Interpersonal Emotion Regulation in a High Performance Varsity Volleyball Team

by

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Abstract

An instrumental case study approach was used to investigate the use of interpersonal emotion regulation (IER) in high performance varsity female volleyball athletes. Athletes reported using a variety of emotion-improving (verbal/positive feedback, cueing teammates about emotions, humour and non-verbal strategies), and emotion-worsening IER strategies, in addition to choosing not to engage in IER in some instances. The factors that were found to influence IER included athletes' roles, social norms, the volleyball context, athletes' preferences for IER, and interpersonal factors (i.e., relationship quality, personality, and relatability). Athletes also discussed how they learned to regulate their teammates' emotions, and the concept of 'automaticity' in which some IER behaviours become almost automatic or done out of habit. This study has theoretical implications regarding the distinction between emotion regulation versus affect regulation, athletes' preferences and perceived effectiveness of IER, and the use of emotion worsening strategies in sport.

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Chapter 1
Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Experiencing a variety of emotions is an inevitable part of sport. These emotions can lead to a number of positive and negative consequences for athletes (Uphill, McCarthy, & Jones, 2009). Understanding emotions and emotion regulation in sport is important for improving performance and interpersonal outcomes among athletes. One framework of studying athletes' emotional control is emotion regulation, which is defined as a heterogeneous set of processes ranging from conscious and controlled to unconscious and automatic that are used to manage one's own emotions (Gross & Thompson, 2007). However, researchers have proposed that more information can be learned about emotion regulation through an interpersonal perspective (e.g., Babkes, Stellino, Partridge, & Moore, 2012). Interpersonal emotion regulation (IER) refers to attempts to try and control, influence, or change another person's mood or emotions (Niven, Totterdell, & Holman, 2007).

Researchers have recently begun exploring the use of IER in sport contexts. For example, Tamminen and Crocker (2013) and Friesen and colleagues (2015b) conducted studies investigating athletes' use of IER and the factors that influence IER in a curling team and an ice hockey team, respectively. However, there is a need to better understand how athletes regulate their teammates' emotions, and some factors that might influence IER remain unexplored (e.g., position and starting status). In addition, no known research has sought to explore how athletes want their emotions to be regulated by their teammates, how athletes learn to regulate others' emotions, and if athletes use emotion-worsening IER strategies. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to address these gaps in the literature and develop a fuller understanding of IER in a high performance women's volleyball team. The specific research questions this study addressed were:

1) How do athletes regulate their teammates' emotions?
2) What factors influence interpersonal emotion regulation?
3) What do athletes perceive are effective strategies for having their emotions regulated by their teammates?

The results of this study have theoretical implications regarding the distinction between emotion

regulation and affect regulation and athletes' perceived effectiveness of IER. Additionally, it provides novel information on athletes' use of emotion-worsening strategies in sport. These findings regarding IER could be useful for athletes and coaches to implement when trying to influence athletes' emotions, and might even have the potential to help improve performance.

Chapter 2
Review of Literature

2.1 Review of Literature

The literature review will begin with an overview of the conceptualization of emotions and research on emotions in sport. The focus will then shift to emotion regulation and individual differences in emotion regulation including personality, emotional intelligence, and gender. Next, three theories of interpersonal emotion regulation will be presented, followed by the discussion of research focused on interpersonal emotion regulation (IER) in sport. Lastly, some related areas of research (i.e., social support, emotional contagion, team cohesion, and roles) will be examined before explaining the purpose of the present study.

2.1.1 Lazarus' Core Emotions

First, it is necessary to understand what an emotion is. Researchers have had a difficult time agreeing on a single definition of emotion and Uphill et al. (2009) suggested that this has been such a challenge since the term emotion was derived from everyday language. Within Lazarus' (1999) cognitive-motivational-relational theory, emotions are conceptualized as a response to events that a person appraises as relevant to his or her current goals. Lazarus (1999) proposed that personal variables (e.g., values and goals) work in combination with environmental variables to shape one's appraisals. The appraisal process has two phases: primary and secondary appraisal. Lazarus (1999) stated that primary appraisal can be further broken down into goal relevance, goal congruence, and type of ego involvement. Goal relevance refers to whether the event will have an impact on the well-being of the individual. If not, then Lazarus contends will be no emotion. Goal congruence (or incongruence) pertains to whether the situation will help (or hinder) one's progress towards the goal. If it facilitates one reaching his or her goal, it is likely a positive emotion will arise, whereas if it prevents one from reaching his or her goal a negative emotion is likely to arise. Ego involvement refers to the type of commitment or goal that the person has, for example the well-being of others or moral values.

Secondary appraisal also consists of three parts: blame or credit, coping potential, and future expectations (Lazarus, 1999). One must make a judgement about who or what is responsible for the event when assigning blame or credit. Coping potential refers to one's beliefs about his or her

ability to handle the potential threat or harm or ability to achieve his or her goal. Lastly, future expectations refer to positive or negative beliefs about the future. Together, this appraisal process shapes which emotion a person will experience. The core emotions proposed by Lazarus (1999) are anger, anxiety, fright, guilt, shame, sadness, envy, jealousy, disgust, happiness, pride, relief, hope, love, gratitude, and compassion. Each emotion arises from a different event and appraisals of the personal significance about that situation.

Lazarus (1991) divided the core emotions into two groups: goal incongruent (negative) emotions) and goal congruent (positive) emotions. When an event is appraised as likely to hinder reaching one's goal, the resulting emotions include anger, fright-anxiety, guilt-shame, sadness, envy-jealousy, and disgust. Emotions that result from goal congruence (i.e., positive emotions) include happiness/joy, pride, love/affection, and relief. Lazarus (1991) also discussed problematic emotions which are emotion-related concepts that are surrounded by the uncertainty of whether they should be considered emotions or not. The problematic emotions include hope, compassion, and aesthetic emotions. Lazarus (1999) re-categorized the 15 emotions into groups five groups: nasty emotions (anger, envy, and jealousy), existential emotions (anxiety-fright, guilt, and shame), emotions cause by life events perceived as unfavourable (relief, hope, sadness-depression), empathetic emotions (gratitude and compassion), and emotions cause by life events perceived as favourable (happiness, pride, and love).

Lazarus (1999) also suggested that there are five ways in which erroneous judgments can take place, causing inappropriate emotions or judgments. The first cause is a disorder, such as psychosis or brain injury. The second cause is a lack of knowledge or misunderstanding about the situation one is in. The third cause is if one has not paid attention to the proper aspects of his or her social relationships. The fourth cause is denial if one is faced with a situation he or she does not want to admit to being in. The fifth cause is ambiguity about what is happening, for example, not being sure what another person's intentions are. Gross and Thompson (2007) echo the idea that inappropriate emotions have the ability to play a facilitative as well as debilitative role in an individual's functioning (Gross & Thompson, 2007). If an emotion occurs at an inappropriate time or at an inappropriate intensity level, it can lead to undesirable outcomes (Gross & Thompson, 2007); in a sport context, an example is being very anxious during an important match which may cause the athlete to perform poorly.

2.1.2 Basic Emotions

Ekman (1992) proposed a different perspective on emotions, stating that there are basic emotions that are not just single affective states but rather a "family" of affective states that are related. Each emotion family has a theme that is composed of characteristics that are unique to that family, for example, emotions that have commonalities in expression. These themes are the core elements of the emotion and are the product of evolution. There are also variations in each family such as variations in facial expressions of anger for example, furrowing of the brow, tightening of the lips, opening of the lower eyelids. Ekman (1992) proposed that these variations are caused by learning. Ekman (1992) stated that future research should seek to better understand the differences between variations and themes with regards to facial expressions. The list of basic emotions identified by Ekman (1999) has grown to include amusement, anger, contempt, contentment, disgust, embarrassment, excitement, fear, guilt, pride in achievement, relief, sadness/distress, satisfaction, sensory pleasure, and shame.

Ekman (1999) stated that all of the 15 basic emotions share 11 characteristics and that basic emotions are distinguishable from one another. The first characteristic of basic emotions is that an emotion must have distinctive universal signals; that is, others should have the ability to recognize what basic emotion another person is feeling through facial expressions and vocal expressions. Examples of universal facial expressions include an involuntary smile signalling enjoyment, furrowing of the brows signalling anger, and widening of the eyes signalling surprise. The second characteristic of basic emotions is that they cause physiological changes in the individual feeling the emotion, for example activation of the autonomic nervous system to prepare for fight or flight when experiencing fear. The third characteristic is of basic emotions is that emotional responses can occur through automatic appraisal, meaning that it can happen without awareness, however this is not always the case - sometimes individuals' appraisals are slow, conscious, and deliberate. The next characteristic that distinguishes basic emotions from one another is the antecedent event. Ekman (1999) stated that there are common situations in which emotions are found to occur. Past research has demonstrated that general antecedent events are similar across cultures although there will likely be differences across cultures for specific antecedent events (see Mesquita & Frijda, 1992 for a review of cultural variations in emotions). This idea of antecedent events is very similar to Lazarus' (1999) core relational themes of emotions. The fifth characteristic described by Ekman (1999) is that the distinctive

appearance of emotions takes time to develop. Ekman (1999) stated that emotions are also likely to be found in other primates. The seventh and eighth characteristics that distinguish emotions from other affective states are the quick onset and short duration of emotions. Since emotions can occur so quickly, sometimes people feel as though emotions are happening to them rather than being chosen. Ekman (1999) referred to this characteristic as “unbidden occurrence”. Ekman (1999) expected that emotions influence the way in which individuals think and that this would be apparent in memories, imagery, and expectations. Lastly, basic emotions have distinct subjective experiences such as physiological sensations. Ekman stated that any one characteristic cannot distinguish an emotion from other affective states. Ekman (1999, p.56) stated there is no such thing as “non-basic” emotions, all emotions are separate from one another, and emotions have an evolutionary purpose. This perspective differs from that of Lazarus’ (1999) in the sense that Lazarus believes that there are variants of the core emotions. For example, within anger there is inhibited anger, righteous anger, pouting, and hostility. However, Ekman also acknowledged that there are also broader affective phenomena such as emotional plots, moods, and affective personality traits that extend beyond his conceptualization of basic emotions.

2.1.3 Self-Conscious Emotions

More recently, Tangney and Tracy (2012) focused on the study of specific emotions (i.e., self-conscious emotions) with an emphasis on the self. Self-conscious emotions occur from self-reflection and self-evaluation, which may be implicit or explicit and occur consciously or unconsciously (Tangney & Tracy, 2012). It is also possible to feel self-conscious emotions on behalf on another person with whom we are closely affiliated, because that individual could be included in one’s self-definition. In other words, an individual may feel shame on behalf of another person’s behaviour if he or she believes it is a reflection of him or herself. Self-conscious emotions include shame, guilt, embarrassment, and pride.

Shame is described as a more “public” emotion compared to guilt although it does not require the presence of others. Shame is considered painful and associated with feeling small, worthless, and powerless (Tangney & Tracy, 2012). Guilt is less painful than shame because it is caused by a specific behaviour rather than a judgement of a person as whole. When an individual feels guilt they often ruminate and feel motivated to fix what they had done (Tangney & Tracy, 2012). Embarrassment is the result of an unfortunate public incident (e.g., tripping and falling in front of

many people) or awkward social interactions. Embarrassment is considered to be less intense than shame. Pride often follows after an individual evaluates that he or she is responsible for a socially important outcome or that he or she is socially valued. Self-conscious emotions are associated with specific behaviours and are important for various social outcomes. For example, guilt is associated with pro-social behaviours including empathy (Tangney & Tracy, 2012).

In past research, the experience of embarrassment and pride has been associated with individual's level of perfectionism (self-oriented and socially prescribed). For example, Stoeber, Harris, and Moon (2007) found that healthy perfectionists (high perfectionistic strivings, low perfectionistic concerns) scored lower on proneness to shame than unhealthy perfectionists (high perfectionistic strivings, high perfectionistic concerns) and non-perfectionists. Both healthy and unhealthy perfectionists scored higher on proneness to guilt and pride than non-perfectionists. In addition to perfectionism, cultural background and gender have been found to influence the experiences of self-conscious emotions. Results from Stoeber, Kobori, and Tanno's (2013) study demonstrated that there may in fact be differences in the experience of self-conscious emotions between individuals from different cultural backgrounds. Else-Quest, Higgings, Allison, and Morton (2012) found that women experienced guilt and shame more than men although this difference was small, and there were no significant differences between men and women with regard to the experience of embarrassment or pride. When age was taken into account, there were no significant gender differences observed in childhood but there were differences in adolescents and adults.

Within physical activity settings, body-related self-conscious emotions (guilt, shame and pride) have been found to be correlated with physical activity and behaviour. For example, Castonguay, Pila, Wrosch, and Sabiston (2014) conducted a cross-sectional study of 152 men. The results indicated that body-related guilt, shame, and pride were correlated to physical activity motivation and physical activity behaviour. Sabiston and colleagues (2010) conducted a study to test a model linking self-conscious emotions to physical activity motivation and physical activity in women. Body-related shame, guilt, and pride all had important influences on the participants' motivation to take part in physical activity. Although these studies were not specific to sport per se, it is possible that the participants in the current study may experience self-conscious emotions since varsity athletes may want to perform well because performance is a socially valued

outcome in sport. It is also possible that athletes might experience self-conscious emotions on behalf of the team or teammates since that may form part of their conceptualization of the self.

2.2 Emotion in Sport

Athletes are constantly appraising stimuli before, during, and after competition, which often leads them to experience of a wide variety of emotions during these time periods (Jones & Uphill, 2012). As an example of the types of emotions that table-tennis athletes experience during competition, Martinent, Campo and Ferrand (2012) recorded athletes during the match and conducted interviews with them as well. Participants reported experiencing a number of positive and negative emotions including self-oriented anger, other-oriented anger (e.g., towards the opponent or umpire), thing-oriented anger (e.g., towards the net), anxiety, discouragement, disappointment, disgust, joy, serenity, relief, hope, and pride. Participants experienced these emotions for one point and sometimes for multiple points in a game. Some of the multiple-point emotions such as discouragement and self-directed anger were found to be almost completely debilitating, while some emotions such as serenity and joy were perceived to be almost completely facilitating for the athlete's performance.

2.2.1 Negative Emotions

Beyond knowing that athletes experience a variety of emotions, researchers have emphasized the study of anger and anxiety in sport (Campo, Mellalieu, Ferrand, Martinent, & Rosnet, 2012; Cerin, Szabo, Hunt, & Williams, 2000). Anger has been found to be facilitative in aggressive sports; for example, in a study of rugby players and individual combat sport athletes, participants reported that they perceived competitive anger to be facilitative for their performance, although this relationship was stronger in the rugby players (Robazza, Bertollo, & Bortoli, 2006). Additionally, the relationship was stronger for higher level athletes (i.e., those with international experience) than lower level athletes (i.e., no international experience). The finding that anger was perceived to be facilitative in sport was also supported by Robbaza and Bortoli (2007), although they found no significant differences between high level rugby players (i.e., playing in the first division) and low-level rugby players (i.e., playing in the third division). In both articles, the authors suggested that anger was interpreted as facilitative in aggressive sports requiring physical contact with opponents.

Researchers have suggested that anger can also influence athletes' levels of concentration. Vast, Young, and Thomas (2010) conducted a retrospective self-report study with female softball athletes to examine the relationship between anger and performance, concentration and attention during the game. Athletes' self-reported anger was negatively correlated with their self-reported levels of concentration but interestingly, anger was not negatively correlated with performance (Vast, Young, & Thomas, 2010). Overall, past research suggests that anger can have both positive and negative impacts on performance and further, interpretations of the facilitative or debilitative nature of anger is not uniform across athletes.

With regards to anxiety, researchers have demonstrated that it is very often negatively correlated with performance. In a meta-analysis, Woodman and Hardy (2000) reported that 60% of the included studies reported a negative relationship between anxiety and performance while only 23% reported a positive relationship and 16% reported no significant relationship. Vast et al. (2010) also reported that retrospective self-reported anxiety is negatively correlated with female softball players' self-rated performance. A common explanation for the negative relationship between anxiety and performance is due to altered attentional processing: as athletes become more anxious their attention typically narrows, they become more distractible, and their gaze patterns become erratic and inefficient (see Janelle, 2002 for a review of research on anxiety and performance).

Other negative emotions studied within sport include dejection, which has been found to lead to negative consequences such as decreased concentration and lower levels of performance (Vast et al., 2010). Vast et al. (2010) inferred that negative emotions may interfere with the automaticity of athletes' skill execution, thus leading to a decrease in performance. This has the potential to be very problematic for high performance athletes who are required to perform basic skills with little conscious effort. If athletes are no longer able to perform these skills, their calibre of play could drop dramatically and other aspects of their performance (e.g. tactical aspect) may suffer too.

2.2.2 Positive Emotions

Positive emotions have not been studied extensively in a sport context (McCarthy, 2011) and the impact they have on performance is not well understood. Martinent and Ferrand (2009) conducted a study exploring the emotions table tennis players experienced during matches and

their perceived impact on performance using a video-assisted interview with participants to recall what the emotional experience was like. Athletes described positive emotions such as joy, serenity, relief, and hope, which had both perceived facilitative consequences (e.g., increased confidence and increased motivation) and perceived debilitative consequences (e.g., decreased concentration) for performance, albeit it seemed as though the latter was reported less frequently. The results suggest that the perceived effects of the emotions were dependent upon the characteristics of the context rather than the nature of the emotion. However, Vast et al. (2009) found positive emotions had positive effects on athletic performance. More specifically, retrospective self-reported levels of happiness and excitement were positively correlated with concentration and performance ratings in softball athletes (Vast et al., 2009). It appears that the impact of positive emotions in sports remains to be fully explored.

It is evident that emotions are very important in a sporting context since they can impact an athlete in both positive and negative ways. Since emotions are potentially so impactful, it is important that they be studied. An athlete's ability to control his or her own emotions could be very beneficial which is why emotion regulation is a very necessary topic of research.

2.3 Emotion Regulation

One way of examining athletes' emotional control is through a framework of emotion regulation, which refers to a heterogeneous set of processes which run on a continuum from conscious and controlled to unconscious and automatic processes that are used to influence one's emotions (Gross & Thompson, 2007). Individuals use these strategies to attempt to alter the latency, rise time, magnitude, duration and behavioural, experiential, or physiological outcomes of emotion (Gross & Thompson, 2007). Gross and Thompson (2007) also proposed that individuals have the ability to increase, decrease, or maintain both positive as well as negative emotions. The terms emotional regulation and emotional control will be used interchangeably throughout this paper.

It is important to identify that emotion regulation, coping, and mood regulation are not the same. Coping is focused mostly on decreasing negative affect and used over extended periods of time, while emotion regulation may increase, decrease, or maintain both positive and negative emotions (Gross & Thompson, 2007). Mood regulation differs from emotion regulation because a mood typically lasts longer than an emotion and is not a response to a specific object or situation (Gross & Thompson, 2007).

Gross and Thompson (2007) proposed that there are five points in the emotion generative process at which emotions can be regulated: situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, cognitive change, and response modulation. Situation selection refers to taking actions that will increase or decrease the likelihood of an individual finding oneself in a situation he or she expects to cause desirable or undesirable emotions (e.g., skating away from an opponent who wants to fight). Situation modification refers to attempting to directly alter one's environment to lead to a change in the emotional impact it may have (e.g., using humour to diffuse the tension before an important game). Attentional deployment is shifting one's focus of attention in an attempt to impact his or her emotional experience (e.g., shifting one's attention from the crowd to the present game to reduce anxiety). Cognitive change is the altering of one's own appraisal of the situation or one's ability to handle the situation (e.g., interpreting playing the first place team as a great opportunity rather than being fearful of losing). Lastly, response modulation refers to directly trying to change the physiological, experiential, or behavioural response to a situation (e.g., taking a deep breath before taking a foul shot). Gross and Thompson (2007) point out that these strategies may be used in combination with one another, which has the potential to be more effective in managing one's emotions.

There have been two reasons proposed for engaging in emotion regulation: instrumental and hedonic (Tamir, 2009). An individual regulating his or her emotions for an instrumental purpose means doing so to reach a goal (e.g., in order to improve their performance). An individual seeking to regulate their emotions for a hedonic purpose are doing so for pleasure or to feel better (e.g., in order to be happier). Since individuals pursue a variety of goals, they should therefore want to experience a variety of emotions to reach those goals (Tamir, 2009). Given that sport is competitive in nature and athletes are striving for success, it seems that instrumental goal pursuit would be the most relevant (Lane, Beedie, Devonport, & Stanley, 2011) because people may forego feeling good for the sake of their goals (Tamir, 2009).

While individuals may regulate their emotions for hedonic or instrumental reasons, they may also regulate emotions to promote interpersonal relationships. Mulki, Jaramillo, Goad, and Pesquera (2015) examined the relationships among emotion regulation, interpersonal conflict, stress, and job performance in 850 salespeople. Participants completed measures of regulation of emotions, felt stress, vertical collectivism (i.e., accepting social hierarchy and emphasizing team goals over individual goals), and interpersonal conflict. Results indicated that emotion regulation

was important for reducing interpersonal conflict and was also beneficial for job performance. Emotion regulation influenced job performance directly but also indirectly through stress reduction. The negative relationship between emotion regulation and felt stress was strengthened by vertical collectivism. The researchers suggested that participants with higher vertical collectivism may understand the importance of controlling their emotions to reduce stress more than those with low vertical collectivism. Although this study took place in a business setting, it demonstrates the importance of emotion regulation within interpersonal relationships. If this is also true within a sport setting it could be very beneficial for athletes, and teams as a whole.

2.4 Emotion Regulation Research in Sport

Researchers have recently begun investigating athletes' use of emotion regulation within a sport setting. Lane et al. (2011) conducted a study that focused on forms of emotion regulation that individuals believed to be facilitative for reaching his or her goals, which the authors referred to as 'instrumental emotion regulation'. The purpose of the study was to assess differences in the emotional states and emotion regulation strategies between runners who believed anger and/or anxiety would be beneficial for performance compared to those who did not. Participants were 140 males and 220 females at the national, regional, and club level. Participants completed a measure of emotional states, emotion regulation strategies (the two subscales assessing emotion regulation of the self from the Emotion Regulation of Others and Self Scale; EROS; Niven, Totterdell, Stride, & Holman, 2011), and a measure of their beliefs about the benefits or consequences experiencing anger and anxiety in sport (this is what the authors refer to as participants' "meta-emotional beliefs"). The researchers found that 15% of athletes believed anger and/or anxiety would be beneficial for performance and this group of athletes reported experiencing more anger than those who did not believe anger would be beneficial, however there was no difference for anxiety. Further, the athletes who believed anxiety or anger is good for performance reported using strategies to increase unpleasant emotions, such as anger or anxiety, although the difference in the number of strategies used was not very large between these two groups. This study provided evidence that athletes take an instrumental approach to regulate their emotions and attempt to use strategies to increase negative emotions before competition when they believe this will be beneficial to their performance. A strength of this study is that it focused on the instrumental motives of emotion regulation (e.g., regulating emotions for performance goals) rather than simply hedonic motives (e.g., regulating emotions to

‘feel better’). A limitation of this study is that it focused on the use of emotion regulation prior to competing only. Since emotions can vary throughout competition (Martinent et al., 2012), this study does not provide a holistic understanding of the use of emotion regulation, including during and after competition. Another limitation is the use of a questionnaire because it restricts participants’ responses by not allowing them to report strategies not present in the scale.

Totterdell and Leach (2001) conducted a two-part study to examine the relationship between performance and emotion regulation. More specifically, the purpose of the project was to discover if there was a correlation between cricket players’ expectancies for improving their own negative mood and their performance. In the first study, the researchers assessed cricket players’ negative mood regulation using the negative mood regulation scale (Catanzaro & Mearns, 1990) as well as athletes’ reflexivity, well-being, and performance (batting average) during the first half the of cricket season. The results demonstrated that athletes with greater expectancy that they could get themselves out of a negative mood performed better over the course of the season. The second study was similar in that it assessed negative mood regulation and performance but also assessed athletes’ moods before the match, during lunch and tea intervals, and after the match. The results indicated that negative mood regulation was significantly correlated with batting average and higher ratings for happy moods. The findings suggest that being able to regulate negative emotions may lead to enhanced moods and improved performance. A limitation of this study is that it did not explore the specific strategies athletes used to regulate their emotions. A qualitative approach may help to overcome this limitation and help researchers better understand athletes’ use of emotion regulation and their reasoning for using such strategies.

Some studies have also introduced experimental designs to further understand the emotion regulation process among athletes. Wagstaff (2014) conducted a study with a single-blind, within-participant, counterbalanced, repeated-measures design to look at the relationship between athletes’ use of emotion regulation and sport performance. The researchers asked participants to either watch a video and try to suppress their emotions, watch a video without being asked to suppress their emotions, or to watch no video (control group), followed by a 10km cycling task. Athletes in the emotion suppression group had lower levels of performance (measured by completion time), lower mean power outputs (measured in watts), lower maximum heart rates, and higher perceived levels of exertion when compared to the non-suppression and

control groups. The results suggest that emotion regulation has an impact on perceived exertion and sport performance, however, the study presents some limitations. This study examined only one aspect of emotion regulation (suppression) although there are many other ways an athlete may regulate their emotions in a sport setting. Further, this study lacked ecological validity since it took place in a lab.

Also within this line of research, Balk, Adriaanse, de Ridder, and Evers (2013) used a similar research design to determine whether reappraisal and distraction had a positive influence on performance when athletes completed a high pressure golf putting task. Participants were assigned to either reappraisal, distraction, or a control group. They first completed the task in a low-pressure situation followed by a high pressure situation. The researchers assessed the golfers' arousal and performance and results revealed that athletes in the control condition had a significant decrease in performance from the low to high pressure situation. Athletes in the reappraisal condition did not suffer a decline in performance, and those in the distraction condition improved their performance with increased pressure. Findings from this study suggest that emotion regulation strategies may be beneficial in reducing the likelihood of choking however, researchers were unable to demonstrate that this relationship is mediated by subjective arousal. Further, these findings may not be generalizable outside of a lab setting or to other sports.

In summary, researchers have demonstrated that athletes do in fact regulate their emotions and that regulating one's emotions may lead to improved performance. However, there still remains a lack of understanding of athletes' preferences of emotion regulation. In addition to instrumental or hedonic goals for emotion regulation, there may be other individual differences including age, self-esteem, and culture that may account for emotion regulation preferences (Tamir, 2009). There also appears to be a lack of information about how social interactions might influence emotion regulation within teams. Additional research in this area will help researchers and sport psychology practitioners understand what athletes want to feel before, during, and after competition, and ideally help them perform to the best of their ability.

2.5 Individual Differences in Emotion Regulation

Emotion regulation has been found to be influenced by individual differences such as personality, emotional intelligence, and gender.

2.5.1 Personality

Past research has demonstrated that variables such as emotional expressiveness, emotion regulation, and coping vary according to personality dimensions. For example, in a meta-analysis, Riggio and Riggio (2002) found a significant positive correlation between extraversion and emotional expressiveness in studies that used self-report measures, although the results were not as strong in studies that used measures of behaviour. The authors suggested that this difference could have been the result of behavioural measures mainly assessing facial expressions of emotions while self-report measured various forms of emotional expression such as facial expressions and gestures. Riggio and Riggio (2002) stated that extroverts are more sociable, talkative, impulsive, and sensation-seeking, which could explain the finding that extroverts are more emotionally expressive. Further, introverts tend to communicate their emotions less accurately and less frequently, possible due to being shy, quiet, and reserved.

Wang, Shi, and Li (2009) conducted a studying investigating the relationship between personality and general affect and the mediating role of emotion regulation strategies. The researchers had 430 undergraduate male students complete measures of personality, emotion regulation, and general affect. The researchers suggested that the relationship between personality dimensions and general affect may be explained by the differences in the use of emotion regulation strategies since individuals with different personality dimensions use emotion regulation strategies (i.e., reappraisal) differently. Kokkenen and Pulkkinen (2001) also supported the idea that emotion regulation is influenced by personality in a longitudinal study of 180 men and women. At age 27, participants completed an interview and a measure of personality; at age 33, participant completed another measure of personality. Lastly, at age 36, participants were interviewed and completed a measure of emotion regulation and dysregulation. Kokkenen and Pulkkinen (2001) found that extraversion and neuroticism were associated with different of emotion regulation strategies by participants years later. Specifically, extraversion was linked to lower emotional ambivalence (i.e., conflict over emotional expression) and higher levels of emotional social support. Neuroticism was associated with higher emotional ambivalence and fewer attempts to improve emotions by planning or imagining something desirable.

Although not specific to emotion regulation, Connor-Smith and Flachsbart (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of personality and coping. Although personality was weakly related to broad levels of coping, specific emotion regulation strategies were predicted by the Big Five personality traits. Extraversion, neuroticism, and conscientiousness all predicted support seeking. Extraversion and conscientiousness both predicted cognitive restructuring while neuroticism predicted problematic coping strategies (e.g., wishful thinking). Personality was a stronger predictor of coping strategies in younger participants and participants who were stressed. This study demonstrated that there are differences in coping strategies most often used by individuals with various personality traits.

Within a sport context, past research has demonstrated that the Big Five personality factors influence the appraisal process, coping, and coping effectiveness. For example, Kaiseler, Polman, and Nicholls (2012) collected measures of personality, sport specific stressors, appraisal, coping and coping effectiveness from 482 athletes. There was an association between stress appraisal and three personality dimensions: neuroticism, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. All Big Five personality traits were associated with coping and coping effectiveness to varying degrees. Neuroticism was associated with coping strategies that were perceived as less adaptive and lower coping effectiveness, while the other four personality dimensions were associated with more adaptive and effective coping strategies. The finding that various coping strategies are associated with the big five personality dimensions was also supported in a correlational study of 253 athletes by Allen, Greenless, and Jones (2011).

2.5.2 Emotional Intelligence

Another factor that may influence emotion regulation is emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). In a study of male handball players, Laborde, Brull, Weber, and Anders (2011) found an association between physiological stress levels (i.e., heart rate) and emotional intelligence. More specifically, the researchers found that participants who scored high in emotional intelligence did not become as stressed as those who scored low in emotional intelligence after being exposed to a competition-like stressor (i.e., a pre-recorded negative

imagery script). The researchers suggested that in a sporting context, athletes with higher emotional intelligence may perceive stress as a challenge rather than a threat.

With regards to psychological skill use, researchers have found an association between emotional intelligence and psychological skill use in varsity level athletes. Lane, Thelwell, Lower, and Devonport (2009) found an association between emotional intelligence and the use of psychological skills (e.g., self-talk, emotional control, imagery, relaxation) in competition and practice in a sample of varsity level athletes. Zizzi, Deaner, and Hirschhorn (2003) also provided modest support of the link between emotional intelligence and athletic performance in intercollegiate baseball players. Interestingly, Laborde, Lautenbach, Allen, Herbert, & Achtzehm (2014) found that emotional intelligence was not predictive of tennis serving performance when under pressure.

2.5.3 Gender

Another factor that may influence emotion regulation is gender. In a review of gender differences in emotion, Wester, Vogel, Pressly, and Heesacker (2002) stated that even though men and women reported experiencing similar levels of sadness, women showed more emotional displays of sadness. The authors also provided evidence that women were more expressive (facial expressions and body language) than men and were better at reading and understanding others' emotions. Although it was suggested that these differences may be due to situational demands and maintaining stereotypes, it seems as though women express their emotions more than men.

Researchers have also demonstrated gender differences in individuals' use of emotion regulation strategies and coping (Nolen-Hoeskema & Aldao, 2011; Tamres, Janicki, & Helgeson, 2002; Zimmerman & Iwanski, 2014). More specifically, women have reported using a wider range of emotion regulation strategies than men (Nolen-Hoeskema & Aldao, 2011). Tamres, Janicki, and Helgeson (2002) found women were more likely to use coping strategies that used verbal expressions to others or the self, seek social support, ruminate about problems, and use positive self-talk. Within a sport setting, Hoar, Crocker, Holt, and Tamminen (2010) examined gender differences in male and female adolescent athletes' coping with interpersonal stressors. Participants identified an interpersonal stressor they had experienced and completed measures of their appraisal of the self-selected stressor and coping strategies they had used to deal with it.

Females reported seeing social support and engaging in cognitive reappraisal more often than males, and males reported more instances of using aggression to cope with interpersonal stressors than females. However, the frequencies of reported instances of cognitive reappraisal and aggressed were quite low. The researchers also found that the context of the self-reported stressor influenced the gender differences in coping. Specifically, females reported seeking social support to deal with coach and personal social stressors more than males but there were no significant gender differences in the use of social support when the stressor was peer, referee, or family related. The idea that women seek social support more frequently than men has been echoed throughout past research (e.g., Crocker & Graham, 1995; Zimmerman & Iwanski, 2014). Overall, the literature on gender differences in emotion clearly shows that women may be more expressive of their emotions and seek support from others more frequently than men.

Overall, researchers have demonstrated that athletes' emotional experience and emotional regulation are influenced by a number of factors including personality dimensions, emotional intelligence, and gender. Since these factors have been found to influence athletes' emotion regulation and coping in past research, it is possible that these factors will be important for the current study. Therefore, it will be important to it will be important to be aware of the possibility that these factors may influence the emotion regulation in the current study.

2.6 Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

Past research on emotion regulation has focused on intrapersonal processes (i.e., how an individual regulates their own emotions). It has been proposed that we can gain more knowledge of this phenomenon from an interpersonal perspective because sport is fundamentally social in nature (e.g., Babkes, Stellino, Partridge, & Moore, 2012). As pointed out by Friesen et al. (2013b), athletes are constantly engaging with teammates, coaches, opponents, and fans. Further, when an individual experiences an emotion, he or she is very likely to share it with others (Rimé, 2009). Without looking at social interactions and variables, emotion regulation will not be fully understood. Interpersonal emotion regulation refers to the deliberate attempt to try to control or influence another person's mood or emotions (Niven, Totterdell, & Holman, 2007).

Gross and Thompson (2007) briefly touched upon the concept of interpersonal emotion regulation, which they referred to as 'extrinsic emotion regulation'. Gross and Thompson (2007) stated that individuals can manage the emotions of a spouse, friend or acquaintance, but that

interpersonal emotion regulation is most evident in early childhood. Examples of a parent regulating the emotions of a child include helping to create daily routines (situation selection) or helping with a difficult task (situation modification). Gross (1998) points out that literature about adults focuses mainly on the intrapersonal processes of emotion regulation whereas the developmental literature focuses on the interpersonal processes of emotion regulation (e.g., Cole, Martin, & Dennis, 2004). Since then, a number of perspectives on interpersonal emotion regulation have been proposed including that of Niven and colleagues (2011), Zaki and Williams (2013), and Van Kleef (2009).

2.6.1 Niven and Colleagues' Theoretical Framework of IER

Niven and colleagues (2009) were among the first to propose a theoretical framework for the study of interpersonal emotion regulation. Within their perspective, emotion regulation strategies can be classified depending on whether the strategy is intended to improve or worsen affect. An example of extrinsic affect-improving is listening to someone's problems. An example of extrinsic affect-worsening is acting annoyed towards someone. Within this framework, emotion regulation strategies can also be classified as engagement-oriented or relationship-oriented. Engagement oriented strategies include those that focus the target (i.e., the person having their emotions regulated) on his or her situation or affective state, for example allowing someone to vent about his or her emotions. Relationship-oriented strategies include talking to the target about his or her relationship with the agent (the person using the strategy). An example of this would be talking to agent about the problem.

Research that has been conducted using Niven et al.'s framework has provided evidence that individuals report trying to improve others' affect more often than attempts at worsening it, and individuals report regulating others' affect more than they perceive having their own affect regulated. For example, in an early study Niven, et al. (2007) examined what they described as 'emotional influence' in HMP Grendon prison. They defined emotional influence as "the attempt to regulate or manage the emotions or moods of another person" (p. 39). The researchers investigated the types of emotional influence behaviours that were used, who used them, and in which contexts. Participants (inmates and guards) first completed a questionnaire with demographic questions, measures of their relationships, measures of their well-being and a daily diary. Interestingly, 75% of all events reported were occasions when the participant attempted to

influence another person's emotions and only 25% of events were those when another person tried to influence the participants' emotions. The authors proposed that this finding might be due to the participants' lack of awareness of when others were trying to influence their emotions. Participants also reported trying to influence another person's emotions in a positive way 75% of the time and reported influencing another persons' emotions in a negative way only 25% of the time, although this response discrepancy may have been due to social desirability. In Niven et al.'s (2011) study, affect worsening strategies were not reported very often indicating that people do not use them as frequently, or they do not admit to using them.

Research that has been conducted within Niven et al.'s framework has also provided evidence that regulating others' affect can influence relationship quality. The results from Niven et al. (2007) support the idea that positive emotional influence behaviours may lead to the development and maintenance of positive relationships. The only behaviour that did not follow this pattern was criticism. Criticism was coded as a negative behaviour although participants reported it did have positive effects with regards to relationship quality. Similarly, Niven, Holman, and Totterdell (2012a) found evidence that positive affect regulation was responsible for positive changes in relationship quality.

Niven, Garcia, van der Lowe, Holman, and Mansell (2015) conducted a study to investigate whether engaging in IER could promote the development of new social relationships in face-to-face interactions. The researchers tracked first year Masters students' popularity by examining students' work-related and non-work related relationships with other students in the year long course at the beginning of the term to the end. Additionally, students provided a measure of their personality (extraversion and agreeableness) and their use of IER towards their classmates over the course of the semester. The results indicated that students' use of IER was significantly and positively related to popularity in work and non-work networks, even after controlling for personality. Since baseline popularity was not related to IER, it indicated a causal relationship (i.e., popularity does not lead to later use of IER). The results suggest that IER may have an impact on individual's popularity or social networks. A limitation of this study is that it did not investigate the specific types of IER behaviours and the recipients' perceptions of having their emotions regulated. In addition, the researchers assessed popularity in general and did not look at specific dyadic relationships.

Another interesting finding regarding interpersonal affect regulation is that it also appears to impact the well-being of the person using the strategies (the agent). Niven, Totterdell, Holman, and Headley (2012b) found support of this in both a high-security prison sample and in an undergraduate student sample. The results indicated that generally, the use of affect-improving strategies led to the agents' affect becoming more positive whereas affect-worsening strategies led to the agents' affect becoming more negative.

Niven and colleagues' theoretical framework provides a useful structure for the study of interpersonal emotion regulation, as it distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic emotion regulation strategies to either improve or worsen affect. This framework can be used to examine the types of strategies athletes use to regulate others' emotions, and to explore whether athletes have preferences for using particular strategies, thus developing a better understanding of interpersonal emotion regulation.

2.6.2 Zaki and Williams' Theoretical Framework of IER

Zaki and Williams (2013) proposed a theoretical framework to classify interpersonal emotion regulation strategies and they also distinguished between two types of processes that can support interpersonal emotion regulation. In terms of classifying emotion regulation strategies, the authors delineated intrapersonal and interpersonal emotion regulation. Intrapersonal regulation refers to self-regulation strategies, while interpersonal regulation occurs in the context of a live social interaction and represents the pursuit of a regulatory goal. Zaki and Williams (2013) also made the distinction between interpersonal regulation and interpersonal modulation based on whether individuals have a goal of altering another's affective state or not. Thus, when an individual does not have the intent to affect a person's affective state, it would be considered modulation. Zaki and Williams (2013) then distinguished between extrinsic interpersonal regulation and intrinsic interpersonal regulation. Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation refers to an individual seeking social contact to regulate his or her own emotions while extrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation refers to when an individual seeking to regulate another person's emotions. Finally, Zaki and Williams (2013) described two processes that can support interpersonal regulation: response-dependent and response-independent processes. Response-dependent processes rely on the response of a person whereas response independent processes do not require a person to react in a certain way.

Although not specifically conducted within this framework, Flores and Berenbaum (2012) studied what they referred to as social regulation of emotion (e.g., regulating emotions with the involvement of others). The purpose of their study was to examine whether an individual's desire for emotional closeness would moderate the degree to which they benefitted from handholding, which is a form of social regulation of emotion. Participants completed measures of desire for emotional closeness, attachment style, and need for affiliation, then watched one of two unpleasant slideshows in either a control condition or a hand-holding condition. Throughout the study, participants provided a rating of their mood valence and arousal level and were video recorded. The results indicated that those in the hand holding condition reported less unpleasant affect, lower levels of arousal, and had lower facial expressivity compared to participants in the control condition. Females benefitted more when in the hand holding condition in self-reported arousal and facial expressivity when compared to males. This study lends support to Zaki and Williams' framework in that emotion regulation of others can take place even if an individual does not have the intent to alter another person's emotions.

This framework adds new avenues for future research. More specifically, Zaki and Williams (2013) proposed that individuals may seek social contact to have their own affect regulated. They also include a distinction concerning interpersonal regulation that may be dependent on another person's response. Both of these distinctions were not included in Niven and colleagues' framework and therefore adds to what is known about interpersonal emotion regulation.

2.6.3 Van Kleef's Theoretical Framework (EASI Model)

A further framework that may inform this study was proposed by Van Kleef (2009), described as the Emotions as Social Information (EASI) model. This model focuses on how people express and interpret emotions rather than a framework of solely interpersonal emotion regulation. The basis of this framework is that, just like mood provides information to the self, expressing emotions provides information for observers, which may in turn influence their behaviour (Van Kleef, 2009). Van Kleef identified two ways in which observers' emotions can be influenced: inferential and affective processes. In the inferential process, observers can assume or infer what emotions the person is expressing. This information in turn influences the behaviour of the observer. Van Kleef suggested that there are two types of affective processes. First, the emotion of the expresser spreads directly to the observer via emotional contagion. The second type is

emotional expressions influencing the observer's impressions of the expresser and their interpersonal liking. For example, if a person displays a lot of anger the observer may have a bad impression and develop a dislike of the expresser, thus causing the observer to avoid him or her in the future. An important and relevant aspect of Van Kleef's (2009) EASI model is the influence of social-relational factors on one's perceived appropriateness of emotional expressions and the target's response. These factors include the interpersonal relationship, the social norms or display rules, and the specific emotion that is expressed.

Research conducted within this framework has provided evidence that emotions do in fact serve as social information. For example, Van Kleef, De Dreu, and Manstead (2004) conducted a study in which participants took part in a computer-mediated negotiation with an opponent who was either angry, happy, or neutral. Participants were found to concede more to an opponent who was angry compared to one who was happy. The results provided evidence that participants used the information from the other person's emotion to make inferences about the other's limits and adjusted their behaviour accordingly, which supports the concept of the inferential process.

Sy, Cote, and Saavedra (2005) conducted a study with an experimental design to assess the impact of leaders' mood on their group. Leaders were randomly selected from each group and given information to help with the task of setting up a tent while blindfolded. Leaders then watched a video to either induce happiness or anger, and all participants completed measures of mood throughout the experiment. At the individual level, participants with a positive leader experienced more positive and less negative moods when compared to those with a negative leader. The researchers found similar findings when looking at the moods of participants at the group level. However, participants with an angry leader also reported expending more effort than those with a happy leader. The authors attributed this to participants thinking angry leaders were unhappy with the progress of the work leading them to expend more effort. These results support Van Kleef's idea that emotions transfer from one person to another through emotional contagion and that emotional expressions can influence targets' behaviours. Van Kleef's model provides a framework for understanding the interpersonal effects of emotions and emotional expressions. This information will be valuable in understanding interpersonal emotion regulation and more specifically, how people may know when others want or need their emotions to be regulated.

Tamir (2015) conducted a review to identify classes of motivation in emotion regulation. The first distinction is between hedonic motives, those that target the immediate experience of emotions, and instrumental motives, those target other possible benefit of emotion. Hedonic motives are further broken down into prohedonic and contrahedonic. Prohedonic motives intend to increase pleasure or decrease pain while contrahedonic motives intend to decrease pleasure and increase pain. Instrumental motives can be further divided into four motives: performance, epistemic, social, and eudaimonic. Performance motives reflect individuals' desires to attain valuable outcomes in the pursuit of a goal. Performance motives can then be separated whether the intention is to alter cognitions (i.e., cognitive motives) or behaviour (i.e., behavioural motives). An individual with epistemic motives want to know what is real about themselves and the world. Social motives are those that seek to maintain positive social relationships at the dyadic, group, and cultural levels. Lastly, eudaimonic motives include the desire to relate, and feel autonomous and competent. This taxonomy of motives for emotion regulation will be valuable when analyzing why athletes chose to regulate (or not regulate) their teammates' emotions.

2.7 Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Research in Sport

Within a sport context, only a few studies have investigated interpersonal emotion regulation explicitly. Wagstaff, Fletcher and Hanton (2013) conducted a study to add to the existing literature with regards to mechanisms and processes involved with interpersonal relationships, focusing on emotion abilities and emotion regulation within a national sport organization. A total of 21 individuals took part in semi-structured interviews about emotion regulation strategies they used or observed that were perceived as successful and to provide practical advice for regulating one's own emotions or the emotions of others in sport organizations. Monitoring their vocal tone, pitch and behaviour are some ways that were identified by participants to help with reading others' emotions. The types of emotion regulation strategies reported were divided into two categories: experience regulation and expression regulation. Within experience regulation, the most commonly reported strategies were forward-tracking (i.e., thinking about the potential consequence of expressing an emotion or behaviour), back-tracking (i.e., trying to make sense of an emotion or behaviour), and trying to experience the emotions you think you should be feeling. Within expression regulation, the most commonly reported strategies were employing self-control to avoid acting on impulse, expressing an emotion you think you should, and holding

back emotions. It is important to point out that participants felt social norms played a large role in understanding the appropriateness of a regulation strategy. This study provided insight into the emotion regulation process within sport organization but did not provide insight into the teammate-to-teammate interactions.

Wagstaff et al. (2013) followed this work with a program evaluation to assess interventions to improve emotion abilities and strategies of individuals within a sport organization. In the first phase of the study, participants attended three progressive workshops, each one lasting two-three hours and spread six weeks apart. The workshops focused on identifying one's own and others' emotions, emotion experience regulation, and emotion regulation strategies. Three participants agreed to take part in the second phase which included six coaching sessions. The focus of these sessions was to teach participants about emotional intelligence and how to use emotion abilities to promote optimal functioning. To assess the quality and effectiveness of the intervention, participants completed a number of questionnaires and some participants took part in interviews. The results indicated that participants in the first phase had improvements in their use of reappraisal, relationship closeness, and the quality of their relationships and a decrease in the amount of emotional suppression. There was no significant difference found in emotional intelligence scores following the workshops. The results from the second phase of the study indicated that the one-to-one coaching phase was effective at improving participants' emotional intelligence scores and altering the emotion regulation strategies they used. Further, participants reported improved organizational relationship closeness and quality as well as perceived organizational functioning. This study was the first study of its kind within a sport organization, however, it is largely situated with the organizational psychology literature and future research should seek to better understand the process of emotion regulation in other areas of sport such as among athletes themselves.

Wagstaff and Weston (2014) conducted a study to better understand the emotions that mountaineers experienced while they were on a two-month expedition in Antarctica. This study was conducted in a performance based setting in the sense that participants had to perform skills such as climbing, skiing, and mountaineering, in order the complete their goal of conducting research. The researchers explored the emotion regulation strategies participants used, the perceived effectiveness of these strategies, and the potential outcomes of emotional labour, group dynamics, and emotional contagion. Participants engaged in pre-expedition and post-expedition

semi-structured interviews and while on the expedition the participants completed daily diary entries. The participants rated acceptance and expressive suppression as the most effective strategies for regulating their own emotions although they were only rated as moderately effective overall. The least effective strategies were catastrophizing and rumination. Emotions were found to have a significant impact on perceptions of task cohesion, social cohesion, and team performance. More specifically, participants rated task cohesion, social cohesion, and perceptions of team performance significantly lower on days when a participant stated their most prevalent emotion was anger compared to contentment. This finding supports the idea that emotional contagion played a role in influencing teammates' emotions. A strength of this study was its longitudinal design, as it allowed the researchers to better understand the influence emotions and emotion regulation had on various outcomes. A weakness of this study was the lack of focus on the interpersonal emotion regulation strategies reported by the participants; although the authors stated that participants were asked about the interpersonal emotion regulation strategies they intended on using (pre-expedition interview) and the interpersonal emotion regulation strategies they engaged in during the expedition (post-expedition interview), these were not addressed in detail in their results or discussion section.

Friesen, Devonport, Sellers, and Lane (2013a) conducted a study to explore how the social functions of emotions may influence athletes' decisions to regulate their teammates' emotions. Two hockey captains (from different teams) took part in an individual semi-structured interview at the end of their competitive season. The researchers analyzed the data at individual, dyadic, group and cultural levels. At the dyadic level, participants reported that they assessed others' emotions and compared their teammate's current state to what was believed to be his or her ideal state. If there was a discrepancy, the participants reported engaging in interpersonal emotion regulation. Within the group level, participants reported regulating their teammates' emotions to help them achieve their collective goals or to fulfill their specific roles within the team. At the cultural level, emotion regulation was used to help athletes maintain their cultural identities (i.e., identifying as a hockey player). A strength of this study was its multiple level of analyses because it created a holistic understanding of emotion regulation instead of limiting it to just dyadic emotion regulation for example. A limitation of this study is that the researchers were unable to understand how each team norms, roles, and relationships influence interpersonal emotion regulation.

Tamminen and Crocker (2013) adopted an instrumental case study approach (Stake, 1995) to better understand emotional self-regulation and interpersonal emotion regulation within a high level curling team. Data were collected through season long observations and three individual semi-structured interviews (early season, mid-season, and post-season). With regards to interpersonal emotion regulation, participants reported five strategies; positive/technical feedback, humour, cueing teammates about emotions, prosocial actions (i.e., changing one's own behaviour in order to accommodate another), and indirect actions (i.e., protecting one's teammates from stressors or criticism). Participants reported using technical feed and positive feedback most often following a poor shot, whereas they reported using humour to 'loosen' up their teammates when things became tense. The authors also identified factors that influenced emotional regulation such as the length of time the athletes had spent together. As the season progressed it seemed as though participants engaged in interpersonal emotion regulation more frequently, which the researchers attributed to increased team cohesion. The context (i.e., competition, post-game debriefing), social norms, team roles, and seeking social support outside the team all influenced self-regulation. Tamminen and Crocker (2013) reported that athletes' roles, both formal and informal, influenced the way in which they engaged in interpersonal emotion regulation. A limitation to this study however was that they did not explicitly ask about team cohesion.

Recently, Friesen, Devonport, Sellars, and Lane (2015b) conducted a study with a professional British hockey team to understand the types of IER behaviours are used specifically in hockey and what factors moderate IER. Sixteen athletes took part in semi-structured interviews where they were asked to recall important games that recently occurred and then asked questions regarding their experiences with IER. The authors identified 22 IER strategies using content analysis, and they then conducted a deductive analysis using the EASI model to categorize the IER strategies. The IER strategies were classified as verbal or behavioural in nature, and they were also categorized depending on whether the strategy was intended to initiate inferential processing (e.g., attempting to manage or change an individual's internal appraisals) or affective reactions among teammates. Broadly, strategies within the verbal inferential processing theme included deception, calling out teammates, distraction, goal setting positive appraisals, rewards, and threats and punishment. Humour and hockey chatter were considered verbal IER strategies targeted at affective reactions. Strategies such as benching/line jiggling, pulling the goalie, and

giving a tap on the pads were considered as behavioural inferential processing strategies. Fighting, fun activities, and hitting opponents/physical play were categorized as behaviours targeting affective reactions among teammates. A number of variables that were thought to moderate athletes' use of IER were also identified, including understanding the agent's appraisal, personality, situational meaning, being confronted with poor performance, performance regulation precedence over emotion regulation, perceived status of agent, timing, relationship dynamics, appropriateness of strategy, appropriateness of emotion evoked, emotion regulation by role, and professionalism. This study is a valuable contribution to the literature because it provides a theoretically based classification of IER strategies and moderating factors of IER that are specific to hockey players. However, despite categorizing athletes' IER strategies according to the EASI model and identifying some of the factors that influenced IER, Friesen et al. (2015b) did not provide sufficient detail to fully understand the intricacies of each strategy and moderating variable. For example, only one role (i.e., leadership) was identified as having an impact on the use of IER, and only one position (i.e., goalie) was found to influence athletes' use of IER. Another limitation of this study was that many strategies were very specific to hockey (e.g., pulling the goalie, tapping on the pads) and may not be generalizable to other sports. Thus, it would be valuable to understand how IER may manifest within other sports. Additionally, Friesen et al. (2015b) did not thoroughly consider how gender or social norms influence IER or how athletes learn to regulate their teammates' emotions. Lastly, athletes' preferences for having their emotions regulated were not taken into consideration in their study. Thus, using a case study approach to investigate IER among a team of female volleyball athletes may contribute additional information regarding IER in sport.

Additional work has been conducted recently to investigate the utility of interventions to improve IER within a team. Friesen, Devonport, Lane and Sellars (2015a) described an intervention case study with a professional hockey team in Britain over the course of two seasons with the goal of improving IER in team members, by engaging in debriefing with the coach and athletes, using self-regulation to model the skills athletes should use, and brief contact interventions. Athletes completed the Brief Emotion Intelligence Scale (Davies, Lane, Devonport, & Scott, 2010) pre-and post-intervention to assess emotional intelligence and ability to regulate others' emotions. The results indicated a significant increase in overall emotional intelligence for the athletes that completed the pre- and post-intervention assessment, however

five athletes' emotional intelligence scores actually decreased over time. This unexpected result may raise concerns over the choice of assessment tool for this study. The results also indicated that athletes' ability to regulate their teammates' emotions improved slightly but this result was not significant. Because there are several gaps in the literature regarding IER in sport contexts, additional research is warranted to understand how and why athletes engage in IER. Such research will be useful for informing the development of future interventions and in identifying considerations for more effective implementation of IER interventions.

In sum, very little of the past research on interpersonal emotion regulation has explicitly focused on athletes or teammate-to-teammate interactions. Some studies conducted within a sport context (e. g., Wagstaff et al., 2013; Tamminen & Crocker, 2013; Friesen et al., 2015b) have identified strategies that individuals use to regulate others' emotions but there remains a need to understand how and why athletes regulate emotions within a team context. Tamminen and Crocker (2013) and Friesen et al. (2015b) identified some IER strategies and factors that influence the regulation of others' emotions but a number of variables remain unexplored (e.g., position and starting status on the team). Tamminen and Crocker (2013) suggested future research investigate interpersonal emotion regulation in sports with different contextual characteristic such as larger teams or those with various 'lines'. It does not appear that any research has explored the perceived effectiveness of regulating others emotions or having one's own emotions regulated in the sport literature. It is evident that there are a number of gaps in the sport psychology literature with regards to interpersonal emotion regulation. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to fill these gaps in the literature and develop a better understanding interpersonal emotion regulation of teammates in a high performance volleyball team. The current study will build on the existing literature by investigating athletes' use of emotion regulation strategies to increase and decrease both positive and negative emotions in others and the motives for using these strategies.

2.8 Related Areas of Research

Although not specific to the topic of interpersonal emotion regulation, some related areas which may help to inform the current study include social support, emotional contagion, team cohesion, and roles/social norms.

2.8.1 Social Support

Social support is a multidimensional construct that can be broken down into functional and structural aspects. The structural aspect is the existence of a social relationship whereas the functional aspect refers to the specific functions of a relationship (Cohen & Willis, 1985). The functional aspect can then be further broken down into perceived availability of support and actual received support (Freeman, Rees, & Hardy, 2009). There are four dimensions of perceived support: emotional, esteem, informational and tangible. Emotional support refers to being there for someone which leads them to feel loved and cared for. Esteem support refers to improving someone's confidence or self-esteem. Informational support refers to giving someone guidance or relevant information. Lastly, tangible support is providing physical assistance for example, driving a friend to practice (Freeman, et al., 2009).

Researchers have demonstrated that received support (e.g. Rees, Hardy, Freeman, 2007) and perceived support (Freeman & Rees, 2009), more specifically esteem support, was beneficial for golfers' objective sport performance. Rees, Hardy, and Freeman (2007) conducted a study with 117 high performance golfers. Before a tournament, athletes completed measures of received social support and stressors, and after the tournament athletes' standardized golf scores were recorded. Social support was found to be associated with better performance, and a significant main effect of social support on performance suggests that it may have helped athletes' performance regardless of the level of stress they experienced. A limitation of this study is that it did not include a measure of perceived support. Further, all measures were taken before competition so the stressors and social support encountered during play could not be captured.

Researchers conducted a preliminary study that looked at the impact of individual-based social support interventions provided promising results (Freeman et al., 2009). In that study, the lead researcher replaced three golfers' caddies during multiple rounds of golf and provided social support (emotional, esteem, informational, and/or tangible) based on the individual's needs. After each round of golf, the participants completed a measure of received social support. All golfers reported higher levels of support compared to baseline measures and all golfers' scores improved although only one golfer's improvement was significant. The results of this study should be interpreted with caution however, since there were only three participants. In addition, it is possible that the participants improved because they were under investigation rather than

because of the actual received support. However, this study lends support to the idea that social support may lead to improved performance.

Defreese and Smith (2013) conducted a study of 235 intercollegiate athletes to examine associations between perceived support availability, received support, support satisfaction, athlete burnout, and self-determined motivation. Perceived support availability was inversely related with burnout and positively related with athletes' self-determined motivation after controlling for support satisfaction. This is in line with past research that found adequate social support was negatively correlated with characteristics of burnout in high performance rugby players (Cresswell, 2008). Interestingly, received support was not significantly associated with burnout or motivation over and above support satisfaction. These studies provide evidence that social support can improve performance and decrease the likelihood of burnout. Although there may be some overlap between social support and IER, it is important to note that these two concepts are distinct from one another. Interpersonal emotion regulation can be differentiated from social support because it is concerned with efforts to influence others' affect or emotions, it can be used to improve as well as worsen others' affect or emotions, and lastly, it can be used with the intent of pursuing broader goals such as influencing performance, attitudes or behaviours, and social relationships (Niven et al., 2009; Niven et al., 2012b).

2.8.2 Emotional Contagion

An additional area of research that may provide insight for the current study is that of emotional contagion. Emotional contagion is defined as "the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person's and, consequently, to converge emotionally" (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1992, p. 153). Totterdell, Kellet, Teuchmann and Briner (1998) conducted two studies investigating whether people's moods were influenced by the moods of their coworkers. The participants in the first study were 65 nurses working in 13 different teams. For a three-week period, participants completed a daily measure of mood and work hassles. At the end of the three weeks, the nurses completed a questionnaire assessing team commitment, team climate (i.e., support, team enthusiasm, openness), and team hassles (i.e., hassles with other team members). The results indicated a significant correlation between nurses' own moods and the moods of their own teammates and did not seem to depend on the occurrence of shared negative events. This

relationship was stronger for nurses who were older, had higher team commitment, perceived the team climate to be better, or had fewer team hassles. This study demonstrated that there was indeed a linkage of the teammates' moods although there were some limitations. First, the participants' daily moods became quite consistent so the researchers were unable to attribute the mood similarities to emotional contagion. Additionally, the researchers did not assess external variables or if participants were able to accurately assess their teammate's moods.

The purpose of the second study was to improve the design of the first study and to test whether there would be mood linkages in other work settings. The participants of the second study were nine members of a financial accounts department. During a four-week period participants completed measures of their affect, workload, and work problems. The results of this study supported the results of the first by demonstrating that participants' moods were significantly correlated to their teammates' moods. This correlation was not dependent on shared negative events (i.e., the correlation remained even after controlling for the number of shared negative events experienced by the nurses). Participants were also able to accurately judge their teammates' moods although this seemed dependent on participants' judgments of personal and collective problems experienced. The researchers were unable to demonstrate that team mood preceded or caused mood changes in individuals. Both of these studies demonstrated that the moods of teammates were significantly related, however a limitation of this study was that it did not take into account positive events that may have influenced participants' moods. Most importantly, this study did not take into account any social interactions. The study would have been strengthened if the researchers inquired about the interaction participants had with one another. It would be beneficial to not only understand the incidental emotional change, but also deliberate attempt to alter moods or emotions.

Volmer (2012) conducted a study with an experimental design about mood contagion among German students. Participants were put into teams of three and then one person was designated the role of leader, taken into a separate room and presented with one of two pieces of music (positive or negative) to manipulate their mood. Participants were then given 10 minutes to put together as many of the 300 puzzle pieces as they could which was the measure of performance. Participants completed measures of mood throughout the study and after the task they completed a questionnaire about potency (i.e. confidence) and goal commitment. Team members experienced a more positive mood when they had a positive leader compared to teams with a

negative leader. Teams with positive leaders were found to perform better and have higher levels of potency too. This study demonstrates that one person's mood can affect the rest of his or her teammates' moods. A limitation to this study is that researchers were unsure about whether the leader influenced the moods of the team members any more or less than the rest of the teammates thus leaving an unclear understanding of mood contagion. In addition, this study took place in a laboratory setting and lacked ecological validity.

More specific to a sport context, Totterdell (2000) conducted a study in which he examined whether professional cricket players can "catch" the mood of his teammates and if this had an influence on athletes' subjective playing performance. Athletes completed measures of team commitment, emotional expressiveness, emotional contagion, and attraction to the team at the beginning of the study. Additionally, participants completed measures of individual and team mood, personal and shared negative and positive events, and subjective performance during game intervals. The results revealed that athletes' happiness levels were significantly related to their teammates' level of happiness. The researchers also identified three moderating variables: age, commitment to the team, and susceptibility to emotional contagion. There was a stronger association between an athlete and his or her teammates' mood if they were older, more committed to their team, or susceptible to emotional contagion. These studies present evidence of emotional contagion however, they do not provide insight into athletes' intent to control or influence their teammates' emotions.

2.8.3 Team Cohesion

Another related area of research that is relevant to the current study is that of team cohesion, which is defined as "a dynamic process that is reflected in the tendency for a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of its instrumental objectives and/or for the satisfaction of member affective needs" (Carron, Brawley, & Widmeyer, 1998, p. 213). Cohesion can be broken down into two types: task and social. Task cohesion is concerned with unity with regards to team goals and objective whereas social cohesion is concerned with social unity (Carron, Brawley, & Widmeyer, 1998). Results from a retrospective meta-analysis revealed a significant relationship between cohesion (overall, task, and social cohesion) and performance, meaning that as cohesion increases, so does performance (Filho, Dobersek, Gershgoren, Becker, & Tenenbaum, 2014).

Hardy, Eys, and Carron (2005) conducted a study investigating the potential disadvantages of high cohesion in sports teams. One hundred and five athletes of varying skill levels completed an open-ended questionnaire that asked athletes to state any possible disadvantages to being a part of a highly cohesive team. About 56% of participants reported possible disadvantages to having high social cohesion whereas only 31% reported possible disadvantages to high task cohesion. Some disadvantages include time wasting, decreased focus, communication problems, decreased focus, and perceived pressures. These results indicate that high cohesion has the ability to have negative consequences for teams. It is possible that cohesion may influence the process of interpersonal emotion regulation since there is a possibility of it helping and hindering athletes and teams.

2.8.4 Roles

Athletes' roles on their teams may also influence their interpersonal emotion regulation. With regards to roles, Eys, Beauchamp, and Bray (2006) identified two levels of distinction that can be made: formal versus informal roles and task-oriented versus socio-emotional roles. Examples of formal roles include team captain or a playing position (e.g., goalie) whereas informal roles include things such as being the team comedian. Task-oriented roles are performance or goal-related whereas socio-emotional goals are expressive and promote integration and harmony within the team (Eys et al., 2006).

In the past, researchers have attempted to identify informal roles in sport (e.g., Cope, Eys, Beauchamp, Schinke, & Bosselut, 2011) while some studies have focused on other aspects of roles such as role ambiguity (Beauchamp, Bray, Eys, & Carron, 2002, 2003; Eys, Carron, Beauchamp, & Bray, 2005). Researchers have identified that athletes in a leadership role can have a beneficial impact on teams such as increased cohesion and improved communication, (Crozier, Loughead, & Chandler, 2013) and negative informal roles can be perceived as detrimental to team functioning (Cope, Eys, Schinke, & Bosselut, 2010).

Spink (1992) conducted a study to better understand the relationship between starting status and perceptions of group cohesion and how a team's level of success may influence the relationship. The participants were 79 male and female volleyball players who completed a measure of group cohesion and a few additional questions including a single measure of starting status prior to their first game at a tournament. The participants were then categorized as successful or

unsuccessful based on whether their team won a medal or not. For successful teams, there were no significant differences between starters and non-starters on measures of cohesion. With less successful teams, starters and non-starters were significantly different on three of the four cohesion scales only. This study demonstrates that there are some differences between starters and non-starters and thus it is possible that there could be differences in interpersonal emotion regulation between starters and non-starters too.

Since past research has demonstrated that athletes' roles can have various impacts on individuals as well as the team as a whole, it is possible that athletes' roles will influence interpersonal emotion regulation as well. Tamminen and Crocker (2013) briefly touched upon the influence of athletes' roles (e.g., the skip being a leader) on interpersonal emotion regulation. However, the current study will ask athletes about their informal and formal roles explicitly and seek to understand if it plays a part in the process. In summary, research in the areas of social support, emotional contagion, team cohesion, roles will be used to inform the current research. Ideally, the knowledge learned from these areas will help to develop a better understanding of interpersonal emotion regulation.

2.8.5 Group Norms

Norms are implicit in nature and reflect behaviours that are appropriate and desired (Jackson, 2014). Norms can be broken down into injunctive, descriptive, and subjective norms. An injunctive norm is one's appraisal of what others think he or she should do (e.g., my friend thinks I should lift weights more; Jackson, 2014). Conversely, descriptive norms are one's appraisals about what others do (e.g., my friend lifts weights very frequently; Jackson, 2014). Subjective norms reflect an individual's idea about the extent to which other people think he or she should engage in a behaviour in combination and the extent to which the individual is motivated to conform (Jackson, 2014). Within larger groups (including sports teams), group norms develop and are defined as behaviours that become expected of members of a specific group through communication and reinforcement (Carron & Eys, 2012; Jackson, 2014). Group norms have been found to develop regarding task (e.g., at games and practices) and social (e.g., at social events and during social interactions) components of behaviour (Jackson, 2014).

Researchers have sought to better understand the factors that influence group norms, such as team tenure, gender, and sport type. Bruner, Carreau, Wilson, and Penney (2014) and Colman

and Carron (2001) both tested the relationship between team tenure and group norms using quantitative methods. In both studies, researchers were unable to find a significant relationship between team tenure and athletes' perceptions of group norms. It was proposed that the researchers did not find a significant relationship due to the timing of the data collection (at the end of the regular season; Bruner et al., 2014) and a small sample size (Carron & Eys, 2012). There still remains a need to understand the relationship between team tenure and group norms. Future research should seek to understand how these two variables influence interpersonal emotion regulation within a team.

Spink, Crozier and Robinson (2013) conducted a study to examine the influence of norms associated with perceptions of others' effort on individual self-reported effort among male and female adolescent athletes who played football, volleyball, and swimming. The results of the study indicated that an athlete's effort in a sport setting was related to his or her perceptions of how hard others were working. Despite establishing a relationship between group norms and effort, future research could seek to understand how group norms and perceived effort influence athletes' behaviours.

Social norms are another aspect of group norms that have been investigated in past research on emotions in sport. For example, there is research to suggest that athletes perceive social norms regarding the appropriateness of emotional expressions in sport (e.g., Wong, Steinfeldt, LaFollette, & Tsao, 2011). Recently, Tamminen and colleagues (2016) conducted a qualitative study on the social functions of emotions in varsity level athletes. The participants were seven males and seven females from a variety of sports including basketball, volleyball, soccer, track and field, hockey, and swimming. The researchers interpreted that social norms within sport influenced athletes' emotional expression; for example, athletes reported feeling that they were not able to display negativity in certain situations or that their outward displays of emotions should conform to the emotions displayed by others on the team/in the group. At times, leaders and even coaches explicitly attempted to influence athletes' displays of emotions, thus reinforcing social norms regarding emotion expression among athletes. This provides evidence that social norms may have an impact on athletes' expression and suppression of emotions. Despite past research providing some preliminary evidence that athletes might attempt to influence others' emotions to maintain a socially acceptable outward appearance, a limitation of these studies is that researchers did not explicitly investigate why or how social norms influence

IER. Future research is needed to understand how social norms (e.g., norms for emotional expression) influence athletes' use of IER in a team context.

2.9 The Present Study

The purpose of the present study was to better understand interpersonal emotion regulation within a team. Additionally, the researcher sought to identify factors that influence interpersonal emotion regulation and athletes' preferences for having their own emotions regulated by teammates. The specific research questions addressed were: 1) How do athletes regulate their teammates' emotions? 2) What factors influence interpersonal emotion regulation? 3) What do athletes perceive are effective strategies for having their emotions regulated by their teammates?

Chapter 3
Method

3.1 Case Study Methodology

For this study, an instrumental case study approach (Stake, 1995) was taken to better understand the concept of interpersonal emotion regulation. This method was useful for understanding interpersonal emotion regulation within a team, while also taking into account social aspects (e.g., social norms and cohesion) of the team sport context. A women's volleyball team was purposefully sampled because past research suggests that women seek social support more frequently than men (Crocker & Graham, 1995; Hoar et al., 2010; Nicholls, Polman, Levy, Taylor, & Colby, 2007). There is also evidence that women may benefit more from social regulation of emotion than men (Flores & Berenbaum, 2012). Volleyball was selected because at the varsity level, there is a clear distinction between starting and non-starting players and athletes congregate almost daily thus providing several opportunities for interpersonal emotion regulation. During matches, teammates come together in a huddle after almost every point and there is at least one (but often more) time out per set. This provides athletes with ample opportunities to try and regulate each other's emotions. Since emotions are conceptualized as a response to an event that is appraised as relevant to an individual's goal (Lazarus, 1999), a high performance varsity level team was selected since high performance athletes likely have the goal of have the goal of winning, and they are likely to be emotionally invested in their sport. It was assumed that these athletes would experience the stressors and emotions associated with high performance sport, and ideally provide rich data for answering the research questions. A final reason for selecting a women's varsity volleyball team is that the researcher personally competed in volleyball at the varsity level and her knowledge of the intricacies of the sport helped to better understand the dynamics within the team.

3.2 Paradigmatic Perspective

This study was approached from a critical realist perspective. The focus of critical realism is to explain social phenomena in terms of social mechanisms and their interactions in various contexts (Elger, 2010). Critical realism assumes a transcendental realist ontology. This ontological perspective supports the idea of an objective reality, although it cannot be identified with absolute certainty (Clark, 2008). Critical realism takes on an eclectic realist/interpretivist

epistemology, which means reality is explored in social settings and explained through interactions with social and natural objects (Easton, 2010). Critical realism advocates that researchers understand a phenomenon in a real world setting to avoid the problem of being unable to generalize from an unnatural setting (Clark, 2008). Although data were collected in the form of interviews, the focus was on participants' experiences in a sport-specific setting. Conducting research from a critical realist perspective requires a sufficient sample size to allow comparisons between participants (Clark, 2008). The volleyball team studied consisted of 16 athletes, which was sufficient to analyze the entire case and make within-case comparisons between teammates. Research in line with critical realism should try to avoid the impact of the researcher's experiences and preconceptions (Clark, 2008). To reduce the impact of the researcher's past experiences on the present study, a reflexive journal was used and throughout the entire study the thesis supervisor and committee members acted as "critical friends" (Faulkner & Sparkes, 1999; Holt & Sparkes, 2001). These individuals helped identify ways that the researcher's familiarity with varsity level volleyball might have affected the data collection and interpretations of the data. Lastly, an emphasis was placed on providing a rigorous description of the results and providing an explanation of patterns in the data which is in line with critical realism (Clark, 2008).

3.3 Participants

Sixteen athletes were invited to take part in two semi-structured interviews. Athletes were able to take part in the second round of interviews regardless of their participation or nonparticipation in the first interview. One athlete took part in only the first interview, four athletes took part in only the second interview, and nine athletes took part in both interviews. Thus, a total of 23 interviews took place, ranging from 30.5 minutes to 76 minutes (the average was 41 minutes and 46 seconds), resulting in 287 single-spaced pages of typed transcripts. Athletes ranged from 18-23 years old and most athletes identified as Caucasian. Five participants were in their first year on the team, two were in their second year, two were in their third year, two were in their third year, two were in their fourth year, and three were in their fifth year. Of the 14 participants, half were starters and the other half were not. There were three setters, three middles, two liberos, four left sides, one right side, and one athlete considered herself as both a left side and right side player. Two athletes were injured at the time of data collection.

Athletes have been assigned pseudonyms according to their team tenure and roles. The first letter of athletes' names reflects their team tenure. A name beginning with the letter J indicates their status as a junior, which includes athletes in their first and second year. A name beginning with an S means an athlete is a senior, which includes third, fourth, and fifth year. Each athlete also has a letter at the end of their name indicating their role on the team; leadership, calming, and supporting. Athletes that do not have a C, L, or S following their name did not fit into one of the three categories.

3.4 Data Collection

Once the study received ethical approval by the University Research Ethics Board, participant recruitment began by arranging a time with the head coach to meet with the entire women's volleyball team to invite them to take part in this study. All athletes were given a letter of invitation and a consent form (see Appendix A). Athletes were then informed of what the study entailed and the topics to be discussed in the interviews. Athletes were told that participation was voluntary and their responses would be anonymous. Any athletes who were interested were invited to sign up for a time to complete an interview or they could contact the researcher after the meeting to arrange an interview. Athletes were then emailed a confirmation of the date and time they signed up for and included the location where the interview would take place. When an athlete arrived to take part in the interview, she was reminded of the purpose of the study. Participants then went through the consent form with the researcher and signed it. Next, the athletes completed a short demographics form (see Appendix B) and then the interview began.

Once all interested athletes completed the first interview, they were transcribed, coded and analyzed before conducting the second round of interviews. Once again, the researcher found a time that was convenient to attend a practice and invited athletes to take part in the second interview. Participants were informed that they were able to take part in the second interview regardless of their participation in the first interview. Again, participants chose an interview time that worked best for them. Each athlete received confirmation of her interview date, time, and location via email. The participants were offered $10 as a token of appreciation after completing the second interview. Once the entire second round of interviews was complete, the interviews were transcribed and analyzed by the researcher.

3.4.1 Interviews

During the first interview a significant amount of time was spent getting to know the athlete and developing rapport. Topics of questions included their past sport experience, their position on the team, their formal and informal roles, etc. (see Appendix C for interview guides). Athletes were asked to draw a diagram to represent their relationships with their teammates. Athletes were told they could draw a web, pyramid, or anything they felt best characterized their teammate relationships. Once completed, athletes were asked to explain what they drew and why. The questions then shifted to ask athletes about the team, team dynamics, and cohesion. This allowed the researcher to better understand the team atmosphere and the athletes' relationships with one another.

Next, participants were asked questions that elicited stories about their social interactions with teammates. Since most of the interviews took place in September, the athletes had practiced together a number of times but had not played any regular season matches therefore, most of the questions during the first interview were focused on interactions with teammates at practices. These questions helped inform the researcher of who usually talked to who, what was being said, and if interpersonal emotion regulation took place.

The next part of the interview consisted of questions regarding interpersonal emotion regulation. Participants were asked to discuss instances when they had tried to influence teammates' emotions. Athletes explained why they did or did not engage in interpersonal emotion regulation with specific people or in specific contexts. These stories helped the researcher to understand some of the factors that influenced the ways in which the participants tried to regulate their teammates' emotions. The topic of the interview then shifted to times when participants perceived their own emotions had been regulated by teammates and preferences for having their emotions regulated by teammates.

The second set of interviews took place in January and early February. At that point in the season, athletes were a little over halfway through their competitive season and had numerous opportunities to engage in interpersonal emotion regulation in a variety of settings. Interviews began by asking athletes about their current team dynamics and their relationships with their teammates. This information allowed the researcher to understand if any changes within the team had taken place since the first interview. Next, questions similar to the first interview were asked

about the interactions they have before, during, and after games and practices. At the end of the interview, participants were asked about emotion-worsening strategies. As found in Niven et al.'s (2011) study, participants did not often report using strategies to worsen how others felt. Based on previous research it was anticipated that athletes would likely speak about emotion-improving strategies used between teammates, but they may not discuss emotion-worsening strategies, which is why each participant was explicitly asked about this topic in the second interview. Questions regarding the use of emotion-worsening strategies were strategically asked near the end of the interview so that athletes would hopefully feel comfortable enough with the researcher to discuss engaging in these behaviours. The last portion of the interview also served the purpose of member checking (Patton, 2002). The summarized themes from the first set of interviews were presented to each participant, and athletes were asked to comment on the interpretation of the themes to ensure the researcher's interpretations of the data reflected their experiences. Athletes were also asked if there was anything else they would like to add or if the researcher missed anything important.

3.5 Data Analysis

An inductive content analysis was used to analyze the data; in general, the purpose of this type of analysis is to identify, code, and categorize patterns within the data (Mayan, 2009). The first step of this process was to become familiar with the data by rereading, highlighting, and making notes about anything interesting in the transcripts. Next, the excerpts that were previously highlighted were grouped into categories and subcategories (Mayan, 2009). The categories were then judged on internal homogeneity (i.e., does everything in one category fit together? Does the category make sense?) and external homogeneity (i.e., are all categories and subcategories separate and distinct?; Mayan, 2009). Athletes' diagrams were not analyzed, instead they served as a tool in the interview to prompt athletes to describe the social dynamics of their team. Lastly, the 'bigger picture' was assessed to identify themes that bring all of the categories together (Mayan, 2009). A strength of this type of analysis was that it highlighted similarities and differences in the data and summarized its key features (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). This type of analysis helped the researcher understand interpersonal emotion regulation, the types of strategies athletes reported using, the perceived effectiveness of these strategies, and the factors that influenced interpersonal emotion regulation.

Following the inductive analysis, deductive analysis took place. Some categories and themes were renamed in order to align with past research. For example, some IER strategies were initially categorized based on their perceived function (e.g., calm down, focus, energize); during the analysis process the themes we re-named according to the specific strategies used to regulate others' emotions (e.g., non-verbal strategies, verbal and positive feedback). Overall, data analysis was an iterative process. As described by Srivastava and Hopwood (2009), this involved revisiting the data to connect emerging findings to ultimately lead to a more refined understanding of the topic of study.

3.6 Ethical Concerns

Athletes may have been concerned about confidentiality in discussing interactions with teammates. To minimize this concern, athletes were told that when the results of the study are presented and published, all athletes would be assigned a pseudonym so their identity would be protected. All identifying information will be omitted in future publications to protect athletes' identities. To avoid any potential social risks, the researcher did not use specific information or examples reported by one athlete in an interview with another athlete.

To avoid athletes feeling coerced to take part in the study through social pressure from the coach or teammates, the researcher made sure everyone received a letter of invitation and consent form when she met with the team. It was announced that if they were unsure whether they wanted to take part in the study or they were uncertain of their schedule they could contact the researcher at a later date to arrange an interview. If athletes did not sign up during the meeting, it was not necessarily an indication that they did not take part in the study, and even if an athlete did sign up, she was free to withdraw from the study at any time. The athletes were also informed that participation or non-participation would not have any impact on playing time or team status, since the coach would not be informed of the athletes who participated or did not participate in the study.

The topic of study was emotions and had the potential to make athletes feel uncomfortable or upset. To mitigate this risk, athletes were informed that they did not have to answer any questions they did not want to and they could have stopped the interview at any time. Furthermore, the researcher provided athletes with information for Toronto and University of Toronto support services at the end of the interview.

All documents were stored in a locked filing cabinet in the Sport and Performance Psychology lab at the University of Toronto. All electronic documents were stored on a password-protected computer. Only the researchers had access to all of the data.

3.7 Reflexivity

In qualitative research, the subjectivity of the researcher can have a number of impacts on the study being conducted including the topic of study, the questions being asked, and the way in which the data are interpreted (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). Race, gender, age, and experiences can all influence the way research is carried out (Sparkes & Smith, 2014). Since all of these factors had the ability to influence my research, I chose to write about my experiences with the intent of acknowledging their influences as best as I can.

3.7.1 Reflexivity Statement

I am a 23-year-old white female with a background in sports, specifically volleyball. I began playing club volleyball in grade nine and ended my high school career with a provincial championship title. The next stage of my volleyball career was competing at the varsity level for Brock University. In my first year, I stepped into a starting position and had a very successful season. Once the season ended, I underwent my first hip surgery. The following year there was a change in coaching staff that had a very negative impact on not only me, but also the entire team. Going into my third year, I was unable to play due to a second hip surgery and I was forced to end my volleyball career.

My background in volleyball helped me understand the culture the athletes were immersed in. I understood the words and phrases used, and I understood the struggles of being a varsity athlete. I also think my age and gender helped athletes feel comfortable with me during the interviews. The study by Friesen et al. (2013a) supported this idea by stating that participants reported that having an interviewer with a shared sport background facilitated the sharing of their experiences. I think my experiences in volleyball, both good and bad, helped me relate to the participants in my study. It was important to try not to let my negative experiences influence the way I conducted interviews. By making myself aware of my own biases and preconceptions I made a conscious effort to reduce their influence on my research.

3.7.2 Reflexive Journal

During the period of time when interviews were conducted, the researcher also kept a reflexive journal. In this journal she reflected on what worked in interviews, what did not work in interviews, and anything that really stood out. The researcher compared and contrasted interviews and the topics they chose to focus on. This reflexive journal aided in the data analysis portion of the study in addition helping keep track of thoughts and patterns throughout the interview process. Furthermore, this journal allowed the researcher to reflect and think critically about striving to remain neutral.

Chapter 4
Results

4.1 Overview of Results

The results will present a summary of the case that was investigated, followed by a description of the interpersonal emotion regulation strategies athletes used including emotion-improving strategies, emotion-worsening strategies, followed by examples of situations when athletes chose not to engage in IER. The factors that appeared to influence IER will then be presented before discussing results of how athletes reportedly learned to regulate others' emotions (see Appendix D for an overview of themes, subthemes, and quotes).

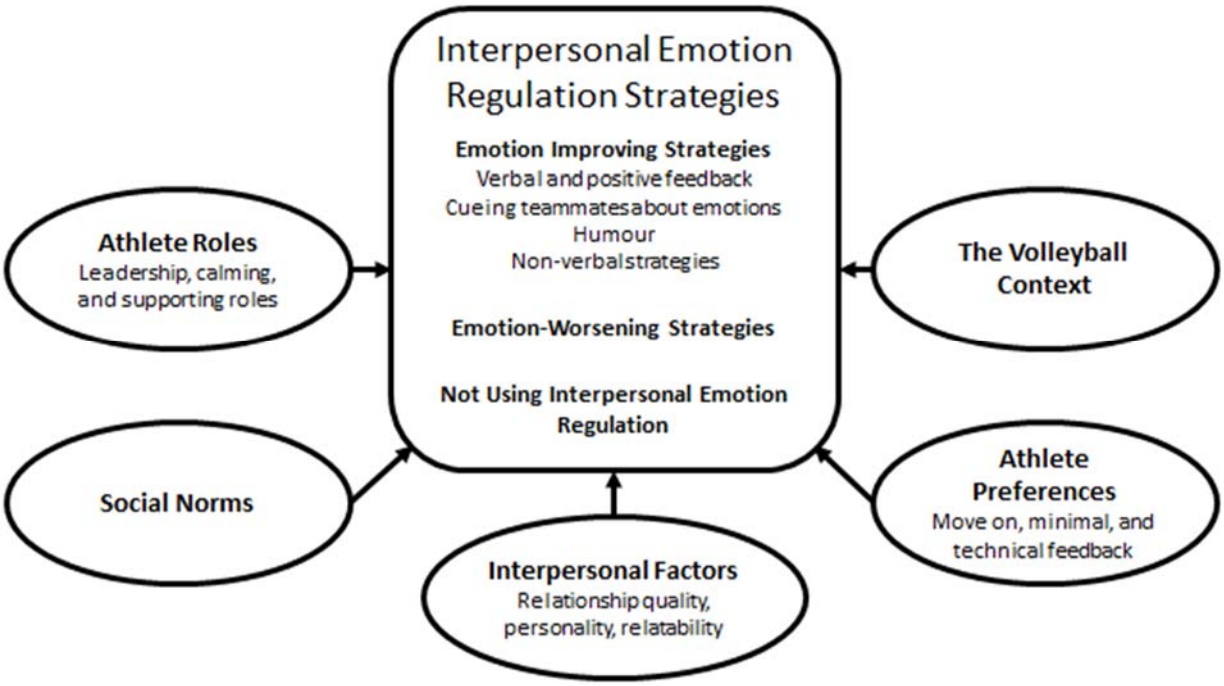

Figure 1. Overview of themes

4.2 Case Description

The team could be characterized as a competitive and intense group of girls. They appeared to take their status as student-athletes seriously and strove for success in both academics and athletics. The athletes reportedly devoted a lot of time and energy to volleyball. Jamie described this aspect of the team when she said her team was:

> Well, definitely hard working and passionate. Everyone really loves what we are doing or else they wouldn't be dedicating all this much time to it. You can tell in practice everyone is working so hard. There's not one person that is slacking off. Everyone is giving it 100%.

Additionally, the athletes on this team described themselves as strong girls who perceived themselves to be role models for aspiring student athletes. This was evident in a quote from Julie-L when she described her team as, "just full of powerful girls. We have a lot of feminists on the team so we focus a lot on female image and how you can be a student athlete. So I would say we are pretty powerful."

As a whole, the team seemed to be a very tight-knit and cohesive group despite being quite different at an individual level with regards to personality and interests. When Scarlet was asked to describe her team she said:

> I feel like we have lot of range of different people on our team. We are definitely… I would say half of our team is very high energy. I think that's a big part of our team, we bring a lot of energy. Unique I would say. I am trying to find the right words. We are all very different I think. Everyone brings something different so we are very unique.

Similarly, Samantha-LC reported:

> We are a totally diverse group of girls that probably wouldn't be friends if it wasn't for volleyball. I don't mean that in a bad way. It's not like we are being forced to hang out with people we don't want to it's just that our interests are so different and personalities are so different. You wouldn't naturally gravitate… this group wouldn't gravitate together naturally.

The girls reportedly felt comfortable with their teammates and shared a lot of information about themselves with one another, as Samantha-LC explained:

> I just love having a group of girls you can trust. There are a lot of girls on the team that I feel totally comfortable opening up to and saying anything to. I know they are always there for me no matter what.

The head coach implemented a number of team bonding activities and travel near the beginning of the season, which were reported to have helped the athletes develop strong relationships with their teammates. For the most part, the rookies were not quite integrated with the team at the time of the first round of interviews. For example, all athletes were asked to draw a diagram to depict the relationships they have with their teammates and Steph-L (a veteran athlete) drew a web with the rookies placed near the outer edges. When asked to describe what she drew, Steph-L said:

> Ok so everybody that's kind of [at] these far ends, those are rookies. So we have five this year and I should probably put them a little more out. I just put them out not because I don't value them, they are super important to the team and they're really good. I just don't know them well enough because it's still 2 weeks of getting to know them. I am really enjoying their company but I still don't know them yet because it's still so early in the year.

Despite Steph-L saying she was not very close with the rookies at the time of her interview, over the span of three and a half weeks of interviews at the beginning of the season, it seemed as though the rookies were becoming closer with the other athletes. Janeen-S explained, "[Coach] makes us do a lot of team bonding stuff so we've only known each other for a month but we are like family already, which is really nice." It is also plausible that the athletes who were interviewed earlier were not as close to the rookies as those who were interviewed later in the process. There were no reported cliques on the team and the athletes said that the coach did a number of things to avoid the development of cliques. Selena-C described how the coach arranged the team room in a specific way so athletes of various ages and positions would have the opportunity to interact with one another.

> Our cubbies are intentionally split up so people who are in the same position don't sit together, people who are the same age group don't sit together. So it's very dispersed by that. [Coach] is very conscious about eliminating any kind of cliques so we are all divided up.

In their second interview, after spending half the season together, athletes described how they became closer with other athletes on the team. When she was asked to describe her team, Jaclyn-S said:

> Being on the team, you have a support group I want to say. They are your team and you are close with them. They know about you and they know who you are. It's just a close group of people who all love the same things and we all get along.

In addition, the athletes also felt that they were able to provide teammates with feedback and constructive criticism on the court without it affecting their relationships off the court. The girls were aware that comments were not personal and that they were intended to help each other improve. This was evident in Julie-L's interview:

> We do a really good job of separating social life and volleyball. So once we get on the court you can say or do anything to a teammate like, 'hey that's not very good' and then in the team room be like, 'you want to go get drinks later?' It would never affect our personal relationships. So I like that we can make a really good distinction between the two.

4.3 Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Strategies

Athletes described a number of strategies they used to regulate their teammates' emotions and also strategies that they perceived were used by teammates to regulate their emotions. Athletes engaged in emotion-improving strategies and emotion-worsening strategies, and sometimes athletes chose not to engage in IER at all (see Table 1 for an overview of themes and subthemes).

4.3.1 Emotion-Improving Strategies

Behaviours were considered emotion-improving strategies if the athlete's intent was to increase the positive emotions or decrease the negative emotions of a teammate. The four emotion-improving strategies coded in the analysis included verbal/positive feedback, cueing athletes about their emotions, humour, and non-verbal IER.

4.3.1.1 Verbal/Positive Feedback

Many athletes reported providing, as well as receiving, encouragement and support from their teammates as a strategy to improve emotions: "Just support. Like 'keep going' or cheering on like 'good job'" (Jenny-S). Some athletes said that a phrase as simple as 'keep swinging' was helpful for decreasing their teammates' levels of negative emotions. Janeen-S reported that on

days when she was not performing well, her teammates provided her with support and reassurance that she was doing okay:

> I have had some really bad days where I have been setting pretty poorly. Either one of the players who's hitting them says 'no, you were doing absolutely fine. No one expects you to be perfect' or one of the other setters saying 'you know, I did just as bad. It's not you, it's fine'.

The use of verbal/positive feedback appeared to be consistent from the first round of interviews to the second. Jessica-S explained why verbal/positive feedback was perceived to be so valuable:

> Well, not just when they become emotional, we do it in any situation. For instance, they shank one ball we are like 'alright, next one here! You got it' then they pass the next one. So we try to reassure people as much as we can because it is hard, especially because we are so critical of ourselves. We want everything to be perfect even though people tell us 'you don't have to be perfect' but you know, if you get a perfect pass it feels great and you feel like 'alright, I did something good'. So we try to keep ourselves in a somewhat relative state saying 'you know what, it's ok to mess up. You can always get the next one. It's fine. Don't worry about it. We will get it back'.

Samantha-LC also explained how she perceived any sort of interaction with her teammates to be beneficial. "Sometimes when you're in your own head it can just keep going and going and going and when someone comes up to you it kind of stops that cycle."

4.3.1.2 Cueing Teammates About Emotions

Another emotion-improving IER strategy one athlete reported was cueing teammates about their current emotions, which was a strategy reported by Tamminen and Crocker (2013). Julie-L explained an instance when Samantha-LC pointed out that she was displaying her emotions during practice:

> We do these individual passing practices and say [the coach] doesn't like one of my passes, he will make me do it again. I'm like 'ok.' Do it again. Wrong. 'Anna what are you doing? You're so bad' and I'm like 'ah I know' but I get worked up physically. I just start… like doing things with my body, like body language. And Samantha-LC will be

> like ‘you’re showing it’ and I’m like ‘shut up’. She is the one that’s always right beside me, like literally right beside me. So she can be like ‘I know it blows, it’s fine. Just get through it. Just do it right once and you’re fine’.

4.3.1.3 Humour

The use of humour to regulate others’ emotions was not a prominent theme in the first round of interviews. In the second round of interviews, athletes were asked if they had ever used humour to regulate others’ emotions or if a teammate had ever done so to regulate others’ emotions. Participants reported that teammates used humour to help other teammates who were becoming emotional (e.g., frustrated, anxious, overwhelmed). For example, Julie-L explained: “Liv can be pretty funny. She will just crack a joke and I’ll be like ‘yeah, you’re right. This is stupid. Why am I freaking out?’” However, athletes explained that if things were going very poorly, it might not be appropriate to use humour to regulate others’ emotions:

> [We use humour] a lot when we are passing really well which keeps the mood up. Like don’t start to drop… I think people are more hesitant [to make jokes] when we are not passing as well just because it might tick them off more, like send them into more of a downward spiral. I think it works both ways. (Jaclyn-S)

Scarlet expressed that she had not used humour to regulate others’ emotions but explained how her teammate had done so although it seemed to be ineffective: “I personally have never done that. I can think of a time when Steph-L tried that. She was like ‘oh it’s so intense. Someone try to tell a joke’ where it seemed kind of forced.”

4.3.1.4 Non-Verbal IER

Athletes often talked about ‘making a connection’ with a teammate in an attempt to regulate her emotions. The phrase ‘making a connection’ referred to giving a high five and/or making eye contact with someone. Athletes said that making a connection with a teammate could influence her emotions in a number of ways, including calming them down, reassuring them, and creating a sense of unity. Even as a rookie, Jenny-S recognized the importance of making connections with her teammates:

> Again, the high fiving. It seems like such a small thing but doing it every time I feel like it helps both people because if you consciously do it every time and really mean it, it actually brings you up.

Jenny-S explained that something as simple as a high five could influence the emotions of both people involved, and Steph-L also reported that making a connection was important for regulating her teammates' (and her own) emotions: "When you look at someone in the eyes it kind of calms them down because you make that connection where you're like 'ok we are going to do this because we are in this together.'" In some cases, athletes reported negative consequences for not making proper connections:

> About high fives, I do it out of habit I do this one, low to the side. I have gotten in trouble in the past because I guess it's not a proper volleyball high five. You want to focus on two hands, eye contact. (Scarlet)

One athlete emphasized that she wanted other athletes to make a connection with her when she needed her emotions to be regulated. Sabrina-S had a difficult time managing the frustration she felt about her own performance, and she recalled one practice in particular where she was told to continuously repeat a skill by herself until she was successful. She started crying from frustration and explained the connections her teammates made with her in that situation: "It was just like a simple hold the high five a little longer, or just a pat on the back and 'keep going' and not talking about it which is ideal for me." It appeared that the effort made by her teammates was important to help her regulate her frustration to move on and get through the practice task.

In the second round of interviews, athletes were asked about additional non-verbal strategies they used to try and influence the emotions of their teammates. Athletes once again discussed making a connection with teammates and sometimes even holding their hand a little longer than normal after giving a high five. Julie-L explained her own use of non-verbal IER: "when [a teammate] is having an off day or whatever and we high five lower, I will just hold her hand a little bit longer. I will hold on to the high five." Additional strategies that were used include patting a teammate on the back and giving her a hug. Scarlet recalled a time when she became emotional in practice and she described her teammates' reactions: "It's a lot of non-verbal communication, like a pat on the back and they keep walking by." Steph-L provided an example of when she thought she should give her teammate a hug:

> I will give hugs if I see someone is having a really tough time. Sometimes … I can see [teammate] is getting into her own head I will just give her a high five or hug her and be like ‘your [skills] are fantastic. Let’s keep it up.’

Athletes reported using a combination of both verbal/positive feedback and non-verbal strategies with the intention to increase their teammates’ focus and to calm them down. Athletes reported wanting to help their teammates turn their attention towards the task at hand in order to improve performance. Steph-L provided an example of how she tried to increase her teammate’s focus by combining verbal/positive feedback and making eye contact.

> She’s not the most focused. I’ve been like ‘hey! Focus!’ Kind of make a lot of eye contact because I think it’s really easy, especially in your first year when you’re overwhelmed with stuff, to kind of go through the motions when you come to practice.

A different reason for wanting to improve a teammate’s focus was to direct attention toward what needed to be done next after a teammate made a mistake. Jessica-S provided examples of what she would say to a teammate:

> ‘It’s ok, it happens. Don’t focus on that now, focus on what’s happening, what’s going to happen right now. So forget about that. That’s in the past. That’s totally fine. Let’s just focus on what’s happening right now’.

Samantha-LC also expressed why she believed helping her teammates focus was so valuable:

> I think that in my mind, focusing on the task at hand is one way to take your mind off of what your emotions might be. If you are starting to feel really overwhelmed or losing confidence, then giving cues about physical stuff to do helps them get out of their head and stop thinking of their emotions.

Only one athlete reported using positive/verbal feedback and non-verbal strategies to intentionally calm down her teammates in the first round of interviews. She explained that many of her teammates were very critical of themselves, which led them to ‘get in their own heads,’ as Samantha-LC explained:

> So it will be in a practice or in a game when I can visibly see… when somebody is showing frustration or showing a loss of confidence. A lot of it I think is body language, just going out of your way to give them a high five and look them in the eyes and be like 'it's alright. Don't worry'.

Samantha-LC's actions were also noticed by her teammates, as others reported that she (along with Shelby-C and Julie-L) would frequently try to calm them down if they became overwhelmed or over excited. Steph-L provided an example of this when she recalled past behaviours of her teammates:

> When I get super energetic or a little overwhelmed Samantha-LC is really good at being like 'phew, you're ok'. And Julie-L too being like, 'ok, Steph-L. We are fine. We are good. There is no need to kind of get overwhelmed' and it just kind of settles me down because I've known Samantha-LC for a really long time.

In the second round of interviews Sabrina-S described a time when Samantha-LC was able to help calm her down in practice; Sabrina-S explained that Samantha-LC's attempt to calm her down was not only effective but was what she wanted when she became overwhelmed or frustrated in practice:

> It might have been a week ago. I made a bunch of bad sets in a row and I was angry. Like just angry with myself. I think it was Samantha-LC that was just like 'ok, you're fine. Just calm down' and I was like ok, it's just practice. That's what I need. I need someone to be like 'it's just practice' or I'll get too up in my head.

Through the process of member checking during the second interview, Jaclyn-S explained why she felt calming down teammates was so valuable: "Nerves hurt and nerves aren't great when you are trying to play really well. So trying to calm people down unless they play well when they are over excited, I think is important."

4.3.2 Emotion-Worsening Strategies

In line with Niven and colleagues' (2009) work on interpersonal affect-worsening, participants of this study were asked if they had ever intentionally tried to worsen a teammate's emotions.

Most participants said they had not tried to worsen a teammate's emotions nor had they experienced their emotions being worsened by a teammate. Janeen-S stated:

> Everyone else may be passing the ball really great but if all you do is 'you touched it, you got there'. That's like the closest thing. It's more just to bring people up. No one ever tries to bring anyone else down.

Many athletes brought up an example of the same serving drill to express that they never tried to make a teammate feel worse:

> We do this drill right after we warm up serving, [coach] makes one person serve and if they don't get the five in the court, then everyone has to do sprints except for them. But that's happened before and no one has ever tossed them a cold shoulder, we have all just gone over and been like 'it's ok', high fives, 'don't worry about it. You got it next time' kind of thing. It's never been hostile. (Jaclyn-S)

The athletes acknowledged that their teammates would never purposefully try to perform poorly and therefore they did not want to make teammates feel bad about their performance. However, some athletes felt it was important to let a teammate know if she was not putting in the effort or focus that was required at practice. "In those certain situations I am going to call you out because everyone is working harder than you are and it's not ok that you just go through the motions" (Steph-L). This was interpreted as an example of an athlete trying to make a teammate feel worse to ultimately try and make her perform better. Thus, although athletes said they did not intentionally use strategies to try and worsen a teammate's emotions, some athletes said they would use emotion-worsening strategies for performance outcomes (i.e., for instrumental purposes).

Another example of worsening others' emotions was in a competitive context. Despite being teammates and having the same collective goal, the players wanted to individually improve and be given more playing time. This resulted in some athletes physically and tactically (although not verbally) 'picking on' a teammate in order to prove they were better at a particular skill. Scarlet provided an example:

> On the court, I have done this in the past where I am competing with someone for a spot I am going to go after them during practice. I am going to serve every ball I can at them as hard as I can to sort of force them to make mistakes to show that I am better than them. I have definitely done that. I've had it done to me. It's all in the competitive spirit. We all know why we are here. It is competitive within the team too. If I have done that and succeeded and they are upset I am like well, that's too bad.

Athletes also reported that this had happened to them in practice:

> I guess if we are in practice and someone can see I am frustrated they might keep hitting the ball at me but that's the only thing. I can't think of someone actively like, if I'm upset trying to make me feel worse…In competitive spirit it has probably happened and I think we have all done that. But I don't think anyone has actively ever tried to bring me down or take away a positive emotion (Sabrina-S).

4.4 Not Using Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

Athletes provided a number of reasons for not wanting to regulate a teammate's emotions. Despite being a senior athlete, Steph-L explained that she would not try to regulate Selena-C's emotions because they occupied different playing positions: "Someone else like Selena-C, she is a setter so I don't touch that because setters have to deal with so much". Another reason for choosing not to regulate a teammate's emotions was due to their teammate's anticipated reaction. Julie-L said:

> [Teammate] is a year older than me and yes we are friends but she's an eye roller and I don't want to get involved. She is actually quite good at getting herself out of situations like that so not a lot of people on the team would go for [teammate] just because of how strong her personality is.

Additionally, athletes reported that if they felt a teammate was able to handle her own emotions, they would be less inclined to try and influence her emotions. Samantha-LC stated:

> Some people, I guess I know they don't need… not that they don't need the support but for example with Steph-L. She is also a fifth year, when she gets emotional I know that she knows how to deal with it on her own. I will still support her kind of but I won't feel I

> really need to do something to get her out of her funk, you know? But sometimes with I guess players who I think are less experienced or tend to let their emotions get to their play, I will try a little bit harder to get [her] out of that.

The final reason athletes reported for not regulating a teammate's emotions was that they did not know what to do. In her second interview, Julie-L described her experience of a recent game and she said that none of the attackers were executing very well: "[Teammate] was missing her step so I could feel her sort of flying away and we didn't do anything to bring her back which is kind of unlike us." Julie-L was asked to explain what she meant by that statement and she said:

> Normally it would be a huge point that would bring us back or big defensive ball or she would get an ace and we would really celebrate that. Even if we got a garbage play and we won it, we would normally be like 'Ya! Good work!' but none of that ever happened so we didn't even have any strategies to bring her back from where she was because nothing good was happening. Usually we can grab a hold of something. It was awful.

4.5 Factors Influencing Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

4.5.1 Athlete Roles

It appeared that the athletes' roles on the team influenced their use of IER within the team. Three roles emerged from the analysis of the first round of interviews: leadership, calming, and supporting. However, the participants were not necessarily considered to only fulfill one of these roles and may have acted in a leadership role as well as a supporting or calming role.

4.5.1.1 Leadership Role

Athletes in a leadership role were described as demonstrating the values and effort the rest of the team was supposed to have, including a good work ethic, positive attitude, good communication on the court, and being focused on the task at hand. Leaders also organized team functions and events. The athletes that were described as playing a leadership role were mainly the senior athletes who held the highest team tenure, with the exception of one athlete who was only in her second year. In addition, most leaders were also the athletes with starting status. One rookie described the role of the seniors as, "they are kind of like almost like the team moms. They make sure we show up places on time, they make sure we know what's going on… So they are kind of

like the head of the group" (Janeen-S). Despite being injured, Sarah-L reflected on her role as a leader and stated:

> I'm a team leader as of last year. That's made official almost just the way our coach does that… I [am] clearly an external leader because I'll connect the team with things happening outside, in the varsity world and also representing the team on the varsity board at a greater level… I help instil that culture and promote the culture that we have on the team. I have an observing role because I'm not playing so I can maybe see some things that are valuable. People can be really caught up in the moment on the court, which can be a good thing too but I bring another side of that. Plus, the experience that I have in combination, I think that is helpful. I think I lead by example but I'm not afraid to confront people.

With regards to IER, the leaders on the team appeared to take on the role of trying to influencing others' emotions more than athletes who did not occupy leadership roles. One athlete in particular, Julie-L, had become a leader despite not being a senior athlete on the team. Julie-L explained how last year, as a rookie, she did not try to regulate others' emotions and that it was much more common to have had others try to regulate her emotions: "Not as much last year. I feel like I will be doing it this year in a new leadership role. It was more people doing it to me." A first year athlete echoed this idea by explaining how she did not feel comfortable trying to regulate her teammates' emotions because she was new to the team:

> Last year [in high school] I influenced my team a lot because I had been playing with them for so long but coming in this year I didn't know how the team dynamic was. So I think I left it up to the more experienced girls to take on that role just because I am new and I want to get the lay of the land pretty much before I start being really vocal and into it and influencing. (Jaclyn-S)

Here, Jaclyn-S explained how she used to regulate her teammates emotions because they had played together for so long but at the time of the interview she was new to the varsity team and wanted to get to know her teammates before attempting to regulate their emotions.

Other athletes reported that at some point, regulating teammates' emotions became the coaches' job. Steph-L explained that sometimes she and her teammates would become so frustrated they

would cry and at that point, she felt it was the coach's responsibility to manage the athlete's emotions:

> I am going to talk on the court and show what we have to do but I am not going to be telling people what to do because that's not my role on the team. That's [the coach's] role. So I think when somebody is actually legitimately upset feel free to talk to me if it comes to volleyball but I think that's kind of more [the coach's] role as a coach.

Steph-L explained that she would be an outlet if an athlete chose to speak with her but she would not seek out an athlete with the intent to influence her emotions.

An athlete's role also seemed to influence the extent to which they engaged in group IER. It seemed that the leaders on the team were the ones who tried to influence the emotions of multiple teammates or even the entire team's emotions. Jenny-S explained one way in which the senior athletes addressed the entire team:

> Say if we are having a bad practice [the captains] will take us aside after [the coach] has talked to us and be like 'let's get our shit together. We are better than this. We are here to practice and to get better. Let's go out there and actually do it'.

Athletes reported that the leaders on the team would do this not only in practice but also in games and even in the team room.

An athlete's role also appeared to influence her emotional expressions, which seemed to have an effect on others' emotions. Samantha-LC recalled a one- or two-week period from the previous year where she felt extreme frustration and had larger emotional outbursts than normal:

> So there were a few times in the span of a week or two when I would get so frustrated at practice I would boot a ball into the corner or just grab it and chuck it. Kind of have a little outburst out of frustration. Obviously everyone can see that. That's not really a good way, especially for a leader, to display her emotions but it happened.

It seemed that the intensity of the leader's frustration influenced the extent to which it was perceived as acceptable. A small outburst such as yelling would be considered acceptable whereas behaviours such as kicking a ball would not. In the second round of interviews, athletes

were asked to clarify why it was important not to display high levels of frustration as a leader. Jaclyn-S stated:

> If you are a leader and you show frustration, because you are so often influencing your team, you are going to influence them in a negative way. You are kind of like a role model and if your role model is hating themselves then you are going to kind of crawl back into your own little corner and you don't have anyone to look to because you don't want to look at them if they are really pissed off.

Jaclyn-S explained that if a leader expressed frustration it could deter athletes from seeking support from her.

4.5.1.2 Calming Role

An athlete in the calming role was described as being able to calm down her teammates if they became nervous, frustrated, or over-excited. This was sometimes done purposefully while other times an individual's demeanour was enough to calm those around her. The two athletes that were consistently described as having calming roles were Samantha-LC and Selena-C. Julie-L explained how Samantha-LC was able to calm her down on the court: "Samantha-LC is a leveller. Like 'excellent, but you're not done yet.'"

Some athletes reported that their teammates' demeanour was enough to make them feel calm. For example, Julie-L said, "Selena-C is our setter so she is kind of like glue but she's really quiet so she has this calm sort of thing going on so we all kind of relax when we are around her." In Selena-C's interview she expressed she was very conscious about the way she presented herself and her emotions because of the impact it had on the rest of the team. She explained:

> I think I try to hide the panic. Like as a setter there is sometimes a lot of pressure, especially towards the end of tight games and stuff. And sometimes I might not feel so confident in my set selection and stuff like that but I think that's a time when I try to hide the panic.

4.5.1.3 Supporting Role

Athletes in the supporting role were typically not the starters on the team and some were injured athletes. Their role was interpreted as helping the rest of the team improve and perform better

through various types of support including cheering on the sideline and trying their best in practice to push others to perform well. Selena-C described Sarah-L's role as "…more of a supporting role on the team this year because she is recovering from [an injury] and that's a little bit hit or miss with her." One athlete that was not injured but was still considered to be in a supporting role was Jessica-S. Selena-C said,

> Jessica-S, I think she really inspires a lot of people… she works so hard and I think that's an inspiration to everybody. She always gives 100%. She is more of a supporting role on the team than a starting player but just super supportive.

Sandy explained the supporting role the back-up setters played:

> They are both not starting setters but they need to keep track of the rotations and they figure out the strategy stuff, should we be setting outside? What are the blockers doing? They are looking at this kind of stuff that a lot of other people on the bench aren't looking at so they can give Selena-C information.

Sabrina-S and Janeen-S provided various types of feedback (e.g., technical, tactical, motivational) to the setter who was on the court, which in turn had the potential to affect the entire team.

4.5.2 Social Norms

There seemed to be social norms on the team with regard to expressing emotions and emotion regulation, specifically in relation to crying and frustration; however, the social norms for displaying and regulating emotions were not very straightforward. It seemed that the norms for displaying emotions depended on the context, the intensity of the athlete's emotions, and who was displaying the emotion.

It appeared that crying was unacceptable in a game setting from any member of the team. For example, Steph-L said that it was not acceptable for athletes to cry on the court when she recalled an instance in the previous year when a teammate cried during a game: "[Teammate] was just having a really bad game and she just had a cry. But whatever … That was not okay." Julie-L revealed that it was not acceptable to cry while on the sideline during a game either when describing a situation where a teammate started to cry: "I was on the bench with her and she was

just like mid tear, it was coming and I was like 'hey, no, no, no. This isn't the time.'" This was interpreted as an example of how social norms influence IER, as Julie-L tried to regulate Jessica-S's emotions to avoid crying, in order to maintain an acceptable outward appearance during the competition. When asked about the social norms with regards to crying, Jaclyn-S explained that it was not acceptable to cry in a game setting because, "In the other team's eyes, if you are crying it kind of shows that you are not ready, you are not prepared, and you are not regulating your emotions how you should be during a game."

Interestingly, outside of game settings it seemed that crying was perceived as acceptable in some cases: "Someone like Sabrina-S will cry in practice if she's getting frustrated which is fine because sometimes you just have to" (Steph-L). However, Julie-L felt it would be inappropriate to cry in a non-competitive team-bonding event because of her status on the team:

> As a first year, I was like 'ok play it cool.' Don't seem too vulnerable in front of these girls because there was like 7 seniors and that's not me but it was one of the seniors that shared and I didn't want to belittle her emotion by crying but once I saw everyone else cry I was like 'ok.'

A few athletes felt that crying was unacceptable unless an athlete sustained an injury. Scarlet felt that crying at practice was not ideal but because it occurred so frequently it was somewhat acceptable:

> I feel like we push each other very hard and we are pushed by our coaches hard during practice where [crying] does happen a lot where, it's not ideal, but I feel like I have seen it so often that it is sort of acceptable.

A second emotion that was frequently discussed by athletes was frustration. The athletes reported that displaying mild frustration was accepted and occurred quite often in practice, and many athletes reported displaying frustration themselves or seeing it displayed by teammates:

> There was an instance where Samantha-LC tried to get a ball but she couldn't get it after two or three times and she just screamed out in rage a little bit. But we are also used to that because Samantha-LC does it all the time and we know that Samantha-LC just does

> that just to exert a little bit of energy then she gets right back into it, completely normal. (Jessica-S)

However, social norms for frustration during a game appeared to be slightly different. Julie-L explained: “I get pretty frustrated at myself in practice, not as much in games because I know like ‘ok that point is over, you’ve got to move on.’”

Jessica-S provided an explanation as to why an athlete should not demonstrate high levels of frustration:

> It is also a good point to say that, you know it’s not a good idea to show high levels because it can not only rub off on people the wrong way, it can show the coaches… you need to show your level of cool as well when you are practicing, like not show that you can be easily frustrated because this sport is difficult, right? It happens to everyone but you can’t lose your cool over it.

Here, Jessica-S stated that one’s ability to regulate her own emotions was important because it was something perceived as desirable by the coaches.

In sum, athletes discussed instances of regulating their teammates’ emotions in order to help them maintain a socially desirable outward appearance. Additionally, it appeared that social norms not only influenced the ways in which athletes directly regulated their teammates’ emotions but also how the athletes influenced their teammates’ emotions by regulating their own emotions.

4.5.3 The Volleyball Context

Some athletes explained how the context of volleyball influenced the ways they regulated their teammates’ emotions. One aspect of the volleyball context that affected athletes’ communication and IER was the speed of practices and games:

> I think that is definitely true especially since the refs try to move games along so quickly. You don’t have time to go high five every single person on the team. You come in, you give a communal cheer, then you go back but you don’t have individual words with every

> person. Whoever you are standing closest to is who you usually say something too. (Janeen-S)

Since the tempo of the game is so fast, athletes reported having a limited amount of time to regulate their teammates' emotions, resulting in brief IER such as making eye contact and giving high fives. In addition, there were some instances when athletes approached their teammates after a game or practice to engage in IER since they did not have a sufficient amount of time to do so in the moment during a game. This was highlighted when Samantha-LC felt that a first year athlete was disconnecting from a team during a game and she wanted to address it with her teammate. She explained:

> Then I talked to her about it after a game and I just tried to nicely bring it up like 'you're doing really well, it's really great having you on the court' blah, blah, blah, but 'one thing our team does is connect with eye contact' whatever. Brought it up to her and after that she was way better.

Another factor that appeared to influence IER and that was unique to the volleyball context was an athlete's position (i.e., outside hitter, middle hitter, right side, setter, libero). The athletes explained that the people they interacted with most during a practice were those who played the same position as they did. In many cases, practice drills were set up so athletes of the same position were alternating or at least in close proximity with one another. Julie-L explained this situation with herself and a first year athlete, "She's a first year left side and we play the same position so we will always be constantly switching and talking about strategy and I'm always helping her with drills and stuff." Athletes reported that if a teammate of another position tried to provide them with technical feedback it would not be considered valuable, as Janeen-S (a setter) explained, "if they are not a setter and they are trying to correct me, first of all, why? I know what I'm doing way more than you do." Another first year athlete on the team reiterated this when she said:

> If I am really frustrated and then someone who is a totally different position is like 'oh, make sure you do this' and corrects my technique then that would kind of… I mean it won't really help. At least for me I would be like 'ok'. It might even be helpful advice but sometimes in the moment I won't consider it that helpful.

She continued to explain that if an athlete did not play the same position as her, it would be more valuable to provide positive support and encouragement instead of technical feedback. It appeared that technical feedback was perceived to be most valuable from an athlete of the same position whereas non-technical support could come from anyone:

> I would say anything to do with setting feedback it would definitely need to be Sabrina-S or Janeen-S. That being said though, if it's the middle I am setting I want feedback specifically from the middle. I guess more generally too. If it has to do with things like how to regulate your emotions like in a high intensity game or just broader things or how to keep team focus or stuff like that, I think that can come from anybody. (Selena-C)

In addition, athletes reported that the frequency of IER from specific teammates was a function of their proximity on the court. In other words, if an athlete was consistently close to someone on the court due to the formation, it could increase the amount of IER between the two athletes:

> After making a mistake, like if I hit a ball into the block and then we have to be in serve receive, Steph-L is always right beside me and she is always really positive and 'oh we can get the next one. Don't worry, that was a great swing'. So that's really good. Yeah, she is one the main ones on the court I would say that helps me out with that. (Jamie)

4.5.4 Athlete Preferences For Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

Another factor that appeared to influence athletes' use of IER was their own preferences. Some athletes had very specific preferences for how they wanted to have their emotions regulated by their teammates. These preferences include moving on, receiving minimal feedback, and receiving technical feedback.

4.5.5 Moving On

First, after an athlete made a mistake she appeared to want her teammates to help her move on and focus on the next task. For example, if an athlete made an attacking error, she would want her teammate to help her focus on her serve-receive passing:

> What's helpful to me is to not talk about the situation but just general 'ok, next drill'. Don't be like 'you'll get it' that doesn't really help because then I will be like 'well, now they think I should get it and I'm not getting it' and that will continuously stress me out.

> But it you're just like, 'ok, moving on', just something general, focused on the next task, not the previous one. (Sabrina-S)

This idea was echoed by Janeen-S when she explained her preferences for feedback from her teammates after she made a mistake:

> Like 'good try'. It's just annoying. I always say 'if I shank a pass, tell me to make it up with another pass'. Don't tell me 'oh, it was a hard ball, you got the next one'. I want to be told 'yeah, you messed up. You know you messed up, I know you messed up. Just get the next one'. 'Make it up. You missed a point, get a new point for the team'. Those kinds of things are better than the 'it's ok'. I hate when people say 'it's ok'. No, it's not ok. I shanked a ball.

4.5.6 Minimal Feedback

Athletes' second preference for IER was for their teammates to provide minimal feedback. If an athlete was becoming emotional or just made a mistake, she did not want her teammates to draw attention to the problem:

> Well I wouldn't want them to make a huge deal out of it. I like when it's more… I recognize I'm getting frustrated but it doesn't have to become a huge problem. Just quickly tell me some motivational words like 'you can do it', then just move on. I would hate for it to be a big thing. I don't know. If they do see it, then say something and don't just… Say enough to acknowledge it but don't make a huge deal out of it. (Jamie)

Although Jamie and Samantha-LC both wanted their teammates to provide minimal feedback, their reasoning for this was different; it seemed that Jamie thought a motivational comment would be helpful whereas Samantha-LC did not:

> I also like it when it's minimal because realistically anything they say probably won't really change the way I'm thinking … it's just kind of nice to have someone show an interest and show that they've got your back. (Samantha-LC)

Selena-C did not even want her teammates to acknowledge the fact that she made a mistake. She wanted to handle her emotions on her own and let her teammates worry about themselves. This was evident when she said:

> Just kind of ignore [my mistake] and worry about their job and let me worry about my job. I know they are well intentioned and everything but I don't know. Just drawing attention to the fact [that I made a mistake] makes me feel self-conscious about it.

Similarly, Jaclyn-S said, "If I make a mistake and people talk to me about it for 5 minutes I am going to make that same mistake again. It's in my head. That's going to happen" (Jaclyn-S).

Athletes also stated that they treated others the way in which they would want to be treated. For example, Scarlet stated, "What I personally do is I stay away. I don't approach people if they are emotional. I find for me personally, I don't want people to talk to me, so I give them space" (Scarlet). Similarly, Sandy explained,

> I don't really like to interfere that much with other people's emotions because I personally like to deal with it myself. I don't know… when people really try to push their emotions on me I am like stop, I can deal with this myself so I don't want to be that person.

4.5.7 Technical Feedback

The last of the athletes' preferences was to receive technical feedback. Jaclyn-S said that she and the passers frequently provided one another with technical feedback.

> Whatever it is, whether it's technical or tactical. I know in serve-receive if we are passing not great, we will just go back to the basics and we will talk about moving your feet and your passing platform just to focus in on what we need to do.

In her first interview, Steph-L stated that when she was not executing skills properly (e.g., blocking) and became frustrated, she wanted her coach to provide her with technical feedback. Once she was informed about what needed to be changed, she then started to perform better and was no longer frustrated. Samantha-LC stated that she and the other passers frequently provided each other with technical feedback as a form of distraction:

> I think that in my mind, focusing on the task at hand is one way to take your mind off of what your emotions might be. If you are starting to feel really overwhelmed or losing confidence, then giving cues about physical stuff to do helps them get out of their head and stop thinking of their emotions.

4.5.8 Interpersonal Factors

Most of the participants stated that their use of IER was influenced by interpersonal factors including the quality of the relationship with the other athlete, the teammate's (i.e., target's) personality, and the level of relatability between teammates.

Athletes expressed that they engaged in IER more frequently with those who they were most comfortable with. Further, if the participant felt an athlete had a better relationship with someone else on the team, they would feel more comfortable leaving it to that athlete to engage in IER. Steph-L reported:

> It definitely depends on the relationship that I have. Someone like Samantha-LC or Julie-L or Sarah-L of course, if I saw they were visibly upset I would really be like 'ok, talk to me about it' because I know I am that person for them. But if it's someone like Janeen-S, one of the first years, if she is super upset I might not even know anything about that just because I knew her through a team sense rather than an outside the team sense and I know there are people on the team that know her better in an outside the team sense and I know there are people that know her much better than me. So that's when I will take a step back and see her at a later time and be like 'where you ok then?' and usually that's when they will be like 'yeah, I was just having a rough day. This happened.'

Sandy echoed this idea when talking about not wanting to try and regulate the emotions of those with whom she did not have a close relationship: "I am fine if anyone comes to me but I wouldn't want to approach them. I don't feel like it's my place because they have people on the team that they are comfortable with that they can approach." Jamie pointed out that the quality of the relationship played a bigger role in IER when other teammates were present:

> I would say it maybe also depends who I am with. If it's me and their roommate that they have known for a long time, and then them, I would obviously want to help but I know

> the roommate knows them better and knows the back story or whatever because they live together.

Participants also explained that an individual's personality influenced their efforts to regulate others' emotions. Julie-L explained how she would not attempt to regulate Sandy or Steph-L's emotions:

> I mean I would never personally attempt to comfort [teammate]. Nothing against her at all. She is just not the personality combo that would work. She has her best friend … on the team so I'm like 'she can handle that'… [some teammates have] a bit too much of a strong personality to even tap the surface of fixing that … just too strong willed. I would just be like ok, she will just cool off later. I don't need to help with that.

Some athletes believed that IER should come from an athlete with a high level of 'relatability'. The term relatability referred to the level an athlete can relate to another person based on having similar roles, past experiences (e.g., being yelled at or sustaining an injury), or skill level; however, this did not necessarily imply they had a close relationship with the other person. Sabrina-S, who was an extremely emotional person, provided an example of a time when she preferred someone who could relate to her on an emotional level to regulate her emotions. In practices it was not uncommon for Sabrina-S to let her emotions take over, and she stated she thought she was the least skilled at regulating her own emotions when compared to the rest of the team. In that case, if someone tried to influence her emotions she would prefer it to come from someone who was also an emotional individual. Sabrina-S stated: "I find that if someone is not a particularly emotional person and they try to help [me when I become emotional] they really won't know what to do and that's usually when it's unhelpful." Jamie explained why she found it easier to regulate others' emotions when she had gone through the same experiences:

> I think it definitely helps if you have been through the same thing just because you can understand where they are at and know what they need. If you haven't really … at least for me, you can still help by being there and being supportive but the support you give can be more meaningful if you do know what they are going through.

In contrast, some athletes said that IER did not necessarily have to come from an athlete of the same position or an athlete who experienced the exact same situation. Instead, they felt their

teammates could regulate their emotions simply because they were volleyball players. Julie-L explained this idea:

> So there are some things that I can relate to and I know everyone would listen because we are all just players. We know every skill, we don't know the mental game of every position but we know every skill, we know the challenges that they encompass so it is definitely easier when you can relate.

Similarly, some other athletes felt that their teammates would need no level of relatability in order to regulate their emotions. Both Steph-L and Jessica-S felt that just having a teammate make an effort to improve how they were feeling was enough to make them feel better. Steph-L explained how a teammate's effort to try to make her feel better if she was having a bad day would help improve how she was feeling. More specific to volleyball, Jessica-S stated, "Well I don't think they would need to have any relatability… Just having the fact that the teammate understands that 'yeah, we all go through frustrations, we all have our weak suits.'"

Samantha-LC explained how everyone on her team could regulate the emotions she felt in response to volleyball but someone outside of the team or someone who does not play sports could not:

> Sometimes after a game if we lose or I played bad and someone doesn't play sports or doesn't play volleyball tries to console me it usually almost makes me more frustrated because either they say something that you can tell they don't get it or even if they do say the right thing you just don't feel like they don't really understand what you're going through. Whereas coming from a teammate you know we've all been there. So I wouldn't say within the team that I care who it is because we are all going through the same thing. We all get it. But I do think it's really important that they understand or that they have been through a similar situation.

4.6 Learning Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

When asked how they learned to regulate others' emotions, many athletes stated that it was something that happened over time:

> I think it's just how we build over the course of the months that we have played with one another. Each practice, something will frustrate us or something won't and we will see if saying 'you got the next one here'… depending on how their mood changes. So if we say 'it's ok. Next one here' or a small little pep talk saying 'remember, shift your feet. It's ok' even that sort of thing. If you see their mood changes then we know that will help. We still use the same thing on everyone. For instance, saying 'you got the next one here' and majority wise that does actually help us because it calms us down. It reassures us that it's ok. (Jessica-S)

In addition to understanding someone in a sport context, athletes also felt it was important to get to know them outside of volleyball:

> I think it's just something like over time observing. I personally think it's more spending time off the court. You get to know that person better and then you can kind of pick up on their cues and see what they are like. (Sabrina-S)

When asked if it was a trial and error process, Selena-C responded, "I think it's just more intuitive."

Another way to learn about teammate's preferences for having their emotions regulated was by speaking to them directly. Samantha-LC expressed that she thought the best way to learn how to regulate a teammate's emotions was to explicitly ask what they want from her. Similarly, Sarah-L explained: "sometimes I will be like 'did that feel better? How do you feel now?'" By asking what a teammate wanted or how a behaviour impacted them, the participants said they knew what to do in the future.

4.6.1 Automaticity

In the first round of interviews, athletes reported that some of the IER behaviours they engaged in were somewhat automatic, done out of habit, or done without thinking. It appeared that once some IER strategies were learned, they became 'automatic'. To better understand this idea, athletes were asked to expand on the concept of 'automaticity' in the second interview. Many athletes said congregating in the centre of the court after each point in a game and/or making connections with teammates were effortful, planned, and emphasized by coaches at the

beginning of the season; however, as the season progressed these behaviours became the norm. Sarah-L explained:

> In terms of connecting and being supportive, I think it all comes out of intentional effort being put there that creates those habits. Especially when times are hard, you have to remember… your habits break down. So I think some things are done without thinking if you are really comfortable with someone and you already created a habit because you are really close to them proximity-wise on the court. Often times it does have to be planned to make a habit out of it.

Jamie echoed this idea of behaviours becoming automatic: "I think it comes with experience and playing together. The closer we have gotten the more automatic it has become. I feel like it's better when it's automatic."

Another behaviour that was reported as automatic was providing positive feedback. The athletes stated that they sincerely wanted their teammates to stay positive and therefore supported them without much thought:

> Sometimes our behaviour is automatic because we have done it for so long. We do it every time we see each other, every time we practice. It's just basically automatic. We don't really find it forceful, we just actually genuinely care. We want everyone to be ok. (Jessica-S)

Steph-L indicated that when things were not going very well in games or practices, these 'automatic' behaviours tended to break down, and sometimes athletes did not engage in their typical IER behaviours or they found these behaviours to be much more effortful. Steph-L explained when the team was not performing well, it was even more important to rely on IER strategies such as making a connection:

> Sometimes I will even force it, like if we are not playing super well and we just got a point people will maybe go off, and I am like 'no, come back! We have to actually have to connect. Connect guys. Enjoy.' I will do that at practices sometimes too when it's just a fast paced practice or our defense is kind of crumbling apart and three of us will connect and two of them are going back to their positions I will stop and be like, 'no.

> Connect guys. This is who we are. We connect after every point' then we will go back. So that would be one of them.

4.7 Member Checking

At the end of the second interview, athletes were provided with a two-page member checking document. This document outlined the tentative themes the researcher identified from the first round of interviews. This included IER strategies, athletes' preferences for IER, and the factors influencing IER. The researcher introduced the member checking process to the athletes and presented the themes in such a way that made athletes feel as though they were the 'expert' on the topic. The researcher specifically asked athletes for their opinions on each theme to help her understand them better. The athletes agreed on each theme and felt that this member checking document described their team and behaviours. Athletes were able to explain why they agreed with themes and often provided additional examples. Athletes said things such as "Definitely agree on those", "Yeah I would say that's pretty bang on" and "those are really accurate for sure". After being presented the strategies athletes reported using, Jessica-S reported:

> I think you nailed it basically. I 100% agree with everything. Looking at them, like making a connection, on our team we really focus on making a connection. It is one of the things that not only show that everything is ok, it's to look at the other person and give them respect also. Saying 'you did good. Good job'. Like 'we are in this together, no matter what. Hang in there or keep doing what you're doing'. Making a connection is really important, especially for our team. Positive feedback, focus, calm, yeah. I agree.

Chapter 5
Discussion

5.1 Discussion

This study adopted an instrumental case study approach (Stake, 1995) to better understand interpersonal emotion regulation in high performance sport. Much of the past research in sport has focused on emotions and emotion regulation from an intrapersonal perspective (e.g., Totterdell & Leach, 2001; Balk et al., 2013), but since sport is social in nature, it has been proposed that it would be beneficial to study emotion regulation from an interpersonal perspective (e.g., Babkes Stellino et al., 2012). The main findings from this study concerned the IER strategies athletes used to try and regulate their teammates' emotions, athletes' preferences for having their emotions regulated by their teammates, and this study also identified various factors that influenced IER. These findings have theoretical implications regarding the distinction between the regulation of emotion versus affect, athletes' perceived effectiveness of IER, and the use of emotion worsening strategies for instrumental purposes in sport. These findings also have applied implications for athletes, coaches, and sport psychology consultants.

5.2 Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Strategies

A number of IER strategies identified in the present study were similar to the strategies reported by Tamminen and Crocker (2013) in their study of high performance curlers. However, there were some differences: athletes in the present study reported providing and receiving both positive and technical feedback, but these were perceived to be distinctly different strategies, whereas Tamminen and Crocker (2013) reported these together as similar types of IER strategies. Every athlete in the present study reported engaging in positive feedback to try and regulate the emotions of their teammates, however some athletes reported that they did not provide technical feedback to teammates due to playing a different position or their status (e.g., rookie) on the team. Furthermore, some athletes preferred having a teammate provide positive feedback and others preferred technical feedback. Since athletes made a distinction between these IER strategies, technical and positive feedback were considered to be two different strategies in the present study, whereas Tamminen and Crocker (2013) did not make a distinction between the two. It is important to distinguish between positive feedback and technical feedback as IER strategies since they may each serve difference functions in regulating teammates'

emotions. For example, providing technical feedback to a teammate may serve to improve or worsen the emotions of teammate, whereas providing positive feedback is likely to improve the emotions of teammates. Thus, this study builds on previous work by distinguishing between these two types of feedback as IER strategies.

It was surprising that during the first round of interviews, athletes did not report using humour to regulate others' emotions. This was not anticipated since Tamminen and Crocker (2013) reported that humour was frequently discussed in their study as a strategy to improve the emotions of teammates prior to competitions. In the current study, once athletes were prompted about the use of humour as an IER strategy during the second round of interviews, athletes reported that many of their teammates used humour in a variety of settings. This finding provided evidence that athletes may not be aware that humour functioned as a strategy to regulate the emotions of teammates until prompted to consider it as such. Past research (e.g., Sullivan, 2013) has demonstrated that the use of positive humour was a significant predictor of two constructs (team tack contribution and team integration) of athlete satisfaction in recreational team sports. Although the present study did not investigate the relationship between the use of humour and athlete satisfaction, it did provide further evidence that athletes, even at a high performance varsity level, use humour. Future research should seek to understand how humour, a form of IER, influences athlete outcomes such as performance.

Indirect actions were also not prominent IER strategies in the current interviews. Tamminen and Crocker (2013) defined indirect actions as strategic behaviours used to protect teammates from criticism and possible stressors; for example, not telling a teammate they were criticized by a spectator in order to protect her feelings. There are two possible explanations for the dissimilar results. First, the participants in Tamminen and Crocker's (2013) study were older than the participants in the present study (23-58 years versus 18-22 years, respectively). The older athletes in Tamminen and Crocker's (2013) study may have been more aware of their own and others' emotions and emotion regulation, whereas the athletes in the current study may not have developed or been able to explicitly describe their awareness of indirect actions as strategies for regulating the emotions of their teammates. Another plausible explanation for the divergent results could be attributed to methodological differences between the two studies. Tamminen and Crocker (2013) conducted three sets of interviews, in addition to naturalistic observation over the course of an entire season. The researchers would have had ample opportunities to see evidence

of indirect actions, which they could then ask the athletes to elaborate on during interviews. Since the present study did not employ participant observation over the span of entire season, this may not have allowed for the identification of all the ways in which the athletes regulated their teammates' emotions.

As previously mentioned, researchers have not studied positive emotions in sport very frequently (McCarthy, 2011). This study adds to the literature about positive emotions in sport by providing evidence that athletes try to improve their teammates positive emotions and by also exploring athletes' preferences for having their emotions regulated. Although the athletes generally supported the use of efforts to improve their own and their teammates' emotions, it is important to note that previous research has indicated that some athletes report negatively-toned emotions such as anger and anxiety as facilitative for performance (Robazza & Bortoli, 2007). In general, athletes in the present study said they preferred for teammates to improve their emotions and did not appear to want their emotions worsened by teammates – for example, some athletes reported that they did not want teammates to draw attention to their emotions after performance errors. Researchers have also noted, however, that efforts to worsen one's own emotions are easier than efforts to worsen one's own emotions (Niven et al., 2013; Webb, Miles, & Sheeran, 2012). Thus, emotion-improving IER efforts between teammates may be an important aspect of emotion regulation in sport: athletes may rely on or require teammates to improve their positive emotions, particularly if they are prone to using more emotion-worsening self-regulation strategies. Thus, research on the elicitation and maintenance of positive emotions among athletes may benefit from examining IER strategies used by teammates. Future research on IER, more specifically emotion-improving strategies, could add to the body of literature on positive emotions in sport.

In the present study, many athletes reported that they had never tried to worsen their teammates' emotions, although a small number of athletes stated that they had done so. For example, athletes reported 'picking on' teammates in practice in order to win or to showcase their own talent, as well as worsening others' emotions if they perceived a teammate was not focused or putting in the required amount of effort in practice. Niven and colleagues (2007) investigated the use of affect improving and affect worsening strategies among prison staff and inmates, and participants in their study reported engaging in nearly three times as many instances of affect-improving actions compared to affect-worsening actions. Similarly, athletes in the present study also appeared to report more emotion improving behaviours and very few, if any, emotion

worsening behaviours. Despite the different contexts (i.e., prison and a competitive volleyball team), it appears that individuals report more strategies to try and improve the emotions of others than strategies to try and worsen the emotions of others. However, work by Friesen and colleagues (2015b) provided some instances of emotion-worsening strategies although they were not coded as such. For example, athletes reported lying to teammates, calling out their teammates, using threats and punishment, and giving teammates the silent treatment. It is unclear why there were such drastic differences in the use of emotion-worsening behaviours between athletes in the study by Friesen et al. (2015b) and the athletes in the present study. One could speculate that these differences could be attributed to gender (i.e., male vs. female) or sport (i.e., hockey vs. volleyball) differences. Furthermore, the studies took place in two different countries and the cultural norms could have influenced the athletes' behaviour. Friesen et al. (2015b) did not investigate how the target of these actions perceived these seemingly negative IER behaviours and how these actions influenced relationships and performance. At this point, it is unknown if there is an ideal level or balance of emotion-improving and/or emotion-worsening IER behaviours for optimal performance and team functioning. Future research should seek to understand how emotion-improving and emotion-worsening IER influences performance in a team.

The identification of emotion worsening IER strategies is an important contribution to the literature, since they were not identified as strategies to try and regulate the emotions of others in previous research by Tamminen and Crocker (2013) or by Campo et al. (2016). As previously mentioned, Friesen et al. (2015b) provided instances of emotion-worsening IER strategies but they were not coded as such. Rather, IER behaviours were classified as either verbal or behavioural with the intention to influence either inferential processing or affective responses. Campo et al. (2016) may not have identified examples of emotion worsening IER strategies since their study focused strictly on athlete behaviours in games. The present study did not focus on just games, but also asked athletes about emotion regulation behaviours in practices and off the court (e.g., in the team room). The use of semi-structured interviews that allowed athletes to discuss emotion regulation in competition and outside of competition may have allowed the identification of more diverse instances of IER, including emotion-worsening strategies. Therefore, the present study builds on past literature through the addition of knowledge of emotion-worsening behaviours. However, more research is warranted on the topic to develop a

better understanding of athletes' use of emotion-worsening IER strategies. More specifically, it would be interesting to examine whether emotion-worsening strategies are present in other sports, and among male athletes. Rutten et al. (2007) found that female athletes reported significantly more prosocial behaviour and evaluated the sociomoral atmosphere within the team as more positive when compared to male athletes. These differences could potentially lead to differences in IER behaviours (both emotion-improving and emotion-worsening) between male and female athletes, thus future research is needed to understand athletes' use of emotion worsening across a variety of sport contexts.

5.3 Factors Influencing Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

The present study also contributes to what is known about the factors that influence IER in sport. It appeared that IER was influenced by quality of teammates' relationships with one another, athletes' roles, positions, athletes' lack of awareness of others' emotions, and automaticity of behaviours.

Results from the present study suggest that IER among teammates may depend on or be related to the quality of teammates' relationships. Researchers have previously demonstrated that there is an association between interpersonal affect regulation and the quality of relationships between individuals (Niven et al., 2007; Niven et al., 2012). More specifically, Niven et al. (2012a) found that positive interpersonal affect regulation had a positive impact on the target and agent's relationship quality. Although the current study did not set out to test this relationship, it appeared to be reciprocal in that the quality of the relationship between athletes seemed to influence their use of IER, while the use of IER might in turn influence the quality of teammates' relationship. The present study extends previous research by suggesting the association between IER and relationship quality may in fact be reciprocal, however, further research is warranted on this topic. A longitudinal study would allow researchers to understand if a change in either IER or relationship quality precedes the other. This could be valuable information for team sport athletes and could influence aspects of team cohesion. Additionally, Niven and colleagues (2015) suggested that Masters students' use of IER lead to increased popularity. Future research could seek to understand if athletes' use of IER leads to increased popularity.

In the sport psychology literature, Tamminen and Crocker (2013) suggested that IER was influenced by the length of time athletes spent together and team dynamics/cohesion. The results

of the present study extend this idea by suggesting that the quality of the relationship between the agent and the target likely develops as athletes spend more time together as a team, which improves IER. Thus, the present study adds to the literature by suggesting that the length of time athletes spend with one another leads to increased use of IER through improvements in teammate relationships.

Athletes' roles also appeared to influence the use of IER. Athletes reported that teammates in a leadership role seemed to regulate others' emotions more often than athletes who were not considered leaders. Furthermore, leaders were also described as regulating emotions at a group and team level more than other athletes. The term 'group' refers to multiple people (e.g., all of the setters on the team) whereas the term 'team' refers to the entire team as a whole. Some athletes who were not considered leaders reported engaging in IER in dyads and smaller groups. The specific results concerning leadership were in line with past research. Friesen et al. (2015b) identified that leaders felt more inclined to influence their teammates' emotions whereas those who were not considered leaders chose not to regulate their teammates' emotions in some instances. In their study of high-performance curlers, Tamminen and Crocker (2013) found that the Skip, who was identified as a leader, played the largest role in regulating her teammates' emotions. The current study adds to the existing literature by suggesting that an athlete's leadership role on the team may influence the extent to which they attempt to regulate the emotions of their teammates at the dyadic level (i.e., with one other teammate), within small groups of teammates, or at the team level to try and influence the overall emotional climate on the team. For example, Selena-C reported engaging in group IER with the other two setters. Within that sub-group of athletes, Selena-C would be considered the leader and thus felt comfortable addressing the other athletes. These findings also relate to current research on leadership and expressions of confidence in team members. Fransen et al. (2015) conducted a study to examine the influence of leaders' expressions of team confidence on team members' performance in newly-formed basketball teams. The results indicated that group leaders' expression of high team confidence led to an increase in team members' confidence in their own ability to succeed, and improved teammates' task performance. Although Fransen et al. (2015) did not focus explicitly on the concept of interpersonal emotion regulation, one possible explanation of the results is that an athlete leader's expression of confidence may in fact be a

form of group IER. Thus, expressions of confidence by leaders may function as an emotion-improving strategy which contributes to improved performance among teammates.

It seemed that starting status, team tenure, and leadership were related to one another which supports past literature. For example, Benson, Surya, and Eys (2014) found that starters were 5.93 times more likely to identify as leaders compared to non-starters, and veterans were 4.10 times more likely than first-year athletes to identify as leaders. In the present study, leaders reportedly engaged in IER more frequently than non-leaders. This could suggest that athletes may need to achieve a certain level of team tenure in combination with a certain skill level (i.e., starting status) in order to effectively or comfortably regulate others' emotions. Jessica-S even expressed in her interview that she found it challenging to use humour as an IER strategy while playing because she was so focused on what she was doing that she did not have time or ability to think of anything else. There were three exceptions within the present team of athletes: (a) a first year athlete was a starter, but athletes did not consider her a leader, (b) despite only being in her second year, athletes considered one of the starters to be a leader, and lastly, (c) one of the senior athletes was a leader but she was injured and therefore was not a starter. Thus, these exceptions suggest that that the association between leadership and IER is potentially influenced by other factors as well. Future research could use a longitudinal design to better understand IER and the factors that influence it over time.

In addition to leadership roles, the inductive analysis identified two novel roles that teammates fulfilled and that seemed to influence IER, namely, calming and supporting roles. Friesen and colleagues (2013a) used multiple levels of analysis to assess how two hockey captains decided if, when, and how to regulate their teammates' emotions. Despite exploring captains' use of IER at various levels (i.e., individual, dyadic, group, and cultural), Friesen et al. (2013a) did not explore how IER among captains may differ from IER efforts of athletes in other (non-leadership) roles. In the present study, athletes in the calming role were reported as having a calming or relaxing effect on her teammates, whereas athletes in the supporting role were typically not starters or were injured and helped their teammates in a variety of ways. The identification of these additional roles adds to the literature about athletes' informal roles and how they may influence IER within teams. Previous research (Cope et al., 2011) has examined various types of roles within teams such as the comedian, spark plug, mentor, etc., and there appeared to be some overlap between the roles that Cope et al. (2011) identified and those identified in the present

study. First, the present study identified a number of athletes as leaders. The leaders appeared to take on many of the roles identified by Cope et al. (2011) including the informal leader - non-verbal, informal leader - verbal, the mentor, and the social convenor. Athletes in the supporting role played a similar role to the spark plug and team player (Cope et al., 2011), but additionally provided technical, tactical, and emotional support to teammates. The calming role that was described by the participants in the present study did not align with any of the roles identified by Cope et al. (2011). Therefore, this study adds to the literature by suggesting an athlete's role could be to help calm down his or her teammates. A role that was identified and further investigated by Cope et al. (2010; 2011) but was not evident in the current study was the 'cancer' on the team, who were described as displaying negative emotions that led to negative consequences for the rest of the team. It would be interesting to investigate if the 'cancer' on a team engages in more emotion-worsening IER strategies than other athletes on the team. The current study adds to what is known about informal roles by suggesting that athletes can play a calming and supporting role, and by connecting athletes' roles to IER actions they may engage in with teammates. It might be valuable to further consider athletes' roles from an emotional perspective to develop a broader understanding of how athletes influence their teammates' emotions.

The results indicated that an athlete's position (e.g., middle, left side, etc.) as well as physical position (i.e., where they are standing on the court) influenced IER within the team. More specifically, athletes of the same position appeared to communicate more frequently during practices, and athletes stated that technical feedback would be more valuable from an athlete of the same position. Additionally, athletes reported that those who were standing closest to them on serve receive had frequently regulated their emotions. Previous researchers (e.g., Tamminen & Crocker, 2013; Friesen et al., 2013a, 2015a, 2015b) had not addressed the importance of an athlete's position while investigating IER. Tamminen and Crocker (2013) studied a curling team in which there are only four athletes, each of which have a different position. In this case, the sport being studied may have limited the researchers' ability to explore the impact of position on IER. Additionally, Friesen and colleagues (2013a) interviewed two hockey players from two different teams which might not have allowed for a fuller understanding of the entire team context due to only having one athlete's perspective of the team. By interviewing the majority of the athletes within a single team, the present study adds to the IER literature by suggesting that

an athlete's position influences the frequency and ways in which he or she regulates their teammates' emotions. This may differ in other sports where their training groups are very distinct (e.g., football or lacrosse athletes who strictly play defense or offense). For example, athletes may perceive technical feedback as valuable from an athlete of any position as long as they were both on offense/defense. Further research is warranted on the role that positions and lines have on the use of IER and its perceived effectiveness. In addition, some sports (e.g., soccer) are played on much larger surfaces. It would be interesting to investigate how the physical context of the sport influences the ways in which athletes regulate their teammates' emotions and the frequency of IER between teammates.

In their study of IER among prison staff and inmates, Niven and colleagues (2007) reported that three quarters of all the instances of interpersonal affect regulation concerned efforts the participants made to regulate others' emotions, whereas only one quarter of the participants' reports reflected perceptions of having one's emotions regulated by others. Niven et al (2007) attributed this discrepancy to the participants' lack of awareness of having their emotions regulated by others; however, athletes in the present study reported many instances of when their emotions were regulated by their teammates, which was inconsistent with the results of previous research. It is possible that the use of interviews, which prompted athletes to think about times when teammates had attempted to regulate their own emotions, elicited more accounts of these types of interactions.

Athletes in the present study appeared to demonstrate a lack of awareness of others' experience and expression of emotions. Some of the first year athletes had a challenging time recalling occasions where a teammate became emotional in any way (e.g., angry or sad). In some cases, inexperienced athletes reported that they had not witnessed teammates becoming emotional prior to taking part in the first interview. Interestingly, the older and more experienced athletes were never at a loss for examples of times when a teammate displayed their emotions. Therefore, the younger athletes may have a lack of awareness of how their teammates were feeling or expressing emotions. As suggested by a senior athlete, the first years were often overwhelmed with trying to 'keep up', and thus may not have had the time or ability to notice what was going on around them. This lack of awareness of others' emotions may lead to a decreased use of IER. Future research should seek to understand the impact age and experience has on the use of IER.

Future research could use a cross-sectional design to assess the differences in IER between athletes of various ages and levels of expertise within a team.

5.4 Theoretical Implications

5.4.1 Theoretical Frameworks

Niven and colleagues' (2009) theoretical framework informed the interview guide by inquiring about emotion-worsening IER strategies. Since there were few instances of emotion-worsening strategies reported by the athletes, it was not possible to identify subthemes or specific strategies used to worsen teammate's emotions. In line with Niven and colleagues (2011) work, participants in the present study reported trying to improve their teammates' emotions more frequently than trying to worsen them. Perhaps athletes reported trying to improve their teammates more often because they perceived emotion-improving strategies to be most beneficial for performance. All of the participants in the present study likely had the same goal (i.e., to win), and therefore would be expected to choose an IER strategy that they would perceive as beneficial for achieving their goal. As suggested by Niven and colleagues (2011), this discrepancy could also be due to social desirability, and athletes may not have wanted to admit to the researcher that they had engaged in emotion-worsening strategies. However, it was also reported by the athletes in the present study that in instances when they did engage in emotion-worsening with teammates, it was typically done for instrumental purposes (e.g., performance outcomes; Tamir, 2016). While athletes did not discuss using emotion-worsening frequently, it is possible that they may engage in more affect worsening in pursuit of performance goals. However, further research is needed to examine whether individuals use more affect-worsening IER in the pursuit of instrumental goals within a sport context.

Results of Niven and colleagues' (2011) study suggest that individuals are sometimes not aware of when his or her emotions are being regulated by others. In the present study, athletes were never at a loss for an example of when a teammate had regulated her emotions. This discrepancy may be explained by the fact that in the current study, athletes were explicitly asked for an example of when they attempted to regulate a teammate's emotions as well as when they had their emotions regulated by their teammates. It is also possible that since the participants of this study were teammates and were reportedly very close with one another, they could have been more overt with their IER behaviours than the participants in Niven et al.'s (2011) study.

Zaki and Williams (2013) distinguished between intrinsic interpersonal regulation (i.e., seeking social contact in order to regulate his or her own emotions) and extrinsic interpersonal regulation (i.e., seeking social contact in order to regulate the other person's emotions). In the present study, athletes reportedly sought social contact with others with the intent to regulate their own and the other person's emotions. This suggests that extrinsic and intrinsic interpersonal regulation may not be mutually exclusive. Instead, athletes may have more than one goal when engaging in interpersonal emotion regulation; this finding poses challenges for delineating between athletes' motives for engaging in IER, since they may engage in strategies that simultaneously serve intrinsic and extrinsic purposes. Future research should seek to better understand athletes' motives or intentions behind their IER behaviours. This could be achieved by asking athletes about their motives or intentions of observed behaviours or by conducting interviews with the use of video footage of practices and games.

Zaki and William (2013) also described two processes that support IER: response-dependent and response-independent. A response-dependent process relies on the response of the target whereas a response-independent process does not require the target to react in a particular way. This concept relates to how athletes assessed the success of their IER attempt. Participants reported that they would assess whether their teammates' emotions or mood improved after engaging in IER. Response-dependent and response-independent processes did not appear to influence athletes use of IER in any other way.

5.4.2 Affect Regulation vs. Emotion Regulation

The distinction between emotion regulation and affect regulation was unclear among athletes in the current study. Gross and Thompson (2007) stated that affect is a superordinate term that covers a variety of states (e.g., moods, emotions) that involves a good-bad or positive-negative distinction. On the other hand, emotions arise as a response to an event that is appraised as relevant to a person's goals, emotions affect one's subjective experience, behaviour, and physiology, and they have the ability to force themselves into one's awareness (Gross & Thompson, 2007). At times, athletes explicitly stated which emotion they perceived that their teammate felt and how they had attempted to regulate the teammate's emotions, while other times athletes reported simply trying to make a teammate 'feel better'. Thus, athletes did not appear to clearly distinguish between emotions and affect in their responses. Furthermore, as noted by Campo et al. (2016), athletes' perceptions of a teammate's emotions may not always be

accurate or congruent with the teammate's actual emotional experience. For example, an athlete may think a teammate is angry when in fact she is sad. Since athletes did not distinguish between affect and emotion regulation, this raises the question of whether an athlete tailors their IER behaviours according to the specific emotion they perceive another teammate is feeling. In the present study, the athletes did not appear to describe any differences in terms of the strategies they used to try and regulate the specific emotions or broader affective states of their teammates. In other words, athletes appeared to use similar IER strategies, regardless of whether they were trying to regulate teammates' specific emotions or more general affective states. It also appeared that the IER strategies athletes chose were fairly consistent across similar emotions. It is possible that athletes' lay understandings of emotions contributed to athletes' perceptions of similarity in teammates' emotions (e.g., 'anger and frustration' or 'nervousness and anxiety'). As stated by Parkinson (1995), common sense understandings of emotions are often evaluated as either good or bad, which may be one way in which individuals categorize emotions. Consequently, efforts to try and regulate others' emotions may vary across broader types of emotions rather than varying across specific types of emotions. Future research could seek to understand if there are major differences in IER strategies between identified emotions or if differences in IER strategies vary across broader groups of positively- and negatively-toned emotions. Moreover, it would be valuable to explore whether athletes' accuracy in reading others' emotions improves the effectiveness of IER.

5.4.3 Effectiveness of Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

The results of this study also raise the question of what is considered 'effective' IER. From the athlete's perspective, IER may be considered effective if he or she believes that a teammate feels better, or if the teammate starts performing better. Tamir (2009; 2016) proposed that individuals might regulate their own and others' emotions for hedonic purposes (e.g., up-regulate positive emotions or down-regulate negative emotions to feel good) or for instrumental purposes (e.g., regulating positive and negative emotions to reach one's goals). Tamir (2016) further broke down instrumental motives into four subcategories: performance, epistemic, social, and eudaimonic. Performance motives reflect the desires people have to experience certain emotions in order to obtain tangible outcomes. Performance motives can then be divided into cognitive and behaviour motives (Tamir, 2016). Emotions have the ability to influence peoples' cognition and behaviour, and therefore, individuals may seek to influence either aspect with the intent to

improve performance. Epistemic motives reflect peoples' desire to feel certain emotions in order to achieve desired information. With regards to social motives, individuals may want to regulate their emotions in order to communicate information to other people, to influence others' behaviours, or to promote an awareness of social identity (Tamir, 2016). Lastly, individuals may be motivated to experience certain emotions in order to feel autonomous, to satisfy intellectual curiosity, or to feel a sense of meaning in his or her life (Tamir, 2016).

When considering interpersonal emotion regulation in a sport context, Campo et al. (2016) suggested that motivation for IER could be either altruistic (i.e., with the best intention of the teammate) or egoistic (with the athlete's own best interest in mind). A criticism of this categorization, as well as the hedonic/instrumental distinction (Tamir, 2009), is that the two types of motives might not be mutually exclusive. It would be challenging to decipher between these two motives for IER, not only for researchers, but for participants as well. Campo et al. (2016) claimed that all IER behaviours might in fact be driven by unconscious, egoistic (i.e., instrumental) motives. This makes sense in a competitive sport setting because an athlete may want to make a teammate feel better because he or she cares about them; thus, regulating others' emotions may serve hedonic purposes. However, the athlete likely also wants his or her teammate to feel better in order to play better, thereby contributing to performance outcomes and ultimately aid the athlete in reaching his or her own goals (i.e., instrumental purpose). In addition, Tamir (2016) proposed that emotion regulation could be used for social motives, and therefore, athletes might use IER to help their teammates communicate information to those around them. For example, Samantha-LC would reportedly regulate Julie-L's emotions by cueing her about how she was displaying her emotions. It is possible that Samantha-LC was trying to help Julie-L communicate calmness and confidence to her coaches despite struggling in the drill. Further research is needed to better understand why athletes engage in IER and how athletes evaluate the effectiveness of IER efforts. It would also be valuable to see how an athlete's motives for IER may vary depending on the context (e.g., in the dressing room versus practice versus a game).

In the present study, athletes reported that at times, IER helped both the teammate and the athlete themselves. For example, athletes reported that making a connection with a teammate was beneficial for both athletes, and athletes stated that providing general positive or technical feedback to teammates helped them regulate their own emotions. Past research supports this

concept of IER helping both the agent and the target: for example, Niven and colleagues (2012a) found that the use of affect-improving strategies led to the agents' own affect becoming more positive. Zaki and Williams (2013) suggested that an individual regulating another person's emotions may themselves experience positive emotions as a result of vicarious experience. In sport, researchers have reported that efforts to regulate others' emotions are associated with athletes' own enjoyment (Tamminen, Gaudreau, McEwen, & Crocker, in press). Therefore, it may be difficult to tease apart interpersonal and intrapersonal emotion regulation at times. Similarly, athletes in the present study reported regulating their own emotions out of consideration for their teammates, which was also reported by athletes in the study by Tamminen and Crocker (2013). As a consequence, it may be even more challenging to understand athletes' motives for engaging in IER and in determining when IER has been effective.

Since athletes might use IER for the instrumental purpose of improving their teammates' performance, it would be valuable to understand whether and how performance improvements actually occur as a function of IER. Although the relationship between the use of IER and performance was not investigated in the present study, it is plausible that IER may lead to improved performance by helping to sustain athletes' effort in practices and competitions. Athletes often reported providing verbal/positive feedback and making connections when a teammate was struggling with a physical task (e.g., passing or digging). Athletes even reported that when their emotions were being regulated by teammates, it was beneficial in helping them to persist at the task. This idea of IER sustaining athletes' effort is supported by research that considers the idea of social contagion in exercise participation. Scarapicchia, Sabiston, Andersen, and Garcia Bengoechea (2013) conducted a study in which a confederate used verbal primes (reflecting either extrinsic or intrinsic motivation for exercise) while running on a treadmill beside a research participant. Scarapicchia and colleagues (2013) found positive outcomes (i.e., higher ratings of perceived exertion, higher heart rate levels, exercised at a higher percent heart rate max, and spent a longer amount of time at a moderate to vigorous exercise) among participants in the intrinsically-primed experimental group compared to the extrinsically-primed experimental group. The researchers suggested that this might have been because participants could have interpreted the verbal primes as persuasion, leading to increased self-efficacy for the task. In addition, the confederate continued running for two minutes after the time trial ended among participants in the intrinsically-primed experimental group. In contrast,

confederates in the externally-primed group stopped running as soon as the trial ended. Participants in the intrinsic motivation group were more likely to continue running than those in the externally motivated group; the researchers attributed this difference to participants' perception that it was socially unacceptable to stop running and mimicking the behaviour of the confederate. Relating back to the present study, athletes' use of IER may be been perceived as motivational and led to increased self-efficacy, thereby leading to sustained effort for the task at hand. Further research about the mechanisms through which IER influences athletes (e.g., self-efficacy, motivation, etc.) is warranted.

5.4.4 Automaticity, Intentionality, and Learning Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

The findings that athletes used humour, provided positive and technical feedback, and made a connection with teammates as ways of trying to regulate others' emotions raises the issue of the automaticity of IER behaviours and the process of learning about IER. Based on the inductive analysis of the data, it seemed that humour needed to emerge organically for it to be effective as an IER strategy. For example, an athlete recalled a time when her teammate noted how tense the setting was and said that somebody needed to tell a joke. However, the participant said that explicitly noting that humour was needed was not actually useful for improving athletes' feelings of tension and the attempt at using humour felt 'forced' in this situation. Conversely, athletes did not seem to believe that other types of IER strategies needed to emerge organically in order to be effective in regulating others' emotions. Athletes frequently reported that coaches and leaders explicitly encouraged athletes to make connections with their teammates, and sometimes there were even negative consequences if they did not do so. This was also the case for verbal/positive feedback; both making connections and providing verbal/positive feedback did not seem to have to occur naturally in order for them to be effective for regulating teammates' emotions.

The present findings also suggest that after certain IER behaviours are learned, it is possible that these behaviours become almost automatic or done without much thought. For example, athletes reported using non-verbal strategies including smiling and cheering to regulate their teammates' emotions. At times, participants reported purposefully engaging in these behaviours with the intent to regulate their teammates' emotions, but other times athletes engaged in these behaviours without such intent. In those particular cases where behaviours seemed to be automatic, it is unclear whether they would truly be considered IER strategies (i.e., if effort and the intention to

regulate others' emotions is not present). Zaki and Williams (2013) suggested that the regulation of others' emotions without any intent to do so is considered emotion modulation rather than IER. In contrast, perhaps IER behaviours include those that are both effortful and automatic. This conceptualization of IER would be in line with Gross and Thompson' (2007) definition of emotion regulation which included processes that run on a continuum from conscious and controlled to unconscious and automatic. Guyurak, Gross, and Etkin (2011) defined implicit emotion regulation as "processes are believed to be evoked automatically by the stimulus itself and run to completion without monitoring and can happen without insight and awareness" (p. 401). English, John and Gross (2013) proposed that implicit emotion regulation could be valuable in situations that require attention and memory. Since volleyball, and sport in general, requires an athlete's attention on the skills being performed and the tactical aspects of the game, these implicit emotion regulation strategies may be very beneficial. However, athletes also reported that strategies which were initially effortful and conscious and which became learned habits over time could 'break down' under times of stress. This suggests that the distinction between effortful and automatic (or implicit and explicit) IER strategies may be difficult to determine. There is a need for a better understanding of the defining features of IER, and more research is required to understand how IER is learned in teams over time. Future research could also seek to understand if athletes benefit from these automatic IER behaviours more (or less) than explicit emotion regulation.

5.5 Applied Implications

The findings from this study allowed for a better understand of how athletes regulate their teammates' emotions, the factors that influence IER, and athlete's preferences for having their emotions regulated. The information athletes provided about their preferences for IER could be beneficial to share with competitive varsity athletes. If athletes (and even coaches) are aware of teammates' preferences for emotion regulation, athletes could implement these findings to try and improve teammates' emotional experiences in sport, and potentially improve their own and their team's performance.

With regards to the types of IER strategies athletes should implement, it may be best to limit the technical/tactical support they provide to teammates outside of their position. Most athletes felt as though a teammate should not be providing specific feedback if they do not perform the same

skills in competition. However, verbal/positive feedback and non-verbal IER were reported to be valuable from an athlete of any position and therefore might be ‘safer’ IER strategies. Humour can be a valuable IER strategy to employ if the level of tension has started to rise or even to prevent an athlete from becoming angry, frustrated, or sad as long as it emerges organically (e.g., not be forced). Athletes might want to avoid using humour if an athlete is experiencing a negative emotion at a high intensity or if they team is playing very poorly.

The results from this study also highlighted the major role that leaders have with regard to IER. Athletes may need to develop a level of comfort in their own ability before they are able take on the role of a leader on the court, and more specifically in regulating others’ emotions. In addition, it is important for athletes, and especially leaders, to be able to regulate their own emotions because of the impact their emotional expression could have on the rest of the team. Coaches should be aware of this issue when selecting team captains. In addition, it would be valuable for coaches to ensure team leaders are aware of the influence they may have on teammates.

Since volleyball is such a fast-paced sport, athletes could engage in IER when there is a long stop in play (i.e., timeout or between sets) or after a practice/game has ended. Athletes reported that speaking with their teammates about something that occurred earlier was helpful and prevented the same issue from happening again. It could also be valuable for athletes to be open about how they want their emotions to be regulated and to ask their teammates for feedback about their use of IER. Creating dialogue about IER with one’s teammates and possibly modifying one’s use of IER depending on the target could result in increased perceived effectiveness of IER.

5.6 Generalizability

The concept of generalizability (i.e., transferability) in qualitative research is debated and different principles have been proposed regarding the utility of generalizing the results from qualitative studies. For example, Shenton (2004) stated that since the findings in qualitative research are specific to a typically small sample, conclusions cannot be drawn to other situations or populations. Denscombe (2010) provided a different perspective on generalizability, specific to case studies, suggesting that despite the fact that each case is unique in some aspects, it is also an example within a broader context. In addition, the extent to which the results of a case study can be generalized to other populations depends on how similar (or dissimilar) the case is to

other cases (Denscombe, 2010). In order to draw wider inferences, researchers should recognise key features of the case and identify how the case compares to other similar cases (Denscombe, 2010). By providing contextual information and thorough detail, a reader is able to decide for him or herself whether these results apply to other sport situations (Shenton, 2004).

This study represents a special case since the team participating in this study was one of the best women's volleyball teams in Canada. Their success makes one question whether they were successful in part because they were good at regulating their own and others' emotions. Conversely, since they were so successful, it is possible they did not need to regulate their own and others' emotions to the same extent as less successful teams. Despite their success, it is believed that the same principles regarding the use of IER would exist in other teams, but might manifest differently due to the amount of physical contact and opportunities for communication.

Volleyball is played in a small area when compared to soccer, football, and hockey, and athletes are forced to be near one another, which allows for more physical contact and communication. Additionally, during each volleyball set there is at least one time out that provides athletes with time to interact with one another and offers multiple opportunities for athletes to engage in IER. However, the breaks between sets only last for a few minutes, whereas hockey players may have 15 minutes between periods, which could mean more time for athletes to engage in IER. The findings regarding athletes' roles, social norms, and interpersonal factors are more easily generalizable to other sport contexts since they are not as specific to the context of volleyball. Thus, athletes from other high performance teams likely engage in IER, although they may go about it in a different way than the athletes in the present study. The results of this study may not be generalizable to all sport settings, such as youth sport, recreational settings, or even men's sports. Future research is needed to better understand IER across various sport settings.

5.7 Strengths and Limitations

Through this study it was possible to understand some of the contextual factors that influence IER, which was an important area for research identified by Zaki and Williams (2013) and contributes to the literature regarding IER. Identification of factors that influenced IER was achieved by interviewing the entire team of athletes (with the exception of two athletes; one of whom was injured and was not very involved with the team for the duration of the season). Since most athletes took part in this study, it was possible to interview multiple athletes from each year

of eligibility, each position on the court, and those with and without injuries. Thus, adopting a case study methodology allowed the researcher to identify factors such as social norms, roles, and relationships that influenced IER within the team.

The use of interviews at two different time points was considered a strength of the study. The researcher was able to develop rapport with athletes during their first interview, while learning about them, the team, social norms, and IER. In the second round of interviews, athletes were able to share more about the culture of the team and their experiences with IER. In addition, the second round of interviews served the purpose of member checking. Athletes were presented with some tentative themes from the first round of interviews and asked for their thoughts and opinions. This provided reassurance that the researcher's initial interpretations were appropriate representations of their experiences, and the athletes were encouraged to expand on topics that were not well understood (i.e., automaticity and relatability). It was valuable that athletes were interviewed during their season because they were still interacting with teammates and engaging in IER, thereby potentially reducing issues with recall, had the data been collected out of season.

Another strength of this study was the identification of findings regarding athletes' perceptions of learning to regulate their teammates' emotions. Although this was not the main focus of the study, it provided some insight into the process of learning to regulate others' emotions and suggests that IER may consist of both automatic and effortful, intentional behaviours. Furthermore, behaviours which are initially effortful and intentional may become automatic over the course of the season as athletes spend more time together. Future research on how athletes learn to regulate others' emotions is necessary in order to better understand this phenomenon and to understand the development of IER within teams.

A limitation of this study was that the role of the coach was not fully explored. Although some athletes brought up the coaches' use of IER, not all athletes discussed this issue. Involving the coaching staff in the interview process would be very valuable for future research and would allow a better understanding of the coach's IER behaviours and the impact her or she has on athletes. Further, by engaging with the coaches directly, researchers could probe more about why they engaged in the strategies they used.

Another limitation of this study was the nature of self-report during the interview process, as athletes may have reported modified IER behaviours due to social desirability. This could have

resulted in inflated findings of IER behaviours to improve emotions and lower reported use of emotion-worsening behaviours. To combat this limitation, future research could include observational techniques to supplement interviews.

The lack of focus on group-based emotions is also a limitation of this study. Athletes, mainly leaders, reportedly regulated their teammates' emotions in a variety of ways at a group and even team level. It appeared that leaders wanted their teammates to feel a certain way and engaged in IER to achieve their purposes. As suggested by Goldenberg, Halperin, van Zomeren, and Gross (2016), individuals regulate group-based emotions in order to facilitate reaching collective goals. Further research is warranted on how and why athletes regulate group-based emotions, and possibly how this differs between teams.

The final limitation of this study was that it did not assess the relationship between IER and team success. The team that took part in this study was extremely successful, however, this cannot be solely attributed to the use of potentially effective IER among teammates. Research is necessary to establish associations between athletes' IER and performance or interpersonal outcomes. Additionally, if IER is associated with positive performance and interpersonal outcomes for athletes, researchers could implement an intervention to improve IER. This would ultimately lead to a better understanding of the relationship between IER and performance or success and help athletes to better regulate the emotions of their teammates.

5.8 Conclusion

Overall, the purpose of this study was to better understand female varsity volleyball athletes' use of IER within a team using an instrumental case study approach (Stake, 1995). Athletes reported using emotion-improving strategies (i.e., verbal/positive feedback, cueing teammates about emotions, humour and non-verbal strategies), and emotion-worsening IER strategies, and at times, athletes chose not to engage in IER. Five factors appeared to influence athletes' use of IER: athletes' roles, social norms, the volleyball context, athletes' preferences for IER, and interpersonal factors (i.e., relationship quality, personality, and relatability). Athletes provided some preliminary evidence of how individuals learn to regulate their teammates' emotions and how some behaviours become 'automatic' or completed out of habit. This study has theoretical implications with regards to the distinction between emotion regulation and affect regulation, athletes' preferences and the perceived effectiveness of IER, and the use of emotion worsening

strategies in sport. This study also has applied implications for athletes and coaches. The results from this study provide evidence of athletes' preferences for how they want their emotions regulated (i.e., help him/her move on, keep it minimal, and provide technical feedback). The results from this study also highlight the major role that leaders have regarding emotional expression and emotion regulation.

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Appendices

Appendix A. Information Letter and Informed Consent

Information Letter - Reading Level 12.0

June 26, 2015

Primary Investigator:
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Dear Athlete:
I am a Master's student in the Faculty of Kinesiology and Physical Education and I am inviting you to participate in a study. The purpose of this study is to find out about how athletes try to influence their teammate's emotions, the specific strategies they use, and what they perceive to be effective. I would be very grateful if you help us with this study, but it is very important that you realize that participation in this study is not mandatory. In other words, you do not have to participate in this study, and there are no negative consequences for non-participation.

What is involved?
If you agree to participate, I would like to do two interviews with you, each lasting approximately 45-60 minutes. The interviews will take place in a private meeting room (e.g., room 443) or a location of the athlete's choosing within the Faculty of Kinesiology and Physical Education (Goldring Centre for High Performance Sport, 100 Devonshire Pl.) at a time that is convenient for you. During the interviews, I will ask about you and your teammates' roles, your relationships with your teammates, how you attempt to regulate your teammates' emotions, and how you judge how effective you are at doing so. During the second interview, I will ask about the current strategies you use to regulate your teammate's emotions and to confirm our interpretations of the data collected during the first round of interviews. The interviews will be conducted individually, they will be audio-recorded, and they will each last about 1 hour.

What are the benefits?
There are no direct benefits from participating in this study, although you may like the opportunity to reflect on your sport participation and the way you handle emotions in sport. The information gained from this study will benefit the broader scholarly society by examining the ways in which athletes regulate their teammates' emotions. This information could help to inform coaches and sport practitioners to improve teams' and athletes' emotion regulation in sport, ultimately contributing to improved sport experiences and performance.

Are there any risks?
There are no known physical or psychological risks associated with this study. Given that I am using interviews to collect data for this study, there may be some small risks associated with the disclosure of personal or sensitive information. Recalling stressful experiences in sport may

make some participants uncomfortable. To reduce this risk, you do not have to answer any questions you do not want to, and you can stop the interview at any time. In the event that you would like to further discuss any feelings regarding the topics we discuss in the interviews, you may wish to contact support services (see attached information page)

What will happen with my information?

Interviews will be typed and held at the University of Toronto in the Faculty of Kinesiology and Physical Education. Once we have typed the interviews, we will delete the audio interview file. Only the researchers will have access to the information you provide. The information is kept for five years, after which it will be destroyed. Once we have completed the study, members of the research team will present the results at a conference. We may also write a paper which will be published in an academic journal. If the results are presented at a conference or in a paper, no one will be identified by name. We will present group information so that no one can be identified with their information. A summary of the results and copies of any resulting publications will be provided at your request.

Freedom to Withdraw

Participation in this study is voluntary. There will be no negative consequences if you do not participate, and we will not tell the coach or league director/administration about who chooses to participate or not participate in the study. If you do not want to participate in this study, it will not impact your position/reputation/relationship with the team. If after completing the first interview, you decide that you do not want to do the second interview that is fine. You can stop the interviews at any time, and you can withdraw from the study for any reason up until the data is analyzed (up to 2 months after your interview is completed). If you would like to withdraw from the study, you can contact the primary investigator, Tess Palmateer (email: tess.palmateer@mail.utoronto.ca).

If you have questions about this study, or about the information used for research purposes, you may contact Tess Palmateer (tess.palmateer@mail.utoronto.ca). You may also contact the Office of Research Ethics at ethics.review@utoronto.ca or 416-946-3273 if you have questions your rights as participants.

IF YOU WOULD LIKE TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY, PLEASE SIGN UP FOR AN INTERVIEW TIME OR EMAIL TESS PALMATEER.

Informed Consent
Title of Project: Interpersonal Emotion Regulation in a High Performance Volleyball Team

Part 1: Research Team Information	
Primary Investigator: Tess Palmateer, MSc student University of Toronto Faculty of Kinesiology & Physical Education 55 Harbord Street Toronto, ON, M5S 2W6 E: tess.palmateer@mail.utoronto.ca	**Supervisor:** Dr. Katherine Tamminen University of Toronto Faculty of Kinesiology & Physical Education 55 Harbord Street Toronto, ON, M5S 2W6 T: 416-946-4048 E: katherine.tamminen@utoronto.ca

Part 2: Consent of Participant		
	(Please circle)	
Do you understand that you have been asked to be in two interviews for a research study?	**Yes**	**No**
Have you read and received a copy of the attached Information Sheet?	**Yes**	**No**
Do you understand the benefits and risks involved in taking part in this study? (see information sheet)	**Yes**	**No**
Have you had an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study? (If you have questions, please contact any of the researchers listed above)	**Yes**	**No**
Do you understand that you are free to refuse to participate, or to withdraw from the study at any time without consequence, and that your information will be withdrawn at your request up to 2 months after the data has been collected?	**Yes**	**No**
Has the issue of confidentiality been explained to you? (see information sheet) Do you understand who will have access to your information?	**Yes**	**No**

Part 3: Athlete Signature

I agree to take part in this study.

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

Printed Name: _____

Email address: _____

Signature of Researcher: _____

Date: _____

Appendix B. Athlete Demographic Form

1. Age range: 17-19 20-22 23-25 26+

2: Ethnicity: _____

3. How long have you played this sport (years)? _____

4. How long have you been on THIS team (years)? _____

5. What position(s) do you play? _____

6. Are you a starter? Yes Sometimes No

7. Please list your sport history (e.g. when you started playing, the level you competed at)

Appendix C. Interview Guides

First Interview Guide

We are interested in learning about how you experience emotions, interact with teammates, and attempt to influence your teammates' emotions. We are interested in your opinions and thoughts, and there are no right or wrong answers to any questions. If you don't know how to answer a question or you choose not to answer, that is ok, and you are free to stop the interview at any time. You are also are free to drop out from the study at any time and there will not be any consequences for withdrawing. Your information will be completely confidential. All information will be confidential.

Athlete written consent form – athletes will be asked to read and sign the consent form prior to beginning the interview.

Questions	**Purpose/What aspects am I tapping into?**
Tell me about yourself? • Where are you from? • Tell me about your family? • Tell me about how you spend your time outside of volleyball? • What are your other hobbies?	Getting to know the athlete
If you could describe yourself in a few key words, what would they be?	Getting to know the athlete
Tell me about the people you are closest with.	Understand who their closest relationships are with (family, classmates, teammates, etc.)
Tell me about where you live. • How did you make your decision to live/not live with teammates?	Know whether they live with teammates
Tell me about your sporting experience. • How did you get involved in volleyball?	Getting to know the athlete and their sport experience
Tell me about the process of choosing to attend U of T. • What kind of influence did volleyball have? • What kind of influence did academics have?	Getting to know the athlete and understanding her values
Tell me about your experience with the U of T women's volleyball this far. • What is your volleyball schedule like? • How would you describe your team?	Getting to know the team
What are some of your favourite things about your team or being on this team? • Why?	Understanding the athlete's perceptions of their team

• What about some things you do not enjoy so much or would like to improve?	
If you could describe your team in 5 words, what would they be?	Understanding the athlete's perceptions of their team
What are your roles on the team? • What position do you play? • What are your informal roles (if not discussed)?	Roles
Now I am going to ask you to draw a diagram of your team. You can make a web, pyramid or anything you would like to represent your relationships with your teammates. • Tell me about what you drew. • Who are you closest to? Why do you think that is? • Are there other social 'groups' on the team?	Understanding the case (team dynamics, relationships, athletes' roles)
What are your teammates' roles? Feel free to refer back to your diagram.	Teammates' roles.
Can you tell me about a time when you displayed your emotions in a team setting of any kind? • What influenced you to become emotional? • How did you feel? • How did your teammates react? • Does this happen frequently/do you frequently show your emotions?	Team norms/display rules/emotional expressivity
Can you tell me about a time when you chose to hide your emotions in a team setting of any kind? • What influenced you to become emotional? • How did you feel? • Why did you keep your emotions to yourself? • Does this happen frequently?	Team norms/display rules/emotional expressivity
Tell me about your teammates emotional expressions?	Team norms/display rules/emotional expressivity
Compared to your teammates, how well do you think you handle your emotions? • Tell me about someone who you believe handles her emotions very well. Can you tell me about a time when she handled her emotions well? • Tell me about a person who does not handle their emotions well or may let their emotions take over. Do you have any examples that illustrate this?	Emotion regulation
How can you tell when a teammate is [angry/anxious/upset]? What does it look like? • How does this differ between your teammates?	Emotional Awareness

• Ask about the other emotions in the initial question	
Tell me about a recent practice. • Who are you talking to? • Who's talking to you? • What's being said? • Who did you warming up with and why? • Who did you interact with most during the practice? What was being said? • What happened after the practice? Tell me about that.	Social interactions – who is regulating who's emotions – emotional expression
Tell me about time when you tried to influence a teammate's emotions. • How did you try to do this? • Why did you want to influence the way she felt? • What made you choose to influence their emotions rather than not trying to? • How did she react? • Is this something common/that happens often? • Do you have another example of this?	Interpersonal emotion regulation strategies
Can you tell me about a time when a teammate tried to influence your emotions? • What did they do? • How did you feel? • What was it like? • Do you have another example of a time when a teammate tried to influence your emotions?	How others regulate their emotions.
When you are becoming emotional, what do your teammates do? Can you tell me about a specific time this occurred? • Is that the common response? • Have other athletes helped you in the same way? What about in a different way? • Have you ever become emotional and not received any help? Tell me about that. What was that like?	How others regulate their emotions.
How do you prefer your teammates to try to help you? For example, you were struggling during a practice, what would you like your teammate(s) to do? • If you were going to teach someone how you'd like her to help you step-by-step, how would you teach her?	Preferences for received emotion regulation

Conclusion

Is there anything else you would like to add?

Do you think there are any other questions I should have asked?

Second Interview Guide

We are interested in learning about how you experience emotions, interact with teammates, and attempt to influence your teammate's emotions. We are interested in your opinions and thoughts, and there are no right or wrong answers to any questions. If you don't know how to answer a question or you choose not to answer, that is ok, and you are free to stop the interview at any time. You are also are free to drop out from the study at any time and there will not be any consequences for withdrawing. Your information will be completely confidential. All information will be confidential.

Athlete written consent form – athletes will be asked to read and sign the consent form prior to beginning the interview.

Questions	**Purpose/What aspects am I tapping into?**
This is the diagram you drew last time. Has anything changed since the last time we met?	Relationships/cohesion
How have your roles changed from when we last met?	Participant' s role
How have your teammates' roles changed since we last met?	Teammates' roles
Take me through your most recent competition. • How are you feeling? • Who are you talking to? What's being said? • Who's talking to you? What's being said? • Who did you warming up with and why? • Was this a typical competition? Was anything different? • Who did you interact with most during the game? What was being said? • What happened after the game? Tell me about that. • Who did you interact with most?	Social interactions – who is regulating who's emotions – emotional expression (Sometimes teams have designated warm up partners by position who they are free to choose who they want to warm up with)
Tell me about a recent practice. • Who are you talking to? • Who's talking to you? • What's being said? • What happened after the practice? Tell me about that. • Does that often happen?	Social interactions – emotional expression
Tell me about a time when a teammate become emotional. What did you do? • Is that what you normally do? Does your response ever change? If so, why/based on what? • Do you ever use non-verbal strategies to influence an emotional teammate?	Emotion regulation strategies and the factors that influence it

• What factors influence the way you respond to an emotional teammate? (role, age, relationship quality, the emotion being experienced)	
Can you tell me about a time when you became emotional and teammate tried to influence or change the way you felt? • What did she do? • How did you respond? • Did you like the way she responded? • Do you think your other teammates would have responded in the same way? Why or why not?	Received interpersonal emotion regulation
Can you tell me about a time when you were angry/frustrated/upset with a teammate? • What was that like? • How did you feel? • What did you do?	Emotion-worsening strategies
Sometimes people say they try to worsen someone's mood or emotions. Do you have an example of when you may have tried to worsen someone's emotions or someone tried to worsen your emotions? • Why did you try to make the person feel worse? • How did your teammate react? • Do you have another example of a time when you tried to make someone feel worse?	Emotion-worsening strategies
Can you tell me about a time you have tried to regulate more than one person's emotions? • Why did you feel the need to do this? • How effective do you think you were? How did you judge this? • Is this a common situation/have you done this before?	Interpersonal emotion regulation (group level)
How do you learn how to effectively regulate a teammate's emotions? • What sort of things do you look for? • What indicates whether you are effective or not?	Indicators of effectiveness/Learning how to regulate others emotions
Have you ever seen an opponent trying to regulate her teammates' emotions? Can you tell me about that? • How did it make you feel? • What influence did this have on you/your team?	Influence of interpersonal emotion regulation (exploratory)

I will then present the results of my analysis form the first round of interviews and ask athletes if my interpretations are correct. I will also ask participants if they have anything to add or if anything has changed.

Conclusion

Is there anything else you would like to add?
Do you think there are any other questions I should have asked?

Appendix D. Overview of themes and subthemes

Theme	**Subtheme(s)**	**Quote/Example**
Emotion Improving IER Strategies	Verbal and Positive Feedback	*"Just tell her to keep swinging, tell her to move on and let go of it, focus on hitting the ball and not over thinking which is what she usually does. Just overthink it. Usually it seems to work ok." (Jill-S, Time 1)* *"All I can think of is in practice if I am frustrated with myself and it shows, I'll just be like 'oh my god. Why am I not getting this?' People will just be like, this is pretty standard too like anyone will just be like, 'you got it, no problem! Just get the next one'. Just positive encouragement where it's not like 'oh you didn't do anything wrong' but it's also like 'you'll do better. It's ok. We trust that you'll do better'." (Sarah-L, Time 2)*
	Cueing Teammates about Emotions	*"I guess I would just try to… because after that I kind of go with her, you know what I mean, in the serve receive rotation so I was kind of like 'ok, just breathe, we got the next one.'" (Sabrina-S, Time 2)* *"Yeah, I think just in practice. It might have been a week ago. I made a bunch of bad sets in a row and I was angry. Like just angry with myself. I think it was Samantha-LC that was just like 'ok, you're fine. Just calm down' and I was like ok, it's just practice. That's what I need. I need someone to be like 'it's just practice' or I'll get too up in my head." (Sabrina-S, Time 2)*
	Humour	*"[When I get frustrated my teammates] usually try to make a joke and then I start laughing because they will do something cheesy or make a joke or say something. So I'll start laughing." (Steph-L, Time 1)* *"Yeah, I think I'll do that, especially with Jessica-S. If she is having a tough time I will say something to make her laugh and that usually makes her forget about it." (Sabrina-S, Time 2)* *"If we have a really bad set against a team that sucks and it can't get any worse… Samantha-LC makes jokes, Julie-L makes jokes, Steph-L makes jokes. So it does help cut the tension. That's when we are playing really bad it's like obviously we are going to do better." (Sandy, Time 2)*

	Non-verbal IER	*"Just coming over and trying to give her a good connection, like high five, high contact, both hands, eye contact and her just kind of being quiet in a way." (Selena-C, Time 1)* *"[Coach] is very big on connections and routines and stuff. I think it does make us closer as a team. It does give a sense of unity. Like if you are playing bad and you get a high five and eye contact you know your team is there for you and they are not getting mad at you for shanking a pass or hitting it out. They are just trying to be there for you and knowing that you will get the next one. It definitely calms you down or even fires you up. If you make eye contact with someone after you make a really good play you're like 'yeah!'" (Jaclyn-S, Time 2)*
Emotion-Worsening IER Strategies		*"I think the only thing that would count for that is just when someone gets mad at you for not doing your job. I think it's really hard to ask someone to do something or address something while being super positive about it if it's an issue." (Sarah-L, Time 2)* *"[Coach] will call someone out and be like 'ok, you have to get 5 serves in a row' and if they miss we have to run. No one is ever mad at the person. You know what I mean? It's not something we get mad at I guess." (Sabrina-S, Time 2)*
Not Using IER		*"So I try to give people space but I am… honestly I would probably only go out of my way to ask how they are doing with the people I am closest with." (Scarlet, Time 2)* *"Sometimes you can just tell they are in the zone, it was just a mistake. They don't need to hear 'oh you'll get it next time'. They don't need that at the time. You know they are fine so you don't need to say anything" (Jamie, Time 2)*
Factors Influencing IER	Athlete Roles	***Leadership Role:*** *"Sometimes I feel drawn towards the younger players because… I feel like they are kind of lost sometimes and… when I was in first year if a fourth or fifth year came and talked to me and was supportive it meant a lot and I felt like I could trust them a lot. So I try to do that. In terms of winning and being a collective unit I also think it's really important to have good connections with the other leaders on the team." (Samantha-LC, Time 1)* *"Definitely the fifth years and the upper years are the ones that have the most effect. We always have a little meeting beforehand and it's almost never a rookie who does it. Anyone is welcome to do it, it's just none of us know what to say because we don't want to push anyone's buttons. We are still trying to figure out what's going on and how things work. So the fifth years and the upper*

		years are a good anchor for that and they are good at doing it. So we just kind of let them do it." (Janeen-S, Time 2)
		Calming Role: *"Then Samantha-LC is a leveller. Like 'excellent, but you're not done yet'. Which is pretty sweet I had both ways coming at me like 'k get fired up' but also 'calm down.'" (Julie-L, Time 1)* *"Sabrina-S T2: Just kind of have to stay calm for the rest of the team because I can't get angry as a setter. I just don't think that would be successful.* *I: So you were just trying to stay calm yourself?* *Sabrina-S T2: Yeah, stay calm myself and then bring that calm energy back so that we don't get too antsy I guess." (Sabrina-S, Time 2)* *"I think I do the same thing to Steph-L. I am just like… she gets overly excited sometimes and then her play gets pretty frantic which isn't good. So I'm like 'ok, just relax.'" (Sandy, Time 2)*
		Supporting Role: *"She is also my eyes on the court. So at time outs, at technical time outs she will come up to me and remind me to do things like dump or the middle is cheating towards our middle so set back." (Selena-C, Time 1)* *"You win and lose as a team whether or not you are on the court. As tough as it is to not be on the court, if you are not going to be there you still want to be a part of the team. You want to be cheering and supporting and making sure they have the best opportunities to do well because you are still a part of that." (Janeen-S, Time 2)*
	Social Norms	*"I think it's ok at practice just because if that's the way you deal with emotion… if you cry and get over it, it's fine and it's not hurting anybody. In a game I think it is unacceptable. We are there to play and just because you are not having a good game doesn't mean the team is playing rough. It kind of … I don't want to say taints but it lowers the standard of your team a little bit… In other team's eyes, if you are crying it kind shows that you are not ready, you are not prepared, and you are not regulating your emotions how you should be during a game. If you get subbed off the court, everybody is going to be frustrated. Its not at the team, it's usually at yourself like 'I cant believe I'm playing like this' and that's definitely ok. We all feel that and I don't think we need to try to hide that but you need to get over it quick. That's pretty much it. I don't think crying is a good idea." (Jaclyn-S, Time 2)*

	Volleyball Context	*"Not necessarily the exact same thing but if I am really frustrated and then someone who is a totally different position is like 'oh make sure you do this' and corrects my technic then that would kind of… I mean it won't really help. At least for me I would be like 'ok'. It might even be helpful advice but sometimes in the moment I won't consider it that helpful. So if they haven't been through the exact same thing, if it's more general then I find that helpful, but if they have been through the exact same thing then I would appreciate more specific. If it's someone who hasn't been through the same thing and they give it generally it will probably have the same impact as someone who has been through the same thing and gave it specifically. Just if the not same situation gave it specifically" (Jamie, Time 1)* *"It is usually kind of the same type of thing because you don't have that much time to really talk. It's mostly encouragement and 'let's go' 'keep going', nothing really specific. Sometimes if we are struggling in the game we will kind of take a second together and be like 'ok, deep breath, here we go. Let's slow it down'. It will be more purposeful. Sometimes there is some tactical information too." (Samantha-LC, Time 2)* *"I think being on a sport where it's a team…you are lucky enough to have girls on the court with you so close, especially we are a lot of girls in not a lot of space. It is important for them to help you. Even if they are not, even just them being there helps you be calm and refocused and help you focus on the task because you all want the same thing so they are all going to try to help you get there because they can't succeed if you are not playing well." (Jaclyn-S, Time 2)*
	Athlete Preferences	***Move on:*** *"What's helpful to me is to not talk about the situation but just general 'ok, next drill'. Don't be like 'you'll get it' that doesn't really help because then I will be like 'well, now they think I should get it and I'm not getting it' and that will continuously stress me out. But it you're just like, 'ok, moving on', just something general, focused on the next task, not the previous one." (Sabrina-S, Time1)*
		Minimal: *"Just kind of ignore it and worry about their job and let met worry about my job. I know they are well intentioned and everything but I don't know. Just drawing attention to the fact makes me feel self-conscious about it." (Selena-C, Time 1)* *"You don't want to focus on the mistakes because then you are just dragging them back to that last point. Everybody makes a mistake. That's the thing. In volleyball, when someone doesn't get a*

		tip or whatever, it's not that big of a deal because there are 700 other ones that they got. So yeah, you just don't emphasize it." (Steph-L, Time 2)
		Technical Feedback: *"Someone just telling me what I need to do, like if I am passing just like move my feet and remind me because if I am not playing well it's probably because I am really nervous for some reason or another, not focused on it." (Jaclyn-S, Time 2)*
	Interpersonal Factors	*"So if they haven't been through the exact same thing, if it's more general then I find that helpful, but if they have been through the exact same thing then I would appreciate more specific. If it's someone who hasn't been through the same thing and they give it generally it will probably have the same impact as someone who has been through the same thing and gave it specifically." (Jamie, Time 1)* *I think it helps when you know some of the background, like where they are coming from and you know them really well. You know maybe they aren't actually mad about this, they are mad about a bunch of other things. Or if this is typical of them to get mad at someone about this. So it helps to know them a little bit better. So for example some first years, it would be more of a general discussion. You wouldn't be able to relate as well. But for Steph-L or Samantha-LC who get emotional… I know them really well so it's easy to connect. The relationship and knowing them personally helps. Knowing them as a player helps too." (Sarah-L, Time 2)* *"If somebody like Scarlet was upset I probably wouldn't touch it because she is closer with Sandy and Sandy is her best friend. So when it's like that I would just be like 'hey girl, you ok?' and if she said yeah, then that's it. I know there is other support people there that could help and if she wanted to talk to me that's fine" (Steph-L, Time 2)*
Learning IER		*"I think it's important to be able to judge how people play well and what you need to do to make them feel better whether it's leave them alone, tell them to get their shit together, or positive feedback sort of thing…I think it just takes time learning how they play and their emotions. Like, my setter last year, in club, I played with her since I was 13-14… She just needed to be told to start playing well or it's not going to work. Then I have played with my other left side, she needed positive feedback or she would just self-combust. It takes time." (Jaclyn-S, Time 2)* *"I think knowing what type of person they are definitely helps. Then you know what works for best. So I know with Steph-L, what works best for her, if she is like 'yeah let's go!' and I say*

		'yeah! Come on!' back to her, that works for her. But with Shelby-C, it's more like 'good work. Keep going'. It's more monotone voice, it's can just be spoken softly. It doesn't have to be so aggressive." (Scarlet, Time 2) *"I think something that I learned from beach volleyball at least is that you can't really know unless you actually ask the person. Sometimes it seems like someone needs to get pumped up or someone needs to get yelled at or whatever but really, I don't think you know what works for somebody unless you directly ask them 'what do you need during the game?' (Samantha-LC, Time 2)*
	Automaticity	*"Automatically I high five people. I don't know why. It's just a thing volleyball players do a lot just because we are in such a close space. I personally will make a lot of connections and eye contact with everybody. That is an automatic I think. It was a very big… 17u was probably my team was really close and at the beginning of the year we made an effort to always high five, always smile, always… we had a mantra we would say before every practice and game that would help us. I think we put in effort to make things automatic which helped us a lot I think." (Jaclyn-S, Time 2)* *"The closer you get as a team and the more chemistry you have the more automatic it becomes. At the beginning even I wasn't used to the high fives I was getting. My previous teams hadn't been like that. Or me and Samantha-LC when we are playing defense together we will always look at each other and be like 'I have the dump on this side, you have the dump on that side'. It's like yeah, we know that but it's just automatic now to look at each other, say it, make eye contact and then be ready for the play. So yeah I think it comes with experience and playing together. The closer we have gotten the more automatic it has become. I feel like it's better when it's automatic." (Jamie, Time 2)*