lacked special skills. Still, one player, who had the reassurance of knowing he had a business in hand, said that when the doors of his arena shut for the last time behind him, they sounded like the doors of a prison. He was moving from the world of hockey, the one world that was familiar and comprehensible to him, to the unknown, outside world - an experience he could not equate with freedom. He pointed out one aspect of hockey that can increase a player's anxieties as he contemplates his future.

You love hockey. So you want to find a job that you love because you're used to loving what you do. Hockey is a natural ability (and, as a result)

often you don't realize how much you
love it until you retire.

These remarks infer that the fear or anxieties of a player can take on a double focus. First, if he is concerned with replacing the commitment and devotion he has felt in hockey, then he must worry not only about finding a job he is qualified for but also finding a job he loves. Second, having relied to a fair degree on natural ability throughout his hockey career, he must now take conscious, deliberate steps to develop skills that will qualify him for that job. Both factors are a source of anxiety and underline the difficulty a player may face in defining a realistic area of interest.

It has already been noted that even the player who has prepared himself well for a second career may not escape feeling some degree of doubt and uncertainty. He may worry about whether he will love his job and whether his job performance will live up to his personal expectations. Performance and success have always been the main orientation of the individual hockey player and, as a result, his personal expectations are likely to be very high. This may heighten his anxiety if the player feels pressed to maintain these high expectations in a job that will likely require very different skills. In addition, it

is highly probable that most players will be faced with a considerable drop in income in a second career. Having been accustomed to the large salaries of hockey, can they readjust their personal expectations and be satisfied with a lower income and less affluent lifestyle? The reactions to whether the player felt he could adjust to a drop in income were mixed. However, several players did mention that they felt it would likely be a greater problem for the individual who had not managed his money well during his hockey career. If he spent his money freely and, as a result, his savings were minimal, then he would have to make a greater adjustment because the change in his lifestyle would be more dramatic.

The majority of players interviewed had been retired for three or more years. This group appeared to have overcome any initial uncertainties they may have experienced in that they were all satisfied, in varying degrees, with their present job. One of these players, however, wanted to return to hockey in a coaching capacity, suggesting that he was uncertain of his present position. All former players, other than one respondent who had returned to university and another who was in the process of setting up a business, were employed at the time of the interview. These two exceptions, who could be described as

still in the process of adjustment, had been retired for a two year period. A breakdown on the types of jobs presently held by the eleven employed respondents who had played professional hockey indicates that six are now in sales or promotion, two are in professional hockey, one in administration and two are in advanced professions.

It is apparent, if this small sample can be considered representative, that most players do adjust over time. The most difficult period, that may require a player to cope with a variety of emotional and practical problems, appears to fall within one or two years after retirement. During this period, or transition stage, it is important that the former player reconcile the end of his hockey career and identify himself with a specific area of interest. The more this area of interest diverges from the hockey career and the less developed his skills in that particular area, the greater the task he will face. If a player fails at this task, the ramifications may be very serious. While most of the players interviewed had overcome any difficulties and adjusted to a new career, several players acknowledged they knew of other players who had not been so fortunate and some who had met with severe hardship. Why are some players more successful than others in adjusting to life after hockey? The text above has explored some

plausible areas of explanation. It is the task of the remaining chapters to single out and test those factors that can contribute the most to a clear, more precise explanation.

8) Background characteristics of the sample

Before concluding this chapter, some information on the social and educational background of the nine active and thirteen former professional players in the sample is presented below in table form. Although the table represents only a small number of players, it is included to illustrate some background characteristics of the sample in order to provide the reader with a description of the source of information. The eight players who had played for the Canadian National team are not included because of the earlier decision to focus the study on professional hockey. However, it should be noted that there were no noticeable differences between the overall background of this group and the professional group other than all active national players had some university education and all former national players had a university degree.

Table 3.1 reveals that former players tend to have a higher level of education than active players which is

TABLE 3.1

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS
OF THE SAMPLE OF ACTIVE AND RETIRED PROFESSIONAL
HOCKEY PLAYERS

	ACTIVE		RETIRED	
	(N=9)	% of total	(N=13)	% of total
<hr/>				
<u>Mother Tongue</u>				
English	(7)	78%	(10)	77%
French	(2)	22	(3)	23
 <u>Marital Status</u>				
Married	(5)	56	(11)	84
Single	(3)	33	(1)	8
Separated	(1)	11	---	---
No data	---	---	(1)	8
 <u>Level of Education</u>				
Masters degree	---	---	(2)	15
Bachelors degree	(2)	22	(4)	31
Some univ/college	(2)	22	(1)	8
Completed high school	(3)	33	(3)	23
High school not completed	(2)	22	(3)	23
 <u>Age Range</u>				
	22 - 35 yrs.		32 - 44 yrs.	

understandable because they have had more time to improve their schooling. It is important to note at this point that any interpretation of the above findings should be done with caution. Data drawn from such a small number of respondents is likely to be less than reliable. It is for this reason that a large number of active and former professional players was surveyed in the second phase of research.

SUMMARY

One discovery, emerging from the interviews, was that certain aspects of the hockey career have not changed a great deal over time. Or, in more specific terms, the overall perceptions and concerns of active players did not differ to any great extent from those held by former players when they were active. It may be true that active players are now more aware of the need to prepare for life after hockey largely because organizations, particularly their own players' association, have recently drawn their attention to the issue. However, based on the responses of the players interviewed, they are still not necessarily more likely to do something about it than were the former players.

After reviewing the information gathered from the interviews, it is apparent that two very general but vital issues were addressed. First, what is the nature and degree of potential adjustment problems after hockey and, second, what aspects of the hockey career make it difficult for a player to be mentally or otherwise prepared to meet these problems?

Players generally admitted that many of the aspects of hockey they valued most may either be lacking or significantly reduced in a second career. While many felt they could adjust, if necessary, to some changes in their situation, such as a drop in income, few were as optimistic about adjusting to a nine to five lifestyle that would lack the fun and excitement that hockey had offered them.

The loss of public recognition and 'feeling special' and the loss of the support of their teammates were not readily declared to be a deep source of concern. Perhaps this is because they were considered almost inevitable. But, it is possible that former players who strongly emphasize their break with the past are resisting the idea that the loss of these two sources of emotional support were important to them. Because certain players did admit to experiencing feelings of self-doubt during their hockey career and did describe how the recognition and support

from teammates and fans helped to alleviate these doubts, it is difficult to believe that, at the least, some players would not be affected by their loss. That is, the player who did live with feelings of self-doubt and relied on fans and teammates for self-reassurance without realizing the transient nature of these support systems, is likely to experience some emotional difficulty after retiring from hockey. To further explain, this player may become over-protective, having felt somewhat betrayed by the loss of these support systems, and risk becoming too suspicious of people in general. As a result, he may be hesitant to develop social and business networks that can facilitate adjustment. In contrast, it may be that the player who has anticipated the loss of fan and team support and therefore, having not felt personal rejection, is more confident in his evaluation of himself in relation to others, is more likely to actively develop new networks.

Another factor that may influence the degree of emotional difficulty encountered by a player and, at the same time, discourage self-initiative is the nature of his retirement. The player who leaves the game involuntarily may be less mentally prepared to face his future than the player who leaves voluntarily. In other words, if he is preoccupied with feelings of resentment toward his past, he

may be less inclined to take positive steps toward building a second career.

While the respondents may have varied in what they considered the most pressing problems after hockey, most acknowledged that they experienced some degree of anxiety as they faced a world less familiar to them. These anxieties arose from a number of uncertainties. Would they find a job at least somewhat as interesting and attractive as hockey and how difficult would it be to learn a different type of skill that may be based less on natural instinct? In addition, if success and achievement are as important to them as they were in hockey, will they become 'above average' in their endeavours? Comments from the players indicated that being successful was a big concern for them and perhaps more important to their self-esteem than making a large amount of money.

It is important to recognize that the hockey career is not exclusively a drawback for the player in terms of developing a second career. Rather, several positive attributes are developed in hockey that can be beneficial later on. All the players interviewed, no matter what their circumstances, were determined to succeed in a new work role, showing tenacity in the face of adversity, an essential characteristic for a hockey player. As well,

they were familiar with self-discipline and teamwork which are generally valued in the conventional work world. Moreover, certain frustrating aspects of the hockey career are likely to be less intense in a second career, suggesting that some pressures will be lifted from the individual. At least to some extent he is likely to have more control over his position and greater job security in another line of work.

Other positive implications of the hockey career are the contacts and the money a player can make. For example, if the player saves enough money, he can invest in his own business. As well, it is possible that business or professional contacts can provide him with connections that will either secure him a job or further him in a business. However, the former players emphasized that neither of these factors should be relied on too strongly as assurances of finding a job or being successful in that job. Rather they emphasized the need to develop more realistic perceptions of the working world. In other words, what is most important is that the player first increase his knowledge of the nature and requirements of a job and then learn the necessary skills to meet those requirements.

Although some players were able to find the time to develop skills during their hockey career, several players mentioned that due to the demands of hockey, this was difficult to do. And yet, this issue is only part of the bigger problem indicating that it is difficult for a player to be prepared for life after hockey. That is, a player's mental and physical occupation with hockey can become so all-consuming that his awareness of the outside world becomes severely limited. This may not be true for all players but, for many, life as they know it, is hockey. One may argue that people in other careers identify to a high degree with their jobs but special characteristics of the hockey career make this issue more significant for the hockey player. First, unlike conventional occupations, the individual's identification with his job begins in childhood when much of his time and energy are spent playing hockey. At that time, he does not feel pressured by his parents because of his own motivation and desire to play. Unlike other youth, if he should consider different career alternatives, it does not mean he is uncertain of his objectives. Instead, he is more likely considering contingency plans in the event he doesn't attain his ultimate goal - playing in the National Hockey League. While the player with a university background is likely to have given more serious consideration to career

alternatives, he still has a strong identification with hockey especially if, as is most often the case, he attends school on a hockey scholarship. Thus, as the hockey ability of the individual becomes increasingly apparent in the process of growing up, his identification with hockey is strengthened, which is made evident by his continued dedication to the game and the clarity of his goals.

What is significant for the player is that this strong identification with hockey has negative implications for the time when he retires from the game. In his youth, he has had to make few independent decisions. Coaches and parents have provided him with a ready made support system that has directed and guided him toward a professional hockey career. As well, he has seldom had to cope with inner struggles in defining his major life interest. Because, for the most part, his time and energies have been focused on one enterprise, he has neither a great deal of motivation nor opportunity to develop other life interests. This inclination to narrow his interests and activities to hockey is further reinforced once he enters a professional hockey career. As a result, his opportunity and initiative to develop other interests, that may help him prepare for his eventual retirement from the game, become even more restricted. As a professional player, he becomes involved

in an atypical lifestyle where he does not have to manage his time; where he is given special treatment and attention from fans; and where management takes care of many of his day to day requirements. And, as a rule, he does not have to engage in heavy decision making with regard to his job or redefinition of goals, for these concerns are also taken care of by either coach or management. None of these factors is likely to encourage self-initiative, which is essential if the player is to prepare for retirement from hockey.

Thus, a strong identification with hockey and the different lifestyle which is characteristic of a hockey career give rise to some major drawbacks in terms of a player's adjustment to a second career and lifestyle. Importantly, they deter self-initiative and autonomous decision-making. Moreover, the different lifestyle and the players' strong identification with this lifestyle imply that the player is faced with a considerable challenge. That is, he will have to make extensive adjustments in order to adapt to a way of life that, in all likelihood, will bear little resemblance to his hockey career.

To this point, the investigation into the adjustment of former hockey players to life after hockey has uncovered a variety of potential problems and a variety of reasons for these problems based on interviews with a small sample of active and former professional players. It is important now to begin a more controlled analysis, involving a large number of respondents. Therefore, the following chapter will concentrate on the most relevant variables so that an explanatory model can be developed. Chapters 5 and 6 will then report on the testing of this model using the quantitative data collected through an extensive survey of active and former players.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In Chapter 1, reference was made to the usefulness of taking a comprehensive approach within the context of the present study by conceptualizing the problem of ending a hockey career as a process of change from one career to another. Thus the concept of retirement, defined in its narrowest sense as withdrawal, was seen as excluding too many elements of the overall process to be beneficial as a sole, central focus. The interviews with the active and former players reaffirmed a belief in the usefulness of a processual, comprehensive approach and, as well, suggested that the process of change be divided into three stages: the hockey career, the transition stage and the second career. That is, change should not be viewed as a process occurring only around the time of retirement. Rather, there are three possible turning points in the process of change within the context of athletic retirement. The first turning point may occur during the hockey career if the player begins to take steps to prepare himself for life after hockey. The transition stage marks the second turning point where the concerns of the individual are

directed to both his past and his future. And the final stage, the second career, marks a third turning point where the individual adjusts, to a greater or lesser extent, to a new life and career.

Furthermore, the interviews pointed out the importance of social-psychological aspects at each stage. That is, the interviews indicated that some individuals adjust to change better than others, and therefore that individual factors and perceptions of various situations are likely to have a strong influence on the rate and extent of adjustment. At the same time however, it was evident that situational and structural factors, particularly within the hockey career, should be accounted for, in order to understand more precisely those factors affecting change that, for the most part, are beyond the control of the individual.

FOCUSING THE PROBLEM

The player's degree of identification with his hockey career occupies a central position within the development of a theoretical framework. One might ask why this social-psychological variable should be given primary

consideration over and above some of the situational and structural factors unique to the hockey career that were described as detrimental to post-hockey adjustment by the players who were interviewed. For example, the players pointed out factors such as management control and over-protection of the player that were not conducive to preparing a player for the end of his hockey career. However, these and certain other situational and structural factors are inherent aspects of the hockey career, meaning that all players are subject to their influence. While it is true that the strength of the influence of some of these factors may vary somewhat between individual players, the limits to this variation suggest that these factors alone cannot provide sufficient explanation as to why some players adjust to life after hockey better than others. Therefore, it was imperative to identify another key source of explanation based on individual factors related to the hockey career.

The first chapter of this thesis referred to some of the negative implications a strong identification with hockey may have for a player when his hockey career ends. Following this, the interviews with the players, which were described in Chapter 3, underlined the importance of this variable by way of indirect reference. That is, the

interviews drew attention to several issues that emphasized the emotional commitment that the majority of players make to their hockey career. For instance, several players mentioned that loving the game was a prerequisite for any good hockey player, suggesting that this attachment could reach a level of extreme intensity. However, the interviews also indicated that what perhaps is most significant for the end of the hockey career is not so much the level of intensity per se, but instead whether a player's personal identity is focused on hockey to the exclusion of other career and life interests. And so, for the purpose of this study, degree of identification with hockey is defined as the extent to which a player's personal identity is constricted to his role as a hockey player.

The primary concern now is to develop a model projecting the influence of identification with hockey on degree of adjustment within the subsequent transition and second career stages. However, before proceeding, some of the main premises underlying this theoretical approach need to be outlined. One such premise is that personal identities are neither static nor fixed, even at the level of adulthood, and that identities are strongly tied to the career position that may be held by the individual. Thus

the hockey player, as he changes careers, must undergo a change in identity. The notion of combining career and identity into one perspective is supported by Becker and Strauss (1968). These authors state: "A frame of reference for studying careers is, at the same time, a frame for studying personal identities". They continue to say that " . . . central to any account of adult identity is the relation of change in identity to change in social position . . . " (33). Because these positions change, the individual " . . . must gain, maintain, and regain a sense of personal identity". They emphasize their point by quoting Erikson (1950) who declared that identity " . . . is never gained nor maintained once and for all" (34).

McCall and Simmons (1978) provide a useful conceptual framework for understanding the process of change in identities. They define their central concept, that of role-identity, as " . . . the character and the role that an individual devises for himself as an occupant of a particular social position" (65). Their theory links the concept of role-identity to the concept of social career, so that other social positions, apart from occupation, are also included. Using the theory of McCall and Simmons as a point of reference, I propose to demonstrate how the hockey

career is a primary and powerful factor in determining the personal identity of the individual pursuing that career.

McCall and Simmons suggest that each individual has a number of role-identities corresponding to the different social positions that the individual occupies at one and the same time. These role-identities are not isolated from each other. Instead, " . . . they mutually influence one another and are organized into a more or less systematically interrelated whole" (73). However, certain role-identities are more prominent than others, meaning that an individual's identities are hierarchically organized. The authors point out several factors that may determine which role-identity will acquire the most prominent position. They suggest that the paramount factor " . . . is the degree to which the individual has committed himself to the particular contents of this role-identity . . . " (75). The early childhood socialization of the hockey player into the hockey role, the dependence of self-esteem on living up to this role, and the sheer enjoyment of the game by the player, all indicate a high degree of commitment to the hockey career.

In addition to the commitment factor, McCall and Simmons refer to two other factors affecting the prominence of a given role-identity. These factors are the "overt

performances of the role" and the degree to which relevant others support this role (75), two factors which legitimize the individual's perception of his own role-identity. In terms of these factors, it would appear that the role-identity of the professional hockey player is strongly legitimized. In order to participate at the level of professional hockey, the player has to initially prove himself by demonstrating a high level of ability through his performance. And, as well, he must secure the support of coach and management after a rigorous evaluation process, if he is to be given a contract tying him to a hockey career. It is also likely that he will receive strong support from parents and friends because of the prestige associated with such a career. And furthermore, unlike most occupants of other careers, the hockey player is provided with a third source of support, or legitimation, from hockey fans. Fans tend to identify the player strictly in terms of his occupational role, often to the point where if he is spotted at some external activity, such as shopping, the fan may express mild surprise or, at the least, remind himself that hockey players also have other things to do than hockey.

The combined influence of the factors noted above all but ensures that the hockey identity will occupy the most

prominent position within the hierarchy of a player's role-identities. Moreover, in the case of the hockey player, this prominent role-identity is likely to be highly integrated with other role-identities of the individual. McCall and Simmons state: "The over-all organization of role-identities also varies in degree of cohesiveness, that is, in the extent to which separate role-identities are tightly or loosely interrelated" (74). The role-identity set of a hockey player is apt to be cohesive due to the influence of certain structural factors, such as management control and an unconventional work schedule, which restrict his opportunity to develop areas of interest unrelated to hockey. As such, the less prominent role-identities of a player are likely to be highly compatible with and supportive of the prominent hockey identity.

In the same vein, the influence of these structural factors also suggest that the identity-set of a player may tend to be narrow in scope. And as well, it is possible that this tendency to a narrow identity is established in the early years of a player's life. McCall and Simmons explain that the identity-set of an individual normally widens during childhood in the sense that the child takes on additional roles. But, because of the intensity of the hockey commitment and the emerging prominence of the hockey

role, the hockey player, particularly in his teen years, may be less inclined to expand his identity-set beyond the role of hockey player in comparison with cohorts who have not yet begun to define a prominent adult role-identity.

Notwithstanding the tendency to a narrow, cohesive hockey identity, the degree to which a player's personal identity is concentrated on hockey is bound to vary between individuals. What then does a strong identification with hockey imply for the player when he is faced with having to relinquish his hockey role? McCall and Simmons point out that the more involved we are with a particular role-identity, " . . . the more we have to gain, but the corollary of this assertion is that we also have more to lose". They continue to say that, "If an important role-identity has been unequivocally threatened by loss of role-support from an important audience, one is likely to experience misery and anguish" (97). In reaction to these feelings, the individual may attempt to shift his identity hierarchy and downplay the personal importance of the threatened identity. In the words of McCall and Simmons, the individual " . . . thus sacrifices a role-identity in an attempt to save the standing of the self as a whole" (98). Within the context of retirement from hockey, this reaction is exemplified by the former player who makes

efforts, conscious or otherwise, to distance himself from the game, for example by rejecting the idea that the loss of support from fans and teammates was a source of personal concern.

Thus, as major changes occur in career situations, so must changes occur in the individual's identity hierarchy through the shifting of role-identities. However, based on this rationale, it is apparent that the former player who has strongly identified with hockey is likely to be faced with a major dilemma. That is, his identity-set may not include another work related role-identity, even in a nominal sense, that can replace the loss of his hockey role. This problem can be stated somewhat differently by using the conceptual terms of Marjorie Lowenthal (1972) in her development of a life cycle approach to the study of retirement. In reference to her theoretical approach, Lowenthal states: " . . . the underlying premises are that the process of adaptation to external and internal change involves adjustment within and between the purposive and behavioral domains . . . " (315). If successful adaptation to change hinges on adjusting behavior to purpose, then the hockey player is in trouble if, in fact, he does not have an alternative purpose to hockey.

Thus, within the present analysis, the probability of an individual identifying with a second career that he considers to be an attractive alternative to hockey becomes both the central and critical issue in terms of a player's overall adjustment to life after hockey. In other words, the pertinent question is not simply whether the former player finds a job after retirement from hockey, but whether he finds a job personally meaningful enough to replace hockey as a prominent role-identity in his identity-set. Hypothetically, the player who strongly identifies with hockey will take a longer time in this regard. To explain, there is a greater likelihood that such a player will not be able to shift role-identities but instead will be faced with the greater challenge of adding an entirely new role-identity to his identity-set.

The heavy emphasis on identification concepts within a career perspective, as opposed to centering on a socialization-resocialization approach, can be explained on the grounds that the most pressing problem for a number of players appears to be defining and internalizing a meaningful new career role as opposed to handling the additional, real problem of learning the norms and skills associated with that role. However, this approach is not intended to restrict the problems of athletic retirement to

the single dimension of career identification. Rather, as full attention as possible will be given to intervening variables, as well as structural factors and career contingencies, that have the potential to influence the adjustment variables in the transition and second career stages. Nonetheless, the concept of change in career identity will remain central to the thesis based on the following rationale. That is, the present theoretical approach grants that variables unrelated to career identity may have potential influence on adjustment problems, and that many players will experience difficulties regardless of career identity factors, given that most of them cannot avoid being faced with having to adapt to a change from the atypical lifestyle of hockey to a more conventional mode of living. However, it is argued that these problems will be less intense and of shorter duration for the player whose identity-set, in terms of career, is not limited to hockey and who, therefore, is able to more quickly refocus a feeling of commitment to another career.

BUILDING A THEORETICAL MODEL

Stage 1 - The Hockey Career

The construction of a theoretical model, principally designed to explain the process of adjustment from a career identity perspective, entailed specifying a number of variables both directly and indirectly related to the career identity issue. As well, a combination of other variables extraneous to this issue were specified, in an attempt to achieve as high a level as possible of understanding and explanation. A description of the model begins by focusing on degree of identification with hockey as the initial variable in a series of social psychological variable relationships relevant to the hockey career, the first stage of the model. Degree of identification with hockey has already been defined as the extent to which a player's personal identity is constricted to his role as a hockey player. (In this section, nominal definitions are given for all variables. An outline of the actual operationalization of these variables is deferred to the following chapter on methodology). While identification with hockey was designated as the first in a series of interrelated variables operative during the hockey career, one variable preceding the hockey career is included in the

model because of its potential influence on identification with hockey. This variable, level of education prior to the hockey career, is presumed to have a negative effect on the degree of a player's identification with hockey because the greater the level and the longer the duration of advanced education or training, the greater the player's past preoccupation with career interests other than hockey and, likewise, the more diverse his identity-set. The interviews with the active and former players supported this line of reasoning in that the findings showed that players who had at least some university education were more likely to have alternative career plans to hockey.

To this point, any discussion of the implications of a high degree of identification with hockey have been limited to proposing a direct relationship between identification with hockey and change in career identity. However, it is important to consider the possible indirect effects of identification with hockey by examining the relationship of this variable with other social psychological variables, operating during the hockey career, that may also influence adjustment to the end of a hockey career.

One such variable, hypothesized to be negatively related to identification with hockey, is the player's ability to evaluate himself in relation to non-hockey

people. This variable refers to how clearly the player feels he understands the meaning of the actions of these particular others and moreover how clearly he understands how these others interpret his own actions. The player interviews suggested that certain aspects of the hockey career may make it difficult for a player to feel self-assured in his relationships with people outside the game, especially if the player identifies with hockey to a high degree. Some of these career aspects are: the limited number of non-hockey friends, the artificial base that underlies the player's interaction with many of his fans and acquaintances, and the personal strength he receives from his team as a support group which slows his initiative to develop other relationships. Thus, the assumption is that these aspects are more salient for the player with a high degree of identification with hockey and that therefore such a player will rank lower in his ability to evaluate himself in relation to non-hockey people. Seemingly, a weakness in this regard would be detrimental to a player's adjustment to life after hockey. However, the variable, evaluation of self, as well as having some direct effect on post-hockey adjustment, may also have an indirect effect through its influence on other variables occurring during the hockey career.

For example, a player's evaluation of himself in relation to non-hockey people may be positively related to the self-initiative of a player which, in this instance, is defined in terms of how the player perceives his ability to rely on himself to make decisions and initiate positive action regarding matters that are predominantly not related to hockey. In other words, the player who is uncertain of the substance of his relationships with people outside the game will be hesitant to show self-initiative because he will be less able to anticipate the reaction of others to his own actions.

While the players interviewed did indicate that lack of self-initiative was a problem, they tended to explain it in terms of structural factors, such as the demands of hockey on their time and control by coach and management. However, some players disagreed, saying there actually was the time and opportunity to show self-initiative in areas unrelated to hockey. Based on these observations, it is reasonable to conclude that non-structural variables, such as evaluation of self, may explain some of the variance in self-initiative.

Another direct predictor of self-initiative may be identification with hockey. That is, recognizing that identification with hockey should have an indirect effect

on self-initiative by way of its effect on evaluation of self, it is possible that it also has a direct, negative effect. To clarify, if a player identifies with hockey to a high degree and, at the same time, ranks high on evaluation of self, he may still rank low on self-initiative because he may simply not have the desire to show self-initiative in matters unrelated to hockey. His identification with and commitment to hockey may be so intense that he is not motivated to pursue other interests in spite of other factors in his favor. This explanation, placed within the context of the role-identity framework, can be interpreted in terms of a player having committed himself to a narrow, cohesive identity-set focused primarily on hockey and thus the increased probability that a player will not be attracted to the idea of diversifying his commitments.

The relationships between the variables that have been discussed to this point have fallen in a sequence beginning with level of education prior to the hockey career and followed by identification with hockey, evaluation of self and self-initiative. The next step is to examine the effect of the latter three social-psychological variables on a fifth variable, completing the sequence of relationships between variables relevant to the hockey

career. This variable is entrepreneurial action, which refers to whether an active player actually takes concrete steps to learn about other occupations. More specifically, it focuses on two areas: first, whether or not a player invested in a business and, if so, how much he learned about the operations of this business and, second, on how much he may have learned about the various occupations of any contacts he may have made. It should be mentioned that it is understood that entrepreneurial action does not represent all possible ways of learning about other occupations. Working at off-season jobs or taking courses during the hockey career can also increase knowledge in this area. However, the importance of these two factors is examined in a separate analysis that involves the testing of a set of secondary hypotheses in Chapter 6. These hypotheses follow the results of the regression analyses that were implemented to test the central hypotheses now being formulated.

The variable likely to have the most impact on entrepreneurial action is self-initiative, in that this trait provides the stimulus that will increase the probability of a player making a genuine effort to learn about other occupations. Identification with hockey and evaluation of self are also likely to have some influence

for the same reason they are hypothesized to affect self-initiative. However, the contention is that their effect is apt to be more indirect through their association with the variable, self-initiative.

In addition, three hockey career variables that are job specific in nature can be considered potential indicators of entrepreneurial action. One of these variables is player value. It is conceptualized as the value of the player as perceived by coach and management and demonstrated by size of salary, amount of ice time and time spent in the NHL as opposed to the minors. The hypothesis is that the greater the player value, the greater the likelihood of a player engaging in entrepreneurial action. That is, the opportunities to invest and make contacts will be greater for the player who has larger financial resources and a higher profile.

The two other job specific variables considered influential are more directly related to coach and management. These are degree of control over the player by coach and management and degree of open communication from coach and management to the player. The variable referring to control centers on the amount of input a player has into decisions made by coach and management. This variable is hypothesized to be negatively related to entrepreneurial

action because the greater the control, the less the player will be reassured of receiving coach/management approval of any independent action that diverges from his hockey job. Open communication refers to the degree to which the player feels that coach and management openly and honestly inform him of their plans concerning his future with the club. It is likely that this variable will have a positive relationship with entrepreneurial action. To explain, one aspect of the hockey career that was emphasized in the player interviews was the uncertainty and consequent insecurity of many players with regard to knowing one's relative position in the future plans of a club. The more open the communication, the less guesswork involved on the part of the player, thus decreasing some of his worries. Open communication provides the player with a point of reference by which he can make personal decisions and, with at least some pressure removed, allows him to redirect more easily his mental energies to other endeavors.

Stage 2 - Transition

The next step in the process of formulating a theoretical framework is to link variables relevant to the hockey career to the transition or second stage of the model. Three variables, considered to reflect the level of

adjustment of a former player, are focused on in the stage of transition. These variables are: degree of negative feelings experienced in the first year after retirement, satisfaction with first post-hockey job, and the length of time it took the individual to find a job that really interested him.

The first variable, negative feelings, incorporates a number of troublesome feelings suggested by the former players who were interviewed based on their own experience. These feelings are detailed in the following chapter in the discussion on operationalization of variables. It is important to note that players are also likely to experience some positive feelings following retirement from hockey and that this factor may all too easily be overlooked. However, because the present focus is on potential problems, negative aspects are the primary concern.

The second variable relevant to the transition stage, satisfaction with first job, examined the player's commitment to his job, satisfaction with his salary and his confidence in his ability to do the job. The third variable, length of time it took the individual to find a job that really interested him, is self-explanatory.

The main objective at this point is to identify the specific hockey career variables that may affect these adjustment variables in the transition stage. At the same time, consideration will be given to the interaction between some of the variables within the transition stage. Negative feelings experienced after retirement from hockey can be attributed to several factors. On the one hand, they may be viewed as a reflexive reaction to the end of a hockey career that may involve a mixture of emotions ranging from a feeling of genuine loss to a feeling of anger in the case of the player who feels his career was ended prematurely. On the other hand, they may be viewed as the result of a player lacking direction and goals with regard to his future. Because of the double focus, a number of variables are considered to be significant predictors of the variable, negative feelings.

From the subset of social-psychological variables, making up the first part of the overall model, identification with hockey, self-initiative and entrepreneurial action are hypothesized to influence the variable, negative feelings. It is suspected that identification with hockey may be the most important predictor because of its implications for both aspects of the variable negative feelings. To clarify, it may

influence the nature of the reaction of the player to the actual end of his hockey career and, as well, affect whether or not he is clear about his future goals. Or, more specifically, a high degree of identification with hockey implies that the individual will experience a greater sense of loss and, at the same time, that he will be less able to define an alternative career to compensate for this loss.

Again, career-identity factors play a prominent role. It was previously mentioned that certain negative feelings are likely an inevitable aspect of withdrawal from a career that was personally meaningful to the individual. However, it is also likely to be more problematic for the individual whose role-identity set does not include another career role-identity even in speculative form. To explain, the player who has not actually involved himself in other career interests but has at least considered or imagined himself working in another career, may be slightly less troubled during the transition stage than the player who has never even considered an alternative.

The belief that self-initiative and entrepreneurial action have a positive effect on adjustment, and therefore a negative relationship with the variable negative feelings, was supported by the interviews with the players.

The former players emphasized that it was important for active players not to leave things to chance, but instead to develop skills and gain experience in preparation for another career. They intimated that the player must rely on his own self-initiative and independent action if he hopes to be prepared and thus avoid some of the emotional difficulties that conceivably can arise after retirement from hockey.

Another subset of variables related to the hockey career is hypothesized to be important indicators of the variable, negative feelings. These variables, which are intended to reflect a player's predisposition to retirement, are: length of hockey career, a sense of achievement of hockey goals, and length of time that retirement was considered prior to actual retirement from hockey. All three variables are predicted to be negatively related to the dependent variable. The reasoning behind this prediction is based on the belief that the longer a player's career, the longer he has considered retirement and the more he feels he has achieved his goals in hockey, the more mentally prepared he is to accept the end of his hockey career and move on to another career. This factor, together with the probability that he will reflect on his

hockey career favorably, suggests that the chances of experiencing negative feelings will be reduced.

Four of the six variables hypothesized to influence the variable, negative feelings, are also hypothesized to influence another measure of adjustment in the transition stage, represented by the variable, satisfaction with first job. The two independent variables that are excluded are: length of hockey career and length of time retirement was considered, inasmuch as these two variables appear to have only vague implications for job satisfaction. However, the third variable reflecting predisposition to retirement, achievement of hockey goals, can be considered significant on the grounds that the player who has a feeling of achievement will be less likely to dwell on past frustrations and failures and more likely to take on a new challenge by pursuing another career. Identification with hockey, self-initiative and entrepreneurial action are included as predictors based on the same logic underlying their hypothesized relationships with the variable, negative feelings. That is, they will have similar effects on satisfaction with first job, because it is likely that many of the negative feelings experienced after retirement are, in fact, due to frustration with job related issues.

The last variable to be examined in the transition stage is length of time finding an interesting job. Theoretically, this variable is central to the analysis, because it is a vital part of the career identity issue by virtue of its emphasis on finding an interesting job as opposed to simply a job. A truly interesting job implies that the individual will become absorbed in his work and consequently identify with that job to the extent that his new occupational role will occupy a prominent position within his role-identity set. The important assumption underlining the significance of this variable is that the sooner a former player replaces his hockey role with another attractive career identity, the more quickly and easily he will adapt to life after hockey.

The variable, length of time finding an interesting job, is presumed to depend on three variables from the hockey career and two other variables relevant to the transition stage. Again, the three hockey related variables are identification with hockey, self-initiative and entrepreneurial action. A high degree of identification with hockey will likely increase the time it takes to find an interesting job, because the individual may, quite frankly, have no idea about what type of work really interests him. To reiterate, his identity-set is

likely to lack an alternative career role-identity. On the other hand, self-initiative and entrepreneurial action are believed to be negatively related to length of time finding an interesting job. A high degree of entrepreneurial action suggests that the player has at least increased his awareness of other job alternatives and a high degree of self-initiative suggests that he is more apt to have relied on himself to create the sort of opportunities that will assist him in learning about and preparing for other jobs.

From within the transition stage, satisfaction with first job and the variable, negative feelings, are included as additional indicators of length of time finding an interesting job. Understandably, a high degree of satisfaction with first job implies that the individual will have taken less time to achieve the objective of the dependent variable, length of time finding an interesting job. In contrast to this inverse relationship, the variable, negative feelings, is anticipated to be positively correlated with the dependent variable for the reason that many of the negative feelings experienced after retirement from hockey may be due to the individual not knowing what type of work really interests him. In other words, his expectations for a future career are negative

and, in a sense, these negative expectations are realized over time.

Stage 3 - The Second Career

The variable, length of time finding an interesting job, provides one of the links to the final stage of the theoretical model. This stage is comprised of the following dependent variables believed to be important measurements of adjustment to a second career and lifestyle. These variables are: present income, present job satisfaction and present life satisfaction,. In addition, the variable, present educational level, is used as an indicator, or independent variable, in this, the third and final stage. The objective at this point is not only to link this stage to the transition stage, but also to link it to the hockey career. This objective may be more difficult to achieve with a high degree of certainty than the earlier objective of linking the hockey career to the transition stage. That is, for many of the former players, a considerable amount of time may have passed between the end of their hockey career and their present situation and, consequently, many unknown, intervening variables may have a more direct bearing on the dependent variables. Nonetheless, it is important and useful to

assess just how much influence the first stage actually has on the final stage.

Length of time finding an interesting job is the one variable from the transition stage that can be considered more closely related, in terms of time, to the dependent variables in the third stage. The first dependent variable to be examined in this stage, present income, is presumed to be negatively affected by length of time finding an interesting job. This presumption is based on the grounds that the longer it takes the individual to find a job interesting enough to elicit a strong commitment from him, the less time he will have had to advance his position, and likewise his income, within another career.

As well, the same set of variables from the hockey career stage that have been designated as indicators of dependent variables in the transition stage are once more used as predictors of income. Identification with hockey is expected to be negatively related, whereas self-initiative and entrepreneurial action are expected to have a positive effect. It is likely that the effect of identification with hockey on the dependent variable will be more indirect through its influence on intervening variables in the model, such as length of time finding an interesting job, a variable which, in turn, has been

predicted to affect income. However, it is important to see if there is also some direct effect of the variable, identification with hockey, considering that it is an essential component of the overall analysis. Self-initiative and entrepreneurial action suggest aggressive characteristics that presumably are compatible with the idea of making an effort to advance oneself in a monetary sense. For this reason, a positive relationship between these variables and income is hypothesized.

A fourth hockey career variable is also predicted to have a positive effect. Player value, because it refers, in part, to financial status, may have an important bearing on the subject of present income. To explain, a player with greater financial resources will have more money to invest in a business or other financial concern and, therefore, a higher probability of making more money over the long term.

In keeping with the intent to account for as many potential indicators as possible, the number of years a player has been retired from hockey is considered relevant on the basis that the longer a player has been retired, the longer the time he has had to move ahead in his job. And finally, present level of education is expected to be positively correlated with the dependent variable, income.

A second dependent variable, believed to be an important measure of adjustment in the stage of the second career, is satisfaction with present job. Six likely indicators of this dependent variable again include all those variables designated to explain income, with the exception of player value, for it does not seem logical to assume that this variable would have any significant bearing on job satisfaction. However, there does appear to be a logical base for explaining the other variable relationships with job satisfaction, although using a somewhat different rationale than the one used to explain the relationships of the same variables with income. A different rationale is understandable because the focus now changes from a measure of monetary value to the individual's own perception of a combination of job related factors.

The following is a brief overview of the hypothesized variable relationships, emphasizing this different focus. The longer it takes the individual to find an interesting job suggests a degree of ambivalence and uncertainty with regard to career goals which may still be reflected in his present situation. Identification with hockey, self-initiative and entrepreneurial action all have implications for an individual's interest in and awareness

of alternative jobs to hockey. And, a high level of interest and awareness is likely to increase the individual's chances of finding a satisfying job. In addition, the longer the former player has been retired from hockey, the more time he has had to seek out both an attractive and suitable job and, therefore, the greater the likelihood he will be satisfied in his present job. The last variable hypothesized to affect job satisfaction, level of education, is believed to have a positive effect based on the proposition that the higher the education, the greater one's ability to do the job and possibly the greater his options in selecting a job.

To conclude the development of a theoretical model explaining the relationship between the hockey career and subsequent adjustment problems, factors believed to affect present life satisfaction are now considered. This dependent variable represents a comprehensive measure of adjustment to life after hockey reflecting the individual's perception of his overall situation. In spite of the possibility that for some players a number of years may have passed since the end of their hockey career, there may still be a lingering effect of three variables from the hockey career: identification with hockey, self-initiative and entrepreneurial action, on present life satisfaction.

A strong identification with hockey suggests that, even if many of the present conditions of a former player's life are favorable, he may still be somewhat troubled with a feeling that he has lost an important part of his life. On the other hand, self-initiative and entrepreneurial action during the hockey career suggest that it is characteristic of the individual to anticipate and take control of different situations and problems that may arise.

Number of years retired is hypothesized to be positively related to present life satisfaction on the assumption that, over time, the individual will tend either to overcome his problems or possibly to lower his expectations to a more realistic level. Finally, three job related variables are included as predictors of life satisfaction. Length of time finding an interesting job is expected to be negatively related for the same reason given to support its relationship with job satisfaction. That is, the ambivalence and uncertainty implied by a high ranking on this variable may tend to be a persistent problem affecting the individual's overall situation. The two other job related variables, income and present job satisfaction, complete the group of independent variables and, not surprisingly, are anticipated to be positively correlated with the dependent variable.

SUMMARY

The theoretical model that has now been specified suggests an extensive framework for the study of athletic retirement within the context of professional hockey with an emphasis on the significant impact that career or occupational factors may have on the overall life situation of both active and former hockey players. While occupational factors may also be significant to varying degrees with both males and females in the general population, it can be argued that they are most significant for the hockey player because he is accustomed to identifying himself in terms of a career, beginning as early as childhood, albeit in a projected form. Moreover, the nature of the hockey career is highly success-oriented and, because the player is immersed in this environment, his evaluation of his own personal worth may become inextricably bound with the notion of career.

Thus, after retirement from hockey, it is particularly vital for most players to find another career they can identify with, if they are to maintain a feeling of self-worth and if they are not to be left with an extreme void in their lives. However, this task may be especially difficult for the very reason that the hockey career has

played a highly prominent role in many of the players' lives. That is, players who have strongly identified with hockey may be less amenable to a change in their career identity. And so, a strong identification with hockey may present a major dilemma for the retiring player. On the one hand, it points out the importance of career to a player's overall identity, and therefore the need to replace the hockey role. On the other, it constrains him from undergoing the changes necessary to replace this role and thereby reduces his chances of successful adjustment to life beyond his hockey career.

One underlying premise in this approach to the problem of athletic retirement is that change is more likely to have a positive outcome if it is undertaken gradually and begun prior to the time when a player's situation undergoes a major change which, in the present context, occurs after the end of a hockey career. Stated differently, the player who begins to initiate changes in his career identity during the hockey career, by increasing his awareness and knowledge of job alternatives, is likely to experience fewer problems in the transition stage. Furthermore, it is argued that the player with a strong identification with hockey will be less likely to initiate changes in advance and, therefore, his transition will be more problematic.

With this premise in mind, the theoretical model is designed to examine whether or not changes in career orientation are begun during the hockey career, the first stage of the model, and how this affects further changes, reflected in various measures of adjustment in the following two stages of transition and second career. The model specifies a sequence of social-psychological variables in the first stage for the purpose of assessing the impact of the variable, identification with hockey, and other related factors that may or may not be conducive or instrumental to change in career identity. Other components of the hockey career, that are situational and structural in nature, are also accounted for in the model based on their potential influence on subsequent adjustment variables. The belief that they will have some influence again underlines the important role that a career can play by virtue of its effect on an individual's overall situation. However, it can be argued that any negative effects on post-hockey adjustment, arising as a result of certain situational and structural components of the hockey career, will be short-lived if the former player is successful in taking on a new career identity.

Similarly, a new career identity can override or alleviate problems that may arise as a natural response to

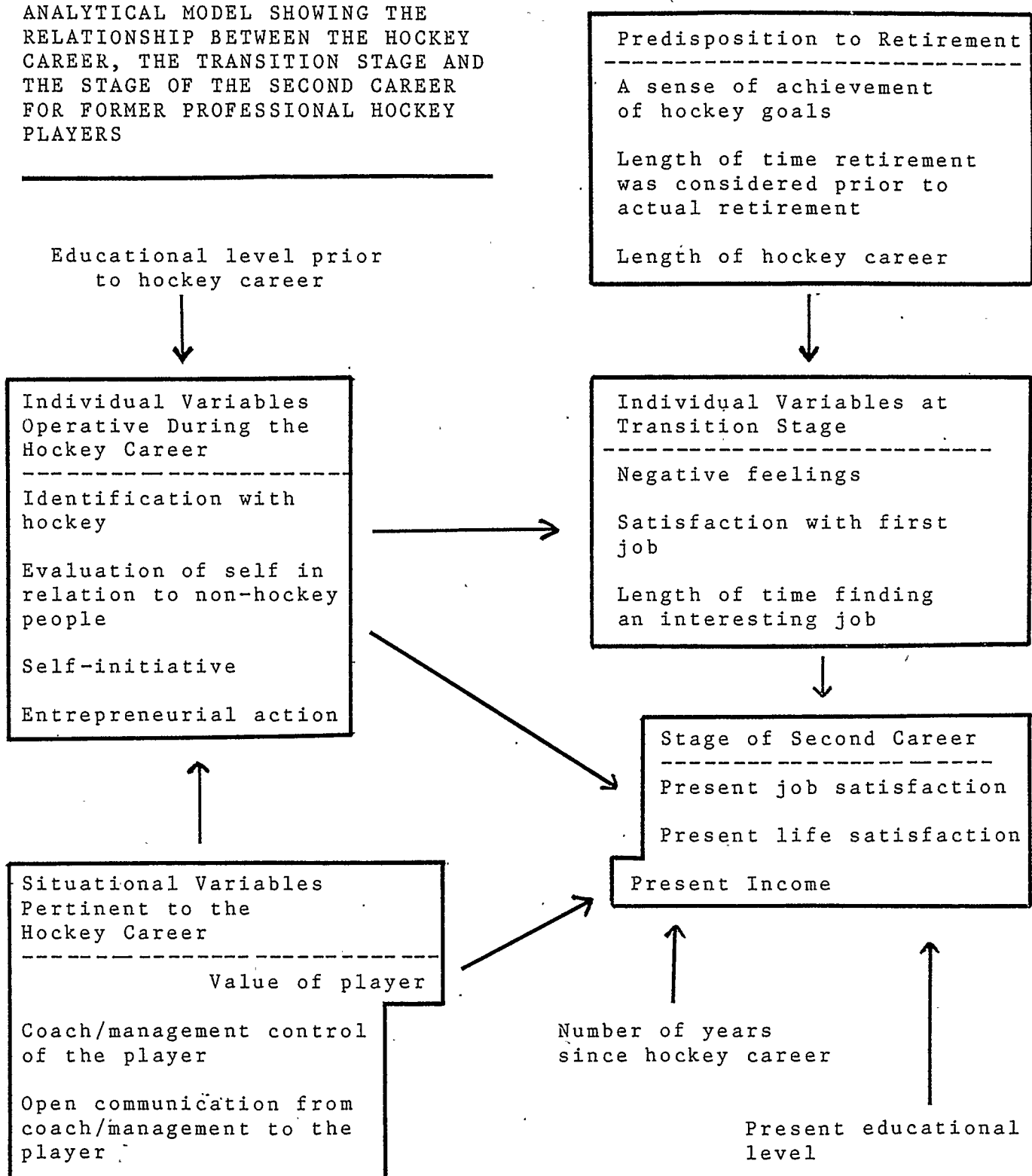
a sense of loss resulting from ending a career that has occupied so much of a player's time and energy. Yet, once again, the player with a strong identification with hockey is faced with a dilemma. That is, the player whose career identity is focused on hockey to the exclusion of other interests is likely to feel more intense feelings of loss and, at the same time, take longer to recover from these feelings because he has not yet identified with a new career.

However extensive the model, it is apparent that several issues, unrelated to a career perspective and yet relevant to overall adjustment to life after hockey, are missing. For instance, the nature of marital, family or other support systems are likely to be significant factors. Nonetheless, the contention is that factors related to career are of primary importance and that widening the theoretical focus to include all possible influential factors would extend the study beyond manageable limits.

Figure 4.1 presents a diagram of the model. To conclude the chapter, several hypotheses, which clarify the direction of relationships between the variables in the model, are specified.

Figure 4.1

ANALYTICAL MODEL SHOWING THE
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE HOCKEY
CAREER, THE TRANSITION STAGE AND
THE STAGE OF THE SECOND CAREER
FOR FORMER PROFESSIONAL HOCKEY
PLAYERS



CENTRAL HYPOTHESES

- 1) The higher the level of education of the player prior to his hockey career, the less his identification with hockey during his hockey career.
- 2) The greater a player's identification with hockey, the lower his ability to evaluate himself in relation to non-hockey people.
- 3) The lower the ability of the player to evaluate himself in relation to non-hockey people, and the greater his identification with hockey, the less self-initiative the player will have primarily with regard to non-hockey matters.
- 4)
 - a] The less the self-initiative of the player, the less his ability to evaluate himself in relation to non-hockey people, and the greater his identification with hockey, the less the likelihood he will engage in entrepreneurial action.
 - b] The less the player value, the greater the control of the player by coach and management, and

the less the open communication from coach and management to the player, the less a player's entrepreneurial action.

5)

a] The less the individual's entrepreneurial action, the less his self-initiative, and the greater his identification with hockey, as a player, the more likely he will experience a high degree of negative feelings in the first year following his retirement from hockey.

b] The less the individual feels he has achieved his hockey goals, the less the time he considered retirement prior to actual retirement from hockey, and the shorter his hockey career, the more likely he will experience negative feelings.

6) a] The less the individual's entrepreneurial action, the less his self-initiative, and the greater his identification with hockey, as a player, the lower his satisfaction with his first post-hockey job.

b] The less the individual feels he achieved his hockey goals, the lower his satisfaction with his first job.

- 7) a] The less the individual's entrepreneurial action, the less his self-initiative, and the greater his identification with hockey, as a player, the longer it will take him to find a job that really interests him.
- b] The lower the individual's satisfaction with his first job, and the more he experiences a high degree of negative feelings, the longer it will take him to find a job that really interests him.
- 8) a] The less the individual's entrepreneurial action, the less his self-initiative, and the greater his identification with hockey, as a player, the lower his present income.
- b] The less his value as a player, the lower his present income.
- c] The longer it takes the former player to find a job that really interests him, the lower his present income.
- d] The longer the time a former player has been retired from playing professional hockey, the greater his present income.

- e] The lower his present educational level, the lower his present income.
- 9)
- a] The less the individual's entrepreneurial action, the less his self-initiative, and the greater his identification with hockey, as a player, the lower his satisfaction with his present job.
 - b] The longer it takes the former player to find a job that really interests him, the lower his satisfaction with his present job.
 - c] The longer the time a former player has been retired from playing professional hockey, the higher his present job satisfaction.
 - d] The lower his present educational level, the lower his present job satisfaction.
- 10)
- a] The less the individual's entrepreneurial action, the less his self-initiative, and the greater his identification with hockey, as a player, the lower his present life satisfaction.
 - b] The longer it takes the former player to find a job that really interests him, the lower his present life satisfaction.

- c] The longer the time a former player has been retired from playing professional hockey, the higher his present life satisfaction.
- d] The less his present income, and the lower his satisfaction with his present job, the lower his present life satisfaction.

All hypotheses were tested using a series of multiple regression analyses. The results of these analyses are presented in Chapter 6. But first, Chapter 5 discusses the methods employed to gather the data necessary for testing the hypotheses and the operationalization of each variable included in the theoretical model.

CHAPTER FIVE

METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Because the study focused on both active and former players, it was necessary to develop two sampling frames. With regard to the active players, this task was relatively straightforward. Twenty-one questionnaires, together with stamped return envelopes, were sent directly to the player representative for each of the 21 NHL teams. Thus, 441 questionnaires were distributed on the assumption that at least 21 players would be actively involved with one team at any given time. (The approximate total number of active NHL players during the 1985 - 86 season was 515.) The player representative, who acts on behalf of the players on concerns pertaining to the National Hockey League Players' Association, was instructed to distribute the questionnaires to his teammates with the suggestion that he later collect them in envelopes sealed by the respondents and mail them all at one time. The services of the representative were enlisted because his influence could potentially overcome a tendency for active players to

refuse to respond to an unfamiliar, outside agent unless they realized that the project was authorized and supported by someone within their own ranks.

Prior to receiving the questionnaires, each player representative had been encouraged to co-operate with this facet of the study by the NHLPA. Needless to say, his diligence in following through was critical to receiving a strong response from his particular team. However, despite his key position, it was not possible to further encourage his involvement once he had received the questionnaires. To explain, follow-up was precluded for the reason that questionnaires were received at the end of regular season (March - April, 1986) and, in addition to the obvious problem of the dispersion of those teams not making the play-offs, the researcher had agreed not to contact any players from play-off teams so as not to interfere with their concentration on their immediate responsibilities.

Designating the sampling frame for the former players was a considerably more difficult undertaking. Over a period of several months, a list of 1,034 former players was compiled in co-operation with the Players' Association who provided three major sources of names and addresses. These sources were lists comprised of: players who were either eligible or had been potential candidates for NHL

pension benefits; players eligible for the NHLPA benefit plan; and former players who are NHLPA Associate members. Because many players were included in more than one list and two of the lists included players still active, assembling a final list for mail-out was a long and exacting process. As well, several addresses were incomplete or dated and, consequently, NHL clubs were approached for assistance. Several clubs responded by supplying updated addresses thus improving the accuracy of the master list.

Using the following criteria as a base, the list was examined for its representativeness of the overall population of former professional hockey players. On the grounds that the sole justification for being placed on the lengthy list for NHL pension benefits was having played, at the least, one NHL game ensured a cross-section in terms of talent. That is, players who had played a considerable portion of their career in the minors would be included together with those who had spent the majority of their career in the NHL. As well, a random selection of players from the master list revealed a cross-section according to age and year of retirement when checked against statistics in the "National Hockey League's - Official Guide and Record Book - 1985 - 86". For example, within the sampling

frame, the number of players retiring each year progressively increased from 1970 on, reflecting a continuous increase in the number of NHL players since the first of several league expansions beginning in 1967. A final criterion for representativeness was present geographical location. The addresses on the master list showed that these former players now live in a variety of locations. One-third of them live in a large number of American states. Each of the ten Canadian provinces, plus the Northwest Territories, are represented in the remaining two-thirds of the list. The majority of this group was concentrated in Ontario and Quebec, in accord with the larger population of hockey players, and people in general, in these two provinces.

Based on the above criteria, the researcher was satisfied that the sampling frame represented the population of former players. A questionnaire, with a stamped, self-addressed envelope enclosed, was then mailed to each of the 1,034 former players on the master list. This mailout took place during April, 1986, and was followed two weeks later by a blanket mailout of a note reminding all potential respondents to reply.

MEASUREMENT OF THE VARIABLES

Separate questionnaires were designed for active and former players respectively. However, several of the variables relating to the hockey career were measured using the same items for both groups so that a comparison between groups could be made. At the same time, there was one notable difference in the presentation of the items. Former players were asked to respond according to the perceptions they held when an active player and, consequently, the statements measuring these items were posed in the past tense. A word of caution is necessary concerning this method of measurement because it relies on the respondent's memory of past events and feelings and therefore may be prone to inaccuracy. Ideally, a longitudinal study, examining the same group of respondents at two different points in time, first, as actual active players and, later, as former players, would be the preferred approach. However, this was not possible due to time and financial constraints. Thus, the only recourse was to approximate a longitudinal study by asking the former players to recall their pasts.

Understandably, the questionnaire for former players was longer (ten pages) because it also focused on variables

relevant to the retirement, transition and adjustment stages. In contrast, the length of the questionnaire for active players was six pages. All scales and single indicators, with the exception of the scale measuring present life satisfaction and indicators measuring socio-economic variables, were selected and constructed from the grounded theory that emerged from the interviews with the players. Ideally, it would have been desirable to have conducted an extensive pretest of the instruments. However, due to time constraints, pretesting was limited to a review of the questionnaires by two former players who offered feedback on the wording and clarity of the questions.

Composite Measures

After the data were collected, all scales, that were initially designed on theoretical grounds, were factor analyzed using the principal components method and varimax rotation. As well, each scale was tested for reliability using Cronbach's alpha. Items designed to measure different variables were first analyzed as a group to see if they loaded together with the other items intended to measure the same variable. The results of this analysis

showed that, for the most part, the items did group on separate dimensions equivalent to the variables they were designed to measure. However, certain items with low factor loadings(1) or loadings on extraneous dimensions were removed from the scale if, on face validity, there was no reason to retain them. Thus, the number of scale items were reduced and selected by combining theoretical considerations with information derived from an exploratory use of factor analysis.

Scales measuring the following variables: identification with hockey, evaluation of self in relation to non-hockey people, and self-initiative, all consist of the same items for both active and former players. The same was true for two other variables, coach/management control of the player and open communication from coach/management. However, the latter two variables, because they each consist of two items only, do not represent scales but instead summated indices. The first three variables were rated using a Likert scale with five response categories ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. Identification with hockey was measured by five items that examined the following: the

(1) The common minimum level of acceptance is .3.
(Kerlinger, 1979: 186)

overall importance of hockey in their life; the relative number of their friends involved in hockey; and whether or not they had either considered or desired a job not related to hockey. The reliability of this scale was .61 for former players and .58 for active players.

Two sub-dimensions emerged in the analysis of the variable, evaluation of self in relation to non-hockey people. Two items, concerning whether the respondent felt he said the right things to non-hockey people and felt that he clearly understood what they really thought of him, appeared to reflect a level of confidence in a player's relationships with people out of the game. On the other hand, whether a player felt at ease with these people and felt they could be trusted appeared to reflect a level of comfort in these relationships. Despite the tendency of these subsets to load on two factors, they were combined into one scale based on the belief that they represent two components of the variable, evaluation of self. The reliability of this scale was .57 and .54 for former and active players, respectively.

The variable, self-initiative, consisted of six items related to the following concerns: constructive management of time; a feeling of control over most problems; a lack of hesitancy in contacting strangers that may provide

assistance in improving job skills or education; follow through on constructive ideas; self-assuredness; and strength of decision-making. This scale had a reliability of .67 for the former players and .59 for the active players.

Two other variables, also measured by using the same items for both groups, were coach/management control of the player and open communication from coach/management. Both indices consisted of two items, each specifically referring to either the player's relationship with his coach or relationship with management. Questions measuring the degree of coach/management control assessed the input of a player into decisions made by coach and management by asking how often he made a suggestion to either of them that even slightly changed their ideas or plans. An index reliability of .72 was obtained for the former players and .74 was obtained for the active group. Questions measuring open communication asked the player how often the coach or management communicated to him what they honestly believed to be his future with the club. The reliability of this index was .76 for both groups. The two indices above were operationalized by five response categories: very often, often, sometimes, seldom, and never.

Items were also selected for both active and former players for the variable, player value. However, it was not possible to measure this variable using the same items for both groups for the reason that active players responded according to their current situation whereas former players responded by reflecting on their career as a whole which necessarily implied several changes in their situation. Hence, four items were used to assess player value for active players: the nature of their contract (one-way or two-way); annual hockey salary; the number of times they had been sent to the minors; and average amount of ice time relative to their teammates over the past season. This scale produced a .62 reliability. In contrast, former players were assessed on their value as players by two items pertaining to, first, the percentage of their career spent in the minors and, second, taking their career as a whole, a comparison between their average annual income and that of other professional players at the time that they played. The latter item did not ask them to respond by indicating an actual income bracket because comparing players on such a criterion would be meaningless. To explain, the size of a hockey salary is highly dependent on when a player was active. Because salaries have dramatically increased over the years, a player of the same talent would have made a great deal more money if he had

played in the 'eighties' than if he had played in the 'sixties'. As an alternative measurement, respondents were provided with seven response categories ranking their income from 'much higher' to 'much lower' in relation to their contemporaries. Because only two items were included, an index rather than a scale was created, producing a reliability of .65, differing only slightly from that of the active players.

The first of several scales developed for former players only was designed for the variable, entrepreneurial action. The three items selected to measure this variable asked the respondent: if, during his hockey career, he had made a serious effort to learn any information concerning the occupation of any contacts he may have made; whether he had invested in a business enterprise; and, if so, how much he had learned about the operation of this business. The subsequent testing of this scale yielded a .62 reliability.

Four other scales, applicable to former players only, related to the retirement, transition and second career stages. A scale for the variable, negative feelings experienced in the year immediately following retirement, consisted of four response categories measuring the degree of feeling from 'high' to 'not at all'. The thirteen items included in this scale specified the following feelings:

shock; empty; betrayed; frustrated; depressed; fear; lost; confused; bored; angry; forgotten by fans; suspicious of a lot of people; and a sense of loss. A high reliability of .92 was obtained based on the combination of these items.

Two other scales, referring to satisfaction with first job and satisfaction with present job, were identical in design. Measures of reliability were .64 for the former scale and .71 for the latter. Both scales provided five response categories ranging from 'very high' to 'very low' in reference to: commitment to job; satisfaction with salary; and confidence in ability on the job.

A fourth and final scale, reflecting the variable present life satisfaction, was not developed independently by the researcher but instead was acquired from previous studies. Brinkerhoff and Jacob (1986: 160) adopted nine items from the semantic differential scale of Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976) to measure life satisfaction. These same items and format were used in the present study to measure the variable, present life satisfaction. Respondents were asked to mark a position along a continuum of contrasting feelings that best described their present life. The nine contrasting feelings provided were as follows: interesting/boring, happy/sad, empty/full, friendly/lonely, miserable/enjoyable, worthwhile/useless,

disappointing/rewarding, hopeful/discouraging, and brings out the best in me/doesn't give me much of a chance. This scale produced a reliability measure of .94.

Table 5.1 presents a summary of the factor analyses and tests of reliability for each scale and index developed for active players. Scales and indices developed for former players are summarized in Table 5.2. While an attempt was made to rotate each of the scales, only the scale for evaluation of self actually rotated in the final factor analyses, which were performed after unrelated items had been deleted. The rotation of evaluation of self is a reflection of the two sub-dimensions, referred to previously, that emerged in the analysis of the scale constructed for this variable.

Single Indicators

The previous section discussed those variables operationalized by composite measures. All remaining variables included in the central hypotheses were operationalized by single indicators. One of these variables was length of time retirement was considered prior to actual retirement from hockey. Former players responded by specifying in years, months, weeks or days or

TABLE 5.1

SUMMARY OF FACTOR ANALYSES AND RELIABILITY
OF SCALES AND INDICES FOR ACTIVE PLAYERS

Scale name	No. of items	Range of loadings	*No. of respondents	Standardized alpha
Identification with hockey	5	.50 - .68	115	.58
Evaluation of self	4	.39 - .81	115	.54
Self-initiative	6	.31 - .70	113	.59
Coach/management control **	2	-----	114	.74
Coach/management communication **	2	-----	114	.76
Value of player	4	.53 - .86	92	.62

*The number of respondents varies due to the use of listwise deletion for missing cases. That is, a respondent who failed to answer any one item in a scale was eliminated from the analysis in question.

**These variables are summated indices inasmuch as they consist of only two items with identical loadings. For this reason, a range of loadings is not reported.

TABLE 5.2
SUMMARY OF FACTOR ANALYSES AND RELIABILITY
OF SCALES AND INDICES FOR FORMER PLAYERS

Scale name	No. of items	Range of loadings	*No. of respondents	Standardized alpha
Identification with hockey	5	.43 - .74	504	.61
Evaluation of self	4	.46 - .80	500	.57
Self-initiative	6	.42 - .75	505	.67
Coach/management control **	2	-----	505	.72
Coach/management communication **	2	-----	503	.76
Value of player **	2	-----	498	.65
Entrepreneurial action	3	.61 - .95	487	.62
Negative feelings	13	.43 - .82	469	.92
Satisfaction with first job	3	.75 - .78	482	.64
Satisfaction with present job	3	.59 - .71	472	.71
Present life satisfaction	9	.74 - .86	483	.94

*The number of respondents varies due to the use of listwise deletion for missing cases. That is, a respondent who failed to answer any one item in a scale was eliminated from the analysis in question.

**These variables are summated indices inasmuch as they consist of only two items with identical loadings. For this reason, a range of loadings is not reported.

indicating 'never' if it hadn't occurred to them. The data was then recoded into four levels of ranking: 'no time to one month'; 'more than one month to one year'; 'more than one year to two years'; and 'more than two years'. In reference to the variable, achievement of hockey goals, respondents answered 'yes', 'somewhat' or 'no' to whether they felt they had achieved their objectives as a player. Length of time finding an interesting job was measured by one item which stated, "After I quit playing hockey, it took me a long time to realize what type of work really interested me". Four response categories were provided ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'.

Socio-economic variables measured by one indicator were level of education and income. Level of education was coded hierarchically in the following order: grade 1 to 9; some high school; completed high school; completed vocational or technical school; some university; undergraduate degree; some post-graduate; post-graduate degree; some doctorate; and doctorate degree. Present income was measured by respondents checking one of ten income brackets divided into equal intervals of \$10,000 with '\$95,000 and up' at the top end.

ANALYTICAL PROCEDURE

The central hypotheses were tested using a series of multiple regressions which fell in a sequence based, as much as possible, on time order. In effect, a chain of relationships was hypothesized whereby the dependent variable in one model became an independent variable in subsequent models. Degree of association between the independent and dependent variables in each regression was measured by multiple r-squared and F was used to test significance. Betas were examined to compare the relative effects of the independent variables within each model and unstandardized b was used to compare the effects between the two groups of active and former players. Both measures of effect were tested for significance by applying the T test.

Following this analysis, several secondary hypotheses were formulated in an effort to account for the influence of a number of other variables on variables central to the main analysis. The definition and measurement of these variables, the rationale underlying the hypotheses, and tests of the hypothesized relationships, using cross-tabulation, chi-square for tests of significance and gamma to measure degree of association, are all outlined in

Chapter 6 following a presentation of the results of the regression analyses.

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYZING THE DATA

A DESCRIPTION OF THE RESPONDENTS

A total of 1,034 former professional hockey players were mailed questionnaires and 543 were completed and returned. Another 79 questionnaires were returned due to incorrect addresses. Twenty nine of the 543 responses were not included in the final sample because they were received from individuals still playing in either the National Hockey League or other professional leagues, such as a European league, and, consequently, questions pertinent to retirement were left unanswered. Thus the response rate, calculated on the basis that 955 former players presumably received a questionnaire and 514 usable questionnaires were returned, was 54 percent.

In reference to the active players, the response rate was 25 percent based on a return of 115 out of 441 questionnaires mailed. In spite of the relatively smaller return for active players, it is possible that the sample obtained for this group was more representative of the population of active players than the larger sample was in

representing the population of former players. To explain, although the return rate for the former players was quite substantial and generated a large amount of data, there is some concern that the sample is slightly biased in favor of individuals who experienced less difficulty in their transition into another career. In other words, those former players, who may have experienced considerable difficulty, may not have responded being inclined to avoid acknowledgment of any past or present problems. As well, questionnaires returned as a result of dated addresses may represent a more transient group that, in relation to other former players, has had a more difficult time adjusting to a second career.

The drift of comments from many of the respondents also touched on the concern for representativeness. These comments in effect stated that while their life had turned out well, they knew of several individuals that had not been so fortunate. Notwithstanding the possibility of a slight bias, the sample size was large enough to ensure a range in response so that a useful interpretation of the differences could be made.

The assertion that the sample of active players was representative of their own population was made on the following grounds. First, the average annual hockey income

of all respondents was approximately \$150,000, diverging only slightly from the definitive average income of \$158,000. Second, 55 percent of the sample was 25 years or younger in comparison to a 58 percent average calculated overall for the entire rosters of four different NHL teams that played in 1986. And third, responses came from a cross section of teams, both successful and unsuccessful at the time of their response.

Before proceeding with an examination of the regression analyses and cross-tabulations (inferential statistics aimed at generalization), it is important at this point to provide some additional information concerning the samples. Recognizing that one purpose of the study is to compare the two groups of active and former players on certain aspects of their hockey careers, one main difference between samples should be mentioned. The active players, at the time of the survey, were all playing for an NHL team whereas many of the former players, although signed by an NHL team, spent a considerable portion of their career with minor league teams affiliated with the NHL. Slightly over ten percent of the latter group spent their entire career in the minors and 24 percent spent 80 percent or more of their career in the minors. Only ten percent of this group avoided the minors

completely, playing solely in a major league.⁽¹⁾ While it is true that several of the respondents in the active group had spent time in the minors and, no doubt, a certain number would find themselves there in the future, the probability of this group, on the average, spending a larger percentage of their career in the NHL than the group of former players is evident in that 69 percent of the active players had a one-way contract which, if not guaranteeing them an NHL position, at the least ensures them of an equivalent salary and the likelihood of being used in an NHL capacity.

Table 6.1 presents a breakdown on several background characteristics for the sample of former players. The descriptive statistics that are displayed, in addition to broadening the base of information, provide a supplement for understanding the statistical analyses that follow.

Because Table 6.1 is intended to be used mainly as a reference for clarifying the context of the hypothesized relationships to be examined in the following sections, a detailed discussion of its contents will not be given. However, it is important to note that the unemployment rate

(1) Major league, in this instance, may also refer to the now defunct World Hockey Association (WHA) that operated from 1972 to 1979.

TABLE 6.1

BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SURVEY SAMPLE OF FORMER PLAYERS

Prior to Hockey Career			Current Information		
Level of education			Employment		
Completed high school	- 65%	(330)	Employed	- 88%	(454)
College/university degree	- 14	(70)	Unemployed	- 10	(51)
			Retired	- 02	(9)
During Hockey Career			Present income		
Worked in a summer job unrelated to hockey	66%	(337)	Up to \$25,000	- 17%	(76)
			25,001 to 45,000	- 42	(186)
			45,001 to 65,000	- 19	(83)
			65,001 to 85,000	- 09	(40)
Took at least one educational/training course	30%	(152)	85,001 and up	- 13	(55)
Period of Retirement from Hockey			Present level of education		
			Completed high school	- 73%	(373)
			College/university degree	- 22	(113)
Year of retirement			Age at time of survey		
Prior to 1970	- 13%	(65)	23 to 30 years	- 11%	(53)
1970 to 1979	- 49	(248)	31 to 40 years	- 52	(265)
1980 to 1986	- 38	(194)	41 to 50 years	- 21	(104)
			51 years and up	- 16	(84)
Age at retirement			Mother Tongue		
30 years or over	- 56%	(287)	English	- 87%	(439)
25 to 29 years	- 36	(184)	French-Canadian	- 13	(66)
20 to 24 years	- 08	(39)			
Playing in the minors at time of retirement	53%	(274)	Marital status		
Married at time of retirement	89%	(445)	Married	- 89%	(447)
			Never married	- 04	(22)
Employed within one year of retirement	88%	(451)	Divorced, separated, annulled	- 07	(35)

of this sample of former players is not much different from the national average which, assuming that retired hockey players are potentially faced with problems of adjustment specific to their hockey experience, may be a reflection of the possible bias referred to earlier. That is, this suggests that the sample may tend to overrepresent former players who have adjusted relatively well. Nonetheless, as previously indicated, the sample size was large enough to ensure a range in response to items measuring the critical variables, as demonstrated by the results of the regression analyses that follow.

THE REGRESSION ANALYSES

A total of thirteen separate regressions on data collected from active and former players are examined below. The analyses of these regressions have been divided into two parts. The first part presents the results from testing hypothesized relationships between variables that operate during the hockey career. Both active and former players are included in this examination, allowing for a comparison in the patterns of relationships between these two groups. The one exception is the model predicting entrepreneurial action. Active players are excluded from

this analysis as it was not possible to make a fair assessment of their degree of entrepreneurial action because those who are in the initial stages of their hockey career have not had sufficient time to engage in or follow through with potential enterprising activities. Understandably, the second part pertains to the former players only with its focus on the stages of transition and second career.

The selection of independent variables in each of the thirteen regression models that follow was primarily based on theoretical considerations and the subsequent hypotheses that were formulated. However, certain independent variables that had been hypothesized as predictors were removed from some of the regression models, if they were shown to have a low zero order correlation with the dependent variable. Zero order correlations between all variables either included in the central hypotheses or, in the sense of being considered extraneous variables, later added to a regression model are presented in the appendix.

Extraneous variables are those variables that were not included as a predictor for a specific dependent variable in the initial theoretical argument but nonetheless were considered to be potentially influential. Rather than applying statistical techniques to control for their

influence, they were included in the regression equations because the research objective was to explain as much variance as possible in the dependent variables. As well, inclusion of these variables was directed to limiting the degree of specification error that occurs when a relevant variable, that is correlated with the independent variables in the equation, is omitted. As a result of this type of omission, the regression coefficients of the variables in the equation can be distorted.

The method of forced entry was employed to determine the order of entry of variables into each equation. This method enters variables one at a time in order of decreasing tolerance. In effect, this means that the independent variable with the least interdependence with other independent variables in the model will be entered first and the variable with the greatest interdependence will be entered last.

Each regression table presents an R-squared which refers to the percentage of total variance explained in the dependent variable by all independent variables in the model. The F test displays the level of significance of this statistic. As well, regression coefficients are noted for each independent variable, revealing the respective effects of these variables on the dependent variable. The

standardized coefficient, beta, is presented in every table so that the relative effect of one independent variable can be compared with the effects of other variables in the equation. In contrast, the unstandardized b coefficient is reported only for tables that include results for both active and former players, thus allowing for a comparison of the effects of a particular variable between the two groups. That is, beta cannot be used in this manner, but instead is limited to comparing variables within an equation representing a single group. The significance level of each coefficient is indicated by the corresponding T test.

Due to non-response to certain items in the questionnaire, the N's, which refer to number of respondents, vary between regression models. To explain, using the method of listwise deletion, respondents who failed to answer even one item representing any of the variables in the equation were eliminated from the analysis in question.

Regression Models Pertinent
to the Hockey Career

1) Dependent Variable - Identification With Hockey

It was hypothesized that the degree of identification with hockey would be negatively related to level of education prior to the hockey career, based on the premise that those players with a post-secondary education would have developed a greater knowledge of other areas of career interest and "lifestyles" and, as a result, identify with hockey to a lesser degree. A variable extraneous to the central hypotheses, age of the player, was also included in the equation for active players and was presumed to have a positive relationship with the dependent variable because the older the player, the longer the time he has had to identify with hockey. It was not possible to gather data for the former players on this independent variable inasmuch as they are reflecting on their hockey career over time and, consequently, age, during their career, is not a fixed variable.

TABLE 6.2

REGRESSION OF IDENTIFICATION WITH HOCKEY ON
LEVEL OF EDUCATION PRIOR TO HOCKEY CAREER AND AGE

FORMER PLAYERS				ACTIVE PLAYERS		
R-squared = 2%				Multiple R-squared = 6%		
F Test = .0047*** N = 488				F Test = .05* N = 104		
Independent Variables	b	B*	T	b	B*	T
Educational level	-.29	-.13	.0047***	-.47	-.18	.06
Age	---	---	---	-.53	-.14	.15

Levels of statistical significance * < .05, ** < .01,
*** < .005, **** < .001

Table 6.2 reveals that level of education prior to the hockey career has a greater effect on identification with hockey for active players than for former players, as is evident in the comparison of unstandardized regression co-efficients. This may be due to the recent trend toward a higher level of education for players prior to the beginning of their hockey career. Attending university was not considered a viable route into professional hockey until the mid-seventies. Since that time, it has become increasingly accepted as a source of recruitment and, as a result, there are now more players with either some

university courses or a university degree. Thus the difference in effect of education between the two groups implies that level of education is not likely to have much of an effect on identification with hockey unless the player has attended university. Even though education has less of an effect for former players, it has greater statistical significance for this group. This can be explained by its larger sample size.

Age, contrary to the initial conjecture, was found to have a negative, although statistically insignificant, relationship with identification with hockey. This finding suggests that there is a slight tendency for players to identify less with hockey as they mature which perhaps may be related to the increased likelihood of additional interests emerging in their lives, such as family responsibilities.

Neither education nor age explained a high degree of variance in identification with hockey, indicating that other variables prior to their hockey career, such as parental input and degree of involvement in hockey, may have a stronger influence.

2) Dependent Variable - Evaluation of Self in relation to Non-Hockey People

Identification with hockey was hypothesized to have a negative relationship with evaluation of self in relation to non-hockey people based on the assumption that the more a player identifies with hockey, the less awareness and understanding he will have of people out of the game. Two additional indicators that were not included in the central hypotheses were also added to the model because of their potential influence on the dependent variable. First, player value was predicted to have a positive effect in that the opportunity for a player to meet people out of the game may be greater for the player with a more considerable income and reputation. Second, age, once again for the active players only, was included for the reason that maturity in itself could possibly lead to a better understanding of self and others.

An examination of Table 6.3 supports the contention that the greater the degree of identification with hockey, the less the player's level of comfort and confidence in his relations with non-hockey people. The negative

TABLE 6.3

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF EVALUATION OF SELF
IN RELATION TO NON-HOCKEY PEOPLE ON
IDENTIFICATION WITH HOCKEY, PLAYER VALUE AND AGE

FORMER PLAYERS				ACTIVE PLAYERS		
Multiple R-squared = 8%				Multiple R-squared = 17%		
F Test = -.0000**** N = 484				F Test = .0012*** N = 88		
Independent Variables	b	B*	T	b	B*	T
Identification with hockey	-.2	-.27	.0000****	-.24	-.34	.0014***
Player Value	.03	.05	.2724	.06	.16	.1858
Age	---	---	----	.2	.07	.5582

Levels of statistical significance *** < .005, **** < .001

relationship is significant for both groups with only a slight difference in the effect of this independent variable between groups. The impact of player value, though slightly greater for active players, is positive but small. No support was given to the idea that age greatly improves a player's evaluation of himself in relation to others.

3) Dependent Variable - Self-Initiative

Two variables were hypothesized to be primary predictors of the degree of self-initiative of a player. Evaluation of self was predicted to have a positive effect based on the belief that the player who was inclined to be more comfortable and confident in his relationships with non-hockey people would have a higher degree of self-initiative in matters that did not relate to hockey. Conversely, identification with hockey was hypothesized to have a negative relationship with self-initiative. Other extraneous variables added to the model were player value, predicted to have a positive relationship based on the premise that a larger income may facilitate a more enterprising attitude, and two variables related to management and coach. One of the latter variables, management and coach control of the player, was predicted to have a negative relationship because a high degree of control might deter independent thought and action. However, this variable was not included in the model for active players by virtue of its weak zero order correlation with the dependent variable for this particular group of players. The degree of open communication from management and coach to player was included for both groups on the grounds that honest communication would decrease a player's

doubts concerning his hockey future and thereby allow him to be more assertive in other areas.

TABLE 6.4

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF SELF-INITIATIVE ON
EVALUATION OF SELF, IDENTIFICATION WITH HOCKEY,
PLAYER VALUE, MANAGEMENT/COACH CONTROL AND
OPEN COMMUNICATION FROM MANAGEMENT/COACH

FORMER PLAYERS

Multiple R-squared = 24%
F Test = -.0000**** N = 474

ACTIVE PLAYERS

Multiple R-squared = 17%
F Test = .0026*** N = 92

Independent Variable	b	B*	T	b	B*	T
Evaluation of self	.63	.43	.0000****	.2	.14	.2076
Identification with hockey	.03	.03	.4364	-.22	-.21	.0477*
Player value	.05	.06	.1441	.05	.09	.3767
Management/coach control	-.21	-.08	.0698	---	---	----
Management/coach communication	.29	.12	.0086**	.4	.22	.0315*

Levels of statistical significance * < .05, ** < .01, *** < .005, **** < .001

The total amount of variance explained in the dependent variable, self-initiative, is greater for the

group of former players, likely a result of the strong positive effect of evaluation of self in relation to non-hockey people on self-initiative. The findings for the active group are considerably different. Identification with hockey and open communication are the most important predictors, having negative and positive effects, respectively. With the group of former players, variables other than evaluation of self have a weak to negligible effect. Nevertheless, identification with hockey is an important factor in this analysis for the former players inasmuch as it has an indirect effect on the dependent variable through its influence on the prime predictor, evaluation of self.

It is possible that the different findings for the active group, specifically those that showed identification with hockey to have a strong effect, instead of evaluation of self, may possibly be due to measurement error. To explain, the questionnaire for the active players provided a response category, 'don't know', falling between the 'agree' and 'disagree' categories, for most of the variables included in the above model. In contrast, the former players were provided with 'agree sometimes' in this middle position. In the active group, the variable, evaluation of self, had a much higher percentage of 'don't

know' responses than did other variables in this model. This finding may imply that, if they don't know whether they are confident or comfortable in their relationships with people out of the game, they should rank low on this variable rather than in the middle position. If this is the case, then it is apparent that the measurement of evaluation of self was unreliable and that, if measured more accurately, it might have been a stronger predictor.

4) Dependent Variable - Entrepreneurial Action

Self-initiative and player value were expected to have the most direct influence on entrepreneurial action for the group of former players on the assumption that self-initiative would increase the probability of a player taking affirmative action to learn about other occupations either by investing or making contacts in other businesses. And, at the same time, player value would likely increase a player's opportunity to make both investments and contacts due to greater financial resources and higher prestige. Identification with hockey, evaluation of self, management control and management communication were also entered into the model in order to estimate the degree of their direct effect on entrepreneurial action in addition to what may be

interpreted as their indirect effect through variables such as self-initiative.

TABLE 6.5

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTION ON
SELF-INITIATIVE, IDENTIFICATION WITH HOCKEY, PLAYER VALUE,
EVALUATION OF SELF, MANAGEMENT/COACH CONTROL
AND OPEN COMMUNICATION FROM COACH/MANAGEMENT

FORMER PLAYERS

Multiple R-squared = 18% F = -.0000**** N = 456

Independent Variable	Beta	T test
<hr/>		
Self-initiative	.24	.0000****
Identification with hockey	-.09	.0452*
Player value	.27	.0000****
Evaluation of self	.06	.2214
Management/coach control	-.06	.2138
Open communication from coach/management	.06	.1835

Levels of statistical significance * < .05, **** < .001

Table 6.5 indicates that three variables are statistically significant. Self-initiative and player

value are the two most important variables with a positive influence on entrepreneurial action. The remaining variables have little direct effect but, nonetheless, it is important not to discount the indirect effect of the two variables, identification with hockey and evaluation of self.

Regression Models Focusing on the Stages of Transition and Second Career

1) Dependent Variable - Negative Feelings after Retirement

Several variables, operative during the hockey career, were believed to influence the degree of negative feelings experienced by a player within one year after retirement from hockey. These hypothesized relationships provide the first link between the hockey career and the transition stage.

The independent variables included identification with hockey, self-initiative and entrepreneurial action together with variables reflecting the player's predisposition to retirement: length of hockey career, achievement of hockey goals and length of time retirement was considered prior to actual retirement from hockey. An additional variable,

relating to the player's first job after retirement, was later added to the model based on the finding that 88 percent of the respondents were employed within the first year after retirement. This variable, satisfaction with first job, was predicted to have a negative relationship with the dependent variable.

This extensive model was subsequently trimmed prior to the final regression analysis. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 6.6. The variable, length of hockey career, was removed as a result of its low zero order correlation with negative feelings. And a second variable, entrepreneurial action, was also removed, following the examination of the initial regression run, which revealed that this variable had a negligible impact on negative feelings in spite of a $-.24$ zero order correlation with this dependent variable. One possible explanation for this finding may be that this zero order correlation is a reflection of the influence of self-initiative on entrepreneurial action. In other words, the relationship between entrepreneurial action and negative feelings rests solely on the variance shared between entrepreneurial action and self-initiative. This variance was attributed to the latter variable because it was a stronger predictor of negative feelings thus

nullifying the effect of entrepreneurial action. The other major source of influence on entrepreneurial action, player value, had only a slight correlation with negative

TABLE 6.6

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF NEGATIVE FEELINGS ON
IDENTIFICATION WITH HOCKEY, SELF-INITIATIVE, LENGTH OF TIME
RETIREMENT WAS CONSIDERED, ACHIEVEMENT OF HOCKEY GOALS
AND SATISFACTION WITH FIRST JOB

FORMER PLAYERS

Multiple R-squared = 43% F = -.0000**** N = 427

Independent Variable	Beta	T test
Satisfaction with first job	-.25	.0000****
Length of time retirement considered	-.17	.0000****
Achievement of hockey goals	-.19	.0000****
Self-initiative	-.22	.0000****
Identification with hockey	.29	.0000****

Levels of statistical significance **** < .001

feelings, indicating that the value of the player had little bearing on whether the individual experienced negative feelings after retirement. This explains why the association between entrepreneurial action and negative feelings may be limited to the influence of self-initiative.

Forty three percent of the variance in negative feelings was explained by the independent variables in this model and all variables were statistically significant to a high degree. Identification with hockey had the strongest effect, indicating that the greater the identification with hockey, the greater the negative feelings on retirement. In descending order of importance, satisfaction with first job, self-initiative, achievement of hockey goals and length of time retirement was considered prior to actual retirement were also significantly related to the independent variable. It is interesting to observe that, even though a player may have been mentally prepared for retirement in the sense that he felt he had achieved his goals in hockey and had considered retirement in advance, the other variables, notably identification with hockey, had a stronger effect above and beyond the influence of these variables.

2) Dependent Variable - Satisfaction with first job

The variables hypothesized to have the most influence on satisfaction with first job were identification with hockey, self-initiative, entrepreneurial action and achievement of hockey goals. Identification with hockey was subsequently removed because the hypothesized relationship between this variable and the dependent variable was not supported by their zero order correlation. This would indicate that the significance of identification with hockey is limited to an indirect effect on the variable, job satisfaction, by virtue of occupying the initial position in a series of relationships operative during the hockey career.

Of the remaining variables, self-initiative and entrepreneurial action were anticipated to have a positive effect in that a player ranking high on these variables would likely be more aware of the nature of job alternatives and, therefore, more likely to select a job suitable to him. Achievement of hockey goals was included on the assumption that a player would be more satisfied with his first job after retirement if he was not dwelling on past frustrations or failures.

TABLE 6.7

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF SATISFACTION WITH FIRST JOB ON
ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTION, SELF-INITIATIVE AND ACHIEVEMENT
OF HOCKEY GOALS

FORMER PLAYERS

Multiple R-squared = 17% F = -.0000**** N = 444

Independent Variable	Beta	T test
Entrepreneurial action	.16	.0005****
Self-initiative	.27	.0000****
Achievement of hockey goals	.13	.0045***

Levels of statistical significance *** < .005, **** < .0000

The above results support the final hypotheses since all independent variables are shown to have a positive effect on the dependent variable. Self-initiative emerged as the strongest indicator. Considering that it was measured within the context of the hockey career, this finding suggests that it is a pervasive characteristic that continues to be an influential factor after retirement.

3) Dependent Variable - Length of time finding an interesting job

The length of time it took the individual to find a job that really interested him was presumed to depend mainly on five variables, three of which were associated with the hockey career. Of these variables, identification with hockey was expected to have a positive relationship with the dependent variable whereas self-initiative and entrepreneurial action were expected to have a negative influence. The two remaining variables, measured after retirement, were satisfaction with first job and negative feelings. It would be reasonable to assume that job satisfaction in the transition stage would be inversely related to the length of time it took to find an interesting job. In contrast, the variable, negative feelings, was predicted to have a positive relationship with the dependent variable because it is possible that many of the negative feelings experienced after retirement may be partly a reflection of the individual lacking a specific or strong interest in another line of work.

TABLE 6.8

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF LENGTH OF TIME FINDING AN INTERESTING JOB
ON IDENTIFICATION WITH HOCKEY, SELF-INITIATIVE, ENTREPRENEURIAL
ACTION, NEGATIVE FEELINGS AND SATISFACTION WITH FIRST JOB

FORMER PLAYERS		
Multiple R-squared = 23%	F = -.0000****	N = 407

Independent Variable	Beta	T test

Identification with hockey	.07	.1495
Self-initiative	-.05	.3661
Entrepreneurial action	-.08	.0827
Negative feelings	.28	.0000****
Satisfaction with first job	-.20	.0001****

Levels of statistical significance **** < .001

The findings in Table 6.8 substantiate the direction of relationships specified in the hypothesis. However, only two variables, negative feelings and satisfaction with first job, appear to have any appreciable effect. At the same time, the influence of the three variables measured in

connection with the hockey career should not be overlooked in the sense that they are highly correlated with the two strong predictors which appear closer, in terms of time, to the dependent variable. Therefore, they do have an important, but indirect, effect that is not revealed in the above table.

4) Dependent Variable - Present Income

The initial hypothesis explaining present income accounted for seven independent variables. These variables were player value, self-initiative, entrepreneurial action, identification with hockey, length of time finding an interesting job, number of years retired from hockey and present educational level. However, the latter variable was not included in the final regression model because of its low zero order correlation with the dependent variable. One explanation for the statistical insignificance of education may be that some individuals who do pursue a higher education enrol in courses that are either unsuitable or of little lasting interest to them due to a limited knowledge of the nature and requirements of careers other than hockey. Another explanation may be that many of the respondents are currently involved in their own

business and, risk notwithstanding, they do have the potential to make considerable profits by learning on the job and foregoing formal training.

Player value was hypothesized to have a positive relationship with present income mainly because financial resources allow the individual to establish himself in a business with less of a debt load and, as well, to possibly generate additional income from side investments. Self-initiative and entrepreneurial action during the hockey career were also considered to have a positive effect because, in spite of the number of variables that may have intervened between the hockey career and the time of the survey, they can be regarded as qualities that may persist over time. Identification with hockey and length of time finding an interesting job were hypothesized to have a negative relationship with income on the basis that advancement in another career is likely to be inhibited for a player scoring high on either of these variables. And finally, the variable, number of years retired from hockey, was expected to be positively correlated with the dependent variable. That is, the longer the time that has passed since the hockey career, the more time the individual has had to advance his occupational position.

TABLE 6.9

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF INCOME
ON PLAYER VALUE, IDENTIFICATION WITH HOCKEY, SELF-INITIATIVE,
ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTION AND LENGTH OF TIME FINDING AN INTERESTING JOB
AND NUMBER OF YEARS RETIRED

FORMER PLAYERS

Multiple R-squared = 17% F = -.0000**** N = 395

Independent Variable	Beta	T test
Player value	.17	.0005****
Identification with hockey	-.09	.05*
Self-initiative	.13	.0072**
Entrepreneurial action	.13	.0107*
Time finding an interesting job	-.13	.0121*
Years retired	.08	.0841

Levels of statistical significance * < .05, ** < .01, **** < .001

An examination of Table 6.9 shows that only seventeen percent of the variance in income was explained by this model and that the effects of each variable are relatively

smaller than those considered relevant in previous models. Nonetheless, the model does support the direction of the relationships hypothesized and all but one variable is statistically significant at the .05 level or lower. With particular regard to the variables pertaining to the hockey career, this significance can also be considered substantively meaningful in light of the fact that, for many of the respondents, several years had passed since their hockey career. It would be natural to expect that, with the passage of time, the effect of hockey variables would be weakened and that many unknown events and circumstances would have a more direct influence on their level of income.

5) Dependent Variable - Satisfaction with present job

The original hypothesis specified six variables believed to influence satisfaction with present job. These variables were: identification with hockey, self-initiative, entrepreneurial action, number of years retired from hockey, length of time finding an interesting job and level of education. Three variables, educational level, identification with hockey and entrepreneurial action, were subsequently removed from the model due to

their weak correlation with the dependent variable. The same explanation given for the minimal effect of education in the previous post-retirement model may apply in this instance. However, the weak correlation of identification with hockey should not undermine the importance of its indirect effect on satisfaction with present job through its relationship with self-initiative and length of time finding an interesting job.

The zero order correlation between self-initiative and the dependent variable was statistically significant, once again indicating that it is a lasting quality and suggesting that an individual ranking high on this variable would be more likely to aggressively seek out a job that was both appealing and suitable to him. Length of time finding an interesting job was included with the expectation that it would have a negative effect on job satisfaction because taking a long time to find an interesting job implies a lack of direction that may persist over time. The third variable in the model, number of years retired, was hypothesized to have a positive relationship with the dependent variable because, the longer a player is retired, the longer he has had to define a new area of interest and, as well, the more willing he may be to lower his expectations and accept or overlook

certain conditions that initially were not agreeable to him.

TABLE 6.10

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF SATISFACTION WITH PRESENT JOB ON
SELF-INITIATIVE, LENGTH OF TIME FINDING AN INTERESTING JOB
AND NUMBER OF YEARS RETIRED

Multiple R-squared = 11%	F = -.0000****	N = 451
<hr/>		
Independent Variable	Beta	T test
<hr/>		
Self-initiative	.19	.0001****
Time finding an interesting job	-.18	.0002****
Years retired	.11	.0213*

Levels of statistical significance * < .05, **** < .001

The three independent variables in Table 6.10 do not explain a high percentage of variance (11%) in the dependent variable, implying that other unmeasured variables more proximate to the dependent variable may have a greater influence. All the same, the effect of each variable is statistically significant. The number of years

retired is the least significant, which may signify that dissatisfaction with a job can be somewhat of a lasting problem that is not always alleviated by the passage of time.

The percentage of variance explained would likely have been significantly higher if income had been included as an independent variable. However, it was omitted because satisfaction with income was one of the items in the scale measuring job satisfaction and therefore an association between the two variables would be neither surprising nor enlightening.

6) Dependent Variable - Present Life Satisfaction

Self-initiative, entrepreneurial action, identification with hockey, length of time finding an interesting job, and number of years since retirement were all hypothesized to affect present life satisfaction. Self-initiative and entrepreneurial action were predicted to have a positive relationship with the dependent variable because they infer that the individual would have more input into decisions affecting his life. Two variables, predicted to have a negative relationship, were identification with hockey, in that a high score on this

variable would suggest that the individual would have a more difficult time reconciling the end of his hockey career, and length of time finding an interesting job for the same reason given to explain its hypothesized relationship with present job satisfaction. This explanation indicates that there may be a tendency for problems in this area to persist. A positive relationship was predicted for the number of years that had passed since retirement, again based on the same rationale given to justify its inclusion in the model predicting present job satisfaction. In addition, two other variables, income and job satisfaction, were hypothesized to have a positive influence on the dependent variable.

The findings in Table 6.11 show that satisfaction with present job is a strong positive indicator of present life satisfaction, thereby emphasizing the important role work plays in the overall life satisfaction of the individual. The findings also support the hypotheses that

TABLE 6.11

MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF PRESENT LIFE SATISFACTION ON
INCOME, PRESENT JOB SATISFACTION, IDENTIFICATION WITH HOCKEY,
SELF-INITIATIVE, ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTION, NUMBER OF YEARS RETIRED
AND LENGTH OF TIME FINDING AN INTERESTING JOB

FORMER PLAYERS

Multiple R-squared = 38%

F = -.0000****

N = 374

Independent Variable	Beta	T test
Present job satisfaction	.45	.0000****
Income	.07	.1652
Identification with hockey	-.07	.1298
Self-initiative	.14	.0023***
Entrepreneurial action	- - -	.9617
Number of years retired	- - -	.8818
Time finding an interesting job	-.16	.0003****

Levels of statistical significance *** < .005, **** < .001

self-initiative and length of time finding an interesting job would have a positive and negative effect, respectively, on the dependent variable. However, little to no support was given for the prediction that income,

number of years retired, identification with hockey and entrepreneurial action would have some direct influence on present life satisfaction.

Summary of the Regression Analyses

An overview of the foregoing reveals a sequence of relationships that begins during the hockey career, continues into the transition stage and ends with current adjustment issues in the stage of the second career.

Stage 1 - The Hockey Career

The first principal variable in the sequence, identification with hockey, was discovered to decrease somewhat with age and to be slightly less for those players who had advanced their education prior to their hockey career. While the findings support the hypothesized relationship between education and identification with hockey, they run contrary to the hypothesized relationship between age, which was introduced as an extraneous variable, and the dependent variable. That is, identification with hockey decreased, rather than increased, as the player matured. In the second regression

analysis, a stronger relationship emerged. Identification with hockey had a negative effect on evaluation of self in relation to non-hockey people for both the active and former players. In this instance, the extraneous variables, age and value of player, had a weak to negligible effect on the dependent variable.

A difference emerged between the two groups in the important predictors of self-initiative. Evaluation of self was the strong independent variable for the former players, having a positive effect on the dependent variable, whereas identification with hockey and, in this instance, the extraneous variable, open communication from coach and management, with negative and positive effects, respectively, were important predictors for the group of active players. The disparity between groups may be due to the measurement problem previously discussed for evaluation of self with regard to the latter group. Nevertheless, the results are not so dissimilar between groups if one considers that identification with hockey had an indirect effect for the group of former players, through evaluation of self.

A further comment is necessary concerning the role of the variable, open communication from coach and management. This variable was initially hypothesized to be one of the

main predictors of entrepreneurial action, whereas, in the model predicting self-initiative, it was not considered to be of central importance and therefore was included as an extraneous variable. However, the results showed that it had more of an effect on the latter dependent variable. That is, open communication from coach and management was the most important predictor of self-initiative for the group of active players, and was also statistically significant for the group of former players. The important point is that the impact of open communication on self-initiative and, to a lesser degree, entrepreneurial action suggests that organizational behavior, as expressed by coach and management, has the potential to influence not only a player's hockey career but, as well, his tendency to prepare himself for a second career.

Entrepreneurial action was measured only for the former players because a fair assessment of this variable could not be made for those active players in the early stages of their hockey career. Self-initiative and player value were the important predictors for entrepreneurial action, each having a positive direct effect. Once again, the indirect effect of identification with hockey and, in this case, evaluation of self, should be recognized.

Stage 2 - Transition

The independent variables in the first model connecting the hockey career to post-hockey adjustment variables explained more variance in the dependent variable (43%) than was explained in any other regression model. The dependent variable in this model was negative feelings experienced in the first year following retirement. Identification with hockey had a highly significant direct, positive relationship with the post-hockey variable, negative feelings, followed in order of importance by the negative, or inverse, relationships of satisfaction with first job and self-initiative. These findings support one of the major premises underlying the theoretical argument. That is, a strong identification with hockey indicates a higher probability of experiencing emotional difficulties after retirement. But however, these emotional difficulties can be alleviated if the individual acquires a satisfying job at this point in time. Variables measuring the player's mental predisposition to retirement, achievement of hockey goals and length of time retirement was considered prior to actual retirement, also had an inverse relationship with the dependent variable, negative feelings. However, length of career, the third variable initially selected to reflect the concept of

predisposition, was shown to have little bearing on this dependent variable and, therefore, was excluded from the model.

Self-initiative during the hockey career had the most substantial effect on satisfaction with first job, accompanied by the more moderate positive effects of entrepreneurial action and achievement of hockey goals. The variable, negative feelings, was the most significant predictor for the length of time it took the player to find a job that really interested him. That is, the greater the negative feelings, the longer the time finding such a job. This finding reinforces the belief that negative feelings, in part, reflect a frustration with a lack of direction concerning a second career. Not surprisingly, satisfaction with first job was also relevant, with an inverse relationship with this dependent variable. Again, the strong correlations of identification with hockey and self-initiative with the major independent variables in this model draw attention to the indirect effect of these hockey variables on length of time finding an interesting job.

Stage 3 - The Second Career

Player value, self-initiative, and entrepreneurial action had relatively small but statistically significant positive effects on the present income of the individual, whereas length of time finding an interesting job had a small negative effect. The lack of a strong association between the independent variables and dependent variable in the model was understandable due to the probability that more recent variables would have a more important direct influence on income. These variables were not measured either because they were unknown or because of restrictions imposed by the limits of the study. One surprising finding was that level of education was neither significantly correlated with income nor satisfaction with present job. Instead, the important predictors for the latter variable were self-initiative, with a positive correlation, and length of time finding an interesting job, with a negative correlation.

The influence of self-initiative during the hockey career draws attention to the strength of this characteristic as it continues to affect adjustment variables over time. And the discovery that the variable, length of time finding an interesting job, was inversely related to present job satisfaction indicates that the

problem of finding an interesting job can become a persistent one.

In the final regression, satisfaction with present job was discovered to be the critical factor in positively influencing present life satisfaction. While this points to the important role of work in determining an individual's life satisfaction, it is interesting to note that size of income had no significant bearing on this adjustment variable. Self-initiative and time finding an interesting job also had direct but moderate positive and negative effects, respectively, over and above their indirect effects through job satisfaction. No relationship was found between life satisfaction and number of years retired, indicating that time does not necessarily improve the individual's perception of his life conditions.

SUPPLEMENTARY FINDINGS USING CROSS-TABULATION

A number of other variables not incorporated into the regression analyses are examined in this section for their potential influence on the principal variables in the study. Cross-tabulation was used to test a series of secondary hypotheses focusing on the following variables

which were measured dichotomously: job experience and course completion during the hockey career; the significance of working in a hockey-related occupation after retirement from playing; and the influence of voluntary versus involuntary retirement from hockey on post-hockey adjustment. The decision to use cross-tabulation, together with chi-square to measure statistical significance and gamma to measure degree of association, was made on the grounds that it would simplify the interpretation of relationships involving dichotomous variables.

Testing of Secondary Hypotheses

The first two variables, job experience and course completion, tap an important dimension by examining whether or not a player has taken practical steps, during his hockey career, to prepare himself for another career. In the regression analyses, the variable that touched on this dimension was degree of entrepreneurial action. However, a more thorough examination of the impact of preparation is necessary to broaden an understanding of this issue. Unfortunately, it was not possible to devise a measurement of job experience and course completion more precise than

whether they simply worked or not or took a course or not during their hockey career. Because responses were either irregular or vague, the number and length of jobs and the number of courses could not be determined with any degree of certainty.

Hypothesis 1 - If a player has worked at a job unrelated to hockey during the course of his career, he will rank: lower on identification with hockey; higher on evaluation of self in relation to non-hockey people; higher on self-initiative; higher on satisfaction with first job after retirement from playing; and lower on the length of time it takes him to find a job that really interests him.

Both active and former players were tested on these variables with the exception of the latter two which applied to the former players only. Not one component of the hypothesis was supported by the findings for either group. An explanation for the lack of statistical significance of the independent variable, work, on the dependent variables may be based on several factors. Possibly, some players do not tend to seek out jobs for the purpose of developing skills useful to a second career, but rather for the purpose of either keeping themselves occupied during the summers or, in the case of a physical

job, maintaining a certain level of fitness in anticipation of training camp prior to the hockey season. Alternatively, players who do select a job based on the advantages it may offer him for a second career may find that the length of time on the job is too short to have a significant impact. Or they may find that commitment to the job is difficult to maintain because of its temporary nature and, consequently, the return, in terms of valuable experience, is less for the individual.

Hypothesis 2 - If a player takes a training or academic course during his hockey career, each of the same dependent variables included in Hypothesis 1 will be affected in the same manner as was predicted for the independent variable, work.

In contrast to Hypothesis 1, support was given to most of the relationships predicted in Hypothesis 2. For the group of former players, having taken a course was negatively related to identification with hockey and positively

related to evaluation of self and self-initiative. All of these relationships were significant under the .05 level. The results of the cross-tabulation of these variables are presented in Tables 6.12 through 6.14.

TABLE 6.12

Distribution of level of identification with hockey during the hockey career, in relation to having taken a course or not during the hockey career, for the sample of former players.

IDENTIFICATION WITH HOCKEY	COURSES TAKEN			
	None		One or more	
Low	25.4%	(90)	36.5%	(50)
Medium	39.8	(146)	37.2	(51)
High	35.7	(131)	26.3	(36)
100% =		(367)	(137)	

Missing = 10 Chi-square significance = .0185*
 Level of statistical significance * <.05 Gamma = -.22

TABLE 6.13

Distribution of level of ability to evaluate self in relation to non-hockey people during the hockey career, by having taken a course or not during the hockey career, a course or not during the hockey career, for the sample of former players.

EVALUATION OF SELF	COURSES TAKEN			
	None		One or more	
Low	41.9%	(153)	29.6%	(40)
Medium	29.9	(109)	33.3	(45)
High	28.2	(103)	37.0	(50)
100% =		(365)		(135)

Missing = 14 Chi-square significance = .0343*
 Level of statistical significance * < .05 Gamma = .21

TABLE 6.14

Distribution of level of self-initiative during the hockey career, in relation to having taken a course or not during the hockey career, for the sample of former players.

SELF-INITIATIVE	COURSES TAKEN			
	None		One or more	
Low	39.6%	(146)	23.5%	(32)
Medium	34.4	(127)	39.7	(54)
High	26.0	(96)	36.8	(50)
100% =		(369)		(136)

Missing = 9 Chi-square significance = .0025***
 Level of statistical significance *** < .005 Gamma = .27

Having taken a course had only a slight positive relationship with satisfaction with first job and no effect on length of time finding an interesting job. An examination of the active players, in relation to the effect of the independent variable, course, on the first three variables relating to the hockey career, did not uncover correlations as significant as those of the former players. Having taken a course did have a negative effect on identification with hockey and a positive effect on self-initiative but only under the .2 level of significance. The reason for the weaker association may be due to the possibility that several of the active players are yet to take courses, not having had as much time as the former players to act on this issue.

One may ask why taking a course would be more relevant to those variables affecting adjustment after hockey than the work variable. One explanation may be that the player's motives for taking courses tend to be more consciously directed toward preparation for a second career than his motives for finding temporary work.

Hypothesis 3 - If a player's first job after retirement is related to hockey, he will rank: higher on satisfaction with first job; lower on negative feelings in the first

year after retirement; and lower on length of time finding an interesting job.

A hockey-related job included the following occupations: managing or coaching at a professional or amateur level; refereeing; acting as a player's agent; managing a hockey school; and scouting or working in any other capacity with a hockey club. Respondents whose present job was related to hockey made up only eleven percent of the sample of former players and a small percentage of this minority worked in any sort of major position at the professional level, such as coach or general manager of an NHL club. It would be reasonable to believe that a larger percentage of players would actually desire a job in hockey because of their knowledge and love of the game. However, it is possible that there are simply not enough of these types of jobs available for the number of qualified candidates. In spite of the small proportion of former players presently working in hockey, the question of whether or not adjustment is easier for the player who works in a hockey-related job is important because it may prove to be the exception to one of the major premises of this study which contends that a strong identification with hockey will aggravate problems of adjustment to a second career. In other words, a strong identification with

hockey should not impede adjustment if the player continues to work in a hockey career. In this context, working in hockey can be considered an intervening variable.

The findings supported a strong positive relationship between working in a hockey job and satisfaction with first job. Reasonably strong support was given to a negative relationship between hockey job and length of time finding an interesting job and only slight support was given to a negative relationship between hockey job and negative feelings after retirement. These relationships are presented in Tables 6.15, 6.16 and 6.17 below.

TABLE 6.15

Distribution of level of satisfaction with first post-hockey job, in relation to whether or not this job was related to hockey, for the sample of former players.

SATISFACTION WITH FIRST JOB	NATURE OF FIRST JOB AFTER RETIREMENT FROM PLAYING			
	Non-hockey		Hockey	
Low	40.0%	(161)	8.5%	(6)
Medium	34.6	(139)	42.3	(30)
High	25.4	(102)	49.3	(35)
	100% =	(402)		(71)

Missing = 41 Chi-square significance = .0000****
Level of statistical significance **** < .001 Gamma = .55

TABLE 6.16

Distribution of length of time finding an interesting job, in relation to whether or not first post-hockey job was related to hockey, for the sample of former players.

TIME FINDING AN INTERESTING JOB	NATURE OF FIRST JOB AFTER RETIREMENT FROM PLAYING			
	Non-hockey		Hockey	
Not a long time	52.1%	(210)	66.2%	(47)
A long time	47.9	(193)	33.8	(24)
100% =	(403)		(71)	

Missing = 40 Chi-square significance = .0387*
 Level of statistical significance * < .05 Gamma = -.29

TABLE 6.17

Distribution of level of negative feelings experienced within the first year following retirement from professional play, in relation to whether or not first post-hockey job was related to hockey, for the sample of former players.

NEGATIVE FEELINGS	NATURE OF FIRST JOB AFTER RETIREMENT FROM PLAYING			
	Non-hockey		Hockey	
Low	32.4%	(122)	30.8%	(20)
Medium	33.2	(125)	44.6	(29)
High	34.5	(130)	24.6	(16)
100% =	(377)		(65)	

Missing = 72 Chi-square significance = .1520
 Gamma = -.08

The direction of the relationships, showing hockey job to have a favorable effect on job satisfaction and time finding an interesting job in Tables 6.15 and 6.16, is straightforward. However, this is not the case for the dependent variable, negative feelings. Table 6.17 demonstrates that having a hockey job implies that the individual is less likely to experience negative feelings of high intensity, but is more likely to experience negative feelings of medium intensity. And, whether he has a hockey job or not, is insignificant at the low end of the scale of feelings. Thus the relationships between variables is not so clear-cut and, therefore, statistically less significant than the other two factors. The interesting point is that the individual with a hockey job is not exempt from experiencing negative feelings even though these feelings may tend to be somewhat less intense than those of the individual in a non-hockey job. It may be, that while relatively satisfied with working in hockey, he still is anxious and uncertain about his future or likelihood of advancement in a hockey related career. The percentage of respondents employed in a major NHL hockey position in their present job was only 1.8 percent, suggesting that opportunities for advancement are limited.

To further examine whether some hockey related careers may be inclined to become frustrated, the relationship between the nature of their present job and present life satisfaction was tested. The results showed that this relationship was statistically insignificant, indicating that those currently working in hockey may be less certain of the merits of their present position.

Hypothesis 4 - Those players who retired voluntarily from playing hockey will rank: lower on negative feelings; lower on length of time finding an interesting job; and higher on satisfaction with first job.

The rationale underlying this hypothesis contends that the individual who retires voluntarily will reconcile his break from professional hockey more easily than the individual who retires involuntarily. This implies that the former will be less troubled with ill-feelings toward his past and be more prepared to take on a new challenge. However, in the course of testing this assumption, it became apparent that the task of distinguishing between voluntary and involuntary retirement was not a simple one. Two questions pertaining to this issue were presented to the respondents. One question asked, who was most responsible for your retirement decision, you or someone

else? The second question asked them to note the main reason for their retirement.

In answer to the first question, 70 percent of the respondents claimed that retirement was their own decision. However, an analysis of the responses to the second question raised some doubt as to whether this was a true representation of players who actually retired on their own volition in the sense that they were in full control of the decision. Of the several reasons given for retirement, two could be classified as involuntary with some degree of certainty. These reasons were injury and contract not renewed, making up 34 percent of the sample. However, two additional reasons, age and frustration with playing in the minors, as opposed to the National Hockey League, were more ambiguous in terms of classification because, even though the player may have had some input into the final decision when retiring for these reasons, they were due to circumstances beyond his control and, therefore, may also be considered involuntary. If these two latter reasons are classified as such, then the percentage of players who left the game willingly drops from 70 to 38 percent.

Because classification of the independent variable was problematic, the decision was made to test its relationship with the dependent variables using two separate

definitions. The first definition was based on their response to the question concerning whether or not they felt their retirement decision was their own. The second definition classified the four reasons specified above: injury; contract not renewed; age; and frustration with the minors, as involuntary, and the remaining reasons given by the balance of the respondents: dissatisfaction with the system; lack of security; loss of desire; and opportunity to pursue another job or occupational interest, as voluntary.

The use of two definitions meant that two models were required for the analysis. The findings for Model 1, using the first definition, demonstrated that voluntary retirement had a high statistically significant inverse relationship with negative feelings. In addition, it had a reasonably strong negative effect on length of time needed to find an interesting job (significance level .01) and a mild positive effect on satisfaction with first job (significance level .17). On the other hand, Model 2, using the second definition, was statistically significant only with negative feelings. A comparison of the effect on negative feelings, using the two different models, is presented in Table 6.18.

TABLE 6.18

Two distributions of level of negative feelings experienced within the first year following retirement from professional play, in relation to two models representing separate definitions of voluntary and involuntary retirement, for the sample of former players.

	MODEL 1		NATURE OF RETIREMENT				MODEL 2	
NEGATIVE FEELINGS	Involuntary		Voluntary		Involuntary		Voluntary	
Low	19.4%	(26)	37.2%	(123)	28.0%	(79)	39.3%	(70)
Medium	25.4	(34)	38.7	(128)	32.3	(91)	38.2	(68)
High	55.2	(74)	24.2	(80)	39.7	(112)	22.5	(40)
100% =		(134)	(331)		(282)		(178)	
Missing = 49 Gamma = -.47				Missing = 54 Gamma = -.28				
Chi-square = 0000****				Chi-square = .0005****				
Level of statistical significance				**** < .001				

Table 6.18 shows that the difference between the voluntary and involuntary groups is great at the low end and even greater at the high end of negative feelings for both models. However, the difference is most apparent for Model 1, which suggests that the first definition, based on the respondent's opinion of who was most responsible for their retirement, is the more precise. Model 2, although

only slightly less statistically significant, may be a looser definition, having included reasons for retirement that may involve some input from the individual on the final decision, albeit under conditions less than favorable to him.

Summary of the Cross-tabulations

A review of the findings shows that some of the hypothesized relationships were supported while others were not. For instance, as hypothesized, the player who took at least one educational or training course during his hockey career was more likely to rank lower on the variable, identification with hockey, and higher on the variables, evaluation of self and self-initiative than the player who didn't take a course. However, whether a player worked at an off-season job unrelated to hockey had no real bearing on these dependent variables. Possible explanations for this finding have already been provided.

Statistical support was given to the hypothesized relationships between the variable referring to the nature of a player's first job after retirement and the variables, satisfaction with first job and length of time finding an interesting job. Those who worked at a job related to

hockey tended to rank higher on job satisfaction and were more likely to disagree that it took them a long time to find an interesting job. Less support was demonstrated for the hypothesized relationship between the independent variable and negative feelings. While it was evident that former players who worked in a job related to hockey were less likely to experience negative feelings of high intensity, there was no difference between this group and players working in non-hockey jobs at the low end of the scale.

The implications of working in hockey was further tested by analyzing the relationship between this variable and present life satisfaction, even though a related hypothesis had not been specified. The results showed that whether or not a player worked in hockey had no bearing on life satisfaction, suggesting that a hockey job does not necessarily represent the better alternative on every possible dimension.

Both definitions used to describe nature of retirement produced similar results in their cross-tabulation with the variable, negative feelings. That is, voluntary retirement was shown to have a strong, inverse relationship with this dependent variable. Using the definition whereby retirement for 70 percent of the respondents was classified

as voluntary, the results also supported the other two hypothesized relationships. These results showed that voluntary retirement had a slight positive correlation with job satisfaction and a negative correlation with the variable, length of time finding an interesting job. However, the looser definition of voluntary retirement, incorporating 38 percent of the respondents, was statistically significant with negative feelings only.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION

In Chapter 1, some potential problems arising as a result of ending a hockey career were briefly discussed. At the end of this introductory chapter, four broad questions were raised as a way of initiating the inquiry to follow. The intention now is to reconsider these questions by examining whether or not the results of the study have provided some answers to them.

1) The Effect of the Hockey Career?

The first question asked was, what factors or processes, operative during the hockey career, can predict or explain the degree of difficulty encountered by a player after retirement from hockey? Answers to this question were critical to the analysis because, if none were forthcoming, then there would be nothing to substantiate the notion that retired hockey players are faced with problems unique either to their own experience or to the experience of other professional or elite amateur athletes. Thus the main objective of the study would have been lost.

The review of literature in Chapter 2 revealed that this objective had not been clearly achieved in previous studies, suggesting that a link between the hockey career and subsequent adjustment problems could not be taken for granted.

However, the outcome was favorable, inasmuch as the results of the study did produce some answers to the question. A series of variables operative during the hockey career, beginning with degree of identification with hockey, were found to have direct and indirect effects on adjustment variables in the transition stage, the period following retirement from hockey, and, as well, some long term effects on current adjustment variables in the third stage, designated as the stage of the second career. More specifically, a high degree of identification with hockey was found to be detrimental to both short and long term adjustment to the end of a hockey career. Its strongest direct effect was on the variable, negative feelings in the first year following retirement. That is, those players with a high degree of identification with hockey were likely to experience greater emotional difficulties during this period. While there was some evidence that identification with hockey had some unfavorable direct effects on subsequent adjustment variables over the long

term, perhaps its indirect effects can be considered more important in terms of their influence. For example, a high degree of identification with hockey increased the likelihood of negative feelings which, in turn, increased the probability that it would take the individual a longer time to find a job that really interested him. And following this, the longer it took to find an interesting job indicated that the individual was likely to rank lower on the dimensions of present income, present job satisfaction and present life satisfaction.

In addition, identification with hockey had lasting indirect effects by way of another hockey related variable, self-initiative, which provided an important link to the second and third stages of adjustment. The importance of self-initiative during the hockey career was demonstrated by the favorable direct effects it had on post-hockey adjustment variables, enduring even over the long term to include the current variables in the final stage of adjustment. Thus, a high degree of identification with hockey during the hockey career, through an indirect negative influence on a player's self-initiative, had adverse effects on adjustment over the long term.

Apart from the two social-psychological variables, identification with hockey and self-initiative, a third

hockey related variable, with both social-psychological and structural implications, linked the hockey career to post-hockey adjustment. However, the effects of this variable, which referred to the degree to which a former player felt he had achieved his hockey goals, were more confined to the transition stage. That is, the greater the former player's feeling of achievement, the less intense his negative feelings after retirement, and the greater his satisfaction with his first job. The social-psychological aspect of a feeling of achievement of hockey goals is evident because it relies on the player's perception of the outcome of his own hockey career. However, it also alludes to the influence of structural or situational factors that may have frustrated the player in his attempt to achieve his hockey goals and, moreover, that may have caused him to retire involuntarily. The latter issue, and other situational or structural factors, are pertinent to the second, broad question from the introductory chapter that must now be considered.

2) The Influence of Situational and Structural Factors?

The second question was, how influential are situational and structural factors on adjustment? The interviews with the players drew attention to several

structural characteristics of a hockey career that make it difficult to prepare for transition into another career. Some of these characteristics were: the demands of hockey that require a player to be emotionally and physically ready to give their best at all times; the unconventional work schedule and time spent "on the road"; and the overprotection by management and trainers who take care of many of their routine responsibilities. The players claimed that each of these factors discouraged the active development of interests away from hockey. However, structural characteristics of this sort are standard, institutionalized aspects of the hockey career. That is, they are common to most or all players and, therefore, cannot explain why some players adjust to the end of their hockey career better than others.

What then are some of the situational and structural factors of the hockey career that may vary from one player to the other? One of these factors, which was tested in the course of the study, was the nature of a player's retirement. Those players who retired voluntarily, as opposed to non-voluntarily, were found to experience fewer negative feelings after retirement and to take less time finding a job that really interested them. A second factor was the value, or status, of the player. The findings

revealed that the higher the value of the player, the more likely the player was to have engaged in entrepreneurial action during his hockey career which, in turn, had favorable implications for post-hockey adjustment. As well, player value had a positive direct effect on the present income of the individual.

Other factors related to coach and management were also tested and were discovered to have some indirect effect on post-hockey adjustment. These factors were: the degree of open, honest communication from coach and management to the player concerning the player's future, and the degree of control over the player by coach and management. While control by management and lack of communication were cited as common characteristics of a hockey career, there were still some indications that they varied according to the age and status of the player. Therefore, they were included in the analysis on the grounds that they might influence certain variables operating during the hockey career, variables that might directly influence adjustment variables in the latter two stages. The results showed that the variable, open communication, had a considerable, positive effect on self-initiative and a somewhat smaller, positive effect on entrepreneurial action. On the other hand, management

control had a slight, negative effect on these two variables. These findings signify that, at least to some extent, the actions of the coach and management can influence a player's inclination to prepare for life beyond his hockey career.

3) A Change in the Content of Socialization?

To what extent does the content of the socialization process during hockey differ from the content of the process afterward? This question was not directly examined statistically, but was given considerable attention as a subject of inquiry in the interviews with the active and former players. The question focused on how much change, in terms of learning new values, norms and skills, must the hockey player undergo when moving from a hockey career to a second career and lifestyle. It was mentioned that players are accustomed to an atypical lifestyle, characterized by special treatment and attention from fans that is most often transient in nature. And as well, they are accustomed to a ready made support system made up of teammates, whereby the player does not have to confront sensitive, personal problems but, at a level of youthlike intensity, is provided with a source of reinforcement for his role as a hockey player.

These characteristics, together with the fact that many players are accustomed to receiving a high income, can make it difficult for a player to develop realistic expectations for life after hockey, considering that in all likelihood he will have to adapt to a much more conventional lifestyle. Moreover, the loss of attention from fans and the loss of the support of teammates after retirement from hockey implies that the player must undergo a new form of socialization. That is, he must undergo some personal re-assessment of himself in relation to his interaction with a new social environment. He must learn to evaluate himself in relation to others by understanding, as much as possible, the meaning of the actions of others in his new environment and, as well, how these others interpret his own actions. The results of the survey indicated that many players are not all that proficient in this regard when it involves people not associated with hockey. The unusual lifestyle offers a likely explanation for this finding, because the social environment of hockey, largely composed of fans and teammates, differs from most social relationships in the conventional, adult world.

However, in the occupational sense, the extent of change within the context of learning new values, norms and skills cannot be easily determined. In the interviews, the

players mentioned several attributes common to many hockey players that are also valued by mainstream society. Some of these attributes are: the ability to cope with pressure, politics and job insecurity; the ability to work hard as an individual and as a team; and personal characteristics such as self-confidence, perseverance and competitiveness. The problem therefore does not appear to lie with having to rebuild basic values, but rather with having to redirect these values, or attributes, to another career. More specifically, the critical issue is whether or not the player has developed some work skills or had experiences that are transferable to another job, thereby allowing him to redirect his values. Thus, it is in the particular area of learning the skills necessary to perform a certain job, as opposed to relearning new occupational values, that the player must experience the greatest change in terms of undergoing a new form of socialization within the occupational sphere.

Assuming that it is true that the major obstacle confronting a player before he begins a second career is becoming competent at his job, then one would also assume that the solution to this problem is relatively straightforward. That is, the player should therefore prepare himself by improving his skills through education,

training or job experience. However, the issue is not that easily resolved. For one, the hockey player may simply not know what job to prepare for. He is accustomed to having given a strong commitment to an exciting job that he loves, a job with clearly defined goals that, for the most part, is dependent on natural ability. When his hockey career ends, he is faced with the challenge of replacing this feeling of commitment in another job. This may be difficult, especially if the player is unaware of job alternatives and has never had to make a deliberate effort to reevaluate his personal and occupational goals. Such a situation may be further complicated given the important role that career, and success in a career, have played in his life. In other words, the player is under added pressure because his task is not simply limited to finding a new career that is realistic in terms of his abilities but also includes finding a career that is highly meaningful to him.

It has already been mentioned that some players are able to define and adjust to a second career better than others, and that this is likely due to having developed an awareness of job alternatives, as well as job skills and experience. Why is it that some players are more likely to be prepared in these ways? This question leads to the

fourth and final question that was posed at the end of Chapter 1.

4) The Importance of Identification with Hockey?

An answer to why some players are more likely to be prepared, and therefore better able to adjust, at the same time provides an answer to the question, should the degree of identification with hockey be given primary consideration in explaining problems of adjustment? The important effects of identification with hockey on variables relevant to both preparation for and adjustment to a second career have already been discussed. Again, these effects can be explained using McCall and Simmon's (1978) conceptual framework. In short, the player with a high degree of identification with hockey will have more difficulty defining another career interest because his role-identity set is solidly focused on hockey. That is, it is possible that he will not have even contemplated a secondary role-identity related to career and, therefore, has no idea of another interesting job or career goal to which he could eventually establish a new commitment. Naturally, lacking alternative goals, he is less likely to prepare himself for a particular job in advance and, as a result, is more likely to experience adjustment problems.

Identification with hockey was also important within a different context. To explain, a high degree of identification with hockey suggested that even if the player had, in fact, prepared himself for another job, there would be a greater likelihood of experiencing emotional difficulties immediately after retirement. This can be understood as a natural reaction to losing or closing off a meaningful period of an individual's life. Nonetheless, the findings revealed that the player who successfully shifted his role-identity from hockey to a new career, and began this process of change during his hockey career, was likely to experience emotional difficulties that were less intense and of a shorter duration.

Future Strategies

The notion that change, in the sense of preparation for a second career, should begin prior to retirement from the hockey career has been strongly supported by the results of this study. McCall and Simmons (1978) refer to the long-term agendas of an individual. These agendas provide "overarching frames of reference" that govern our present and future plans. They continue, by saying that revisions in long-term agendas are normally precipitated by

"life crises" (245). With few exceptions, the hockey career, in its early stages, dominates the structure of a hockey player's long-term agenda. If the player does not begin to revise this agenda during his hockey career, then retirement will present itself as a crisis, forcing him to make changes that are abrupt and therefore more likely to have an unfavorable outcome. McCall and Simmons, in reference to the importance of developing long-term agendas in advance, note that, in order to achieve and legitimate new role-identities, "The seeds of the corresponding role-identities must be implanted in our minds . . . " (224). Thus the minimum objective for each player while active should be at the least to have some mental conception of a second career for himself.

Encouraging the active player to consider other career identities and to take action to prepare for other careers, is a recommendation that may be opposed by some coaches and management on the grounds that it might distract the player from his duties as a hockey player. While this issue was not directly tested in the present study, the results, in a reverse fashion, do support an argument against the belief that preparation for another career will be detrimental to the player's hockey career. To explain, player value was discovered to be positively correlated with the

entrepreneurial action of a player, the latter variable referring to whether a player invested in a business, whether he took the time to learn about this business and, as well, whether he took the time to learn about the occupations of any business or professional contacts he may have made. This finding signifies that, if anything, the player valued by management, and therefore one who is likely a strong, consistent performer on the ice, is more likely to prepare himself for a second career. Thus, in reverse, it can be argued that preparing for a second career is not likely to interfere with a player's performance.

How extensive and pervasive is the need for the group of former players as a whole to undergo critical changes in their career identity after retirement from hockey? It would appear that most former players are faced with having to make relatively extensive changes with the exception of those who find employment in a job related to hockey. However, the results of the survey revealed that only eleven percent of the respondents were currently employed in such a job. This would indicate that working at a hockey job is either not a viable or not an attractive alternative for the majority of former players.

Having established that there is a need for the majority of players to undergo changes after retirement from hockey, and recognizing that a strong commitment to the hockey career with its heavy emotional and mental demands can deter a player from preparing for these changes, one might ask what percentage of players actually experience adjustment problems while making these changes? It is difficult to provide a definitive answer to this question. For example, present life satisfaction was measured by a scale combining nine items, each of which allowed for a score from one to seven. It was therefore possible to rank order respondents from high to low but, without any previously established, reliable criteria to use as a base, it was not possible to determine what constituted absolute high, medium or low levels of life satisfaction with any degree of certainty. However, two other variables reflecting level of adjustment, negative feelings and length of time finding an interesting job, did offer some information. The results showed that only nine percent of the respondents did not experience any of the negative feelings that were listed in the questionnaire and that 46 percent agreed that it took a long time to find a job that really interested them. Based on this evidence, it seems reasonable to conclude that the number of former players who experience some degree of adjustment

difficulties is substantial enough to describe the problem of retirement from hockey as a real concern. This assumption is further supported if, in fact, it is true, as earlier suggested in the description of the respondents in Chapter 6, that the sample of former players was slightly biased in favor of individuals who experienced fewer difficulties.

Notwithstanding the possibility of a slight bias, many of the respondents, who added their own comments to the questionnaire, strongly emphasized the need for professional assistance in the area of preparing the active player for the end of his hockey career. Several pointed out the lack of direction on the part of many players with regard to an awareness and understanding of job alternatives. Comments from one former player indicated that this situation was not restricted to only job awareness.

When I played, basically there wasn't life after hockey. Not that I knew of anyways. I was like a horse with blinders on, going through life believing only hockey existed.

Another respondent described how frightening it was to leave hockey having no idea of what he was going to do, being older than most others starting out in the work

force, and having a wife and family to support. A third respondent commented on how the business world is often reluctant to hire a retired athlete.

Most athletes are considered a high risk both during and after their career. (It's) tough to shake the "jock" stigma. Most businesses do not want to train an unknown quantity (athlete) that is over 30 and used to making good money when they can hire a 20 year old right out of college who can work for less and will take less training.

These comments are only three samples of many indicating that the hockey career can become so all-consuming for some players that more conventional ways of working and living become unfamiliar to them. Perhaps a number of players recognize what this adversely implies for their future and so find work at a job unrelated to hockey during the off-season. And yet, the results of the study showed that working in the off-season was uncorrelated with variables predicting level of adjustment to a second career and lifestyle. This finding, however, was not so surprising after closely examining the types of jobs held by the players who worked. Many of these players tended to take on physical jobs that presumably would assist them in maintaining some level of fitness so that they would be in shape for training camp prior to the start of the hockey

season. Thus it would seem that their underlying purpose for working was not so much directed to preparing themselves for a second career, but instead remained focused on self-improvement within their hockey career, an impression that was supported by comments from the active and former players in the interviews.

Another unexpected finding was that level of education had no direct bearing on adjustment variables. However, rather than this indicating that education is not an important factor in preparing a player for a second career, it may well underline the need that many players have for assistance in defining a realistic area of interest. To explain, both active and recently retired players, due to a lack of awareness and knowledge of other careers, may tend to enrol in courses that are either unrealistic in terms of their abilities or are of little lasting interest to them.

The interpretation of the findings above, combined with the comments from former players, suggest that specific programs are required to help many hockey players prepare for life beyond their hockey career. While the main objective of these programs must be to cultivate an awareness and knowledge of other careers, they should, at the same time, account for the influence of the hockey career on the player's life. In other words, they should

take a realistic approach by considering the nature of the player's emotional investment in his hockey career, the stage of the player's career and the particular pressures that confront him at each stage. For instance, it may not be realistic to expect a player to actively prepare himself for a second career if, in the early stages of his hockey career, he is still in the process of attempting to establish himself as a professional hockey player. However, during this period, a player can be made aware of the need to prepare for a second career and begin familiarizing himself with other occupations. Once his hockey career stabilizes or shows that it is not likely to progress as anticipated, then the player can intensify his efforts to prepare for a second career.

In addition to accounting for the stage of a player's career, it is also important to maintain an understanding and awareness of the obstacles and deterrents that, as inherent aspects of the hockey career, can discourage a player from preparing himself for life after hockey. Such an awareness would allow for the establishment of programs designed to help the player overcome these obstacles and deterrents, so that he can apply his energies to the crucial matter of identifying another career interest and thereupon proceed to develop this interest. At the same

time, taking into consideration these aspects of the player's hockey career should not develop into a policy advocating over-protection of the player, nor should it detract from what should be designated as the prime objective of any assistance program. This objective is to encourage the self-initiative of the player. By improving his own decision-making skills and assertiveness, he can then engage in constructive, independent action directed to preparing himself for a second career and lifestyle. The significance of self-initiative during the hockey career was strongly supported by the results of the study which showed that this variable had long lasting implications for the issue of adjustment to the end of a hockey career.

Future Research

One suggestion for future research into the problem of athletic retirement would be to undertake a comparative study between athletes and non-athletes who are also faced with having to make major career changes. This would provide some needed information on whether or not the experiences of the retiring athlete actually are uniquely different from those of individuals involved in other careers. A second suggestion is to conduct a comparative

study between the experiences of hockey players and other professional or elite amateur athletes so as to estimate the degree to which the problems of hockey players can be generalized to other sports.

An estimation of the generalizability of the results of the present study can only be based on certain assumptions. For example, one can assume that a strong identification with and commitment to a particular sport is a common characteristic of any athlete who is striving to be successful at the professional or elite amateur level. Other variables, such as self-initiative and influence from coach and/or management, are also likely to play a significant role affecting most any athlete's preparation for a second career. However, it is conceivable that differences would likely emerge between team and individual sports as well as between amateur and high paying professional sports. The fact that most professional athletes should be in a stronger financial position at the end of their athletic career, gives them a decided advantage over the retiring amateur. Thus, any generalization of the findings of the present study would be safer and more reliable if limited to professional, team sports.

A Final Reflection

No matter what the circumstances of a player's hockey career, whether it be successful or unsuccessful, it must inevitably come to an end. And it is this end that marks a new beginning and a new challenge that, as reflected in the survey results focusing on positive feelings after retirement from hockey, most former players are determined to face and master. This determination was a prevalent sentiment in spite of the handicaps their long time involvement with hockey may have imposed on them. In fact, it is likely that this determination is a common orientation of most hockey players inasmuch as their hockey career has taught them to value commitment and perseverance.

And so, the hockey career is not strictly a handicap in terms of a player's adjustment to a second career and lifestyle, but also can be a learning experience whereby the player can develop certain characteristics that will benefit him throughout his life. The player who can minimize the handicaps and maximize the benefits is most likely to be successful in defining and adjusting to a second career that is attractive to him. Whatever the outcome, the experience of a hockey career is likely to

have a lasting impact on its individual participants. This feeling was eloquently expressed by one former player who, in response to completing the questionnaire, commented: ". . . it brought back some cherished memories - thrills, chills and, of course, a little heartache".

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APPENDIX A

Matrix of zero-order correlation coefficients*
for the sample of active players

	EDUCP	AGE	IDHOC	EVAL	VALUE	INITI	CONT	COMM
EDUCP	1.00	.06	-.21 ^d	-.06	-.003	-.01	.12	-.01
AGE	.06	1.00	-.17 ^d	.11	.52 ^a	.007	-.32 ^a	-.18 ^d
IDHOC	-.21 ^d	-.17 ^d	1.00	-.31 ^a	-.08	-.25 ^b	-.04	-.02
EVAL	-.06	.11	-.31 ^a	1.00	.20 ^d	.23 ^c	-.02	.16 ^d
VALUE	-.003	.52 ^a	-.08	.20 ^d	1.00	.16	-.49 ^a	.12
INITI	-.01	.007	-.25 ^b	.23 ^c	.16	1.00	-.07	.22 ^c
CONT	.12	-.32 ^a	-.04	-.02	-.49 ^a	-.07	1.00	-.15 ^d
COMM	-.01	-.18 ^d	-.02	.16 ^d	.12	.22 ^c	-.15 ^d	1.00

*Coefficients are statistically significant as follows: a $<.001$, b $<.005$, c $<.01$, d $<.05$

Key to Variables:

EDUCP - Education level prior to playing professional hockey.

AGE - Age at time of survey.

IDHOC - Degree of identification with hockey.

EVAL - Ability to evaluate self in relation to non-hockey people.

VALUE - Value of the player as defined by coach and management.

INITI - Degree of self-initiative in matters primarily unrelated to hockey.

CONT - Degree of control over the player by coach and management.

COMM - Degree of open, honest communication from coach and management to the player.

APPENDIX B

Matrix of zero-order correlation coefficients* for the sample of former players

	EDUCP	IDHOC	EVAL	VALUE	INITI	CONT	COMM	ENTRE	NEGAT	JOBA	JOBIN	CONS	ACHIE	INC	JOBB	PRESL	YRSR	EDUCL	YRSPL
EDUCP	1.00	-.12 ^b	.14 ^b	-.07 ^d	.11 ^c	-.10 ^d	-.003	-.02	-.04	.02	-.06	.008	-.04	.08 ^d	.007	-.04	-.19 ^a	.81 ^a	-.30 ^a
IDHOC	-.12 ^b	1.00	-.27 ^a	-.06	-.09 ^d	-.01	-.04	-.09 ^d	.40 ^a	-.10 ^d	.18 ^a	-.21 ^a	-.03	-.16 ^b	-.04	-.16 ^a	.03	-.14 ^b	.11 ^c
EVAL	.14 ^b	-.27 ^a	1.00	.07	.46 ^a	-.14 ^b	.09 ^d	.11 ^c	-.29 ^a	.21 ^a	-.16 ^a	.08 ^d	.07	.19 ^a	.16 ^a	.20 ^a	.04	.15 ^a	-.03
VALUE	-.07 ^d	-.06	.07	1.00	.12 ^c	-.15 ^b	.18 ^a	.33 ^a	-.16 ^a	.16 ^a	-.09 ^d	.15 ^a	.36 ^a	.26 ^a	.003	.09 ^d	.13 ^b	-.07	.47 ^a
INITI	.11 ^c	-.09 ^d	.46 ^a	.12 ^c	1.00	-.18 ^a	.18 ^a	.27 ^a	-.42 ^a	.36 ^a	-.24 ^a	.12 ^c	.17 ^a	.25 ^a	.24 ^a	.27 ^a	.11 ^c	.17 ^a	.03
CONT	-.10 ^d	-.01	-.14 ^b	-.15 ^b	-.18 ^a	1.00	-.40 ^a	-.16 ^a	.13 ^b	-.16 ^a	.04	-.06	-.18 ^a	-.12 ^c	-.08 ^d	-.02	.005	-.02	-.17 ^a
COMM	-.003	-.04	.09 ^d	.18 ^a	.18 ^a	-.40 ^a	1.00	.21 ^a	-.16 ^a	.20 ^a	-.07	.06	.19 ^a	.08 ^d	.09 ^d	.05	.06	.002	.16 ^a
ENTRE	-.02	-.09 ^d	.11 ^c	.33 ^a	.27 ^a	-.16 ^a	.21 ^a	1.00	-.24 ^a	.28 ^a	-.22 ^a	.15 ^b	.26 ^a	.26 ^a	.15 ^a	.16 ^a	.04	-.02	.29 ^a
NEGAT	-.04	.40 ^a	-.29 ^a	-.16 ^a	-.42 ^a	.13 ^b	-.16 ^a	-.24 ^a	1.00	-.43 ^a	.43 ^a	-.31 ^a	-.31 ^a	-.23 ^a	-.18 ^a	-.29 ^a	-.17 ^a	-.05	-.15 ^a
JOBA	.02	-.10 ^d	.21 ^a	.16 ^a	.36 ^a	-.16 ^a	.20 ^a	.28 ^a	-.43 ^a	1.00	-.39 ^a	.11 ^c	.22 ^a	.24 ^a	.40 ^a	.25 ^a	.13 ^b	-.01	.15 ^b
JOBIN	-.06	.18 ^a	-.16 ^a	-.09 ^d	-.24 ^a	.04	-.07	-.22 ^a	.43 ^a	-.39 ^a	1.00	-.18 ^a	-.12 ^b	-.25 ^a	-.24 ^a	-.36 ^a	-.16 ^a	-.04	.01
CONS	.008	-.21 ^a	.08 ^d	.15 ^a	.12 ^c	-.06	.06	.15 ^b	-.31 ^a	.11 ^c	-.18 ^a	1.00	.15 ^a	.19 ^a	.12 ^c	.16 ^a	-.05	.05	.21 ^a
ACHIE	-.04	-.03	.07	.36 ^a	.17 ^a	-.18 ^a	.19 ^a	.26 ^a	-.31 ^a	.22 ^a	-.12 ^b	.15 ^a	1.00	.14 ^b	.04	.11 ^c	.08 ^d	-.02	.39 ^a
INC	.08 ^d	-.16 ^b	.19 ^a	.26 ^a	.25 ^a	-.12 ^c	.08 ^d	.26 ^a	-.23 ^a	.24 ^a	-.25 ^a	.19 ^a	.14 ^b	1.00	.40 ^a	.33 ^a	.11 ^d	.10 ^d	.08 ^d
JOBB	.007	-.04	.16 ^a	.004	.24 ^a	-.08 ^d	.09 ^d	.15 ^a	-.18 ^a	.40 ^a	-.24 ^a	.12 ^c	.04	.40 ^a	1.00	.53 ^a	.15 ^b	.05	-.04
PRESL	-.04	-.16 ^a	.20 ^a	.09 ^d	.27 ^a	-.02	.05	.16 ^a	-.29 ^a	.25 ^a	-.36 ^a	.16 ^a	.11 ^c	.33 ^a	.53 ^a	1.00	.15 ^a	-.005	-.06
YRSR	-.19 ^a	.03	.04	.13 ^b	.11 ^c	.005	.06	.04	-.17 ^a	.13 ^b	-.16 ^a	-.05	.08 ^d	.11 ^d	.15 ^b	.15 ^a	1.00	-.14 ^b	.06
EDUCL	.81 ^a	-.14 ^b	.15 ^a	-.07	.17 ^a	-.02	.002	-.02	-.05	-.01	-.04	.05	-.02	.10 ^d	.05	-.005	-.14 ^b	1.00	-.29 ^a
YRSPL	-.30 ^a	.11 ^c	-.03	.47 ^a	.03	-.17 ^a	.16 ^a	.29 ^a	-.15 ^a	.15 ^b	.02	.21 ^a	.39 ^a	.08 ^d	-.04	-.06	.06	-.29 ^a	1.00

*Coefficients are statistically significant as follows: a <.001, b <.005, c <.01, d <.05

Key to Variables:

EDUCP - Education level prior to playing professional hockey.
 IDHOC - Degree of identification with hockey.
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 VALUE - Value of the player as defined by coach and management.
 INITI - Self-initiative in matters primarily unrelated to hockey.
 CONT - Control over the player by coach and management.
 COMM - Open communication from coach and management to the player.
 ENTRE - Entrepreneurial action.
 NEGAT - Negative feelings in the first year following retirement.
 JOBA - Satisfaction with first job after retirement from playing.

JOBIN - Length of time finding an interesting job.
 CONS - Length of time retirement from hockey was considered
 ACHIE - A sense of achievement of hockey goals.
 INC - Present income.
 JOBB - Satisfaction with present job.
 PRESL - Present Life Satisfaction
 YRSR - Number of years retired from playing hockey.
 EDUCL - Present educational level
 YRSPLAY - Length of hockey career in years.