

Facilitating Positive Youth Development through High School Sport

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Abstract

The purpose of this doctoral dissertation was to examine how high school sport can be framed as a context that facilitates positive youth development. Data were collected in two phases. In phase one, a case study of a high school ice hockey program recognised for focusing on youth development was conducted. One article was written, documenting the design of the program and its impact on student development. Results indicate that participants believed students were learning a wide range of life skills and values but that administrators and coaches faced many challenges in sustaining the program. In phase two, interviews were conducted with model high school coaches and their athletes and three articles were written (articles two, three, and four). The second article examines how model high school coaches teach students life skills and how to transfer these skills to other life domains. Results demonstrate that the model coaches prioritised development and had specifically designed strategies to help students learn and transfer life skills. The third article investigates how model high school coaches learn to facilitate positive youth development through sport. Results indicate that these coaches were lifelong learners who took advantage of learning situations in order to refine their skills and use sport as a tool for development. The fourth article examines the characteristics athletes prefer in high school coaches. Results indicate that most athletes prefer coaches who are supportive, knowledgeable, good motivators, and prioritise athlete development. Based on the results of the two phases of data collection, an article was written with the objective of providing coaches with strategies on how to facilitate positive youth development through sport. Strategies consist of: (a) developing a coaching philosophy, (b) developing relationships with athletes, (c) having developmental strategies, (d) making athletes practice life skills, and (e) teaching athletes about the transferability of life skills.

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Introduction

In many industrialised countries, including Canada, youth physical inactivity has become an area of concern given the related health risks (Canadian Paediatric Society, 2006).

Opportunities must be afforded to youth in order for them to engage in more active lifestyles.

Organised sport is considered a highly desirable setting in which to promote physical activity because sport is a popular and valued social practice and because youth are generally motivated to engage in sport (Gould & Carson, 2008). According to a report by the Canadian Centre for Ethics in Sport (2003), the context of school sport should be a favoured environment in which to promote sport participation given that schools are where youth are most accessible. In addition to benefiting the physical well-being of youth, researchers have also contended that school sports offer a particularly attractive environment in which to facilitate positive youth development and contribute to the educational mission of schools (Danish, Forneris, & Wallace, 2005). Recent reviews of the literature have indicated that school sport can, under appropriate circumstances, support the positive development of youth who take part in organised sporting activities in this context (Bailey, 2006; Bailey, Armour, Kirk, Jess, Pickup, & Sandford, 2009).

In North America, high school sport has been and continues to be a popular activity for youth. For instance, in Canada, over 750,000 adolescents participate in some form of organised high school sport and the number of participants in the United States exceeds 7.6 million (Canadian School Sport Federation, 2008; National Federation of State High School Associations, 2010). In order to justify the worth of their sport programs, a large number of high school sport organisations communicate through their mission statement the importance of addressing the global development of youth and not only the acquisition of motor skills and sport-specific abilities (Camiré, Werthner, & Trudel, 2009). For example, the Canadian School

Sport Federation states that its mandate is to: “encourage, promote and be an advocate for good sportsmanship, citizenship and the total development of student athletes through interscholastic sport” (Canadian School Sport Federation, 2004, p.4). In the United States, the National Federation of State High School Associations’ mission is to provide: “leadership for the administration of education-based interscholastic activities, which support academic achievement, good citizenship and equitable opportunities” (National Federation of State High School Associations, 2011). Given the large number of youth participating in high school sport in North America and the potentially wide range of benefits that can be derived from sport participation, it becomes essential to examine this setting in greater detail.

Research purpose

The purpose of this doctoral dissertation was to examine how high school sport can be framed as a context that facilitates positive youth development. Four research questions were used to guide the elaboration of the dissertation: (a) How can high school sport programs be structured to promote development? (b) How do high school coaches coach life skills? (c) How do high school coaches learn to coach life skills? (d) How do high school athletes want to be coached? The aim of the questions was to better understand the mechanisms of how events occur in the context of high school sport and therefore, a qualitative methodology was used and considered appropriate. Non-participant observation, interviews, field notes, and a document analysis were employed to provide rich and contextualised descriptions and help make sense of people’s lived experiences.

Ontological / Epistemological position

The overarching ontological and epistemological principles that have guided the elaboration of this doctoral dissertation were informed by the views of the constructivist

paradigm. According to constructivist notions, reality is viewed as socially embedded and existing within the mind. Reality is multiple, fluid, changing and constructed through consensus (Grbich, 2007). Knowledge is a construction of human interactions and social influences that is subjective, alterable and based on shared signs and symbols. Knowledge is viewed in terms of mental constructions that are socially and experientially based as well as local and specific in nature (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). These constructions are sometimes conflicting and may change as the people holding them become more informed and sophisticated. Constructivism's methodology is dialectic and the aim is to reconstruct the meaning of people's lived experiences by giving the voices of the researched substantial display (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Review of the literature

The review of the literature is divided into three sections. First, three concepts (i.e., positive youth development, life skills, values) that were fundamental to the elaboration of this dissertation are presented and defined. Second, based on Petitpas, Cornelius, Van Raalte, and Jones' (2005) spectrum of youth sport programming, four types of youth sport programs are presented. The programs are categorised based on their area of focus and this classification is useful to understand the mandates of high school sport compared to those of other types of programs. Third, past research on the positive and negative outcomes of high school sport is examined to better understand how this context can facilitate or hinder the development of youth.

Key concepts

A recurring issue facing sport scientists is that concepts related to youth development are often ill-defined and terms are used interchangeably (Gould & Carson, 2008). Operationalising key terms is essential to advancing the scientific study of youth development through sport and also to ensure the success of programs which purport to develop life skills. In non-sport domains,

the 5Cs (i.e., competence, confidence, connection, character, caring) have often been associated as indicators of positive youth development (Lerner et al., 2005a). However, a recent study suggests that existing measures of the 5Cs of positive youth development might not necessarily be representative of the type of development that occurs in sport and that positive youth development in this context might be best represented by pro-social values (Jones, Dunn, Holt, Sullivan, & Bloom, 2011). According to Gould and Carson (2008), positive youth development in sport also encompasses the development of life skills. Given that positive youth development through sport is associated with acquisition of life skills and values, it is essential to properly define these three concepts.

Positive youth development. Until recently, the positive development of youth was often conceptualised as the absence of negative or undesirable behaviours, such as not consuming drugs and alcohol and not engaging in violence (Larson, 2000). However, since being problem-free does not necessarily equate to being fully prepared for life, a new paradigm of youth development emerged in the early 1990s, viewing youth as resources to be developed rather than problems to be managed (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). This new outlook surfaced as a critique to the disease or medical model which stressed secondary and tertiary prevention as opposed to the promotion of healthy behaviours and the positive aspects of human development (Benson, 2003; Lerner et al., 2005a; Vella, Oades, & Crowe, 2011). Positive youth development (PYD) is a strength-based approach to development that is grounded in developmental systems theories such as developmental contextualism (Lerner, 2002). These models of human development state that individual and social behaviour cannot be reduced to genetic influences. Rather, the relative plasticity of human development legitimizes an optimistic view and the potential for systematic change and adaptive developmental regulations. Research in a variety of

fields (e.g., comparative psychology, evolutionary biology) has demonstrated the possibility of optimising the relationship between individuals and their ecologies by focusing on developing strengths, building competencies, and recognising that youth have the potential for successful development (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, & Lerner, 2005b). Such competencies include learning positive health habits (e.g., proper hygiene, being physically fit) and developing psychological attributes and dispositions (e.g., a sense of self-worth, a positive future orientation, an aptitude to adapt to changing situations) that enable individuals to succeed in their current life and in the future (Gould & Carson, 2008). Positive youth development is now established as a general conception of youth development and a broad approach to research and programming that is used by researchers and practitioners alike (Holt, Tamminen, Tink, & Black 2009; Lerner et al., 2005a). This shift from a ‘deficit reduction’ paradigm to an ‘asset building’ paradigm implies that youth must be provided with opportunities to be involved in programs that support positive and sustained adult-youth relationships, promote skill-building activities, and provide youth with access to leadership roles (Lerner et al., 2005b; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003).

Life skills. Danish and colleagues have defined life skills as skills that enable individuals to succeed in the different environments in which they live. Life skills can be behavioural, cognitive, interpersonal, and intrapersonal and in order to qualify as a life skill, a skill must not only be useful in sport settings but must also transfer and help individuals succeed in non-sport settings such as school, home, and work (Danish, Forneris, Hodge, & Heke, 2004). Examples of life skills include communicating effectively, making effective decisions, problem solving, goal setting, and time management (Danish & Donahue, 1995; Danish, Petitpas, & Hale, 1993). Sport has been identified as a favourable environment in which to teach life skills because sport is a highly valued social activity that youth are generally motivated to engage in (Gould & Carson,

2008). Danish and Nellen (1997) emphasised that the learning of life skills is not an automatic process. In order to be acquired, life skills must be intentionally taught through demonstration, modeling, and practice by competent coaches.

Values. Values are characteristics shared by members of a certain culture or society that help guide peoples' thoughts, feelings, and actions. In addition, values are regarded as qualities that enable human beings to fulfil themselves and to live cooperatively with others (Arnold, 1999). For the most part, values are consistent but they can be subject to change. For example, the values that have traditionally guided the practice of sport have been moral, such as respect, honesty, and fair play. However, social values, such as self-sacrifice, perseverance, and loyalty, have recently taken precedence in a number of sporting contexts (Rudd, 2005). Rudd and Stoll (2004) hypothesised that a discrepancy might exist between how different stakeholders conceptualise the values inherent in the sport domain. The hypothesis was that practitioners (i.e., athletes, coaches, sport administrators, and parents) now define the values of sport from a social perspective while sport scholars continue to define values from a moral perspective. For practitioners, the sporting context might be more related to social values given that these are the same values necessary for maintaining the corporate and capitalistic ideals that are integral to American culture. Sport is used as a tool to have young athletes develop and adopt these corporate values. For their part, sport scholars are said to still use an Aristotelian approach and conceptualise the sporting context from a morally idealistic perspective. A person of strong moral character is able to apply moral values despite any social pressures that surround the realm of sport (Rudd, 2005). Qualitative studies conducted to better understand the values in the sport domain indicated that coaches employ a combination of both moral and social values (Rudd & Mondello, 2006; Trudel, Lemyre, Werthner, & Camiré, 2007).

Shields and Bredemeier (2008) have indicated how life skills and values share similar characteristics but can be distinguished by certain elements. A life skill is said to have more of an instrumental component and be useful as a means of achieving an outcome. For example, goal setting is a life skill that can be used to achieve desired results in various situations. Conversely, a value is said to have more of a moral component and is regarded as an end in itself. For example, equality is a value that when displayed leads to positive circumstances in itself.

Types of youth sport programs

Gould and Carson (2008), in their review of literature on life skill development through sport, suggested eight future research directions in order to advance scientific study in this field. One of these directions was to examine how development occurs through sport in specific settings and programs. This is considered essential given that existing research efforts have generally viewed sport as a single entity when in fact, “sports programs vary greatly in terms of their goals, structure, and whom they involve” (p. 70). For example, sport-based life skill programs such as Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility through physical activity (Hellison & Walsh, 2002) differ greatly from high school sport programs as they are smaller in scale, intended for specific populations (underserved youth), and use sport not as an end in itself but as a tool for development. Consequently, Gould and Carson (2008) suggested that researchers should, in the future, conduct studies that examine how life skills are taught and learned in specific contexts.

According to Petitpas et al. (2005), there are four types of youth sport contexts which can be classified according to their objectives (i.e., intervention, preventive, life skills development, sport skills development). As figure 1 demonstrates, sport-based interventions and sport as prevention programs use a deficit-reduction paradigm as the focus of their programs is to keep

youth off the streets to safeguard against having them engage in risky behaviours. On the other end of the figure are life skills development programs and sport skills development programs which use an asset-building paradigm to help youth acquire the skills necessary to succeed in life. Petitpas et al. (2005) indicated that the most significant difference between these two types of programs is that life skills development programs focus on using sport as a tool for development and teach life skills that promote the global development of youth while sport skills development programs usually focus on teaching sport skills. The following section provides a detailed description of each type of program.

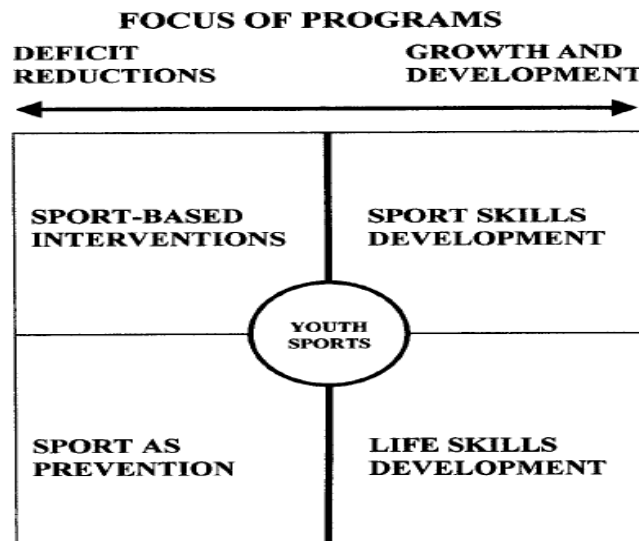


Figure 1. The spectrum of youth sport programming (Petitpas et al., 2005)

Sport-based interventions. Sport-based intervention programs are designed to stop youth from exhibiting health compromising behaviours and provide participants a safe environment in which to take part in positive activities. According to Petitpas et al. (2005), such programs are usually offered in alternative schools, rehabilitation clinics, and correctional facilities and provide participants an outlet through which they can express their emotions and interact positively with adult leaders.

Sport as prevention. Sport prevention programs expose youth to activities that are designed to keep them from experiencing negative behaviours. These programs differ somewhat from sport-based intervention programs in that they try to get youth hooked on sport rather than other potentially detrimental activities. Examples include programs such as midnight basketball which offer youth the opportunity to play basketball rather than being on the street and also tobacco free sports programs in which adolescents are trained as peer educators to present anti-tobacco education and prevention lessons to younger children (Petitpas et al., 2005).

Life skills development. According to Petitpas et al. (2005), life skills development programs are designed to use sport as a tool to teach youth life skills and values and in recent years, a number of programs have been implemented and evaluated. Project Coach is a sport-themed after-school program designed to teach economically disadvantaged minority youth how to become good coaches (Intrator & Siegel, 2008). The aim of the program is to enhance youth's academic and social development by allowing them to develop life skills and values through coaching. Adolescent coaches are taught in an intentional manner that the skills they learn in coaching can be applied in school and community life. Researchers measured the influence of the program using the Developmental Asset Profile (DAP) and the Youth Experience Survey (YES 2.0) and reported gains in personal, social, and community assets as well as gains in identity development, initiative taking, and social capital building.

Sport United to Promote Education and Recreation (SUPER) is a life skill program organised in 18 modules that are taught like sport clinics in which youth play sport, learn physical skills, and develop life skills, (Theokas, Danish, Hodge, Heke, & Forneris, 2008). Each module is approximately 30 minutes in length and the program has been used in the sports of basketball, soccer, golf, rugby, and volleyball (Danish et al., 2005). The modules are delivered

by peer leaders who teach participants a wide range of life skills such as goal setting, positive self-talk, relaxation skills, and emotional control (Theokas et al., 2008). The program has been implemented in a number of settings around the world and has been shown to have positive influences on youth development. For instance, an abbreviated version of the program was implemented with young volleyball and soccer players in Greece and results indicated that athletes taking part in the program had higher self-beliefs for goal setting, problem solving, and positive thinking than athletes not taking part in the program (Papacharisis, Goudas, Danish, & Theodorakis, 2005).

Hokowhitu, a program loosely based on SUPER, has been developed by and for Maori people in New Zealand (Danish et al., 2004). The program is comprised of ten, two hour workshops in which sport is used as a metaphor to teach life skills such as decision-making, time management, discipline, and goal setting (Theokas et al., 2008). The program is delivered by Maori senior high school students who ensure that both Maori ancestral ideologies and life skills are taught in an integrated manner that is consistent with Maori culture. The program was evaluated by the Ministry of Education of New Zealand and results indicated that the program facilitated participants' academic self-esteem, improved their attitude towards future outcomes, and helped them cope with peer pressure (Theokas et al., 2008).

Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility through physical activity (TPSR) is a physical activity program intended for at-risk youth. The philosophy of the program is to develop strong instructor-participant relationships that are used to promote a wide variety of skills such as empowerment, self-reflection, self-motivation, goal-setting, and responsibility (Hellison, Martinek, & Walsh, 2008). The TPSR framework is currently implemented in various settings across the United States, Britain, Spain, and New Zealand in programs such as the Coaching

Club, Project Effort, and Project Lead. Hellison and Walsh (2002) reviewed 26 studies that have investigated the impact of TPSR and findings indicated that the program helped youth improve, among other things, their self-control, effort, teamwork, communication skills, and interpersonal relations.

The First Tee (Petitpas, Cornelius, & Van Raalte, 2008) is an after-school program using golf to teach youth life skills such as self-management, decision-making, and resistance. Lessons are designed for participants to learn how to play golf in addition to learning the transferability of life skills in settings such as home and school. The program is offered in numerous contexts in several countries and has shown some success as youth having gone through the program were able to state how they use life skills in non-sport settings (Weiss, 2006).

Petitpas, Van Raalte, Cornelius, and Presbey (2004) developed the Play It Smart program, in collaboration with the National Football Foundation, in efforts to optimise the potential of high school football to have a positive influence on underserved youth. Play It Smart is a life skills program in which academic coaches are hired to work with high school football teams and assist coaches in focusing on the optimisation of skills that foster the academic, career, and personal growth of students (Petitpas et al., 2008). The pilot phase of the program was conducted with 252 athletes from four schools and evaluations yielded positive results as participants' had higher grade point averages than their school peers, graduated from high school, and were involved in community volunteer activities (Petitpas et al., 2004).

Sport skills development. The majority of youth in our society are engaged in sport skills development programs which include school sport programs as well as community sport programs. The objective of these programs is generally to allow participants to practice sport in an environment that helps them fulfil a sense of belonging, develop physical abilities, and have

fun (Petitpas et al., 2005). Given that the purpose of this dissertation is to investigate how high school sport can be framed as a context that facilitates positive youth development, it is essential to outline this context in order to understand the particular characteristics that define it. High school sports are offered to both boys and girls, usually between the ages of 14 and 18, who have the option of practicing a wide range of team and individual sports during their four year high school career. Some of the most popular high school sports, in both Canada and the United States, include track and field, basketball, volleyball, baseball, soccer, tennis, and golf (Canadian School Sport Federation, 2008; National Federation of State High School Associations, 2011). High school sports are usually practiced after school hours and athletes/teams participate in organised competitive leagues that lead to annual regional and state/provincial championships. Typically, high school sport seasons are only a few months long and athletes have the option to participate in many sports over the course of the school year. The province of Quebec in Canada has a slightly different system as students enter high school two years younger (usually at the age of 12) and spend five years in high school. In addition, sport seasons are much longer in Quebec (six to eight months) and athletes typically practice only one sport during the academic year (Lacroix, Camiré, & Trudel, 2008).

Gilbert and Trudel (2006) developed a classification of sporting contexts (i.e., recreational, developmental, elite) and high school sport is considered a developmental level context. Developmental level sports are defined by a formal and organised competitive structure, a selection of athletes based on their skill level, and a stable coach-athlete relationship. Traditionally, high school sport teams have been overseen by teachers who volunteer their time to coach but in certain contexts, coaches from the community are solicited to fill vacant coaching positions due to a lack of teacher volunteers (Camiré, Trudel, & Lemyre, 2011). High school

sport participation continues to be promoted in schools because sport is viewed as an activity that can enhance physical activity and fitness, keep youth connected to school, and develop athletic skills and talents (Gould & Carson, 2008). In addition to promoting these elements, national school sport federations communicate in their mission statements that participation in high school sport can foster the global development of athletes (Canadian School Sport Federation, 2004; National Federation of State High School Associations, 2011). In essence, as Holt, Tink, Mandigo, and Fox (2008) indicated, high school sport is considered by many to be an important context in which to facilitate development and is viewed as a natural extension of the classroom.

Developmental outcomes of high school sport participation

Positive outcomes. An appropriate sporting context has often been described as a setting that provides youth with opportunities to (a) live enriching experiences that are intrinsically motivating, (b) to find a valued role within a group, and (c) to develop a sense of identity (Eccles & Barber, 1999; Goldberg & Chandler, 1989; Larson, 2000). According to the National Research Council and Institute of Medicine (2002), there are eight essential features necessary for creating an appropriate sporting context that promotes development: (a) physical/psychological safety, (b) consistent structure, (c) appropriate adult supervision, (d) supportive relationships, (e) opportunities to belong, (f) positive social norms, (g) support for efficacy, (h) opportunities for skill building, and (i) integration of family, school, and community. Danish et al. (2005) argued that school sport has the potential to be an ideal developmental setting given that it already presents many of these features. Furthermore, sport is one of the most popular activities in which adolescents engage during their leisure time and schools offer a particularly attractive environment in which to practice sport given that it is where youth are most accessible and sport

programs focusing on development can contribute to the educational mission of schools (Coatsworth et al., 2005; Danish et al., 2005).

Recent reviews of the literature suggest that in general, the context of high school sport can contribute to athletes' physical, social, affective, and cognitive development (Bailey, 2006; Bailey et al., 2009). In terms of specific developmental outcomes, many large-scale empirical studies have been conducted with students participating in high school sports. Marsh and Kleitman (2003) conducted a study with a nationally representative sample of 12,084 American high school students and found that participation in high school sport had positive effects on school grades, educational/occupational aspirations, self-esteem, and educational attainment. Harrison and Narayan (2003) conducted a study with 50,168 American ninth grade students to examine whether participation in high school team sports was associated with psychosocial functioning and healthy behaviours. Findings indicated that high school athletes exercised more, had a healthier self-image, showed less emotional distress, and reported less suicidal behaviours than participants in other extracurricular activities and nonparticipants. Fox, Barr-Anderson, Neumark-Sztainer, and Wall (2010) surveyed 4,746 American middle and high school students and found that at the high school level, participation in team sports was associated with a higher grade point average (GPA) for both boys and girls. Steiner, McQuivey, Pavelski, Pitts, and Kraemer (2000) conducted a study with 1,769 American high school students and their results indicated that students who participated in high school sport differed from their non-participant peers as they reported fewer mental health issues and fewer dietary problems. Wilkes and Côté (2010) conducted a study with 212 Canadian female basketball players and compared the developmental experiences of participants involved in either high school, recreational, or community programs. Results indicate that due to the greater amount of time invested in high

school basketball compared to recreational basketball, high school participants had more opportunities to work on identity formation, the development of initiative, emotional regulation, and pro-social norms. Although the findings of these studies indicate that sport leads to a variety of positive outcomes for youth, Guest and Schneider (2003) cautioned that these outcomes are likely to vary among schools and are often mediated by the socioeconomic status of participants.

Qualitative studies exploring the perspectives of high school athletes have also been conducted. Voelker, Gould, and Crawford (2011) interviewed 13 American athletes who were the captains of their high school teams to better understand their experiences in this role. In general, participants believed their captaincy experience was mostly positive, even though it was on occasion difficult and stressful. Most athletes believed being a captain allowed them to learn important skills such as how to be responsible, accountable, and neutral in conflict situations. Camiré and Trudel (2010) conducted interviews with 10 male and 10 female Canadian high school athletes participating in basketball, volleyball, soccer, and badminton. Results indicated that these athletes believed they learned important values, such as teamwork, perseverance, honesty, and respect, through high school sports. In another article documenting athletes' perspective, Camiré, Trudel, and Forneris (2009b) found that athletes believe high school sport participation allowed them to develop a number of life skills (e.g., time-management, communicating effectively) that can be transferred to other life domains.

Negative outcomes. Although much research has reported on the positive developmental outcomes associated with participation in high school sport, there is also some research on the negative aspects of sport participation in this context. Buford-May (2001) conducted an ethnographic study with a boys' basketball team at a predominantly African American high school and found that players were often exposed to contradictory information regarding

sportsmanship, competition, and winning. On a regular basis, players faced discrimination, racism, and a win at all cost attitude that affected their perceptions of fair play and equitable treatment. Camiré and Trudel (2010) demonstrated how gamesmanship tactics (e.g., trash talking, intentional fouling) are often used by high school athletes to gain an advantage over an opponent. Furthermore, athletes stated that these tactics were rationalised as being part of the game even if they go against fair play principles and ethical codes of conduct. Dworkin and Larson (2006) conducted focus groups with American high school students involved in organised activities to understand their negative experiences. Students reported adverse experiences with peers (e.g., formation of cliques, being ridiculed), coaches (e.g., displaying of favouritism, poor leadership), parents (e.g., feeling pressured), and with oneself (e.g., performance anxiety, stress related to managing sport, school, and work). A number of students reported that these negative experiences reduced their engagement in sport and even led some to burn out and drop out.

A number of studies have been conducted since the early 1980s to examine the influence of sport on the moral reasoning of athletes. Brenda Bredemeier and David Shields have conducted multiple studies in this area and findings from their body of work indicate that among students, non-athletes were significantly more morally mature than athletes and female athletes were found to be more mature than male athletes (Bredemeier & Shields, 1986, 2006). Beller and Stoll (1995) expanded on Bredemeier and Shields' work by measuring the moral reasoning differences in high school students and results indicated that high school athletes have lower moral reasoning levels than non-athletes. A longitudinal study by Priest, Krause, and Beach (1999) examined the moral development of college athletes over a four-year period and found that their ethical value scores decline each and every year. Furthermore, athletes playing team sports showed lower moral reasoning levels than athletes practicing individual sports. Continued

participation in sport may lead to the "professionalization" of attitudes as older athletes have been shown to have lower regards for sportsmanship, be more prone to resort to cheating, and perceive aggression as a legitimate behaviour (Conroy, Silva, Newcomer, Walker, & Johnson, 2001; Kavussanu, Seal, & Phillips, 2006; Shields, Gardner, Bredemeier, & Bostrom, 1995). Some researchers have focused their efforts on better understanding gender differences and morality in sport. Findings from several studies demonstrate that males are more likely to legitimize injurious acts, approve of unsportsmanlike behaviors, and demonstrate lower levels of moral functioning than females (Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001). Furthermore, males are more likely to cheat and legitimize aggression (Conroy et al., 2001; Shields et al., 1995) while females tend to exhibit more pro-social behaviors (Sage & Kavussanu, 2007), higher levels of task orientation (Kavussanu & Roberts, 2001) and do not legitimize aggression in sport (Tucker & Parks, 2001).

Role of coaches and coach training

Whether sport participation leads to positive or negative outcomes is often determined in large part by the work of coaches. Coaches have been shown to have a large amount of influence on youth development as teachers of institutional norms, life skills, and values (Gould & Carson, 2008). However, Smith and Smoll (1997) have indicated that although coaches received sufficient amounts of training to teach technical skills, they rarely received any training on how to create a healthy and positive environment for youth. A lack of training has led to coaches having few intentionally designed strategies to coach life skills and values (McCallister, Blinde, & Weiss, 2000). Furthermore, Lacroix et al. (2008) have demonstrated that some coaches even believe that positive development occurs automatically through simple participation in sport. Over the past 30 years, Ronald Smith and Frank Smoll have conducted multiple studies to better

understand the effects of coach training on the development of coaches and athletes. These researchers developed the Coach Effectiveness Training (CET) Program which is designed to promote positive control, effort, self-awareness, and self-monitoring in coaches. Evaluations of the program have shown that trained coaches were more reinforcing, more encouraging, and less punitive to mistakes. More recently, the CET has been revised and is now referred to as the Mastery Approach to Coaching (MAC) Program. Evaluations have shown that MAC-trained coaches were more mastery-oriented and exhibited decreases in anxiety (Trudel, Gilbert, & Werthner, 2010). In recent years, Douglas Coatsworth and David Conroy have conducted numerous studies on the effects of coach training by developing the Penn State Coach Training Program, an adaptation of the CET. Evaluations have shown that the program has led to increases in athletes' self-esteem as coaches offer more positive reinforcement (Coatsworth & Conroy, 2006; Conroy & Coatsworth, 2006). Although coach training can lead to positive behavioural differences for coaches, it is important to note that these changes remain minimal (Trudel et al., 2010). Additional research using larger sample sizes and random assignment are needed to have more powered analyses and stronger conclusions.

Theoretical/conceptual frameworks

Four frameworks were used to organise and understand the findings presented in the articles of this doctoral dissertation. First, Petitpas et al.'s (2005) framework for planning youth sport programs was used in article one as it clearly delineates the fundamental components necessary to develop programs that facilitate positive youth development. Second, Gould and Carson's (2008) model of coaching life skills through sport was used in article two as it provides a practical basis to understand how life skills are coached through sport. Third, in the same manuscript in which they offer their model of coaching life skills, Gould and Carson developed a

conceptualisation highlighting the different levels at which life skill development can occur. This conceptualisation was used in article two because it helps demonstrate how life skill development is a complex and dynamic process that can occur in a variety of manners. Fourth, Nelson, Cushion, and Potrac's (2006) conceptualisation of coach learning was used in article three to organise the different situations in which coaches learn how to coach.

Framework for planning youth sport programs

To assist in the design and implementation of youth sport programs, Petitpas et al. (2005) developed a framework stating that youth are most likely to benefit from their participation in sport in the presence of four components: (a) an appropriate environment (context), (b) caring adults (external assets), (c) opportunities to learn skills (internal assets), and (d) research and evaluation. This comprehensive framework is grounded in research findings in the field of youth development and is based on best practices identified by youth development experts.

An appropriate environment, the first component of the framework, should allow youth to take part in voluntary activities that are intrinsically rewarding, contain clear rules and boundaries, and require sustained effort over an extended period of time (Petitpas et al., 2008). A proper context should also be structured to provide youth with opportunities to develop initiative and a sense of belonging within a group (Petitpas et al., 2005). In order to maintain youth's motivation to engage in sport, it is important to create a context that allows them to perceive their actions as their own. Therefore, participation in sport must be efficiently negotiated between youth and adults in order to allow youth to exercise individual choice and develop skills such as responsibility and autonomy (Larson, Pierce, Sullivan, & Jarrett, 2007). Research has shown that youth-driven programs, in which youth exercise a large amount of control over decisions, allow

youth to experience a high degree of ownership while developing leadership and planning skills compared to adult-driven programs which can undermine creativity and engagement (Larson, Walker, & Pearce, 2005). Optimal programming consists of creating a context in which youth can negotiate their participation, develop a sense of initiative, experience responsibility, choice, and membership, and benefit from guidance (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003).

The second component of the framework consists of surrounding youth with external assets, which include caring parents and coaches as well as a positive community environment (Petitpas et al., 2008). Positive youth development is unlikely to occur without the help of this external support system. According to Petitpas et al. (2005), relationships between youth and external assets require consistent contact over an extended period of time in order for mutual trust and respect to be developed. Coaches play an important role in the development of youth as they have a strong influence on their behaviours and attitudes. Parents are also vital external assets and those who are able to support their children without being intrusive are in the best position to facilitate development in a positive manner. As Petitpas et al. (2005) asserted: ‘it is the quality and density of the social interactions and relationships formed with caring adult mentors that is most likely to lead to the development of positive assets’ (p. 69).

The third component of the framework states that effective sport programs must provide youth with opportunities to develop important life skills and values (internal assets) that can be generalised across different life domains. Participation in youth sport programs has been shown to allow youth to develop a number of skills that lead to positive physical, emotional, and social outcomes (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005). However, in order to do so, programs must be designed to intentionally and systematically teach a wide variety of skills over a period of time in order to allow participants to learn, practice, and internalise the skills. In addition, programs

should create opportunities for youth to use the skills learned in sport in different contexts in order to increase their confidence in using such skills in various situations (Petitpas et al., 2005).

The fourth component consists of having youth sport programs document their effectiveness in an attentive manner by conducting research and evaluation. Evaluations should start by assessing whether actual program strategies are connected to developmental outcome goals. Measures should evaluate increases in positive outcomes as well as reductions in negative outcomes in order to capture a comprehensive picture of the program's influence on youth. A number of methodologies are suggested to conduct evaluations but Petitpas et al. (2005) advocated for the case study protocol as a viable option to traditional research methodologies, such as experimental designs, which are often not feasible for evaluating youth development programs. Longitudinal evaluations are also said to be needed to track the progression of participants and better understand how the program impacted their long-term development.

Model of coaching life skills through sport

Gould and Carson (2008) developed a five component model for understanding the process of coaching life skills through sport. This model (see figure 2) emerged from an extensive review of the literature on positive youth development through extracurricular activities and sport. The first component of the model consists of athletes' pre-existing make up and is divided into internal (e.g., existing life skills, personality) and external assets (e.g., parents, siblings, peers, socio-economic status). It is important for coaches to understand athletes' internal and external assets as athletes are not devoid of skills and resources when they enter the realm of sport. Furthermore, athletes' pre-existing make up can greatly influence coaches' ability to teach life skills.

The second component of the model focuses on the coaching of life skills. According to the model, factors that are critical to the coaching of life skills include (a) philosophy, (b) relationship skills, (c) competence, and (d) accessibility. A coach's philosophy is said to be of particularly great importance given that coaches are considered the most influential individuals in sport and they play an essential role in creating motivational climates for athletes. The actual strategies used by coaches are also vital in the process of coaching of life skills. Gould and Carson stated that coaches can have indirect as well as direct strategies that influence the levels (one to four) at which life skill development occurs. Indirect strategies include (a) creating a sport environment to prevent youth from engaging in risky behaviours (level one) and (b) acting as a role model by displaying positive behaviours and attitudes (level two). Direct strategies consist of (a) implementing activities within the sport environment to intentionally teach life skills (e.g., having clear and consistent rules, providing opportunities for leadership and decision-making) (level three) and (b) implementing activities to teach youth how the skills learned in sport transfer beyond the context of sport (level four).

The third component of the model focuses on possible explanations as to how life skill development occurs and how it influences the development of athletes. The first explanation states that the social environment of sport influences the development of life skill in athletes which leads to positive outcomes such as (a) identity formation, (b) perceived competence, (c) locus of control, (d) self-worth, and (e) autonomy. The second explanation states that life skills are developed based on their utility. For example, life skills such as stress management and communication are learned because they can be applied and are useful in a variety of settings.

The fourth component of the model examines the positive and negative outcomes of sport participation. The premise behind coaching life skills through sport is that the more life skills

youth have, the more likely they are to develop in a positive manner. Positive developmental outcomes of sport include (a) enhanced health, (b) school achievement, and (c) psychosocial attributes. However, according to the model, a failure to develop life skills through sport can lead to negative outcomes such as (a) physical injury, (b) drug abuse, (c) stress, and (d) burnout.

The fifth component of the model discusses the transferability of life skills to non-sport settings. Given that transfer is not an automatic process, there are a number of factors that influence youth's ability and/or willingness to transfer life skills. These factors include (a) perceived value of the skill, (b) confidence in the ability to transfer, (c) comprehension of transfer, and (d) support/reinforcement for transfer.

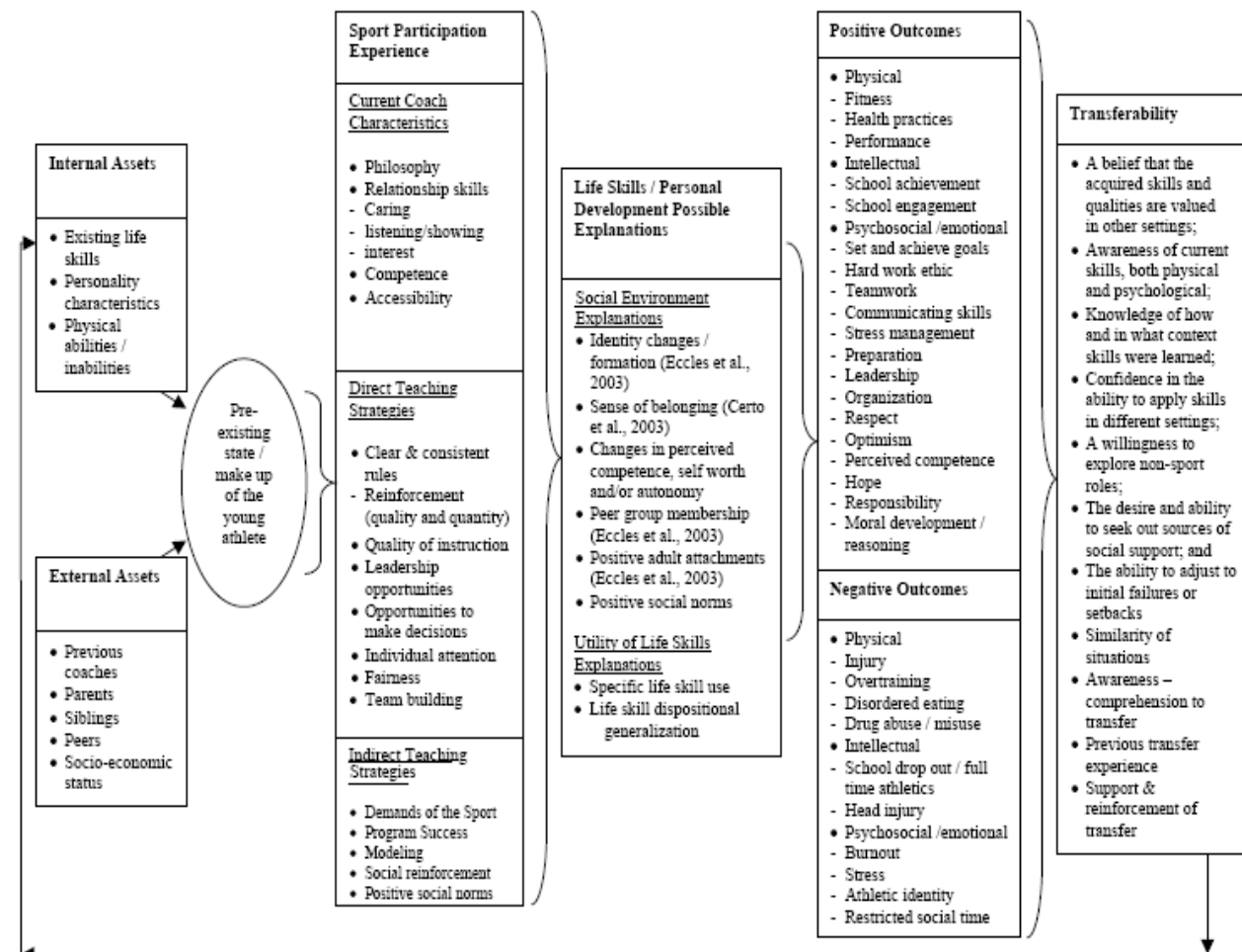


Figure 2. Model of coaching life skills through sport (Gould & Carson, 2008)

Levels of life skills development through sport

In the same manuscript as their model for coaching life skills, Gould and Carson (2008) developed a conceptual model (see figure 3) to represent how life skill development can occur at different levels. According to the model, coaches can intervene at four different levels and the higher the level, the more impact coaches can have on the development of youth. Level one consists of structuring sporting activities to keep youth off the streets and prevent them from engaging in risky behaviours. Work at this level is mostly preventative and sport programs are developed to fill youth's unsupervised time. Development at level two occurs when sport coaches model proper behaviours and attitudes in attempts to positively influence youth's development. Although work conducted at levels one and two is generally considered beneficial for youth development, it is important to recognise that coaches are not intentionally implementing activities in their coaching practice to promote life skills and consequently, life skills may or may not be developed. The two most influential levels of development build on levels one and two and are attained when coaches systematically teach life skills (level three) and how life skills transfer beyond sport (level four). In order to work at levels three and four, coaches must implement specifically designed activities that provide direct opportunities for youth to learn life skills and how they transfer to other areas of life. Danish et al. (2005) stated that when a person understands how to transfer skills from one domain to another, the influence on development can be powerful. Therefore, it is essential for coaches wishing to positively influence the development of youth to frame their coaching practice in a manner that allows athletes to learn how life skills can be applied in areas other than sport, such as school, work, and the community. Conceptualising the work of youth sport coaches according to these four levels is quite useful given that it helps create a clear distinction between coaches who simply use sport

as a preventative tool to keep youth out of trouble and those that actually use sport to intentionally and systematically teach youth life skills and how to apply them beyond sport.

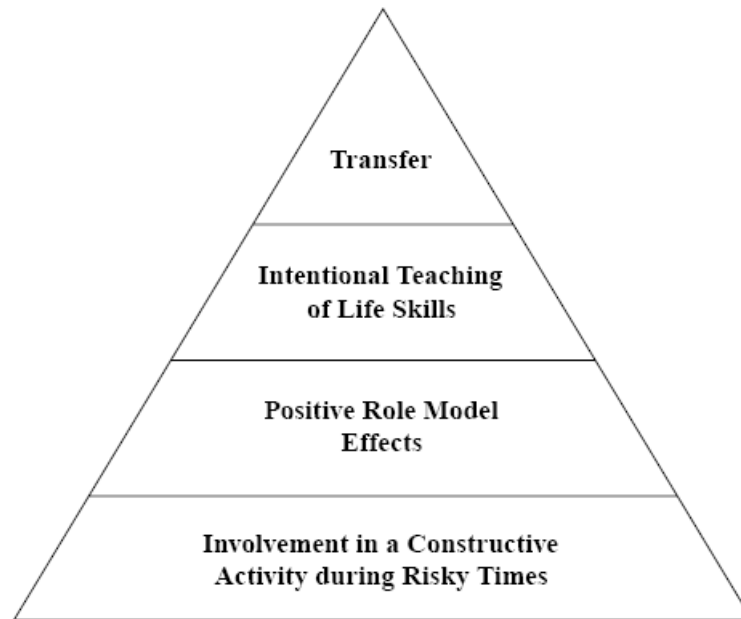


Figure 3. Levels of life skill development through sport (Gould & Carson, 2008)

Conceptualisation of coach learning

In recent years, several researchers have worked to conceptualise the various situations in which coaches learn how to coach. Nelson, Cushion, and Potrac (2006) stimulated the discussion by proposing three learning situations: formal, non-formal, and informal. This conceptualisation is based on the original work of Coombs and Ahmed (1974) who developed a framework to classify different learning modes. According to Nelson et al. (2006), formal learning situations represent programs that require candidates to meet certain admission guidelines, present standardised material, are delivered by specialists, and lead to a form of certification. University coaching courses and large-scale coach education programs represent formal situations from which coaches can learn to coach. Formal learning situations have been shown to make varying but often limited contributions to the learning of youth sport coaches, primarily because they

generally fail to address contextual factors and cannot fulfil all of the coaches' needs (Erickson, Bruner, MacDonald, & Côté, 2008; Lemyre, Trudel, & Durand-Bush, 2007). Lemyre and Trudel (2004) indicated that the perceived usefulness of formal training courses depends largely on coaches' level of experience.

Non-formal learning situations are defined as organised educational activities, delivered outside the formal system, that are offered to particular subgroups of a population that have special areas of interest. Non-formal learning situations (e.g., conferences, seminars) are usually short-term, voluntary, and have few prerequisites. Research has shown how coaches generally enjoy attending conferences and seminars because they often address topics not covered in formal courses (Wright, Trudel, & Culver, 2007). However, despite being appreciated by coaches, Erickson et al. (2008) demonstrated how non-formal learning situations are not often used by coaches to acquire coaching knowledge in comparison to learning by doing and interacting with other coaches.

Informal learning situations comprise a wide variety of opportunities through which coaches acquire knowledge throughout their lives. These can include previous life experiences, interactions with peer coaches, reading books, and using the Internet. Lemyre et al. (2007) found that previous athletic experience was the main source from which new youth sport coaches derived their coaching knowledge and gained an understanding for what coaching entails. In addition to athletic experiences, Wright et al. (2007) found that past coaching experiences, past family experiences, and interactions with peer coaches are also informal situations that often inform the learning of youth sport coaches. Finally, books have been shown to be used for different reasons by youth sport coaches of varying levels of experience while the Internet is said

to be predominantly used to retrieve information on things such as drills that can be used in practices (Lemyre et al. 2007; Wright et al. 2007).

Mallett, Trudel, Lyle, and Rynne (2009) expanded on the work of Nelson et al. (2006) and suggested that informal learning situations can be either guided or unguided. Informal guided situations are generated by outside sources; learners can choose to participate in these situations and can choose the content. For example, a learning facilitator can create an online forum in which coaches can exchange ideas on topics that they select themselves. Conversely, informal unguided situations are not influenced by outside sources and can be either intentional (the coach intentionally chooses what he or she wants to learn) or incidental (the by-product of another activity). An intentional learning situation can consist of a coach deciding to consult a colleague to resolve a coaching issue while an incidental learning situation can include a coach unconsciously learning about his or her sport's sub-culture during his or her time as an athlete (Trudel, Gilbert, & Werthner, 2010).

Methodology

The methodology is presented in three sections. The first section provides a detailed description of the high school ice hockey program studied in phase one, how the participants of the program were recruited, and the activities undertaken to collect data. The second section offers information on the participants recruited in phase two, the context in which these participants evolved, and the procedures used to recruit them. The third section presents the inductive/deductive thematic analysis used to analyse the data in both phases.

Data collection: Phase one

The case study protocol. A single case study protocol (Yin, 2009) (see appendix A) was used in this study. Yin states that the use of the case study protocol is fitting when the studied

object presents unique characteristics that are deemed worthy of documentation given that it allows for in-depth and extensive descriptions to be provided. Flyvbjerg (2006) argued for the use of case studies as they provide context-dependent knowledge, closeness to real-life situations, and the development of a nuanced view of reality. Flyvbjerg dismissed the general misconception that a case study cannot be useful beyond that case by stating: “That knowledge cannot be formally generalised does not mean that it cannot enter into the collective process of knowledge accumulation...a phenomenological case study without any attempt to generalise can certainly be of value” (p.227). Formal generalisation is often overvalued as the main source of scientific progress and case studies are of worth in the process towards scientific innovation. Petitpas et al. (2005) encouraged the use of the case study protocol to study the design of youth sport programs as it allows for a better understanding of how programs can evolve to best meet the needs of participants. Similarly, Hellison and Walsh (2002) identified several benefits of the case study protocol in studying youth sport programs, such as triangulating multiple sources of data and exploring implementation challenges and environmental influences.

The particular program chosen to be studied distinguished itself in several ways from typical high school sport programs offered in Canada. First, the program follows the sport-study format which is designed to help students integrate both school and sport during the school day. Students have a condensed academic schedule and spend half the day in classes and the other half practicing their sport. The sport-study format has existed in the province of Quebec for a number of years and during the 2009-2010 academic year, 39 high schools had a recognised sport-study program (Government of Quebec, 2010). Second, given the large amount of time students spend practicing ice hockey, the program’s staff is composed of coaches who work on a full-time basis as opposed to regular school sport program staff who are volunteer teacher-

coaches (Lacroix et al., 2008; Wilson, Bloom, & Harvey, 2010). Lastly, the program is unique, even amongst sport-study programs, as it has been featured on numerous occasions in the media for its distinctive approach that promotes the positive development of youth.

Context. The ice hockey program has been established since 1990 and has been overseen by the current program director since 1993. The program director started managing the program while he was completing his graduate studies on moral development through sport and focuses on using ice hockey to facilitate the development of students. Since 1990, the program has expanded greatly from 32 to now more than 135 students. Enrolment at the school is approximately 1000 and the sports of football, swimming, golf, and cheerleading are also offered to students in the sport-study format. Over sixty percent of students at the school are part of an organised sport team. The staff of the ice hockey program is composed of a director, who also acts as a head coach, and six other full-time coaches. The six coaches have an average of 12 years of experience in coaching and with the exception of one coach, all have at least a bachelor's degree in physical education and three have a master's degree. Most coaches completed an internship with the ice hockey program, as part of the requirements of their bachelor's degree, prior to being hired as full-time coaches. The internship was useful training for the coaches, allowing them to learn the program's philosophy as well as the strategies used to teach students life skills and values. Although they are not teachers, coaches play an influential role in the academic development of students. Coaches have access to students' report cards, are in constant contact with the teaching staff, and organise regular meetings with students and their parents to monitor their academic, ice hockey, and human development. The ice hockey program attracts students from across the province. In Quebec, students spend five years in high school and the ice hockey program is designed to have students participate throughout their high school

years. Younger students (13-14 years old) compete on four teams which are part of a local school league and play approximately 40 matches a season. Older students (15-17 years old) compete on two teams which each play around 55 matches a season. Five years ago, a partnership was created with University-preparatory schools in the New England area and the vast majority of these 55 matches are exhibition matches that occur in the United States against these schools. Both senior teams travel to the United States on weekends by bus during a season that spans from October to March. All students in the program must successfully pass an admissions test to be part of the program and must maintain an academic average of 80% throughout the academic year to be eligible to play. In order to be part of the senior teams, students must also participate in an interview and demonstrate excellent ice hockey skills. On average, forty percent of the students present at the senior selection camp are retained to fill both rosters. The annual costs to cover tuition and ice hockey related fees are approximately 5,500 CAN\$ per student. The program, financed primarily through fundraising initiatives, had an annual operating budget of 555,000 CAN\$ in 2009-2010 to cover salaries, equipment, transportation, and ice rental costs.

Participants. A total of 29 participants (i.e., school principal, program director, fourteen students, seven parents, and six coaches) voluntarily agreed to participate in the first phase of data collection. The school principal, who holds a master's degree in public administration, has held his current position for 26 years. The program director holds a doctorate in counselling, has over 25 years of coaching experience, and has headed the program for over 17 years. Students that were, at the time of the study, on the school's senior ice hockey team, were recruited (see table 1). All students had previous experience playing ice hockey in organised community leagues. Seven parents (see table 2) of participating players were also invited to take part in the study. Parents occupied a variety of professions and had previous experiences as athletes in

organised sport. The program's coaches (see table 3) also voluntarily agreed to participate in the study. All coaches were hired on a full-time basis and had previously played and coached ice hockey prior to being involved in the program.

Table 1. Demographics of students in phase one

Athlete	Gender	Age	School Grade	Years in Program	Position	Other Sport Practiced
1	M	16	5	5	Forward	Soccer
2	M	17	5	5	Goaltender	Basketball
3	M	17	5	5	Defence	Baseball
4	M	16	5	4	Defence	Golf
5	M	16	5	5	Forward	Tennis
6	M	17	5	1	Defence	Tennis
7	M	16	5	1	Forward	Tennis
8	M	16	5	2	Forward	Football
9	M	16	5	5	Forward	Baseball
10	M	16	5	1	Defence	Soccer
11	M	17	5	1	Goaltender	Cycling
12	M	17	5	4	Defence	Soccer
13	M	17	5	1	Defence	Golf
14	M	17	5	5	Forward	Golf

Note. M = Male

Table 2. Demographics of parents in phase one

Parent	Gender	Age	Occupation	Past Sport	Current Sport
1	F	46	N/A	Swimming	Walking
2	M	51	Director Lumber Company	Hockey	Ball Hockey
3	F	48	Government Worker	Cycling	Walking
4	F	45	Pharmaceuticals	Volleyball	Walking
5	M	47	Owner Service Station	Hockey	No Sport
6	M	45	President Gas Company	Hockey	Weight Training
7	M	49	Computer Consultant	Hockey	No Sport

Note. M = Male; F = Female; N/A = Not Available

Table 3. Demographics of coaches in phase one

Coach	Gender	Age	Highest Level Education	Coaching Experience (Years)	Coaching Duties	Alumni Program	NCCP
1	M	34	Bachelor's	10	Head Coach	No	Level 1
2	M	31	Cegep	5	Goaltender Coach	Yes	No
3	M	32	Master's	10	Strength Coach	No	Level 2
4	M	38	Master's	18	Head Coach	No	Level 2
5	M	25	Master's	6	Head Coach	Yes	No
6	M	32	Bachelor's	14	Head Coach	No	Level 1

Note. M = Male; NCCP = National Coaching Certification Program

Data collection activities

Document analysis. Prior to the start of the ice hockey season, a document analysis was performed to better understand the program's functioning. The school's website, administrative documents, television news reports, and newspaper articles featuring the program or members of the program were examined. Furthermore, the program director provided the researcher with a copy of the 'player's handbook'. Inspired by scientific models and theories used during his graduate studies (e.g., Haan, 1977; Rest 1984; Shields & Bredemeier, 1995), the program director developed this 136 page document. Each student in the program is provided, at the beginning of the season, with a copy of the handbook which is used throughout the school year in developmental classes (one hour classes twice a week) to teach students life skills and values. It is important to state that these developmental classes are not part of the curriculum to obtain a high school diploma in Quebec; they are an initiative of the program's administrators and are purposely designed to promote the learning of life skills and values. The player's handbook used in developmental classes contains a wide range of items. The first pages describe the program's philosophy and the first developmental classes at the beginning of the season are used to expose students to the program's vision. The handbook also contains a code of ethics for coaches,

students, and parents to help students understand what is expected of them on and off the ice during the season as well as the behavioural standards that are expected from coaches and parents. The handbook also contains strategies, in line with the program's philosophy, which are used to continuously expose students to material on moral, psychological, physical, emotional, and social development. The handbook is used by coaches in developmental classes to ensure students understand the meaning of concepts such as responsibility, goal setting, empathy, democracy, problem-solving, effective communication, self-evaluation, and critical-thinking. Finally, the developmental activities (e.g., captain's election, journal entries, volunteer work) used by program staff are detailed in the handbook. Prior to actually taking part in these activities, the handbook is used to provide students with a rationale for doing the activities.

Non participant observation. The researcher received consent from the school principal and the program director to conduct observations in school facilities. Observations focused on all aspects related to the program's daily activities and 37 single-spaced pages of field notes were taken to gather relevant information. Observations included on ice practices (six events, nine hours), off ice conditioning (five events, seven hours), developmental classes (five events, five hours), games (five events, seven and a half hours), meetings (six events, two and a half hours), and a weekend road trip (one event, thirty hours). Throughout the season, the researcher spent nineteen hours observing coach interactions in the coaches' office, during their lunch time, as well as before and after practice (see appendix B).

Interviews. Interviews were conducted with the school principal, the program director, students, parents, and coaches. The school principal's interview, which was 68 minutes in length, (see appendix C) focused on (a) the importance of the ice hockey program, (b) developmental strategies, (c) coaching, and (d) challenges. Two interviews were conducted with the program

director, one at the beginning of the season and one once the season was completed. The first interview (see appendix D) was 102 minutes in length and was composed of five sections (a) biographic information, (b) coach learning, (c) coaching philosophy, (d) developmental strategies, and (e) challenges. In the second interview (94 minutes in length) (see appendix E), the program director was asked to present a summary of the past season and to discuss the developmental strategies used and the challenges faced. Student (see appendix F) and parent (see appendix G) interview guides were very similar in nature and were composed of three sections: (a) demographics, (b) developmental experiences, and (c) coaching. Interviews with students ranged from 21 to 39 minutes ($M = 31$) and 21 to 56 minutes ($M = 39$) for parents. The coach interview guide (see appendix H) was composed of six sections: (a) demographics, (b) coach learning, (c) philosophy, (d) practice, (e) influence of coaches on youth, and (f) support. Interviews with coaches ranged from 67 to 104 minutes ($M = 85$).

Prior to undertaking all interviews, the researcher reminded the participants of the voluntary nature of the study and had them sign a consent form (see appendices I, J, K, L). All participants were assured that their responses were to remain confidential. All interviews were audio recorded and conducted in person by the first author at a time and place that was convenient to the participants. Throughout the interview process, probes were used to have participants elaborate on specific ideas, clarify certain responses, and provide concrete examples of life skills and values they believe were learned in the program. Approval to conduct the study was granted by the researchers' University Ethics Board (see appendix M).

Procedure. Data collection began in August 2009 by conducting a document analysis in order to get familiarised with the program's functioning and structure (see appendix N). Then, in early October 2009, pilot interviews with one administrator, one coach, one athlete, and one

parent from a high school in Ontario were conducted to refine the interviews guides. In late October 2009, a first visit to the school was organised, allowing the researcher to meet the program director in person, establish rapport with program members, and gain more insight into the inner workings of the school and the ice hockey program. During this visit, the researcher conducted many observations and interviewed the school principal, the program director, and three coaches. During observations, field notes were taken to document relevant behaviours and interactions (Yin, 2009). In December 2009, a second visit to the school was organised to conduct additional observations and to interview the three remaining coaches. In January 2010, the researcher accompanied the senior team on a weekend road trip in the New England area in the United States. This allowed the researcher to observe and document how coaches and athletes behave during games and also how they interact in other situations (e.g., on the bus, in the locker room, in the hotels, during team meals). Once the ice hockey season was completed, the researcher returned to the school in March 2010 to conduct interviews with ten students and four parents. Although the ice hockey season was completed, teams still practiced every day and the researcher continued to conduct observations. In order to recruit additional students and parents, the researcher returned to the school in April 2010 to conduct seven more interviews as well as additional observations. A last interview with the program director was conducted in May 2010. During this interview, the program director provided a summary of the past season.

Data collection: Phase two

Context. Coaches and student-athletes were recruited from different types of high schools (i.e., public schools, private schools, vocational schools) in the provinces of Quebec and Ontario in Canada. Participants from Quebec and Ontario were purposively chosen to provide a diversified sample. However, it should be noted that the sample was also one of convenience

given that the researchers' university is in geographical proximity to both provinces. The first difference between both contexts is that students in Quebec start high school upon having completed grade six (11-12 years old) while in Ontario, students enter high school two years later once they have completed grade eight (13-14 years old). Second, students in Quebec spend five years in high school compared to students from Ontario who spend four years. Finally, high school sport seasons in Quebec are six to eight months long and student-athletes typically practice one sport whereas in Ontario, sport seasons are two to three months long and student-athletes have the option to participate in many sports (Lacroix et al., 2008).

Participants. A total of 25 participants (9 coaches, 16 student-athletes) voluntarily agreed to participate in this study. The nine coaches (eight males, one female) (see table 4) ranged between 21 and 52 years of age ($M = 32$) and had between 4 and 28 years of coaching experience in high school sport ($M = 13$). Six coaches were from Quebec and three were from Ontario. With regards to occupation and education, six of the coaches were high school teachers and held at least a bachelor's degree while the remaining three coaches were university students (Law, Human Kinetics, Graphic Design) volunteering to coach at their former high school. Although coaching certifications are not mandatory to coach high school sports in Canada, all coaches were certified through the National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP). Specifically, three coaches held a level one certification, three coaches held a level two, and three coaches held a level three. It is important to note that life skill development, as defined by Danish and colleagues, is not specifically covered as part of the NCCP certification. However, all coaches wishing to get certified, regardless of sport or context, must pass an evaluation on ethical decision-making (Coaching Association of Canada, 2011). The 16 student-athletes (nine males, seven females) (see table 5) were between 13 and 18 years of age ($M = 16$). Twelve

student-athletes were from Quebec and four were from Ontario. Coaches and student-athletes were involved in the sports of basketball, volleyball, soccer, wrestling, and ice hockey.

Participants from Quebec spoke French as a first language and participants from Ontario spoke English as a first language and for each coach, there was at least one aligning student-athlete.

Table 4. Demographics of coaches in phase two

Coach	Gender	Age	Education Highest Level	Coaching Experience (Years)	Occupation	Sport Coached	NCCP Level
1	M	35	Master's	12	HS Teacher	Volleyball	3
2	M	20	Cegep	4	Student	Soccer	2
3	M	21	Cegep	4	Student	Volleyball	1
4	M	22	Cegep	4	Student	Volleyball	1
5	F	28	Bachelor's	13	HS Teacher	Basketball	2
6	M	34	Bachelor's	6	HS Teacher	Soccer	2
7	M	40	Bachelor's	23	HS Teacher	Soccer	3
8	M	52	Bachelor's	28	HS Teacher	Wrestling	3
9	M	37	Bachelor's	20	HS Teacher	Ice Hockey	2

Notes. M = Male; F = Female; HS = High School; NCCP = National Coaching Certification Program

Table 5. Demographics of athletes in phase two

Athlete	Gender	Age	Grade	Sport	Province
1	M	16	4	Volleyball	Quebec
2	M	16	4	Volleyball	Quebec
3	M	17	5	Volleyball	Quebec
4	M	17	5	Volleyball	Quebec
5	F	15	3	Soccer	Quebec
6	F	15	3	Soccer	Quebec
7	M	16	4	Volleyball	Quebec
8	M	15	4	Volleyball	Quebec
9	F	14	2	Basketball	Quebec
10	F	14	2	Basketball	Quebec
11	F	13	2	Soccer	Quebec
12	F	14	2	Soccer	Quebec
13	M	19	12	Hockey	Ontario
14	M	16	10	Hockey	Ontario
15	M	20	11	Wrestling	Ontario
16	F	18	12	Soccer	Ontario

Note. M = Male; F = Female

Data collection activities

Interviews. Participants took part in semi-structured interviews. The interview guides for both students and coaches were the same guides used in phase one. However, for phase two, an English version of the interview guides was developed by the first author, who is fully bilingual, as participants from Ontario were interviewed in English and participants from Quebec were interviewed in French (see appendices O, P). Interviews were conducted in person by the researcher and followed the same format used in phase one as confidentiality was ensured, participants signed a consent form, a digital audio recorder was employed, and steps were taken to reduce social desirability. Interviews with students lasted between 19 and 33 minutes ($M = 25$) and between 38 and 113 minutes ($M = 66$) for coaches. All interviews were conducted at the end of the academic year (May-June 2010) upon the completion of all sport seasons. Although the interview guides had specific sections and sets of pre-established questions, the interviewing process was relatively flexible. Probing was frequently employed, allowing participants to clarify ideas and to elaborate on notions that were not included in the interview guide but emerged from their responses. Approval to recruit participants and to conduct interviews in phase 2 was granted by the researcher's University Ethics Board (see appendix M).

Procedure. In April 2010, the researcher began the process of recruiting participants (see appendix N). In order to recruit coaches recognised for their work with students, the researcher contacted representatives from the organisations responsible for overseeing the practice of high school sport in each province. These organisations are the Ontario Federation of School Athletic Associations (OFSAA) and the Federation Quebecoise du Sport Etudiant (FQSE). Each organisation grants annual awards to coaches who exemplify the fundamental values of school sport while promoting the personal and academic development of their students. In order to be

eligible for an award in Ontario, coaches had to be good role models for students, demonstrate expertise and leadership in their sport, and be respected by fellow colleagues and coaches (Ontario Federation of School Athletic Associations, 2010) (see appendices Q, R). In Quebec, the criteria for the coaching award stipulated that coaches had to support the development of sport in their community, exhibit behaviours that promote respect and an ethical practice, and display above average technical skills (Federation Quebecoise du Sport Etudiant, 2010) (see appendix S). Representatives from both organisations provided a list of recipients who had won these coaching awards during the last five years and who were still actively coaching high school sports. Awards winners from the two regional associations in closest geographical proximity to the researcher were contacted. Coaches who met all selection criteria ($n = 15$) were sent a letter by email inviting them to participate in the study (see appendices T, U). A total of seven coaches contacted the researcher and agreed to participate in the study.

The initial goal was to recruit approximately 10 to 12 coaches in order to reach an appropriate level of theoretical saturation (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006) and as a result, additional coaches were recruited by using a reputational sampling procedure (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Based on the process employed by Gilbert and Trudel (2004), the researcher contacted a key informant (a regional school sport director) who was highly knowledgeable of the high school sport scene in the region and explained to him the purpose of the study. The director was asked to provide the names of coaches in the region who had not won a coaching award but who, according to him, met the criteria of a model high school coach as defined by the selection standards of coaching awards in his province. The director provided a list of potential candidates who were contacted by the researcher. From this process, an additional two coaches voluntarily agreed to participate in the study.

Student-athletes on teams coached by the nine coaches were recruited to participate in the study. Snowball sampling (Creswell, 2007) was used as coaches were asked, following their interview, if they had student-athletes who would be willing to take part in a study on their participation in high school sport. Coaches were asked, when possible, to select student-athletes that had diversified characteristics (e.g., starters, reserves, players of different positions). Coaches did not have access to nor knowledge of the content in the athlete interview guide. Sixteen student-athletes agreed to participate and were contacted by the researcher to make meeting arrangements. All 25 interviews with coaches and students occurred in May-June 2010.

Data analysis

Two distinct databases (Yin, 2009), one for each phase of data collection, were created using the software NVivo 8 (NVivo, 2008). Electronic formats of documents, field notes, and interview transcripts were downloaded into the software allowing for all sources of data to be organised and easily accessed. Using computer assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) offers a number of advantages as it facilitates the coding of information, allows for the construction of hierarchical categories and visual maps, and makes it possible to write and link memos to important themes (Davis & Meyer, 2009). Furthermore, systematically organising information in a presentable database increases the reliability of the study as other researchers can, in principle, review the gathered evidence (Yin, 2009). A thematic analysis was performed whereby the data were broken into smaller units, placed into categories, and submitted to descriptive treatment (Braun & Clarke, 2006). A thematic analysis was employed for a number of reasons. First, it is a flexible method for identifying, analysing, and reporting data (Smith & Sparkes, 2005). Second, a thematic analysis is not inherently linked to any one world view and therefore, it can be used with the underlying principles and assumptions of different paradigms

(Braun & Clarke, 2006). Finally, Smith and Sparkes (2005) stated that a thematic analysis enables researchers to examine specific contexts and the manner in which they can shape people's experiences. For this dissertation, this was particularly relevant given that the purpose was to investigate how positive development can be promoted in high school sport.

The analytical process was informed by the work of Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006) who developed an approach for inductive and deductive thematic analysis. These authors stated that in a thematic analysis, some of the categories developed can be inductive (data-driven) and emerge as themes uncovered through the reading and re-reading of the transcripts. This was the case for the findings presented in article three as the categories that were developed emerged from athletes' responses. Other categories can be deductive (theory-driven) and develop in accordance with theoretical and conceptual propositions found in the literature. For example, this was the case for article two as most of the categories were deductive in nature and were based on Gould and Carson's (2008) model of coaching life skills through sport. It was considered important to include both inductive and deductive categories in the analysis because they combined to provide rich descriptions of participants' concepts and beliefs (Maxwell, 2005). This deductive-inductive thematic analysis helped capture an accurate portrait of the perspectives of all participants taking part in the two phases of data collection. Specific details on the categories that were developed during the analysis are provided in each article.

The thematic analysis was conducted in six phases (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Phase one consisted of reading and reviewing the data on numerous occasions in order to get familiarised with the content and to identify preliminary themes. In phase two, the researcher generated initial codes and organised the data into meaningful groups. Analytical memos were written and preliminary connections to theoretical concepts were made. The third phase consisted of

combining some initial codes to form higher-order categories. Phase four of the analysis was conducted by reviewing the entire database and the categories that were developed. Careful considerations were taken to ensure that the categories exhaustively covered the data gathered in both phase one and two and helped answer the main research questions of this dissertation. At this stage, the researcher and his supervisor decided that there was enough information in the two databases to write four empirical articles. Phase five was carried out by defining the orientation of each article and the categories to be used. The sixth and final phase of analysis consisted of writing the four articles. For each article, categories were printed and examined to find the quotes that best represented the ideas shared by the participants. Efforts were made to insure that most if not all participants were included in the results with at least one quote. Finally, multiple revisions were made for each article in order to tell the participants' story in a concise, coherent, and logical manner. The four empirical articles provide a comprehensive portrait of positive youth development in high school sport which meets the purpose of this dissertation.

Validity

The following are the procedures employed to increase the credibility of the accounts provided in this dissertation. First, prior to starting the data collection process, the researcher participated in a bracketing interview (Rolls & Relf, 2006) conducted by a peer with extensive experience in qualitative research. Bracketing interviews are useful to help researchers understand and reflect on their assumptions and experiences. As a former high school athlete and a high school coach at the time of the study, the researcher wanted to monitor how his assumptions may influence the construction of knowledge. This process helped the researcher become more aware of his expectations and other possible biases he might share about the context of high school sport (Maxwell, 2005) (see appendix V). The bracketing interview was

recorded, transcribed, and analysed by the researcher, helping him monitor his subjectivity by creating a transparent description of his involvement in the process and by making him conscious of how expectations can potentially influence the course of research (Brustad, 2009).

Following the bracketing interview, a pilot case was conducted to test the interview guides, allowing the researcher to verify the relevancy of the questions asked. Following the pilot interviews with one coach, one athlete, one parent, and one administrator from a high school in Ottawa, some questions were modified to be more descriptive and open-ended rather than closed (e.g. Can you talk to me about your coaching philosophy?) (Smith, Flowers, & Larkin 2009).

Three types of triangulation procedures were employed. Triangulation is an effort to ensure that the correct information and interpretations have been obtained (Stake, 2006). First, multiple data collection activities were performed to gather data. The convergence of evidence from documents, interviews, and observations provided a more accurate account than either method could have offered by itself (Maxwell, 2005). This was particularly beneficial in this dissertation as the researcher was able to observe how coaches put into practice the coaching philosophies they reported during the interviews. Second, investigator triangulation (Yin, 2009) was performed as a peer with extensive experience in qualitative research worked with the researcher during data collection and analysis. Through this process, the peer substantiated the interpretations of the researcher and offered greater assurance that key findings and meanings had not been overlooked. Third, multiple types of participants (i.e. coaches, athletes, parents, administrators) were recruited to take part in the two phases of data collection. Given that this dissertation was informed by the principles of the constructivist paradigm, it was important to gather evidence from multiple perspectives as no two people construct reality in the same manner (Stake, 2006). Triangulating the gathered evidence had a number of advantages, making

it possible to appreciate the multiple realities in which people live. Furthermore, by using different sources of evidence, the conclusions drawn were more accurate and convincing.

The final process consisted of sending transcripts back to the participants, allowing them to verify the accuracy of the perspective they wanted to share. Only minor changes were reported by a few coaches. According to Stake (2006), this process is vital because it ensures the accuracy of the gathered information and improves the interpretation of the reporting.

Presentation of the articles

The findings from the two phases of data collection are presented in five articles. In article one, (under review in *The Sport Psychologist*) a case study of a unique high school sport program designed to teach students life skills and values is presented and includes all 29 participants of phase one. Article two (accepted for publication in *The Sport Psychologist*) explores how model high school coaches teach students life skills and how to transfer these skills to other life domains and includes all 25 participants of phase two. Article three (accepted for publication in *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*) discusses how model high school coaches learned to facilitate positive youth development through sport and includes the 16 coaches interviewed in phases one and two. The fourth article (published in *PHENex*) focuses on the perspective of high school athletes as it relates to the characteristics they prefer in coaches and includes the 30 athletes interviewed in phases one and two. In addition to writing empirical articles for a scientific audience, the researcher felt it was necessary to write an article for practitioners. Consequently, a fifth article (published in the *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action*) was written for coaches to provide them with strategies to facilitate positive youth development through sport. The strategies reported in this article are based on the examples of activities coaches in phases one and two reported using to promote the development of athletes.

Article one

A case study of a high school sport program designed
to teach athletes life skills and values

Camiré, M., Trudel, P., & Bernard, D. (submitted). A case study of a high school sport program designed to teach athletes life skills and values. Manuscript submitted for publication. *The Sport Psychologist*.

Abstract

A case study of a high school ice hockey program designed to teach players life skills and values was conducted to understand, from the perspective of administrators, coaches, parents, and players, the strengths and challenges of the program. Results indicated that the program's strengths lay in its comprehensive approach to teaching life skills and values in addition to coaches' ability to foster relationship with players. However, program members also faced many challenges related to travelling, a lack of resources, and conflicting goals. Results are discussed using the Petitpas et al. (2005) framework and the youth development through sport literature.

Keywords: Youth; Development; Adolescent; Ice Hockey; School

**A case study of a high school sport program designed
to teach athletes life skills and values**

Organised youth sport is considered a viable setting in which to teach life skills and values because most youth are intrinsically motivated to engage in sport and because sport is an activity that attracts a large number of participants (Gould & Carson, 2008). Life skills (e.g., being organised, setting goals) are defined as behavioral, cognitive, interpersonal, and intrapersonal skills that enable individuals to succeed in the different environments in which they live (Danish, Forneris, Hodge, & Heke, 2004). Values (e.g., respect, honesty) are defined as shared characteristics that help guide peoples' thoughts, feelings, and actions and are regarded as qualities that enable human beings and live cooperatively with one another (Arnold, 1999). Life skills and values are closely related concepts as some values (e.g., discipline) can also be considered important life skills that allow individuals to lead fulfilling lives.

Unfortunately, sport is not an activity in which youth automatically learn life skills and values because the social and competitive nature of sport provides youth with opportunities to lie, cheat, intimidate, and injure (Kavussanu, 2008). Whether sport participation leads to positive or negative outcomes is a complex matter that is dependent on sport programmers', coaches', and parents' actions as well as the climates created in the sporting context (Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009; Gould, Flett, & Lauer, 2012). Nonetheless, Holt and Jones (2008) argued that the positive outcomes related to sport participation generally outweigh the negative outcomes. Sport may inherently facilitate positive influences given that being able to persevere, regulate emotions, and work as a team are often central components of the sporting experience.

In order to maximise positive outcomes, researchers have created physical activity and sport programs designed specifically to foster the development of youth. The main strength of

these programs lies in their use of physical activity and sport as tools to promote youth's academic, personal, and social development. Examples of such programs include Sports United to Promote Education and Recreation (SUPER), Teaching Personal and Social Responsibility through physical activity (TPSR), Play It Smart, and The First Tee. There is evidence supporting the efficacy of these programs. Papacharisis, Goudas, Danish, and Theodorakis (2005) evaluated an adapted version of SUPER and found that participants in the experimental group had higher self-beliefs for goal setting, problem solving, and positive thinking than participants in the control group. Hellison and Walsh (2002) reviewed 26 studies investigating the impact of TPSR and found evidence that the program helped youth improve their self-control, effort, teamwork, and interpersonal relations. Petitpas, Van Raalte, Cornelius, and Presbey (2004) evaluated the pilot phase of the Play It Smart program and results indicated that participants had higher grade point averages than non-participants, graduated from high school, and were involved in volunteer activities. Finally, youth benefited from their participation in The First Tee as they could state how they transfer life skills to non-sport settings (Petitpas, Cornelius, & Van Raalte, 2008).

Although empirical evidence suggests that appropriately designed development programs can have a positive influence on youth, it is essential to note that they also have their challenges and limitations. First, it is often challenging to recruit, train, and supervise the adult mentors who are in charge of implementing these programs (Petitpas et al., 2008). Second, sport-based development programs are few in number (Petitpas, Cornelius, Van Raalte, & Jones, 2005) and are generally offered as after-school programs or summer camps to underserved youth in urban areas. As a result, they have limited reach and are accessed by only a small proportion of youth when compared to the millions who practice organised sport in North America (CSSF, 2008; NFHS, 2010). Third, implementing programs for underserved youth can be challenging because

this population faces many political, economic, and educational problems and their value systems often run counter to the values promoted by programs (Hellison, Martinek, & Cutforth, 1996).

Although sport-based development programs are specifically designed to promote the development of youth, it is important to note that they do not represent the only sport programs mandated to offer participants a positive developmental experience. In fact, Camiré, Werthner, and Trudel (2009) demonstrated how most sport organisations communicate through their mission statement the developmental benefits associated with participation in their programs. Therefore, if sport is to be widely promoted as an activity facilitating the positive development of participants, it is essential to examine if sport programs accessed by a large number of youth (e.g., school sport programs, community sport programs) are suitable developmental environments.

Danish, Forneris, and Wallace (2005) argued that schools offer a particularly attractive environment in which to practice sport given that it is where youth are most accessible and school sport programs focusing on youth development can contribute to the educational mission of schools. Past research has explored stakeholders' perspectives on development in high school sport and generally, it appears that participation is believed to lead to positive outcomes. Coaches have been shown to prioritise the physical, psychological, and social development of their athletes and see themselves as responsible for promoting a diverse range of competencies in youth (Gould, Chung, Smith, & White, 2006; Vella, Oades, & Crowe, 2011). For their part, parents have stated that high school sport should promote pleasure, participation, and positive development whereas athletes believe they can learn important life skills and values such as time-management, communication, teamwork, and respect that can be transferred to other life

domains (Camiré & Trudel, 2010; Camiré, Trudel, & Forneris, 2009). Large-scale studies examining the developmental outcomes associated with participation in high school sport provide empirical support to stakeholders' perspectives. Marsh and Kleitman (2003) found that participation in high school sport had positive effects on school grades, educational/occupational aspirations, self-esteem, and educational attainment. Fox, Barr-Anderson, Neumark-Sztainer, and Wall (2010) found that at the high school level, participation in team sports was associated with a higher grade point average (GPA) for both boys and girls.

A recent review of the literature has suggested that the benefits of school sport participation are mediated by the creation of appropriate pedagogical circumstances by adult leaders (Bailey, Armour, Kirk, Jess, Pickup, & Sandford, 2009). Several studies have explored how coaches promote life skills and values in the context of high school sport. On one hand, studies suggest that some coaches have a proactive approach to development. Collins, Gould, Lauer, and Chung (2009) examined the philosophical beliefs of exceptional high school football coaches and found that these coaches believed that football should be used as a vehicle for developing athletes' competencies and that the traditional 'winning versus development' dilemma could be overcome by treating both as inclusive pursuits of coaching. Gould, Collins, Lauer, and Chung (2007) examined the practical strategies used by these same football coaches and found that positive development was promoted by having clear expectations, providing individualised feedback, building relationships, involving athletes in goal setting, and emphasising the link between football and life. On the other hand, studies indicate that some coaches are not intentionally teaching life skills and values through high school sport. Holt, Tink, Mandigo, and Fox (2008) conducted a case study of a high school soccer team and found that the coach had few direct strategies to teach his athletes life skills. Camiré, Trudel, and Lemyre

(2011) found similar results as most coaches in their study had difficulty providing concrete examples of strategies they use to promote development. Lacroix, Camiré, and Trudel (2008) found that some coaches hold the notion that development occurs automatically.

Based on the results of past research, it appears that high school sport is a practice that can lead to positive developmental outcomes for youth. However, there is evidence demonstrating that a number of high school coaches do not purposely teach their athletes life skills and values as do leaders in sport-based development programs. The question must be raised as to how the approach used in sport-based development programs can be integrated into high school sport, a context where youth are most accessible. To our knowledge, no research has examined how high school sport programs can be designed and delivered with the primary objective of promoting life skills and values. Consequently, a case study of an existing high school ice hockey program specifically designed to teach life skills and values was conducted to understand, from the perspective of administrators, coaches, parents, and players, the program's strengths and challenges.

The program examined in this study was chosen for a number of reasons. First, it is widely recognised for its unique approach and is consistently featured in the media for its innovative strategies that promote life skills and values. Examples of titles (translated from French) of newspaper articles discussing the program include: "Prioritising their studies while playing hockey", "The best decision I've ever taken in my life", and "A young man leaves the comfort of home to live an incomparable sport experience". Second, as one of Canada's most popular sports, ice hockey is a strategic context in which to expose youth to life skills and values because a large number of youth are intrinsically motivated to practice the sport (Robidoux & Trudel, 2006). Third, ice hockey provides an intriguing setting in which to teach life skills and

values as the sport has garnered a reputation of sometimes falling short of promoting youth's competencies due to a subculture that approves of aggressiveness and violence (Robidoux & Trudel). The program's distinctive characteristics merit investigation and an understanding of the program's strength and challenges can guide program leaders wanting to teach life skills and values in various settings.

Framework

To assist in the design and implementation of youth development programs, Petitpas et al. (2005) developed a framework stating that youth are most likely to benefit from their participation in sport in the presence of four components: (a) an appropriate environment (context), (b) caring adults (external assets), (c) an opportunity to learn skills (internal assets), and (d) research and evaluation. The framework is grounded in research findings in the field of youth development and is based on best practices identified by youth development experts. First, an appropriate environment should be psychologically safe and allow youth to find a valued role within a group. Furthermore, activities within a developmentally sound context should be voluntary, intrinsically motivating, and contain clear rules, goals, and incentives. The second component of the framework consists of caring adult mentors, such as coaches and parents, whose role is to support youth's participation in sport. Coaches should nurture close relationships with youth to gain their trust and respect and parents should demonstrate a genuine interest in their child's activities without being intrusive. The third component represents the skills youth should learn through sport participation. Programs should intentionally teach youth goal-setting, problem-solving, and a wide range of social skills. Furthermore, program should help youth develop a sense of identity while providing youth with opportunities to gain confidence in their abilities to use their skills in non-sport settings. The fourth component consists of conducting

research (e.g., implementation, process, and outcome evaluations) as programs focused on promoting the development of youth should document the efficacy of their interventions carefully.

Method

Research design

A case study protocol (Yin, 2009) was used to examine an ice hockey program established at a private French-speaking high school in a large city in the province of Quebec, Canada. Yin stated that the use of the case study protocol is appropriate when the studied object presents unique features that are worthy of documentation as it allows for extensive descriptions to be provided. Petitpas et al. (2005) discussed how experimental designs are desirable but often not feasible to conduct studies on youth sport programs because of the difficulties related to isolating variables and making cause and effect conclusions. Therefore, as a viable alternative, they advocate for the use of case studies which consider the particular strengths and challenges of each program and allow for the triangulation of data from multiple sources. Hellison and Walsh (2002) stated that case studies are not defined by the nature of the data source and can explore particular program qualities, such as implementation challenges and environmental influences. Use of the case study protocol often raises issues of generalisability but Flyvbjerg (2006) argued that formal generalisation is often overvalued as the main source of scientific progress. Cases studies are of value as they provide context-dependent knowledge and the development of a nuanced view of reality. The case study is therefore a viable protocol to examine the strengths and challenges of the studied program.

The program

The program was established in 1990 and, at the time of the study, was composed of 135 players at a school with an enrollment of 1000 students. In the province of Quebec, students spend five years in high school and the program allows students of all ages to partake in the program as there are four junior teams (13-14 year old players) and two senior teams (15-17 year old players). One senior team is composed of third and fourth year players and the other is composed of fifth year players. In order to be part of the program, players must have previous playing experience at the AA, BB, or CC levels, as defined by Hockey-Quebec. All junior players with playing experience at these levels are retained; however, senior players are selected based on their performance in a selection camp and in an individual interview. On average, forty percent of players present at the senior selection camp are retained. All players must maintain an average of 80% during the academic year to remain eligible to play ice hockey.

The program differs from typical high school sport programs as it follows the ‘sport-study’ format. This format is popular in the province of Quebec as it allows students to integrate both academics and sport in the school day (Government of Quebec, 2010). Students have a condensed academic schedule and spend the morning in class and the afternoon involved in ice hockey related activities. Program staff work to find a balance between the development of life skills and values and the development of sport-specific skills by having players take part in three on-ice training sessions, two off-ice conditioning sessions, and two developmental classes per week. Junior teams compete in local leagues and play their matches during the school day. However, the two senior teams are not part of any league and their entire season (55 matches) is composed of exhibition matches played on the road against University-preparatory schools in the New England area in the United States. The two senior teams travel by bus to the United States

during weekends from October to March. Tuition and hockey-related fees are 5,500 CAN\$ per student per year and only partially cover the program's annual budget, the rest of which is financed through fundraising.

On the school's website, a page is dedicated to publicising the successes of players and alumni. The program's graduate rate is 100% and in 2007-2008, a player won the Governor General's Academic Medal for highest academic average in his graduating class. Since 2005, the program has helped 59 players continue their academic and ice hockey careers in University-preparatory schools in both Canada and the United States. During the 2009-2010 academic year, 22 of the 23 alumni enrolled in preparatory schools were on their school's academic honor roll. Twenty five players have pursued their education and ice hockey careers in Canadian and American universities. Professionally, some alumni now hold important positions in companies and organisations worldwide and four alumni have played in the National Hockey League (NHL).

Participants

The school principal holds a master's degree in public administration and has been heading the school for 26 years. The program director, who is also the head coach of the fifth year senior team, has been with the program since 1993, holds a doctorate's degree in counseling, and has over 25 years of experience coaching ice hockey. The program's six full-time coaches were not teachers at the school and their duties were 100% hockey related. Coaches were between 25 and 38 years of age ($M = 32$) and had between 5 and 18 years of coaching experience ($M = 11$). Coaches held at least a level 1 certification from Canada's National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP) and except for one coach, all had a bachelor's degree in physical education and three had a master's degree. Most coaches completed an internship with

the program prior to being hired, helping them become familiar with the program's philosophy and developmental strategies. Fourteen of the twenty one players on the fifth year senior team were recruited through the program director who asked his players if they would be willing to participate in an interview on their involvement in the program. Eight of the players interviewed were from the city where the program is established and lived with their parents while six players were from other communities and lived with a host family during the season. Players were all male and were either 16 or 17 years old ($M = 16.5$). Six players were involved with the program for five seasons, three were involved for four seasons, and five were involved for one season. Finally, parents of the eight interviewed players living in the city were contacted by the researcher and were asked to participate in the study. Seven parents (three mothers, four fathers) voluntarily agreed and were recruited. These individuals were the parents of players who had been involved in the program for either four or five seasons and thus were familiar with the program's functioning. Parents were between 45 and 51 years of age ($M = 47$), occupied a variety of professions (e.g., sales representative, engineer, government worker), and all had previous experiences as athletes in organised sport.

Data collection

Prior to collecting data, the researcher participated in a bracketing interview (Rolls & Relf, 2006) conducted by a peer with extensive experience in qualitative research. Bracketing interviews are useful to help researchers understand and reflect on their assumptions and experiences. As a former high school athlete and a high school coach at the time of the study, the researcher wanted to monitor how his experiences and assumptions may influence the construction of knowledge. During data collection, multiple sources of evidence were used (see table 1).

Table 1
Data collection: Timeline

Date	Activity	Observations	Interviews
August-September 2009	Document analysis		
Early October 2009	Pilot interviews		One administrator One coach One athlete One parent
October 26-29, 2009	First data collection period	Four practices Two developmental classes One life skill strategy Two coach-parent-player meetings	Three coaches School principal Program director
December 1-3, 2009	Second data collection period	Two practices One developmental class One match One life skill strategy Four coach-parent-player meetings	Three coaches
January 22-23, 2010	Road trip with senior team	Two matches One life skill strategy	
March 22-25, 2010	Third data collection period	Three practices Two developmental classes Two matches	Ten players Four parents
April 13-15, 2010	Fourth data collection period	Two practices	Four players Three parents
May 22, 2010	Closing interview		Program director

Document analysis. Prior to the start of the season, a document analysis was performed to better understand the program. The researcher was provided with a copy of the ‘player’s handbook’, a document conceived by the program director during his graduate studies (see Appendix). The 136 page player’s handbook includes concepts, theories, and models related to youth development. Each player in the program is provided, at the beginning of the season, with a copy of the handbook which is used to expose players to the program’s philosophy, values, and activities. The player’s handbook is used in developmental classes (one hour classes twice a week) which are not part of the school’s curriculum but consist of class time specifically intended to teach players life skills and values. The school’s website, administrative documents, and media reports were also analysed, helping the researcher make credible conclusions about the case (Creswell, 2003; Yin, 2009).

Non-participant observation. Eighty hours of observations were conducted and 37 pages of field notes were taken. Observations included eleven practices, five developmental classes, five matches, three life skill strategies, and six coach-parent-player meetings. In addition, the researcher spent nineteen hours observing coach interactions in the coaches’ office. Observations and field notes were used as a tool for triangulation to help support the claims of participants that are displayed in the results sections.

Interviews. Pilot interviews were conducted with one administrator, one coach, one player, and one parent to test the interview guides and verify the appropriateness of the questions asked. Minor changes related to the wording of some questions were made. The interview guide contained four general sections: demographics, context, external assets, and player development. However, given that participants’ involvement in the program varied, questions in each section were adapted. For example, in the demographics section, administrators, coaches, and parents

provided their age, occupation, education, and past experiences in athletics and coaching while players only discussed their age and athletic experiences. In the context section, administrators and coaches discussed the program's, philosophy, strengths, and challenges while players and parents elaborated on their experiences. In the external assets section, questions were specific to each type of participant. Administrators discussed the recruitment/retention of coaches, relationships with coaches, and interactions with parents. Coaches described the resources they received to coach and their relationships with parents. Players elaborated on parental support and relationships with coaches. Parents discussed issues related to support and coaches' influence on players. Finally, in the player development section, administrators and coaches elaborated on the strategies they use to teach life skills and values while players and parents discussed how they believe the program facilitated the development of life skills and values. At the end of the season, a second interview was conducted with the program director who presented a general summary of the season.

Prior to each interview, participants were reminded of the voluntary nature of the study and signed a consent form. All interviews were audio recorded and conducted in French by the first author who is fully bilingual. During interviews, probes were used to have participants elaborate on or clarify certain responses using actual events. Given that social desirability is an issue in interpretive research (Alvesson, 2011), all participants were assured that only the researcher would have access to their interview transcripts. In addition, interviews with players and parents occurred at the end of the season for them not to feel that their participation in this study could compromise in any way their involvement in the program. Interviews with players ranged from 21 to 39 minutes ($M = 31$) and from 21 to 56 minutes ($M = 39$) for parents. Interviews with coaches ranged from 67 to 104 minutes ($M = 85$). The interview with the school

principal was 68 minutes in length and the two interviews with the program director were 102 and 94 minutes in length respectively. Approval to conduct the study was granted by the researchers' University Ethics Board.

Data analysis

A case study database (Yin, 2009) was created and the software NVivo 8 (NVivo, 2008) was used to organise documents, field notes, and interviews transcripts. Prior to analysis, interview transcripts were sent to participants via email for them to confirm the accuracy of the responses they shared with the researcher. No changes were asked to be made by the participants. The data were read and reviewed on many occasions by the researcher in order to identify preliminary themes. A thematic analysis was performed whereby the data were broken into meaning units and submitted to descriptive treatment (Braun & Clarke, 2006). A thematic analysis was conducted because it is a flexible method for identifying, analysing, and reporting data from multiple sources of evidence and various types of participants (Smith & Sparkes, 2005). Analysis was guided by the Petitpas et al. (2005) framework and three higher-order categories were developed (i.e., context, external assets, internal assets). In each higher-order category, meaning units were clustered into specific themes (e.g., developmental strategies, lack of resources, relationships with parents) and labeled as either a strength or a challenge of the program. All categories and themes were reviewed to ensure that they accurately covered the data set. To assist in reviewing themes, a peer worked with the researcher, offering an external perspective as well as greater assurance that the analysed data offered a comprehensive portrait of the case (Creswell, 2003). Regular meetings were organised between researcher and peer to discuss how to properly organise the themes until a consensus was reached. A first draft of the manuscript was written and member checking was performed by providing the program director

with a copy of the manuscript and asking him to verify the accuracy of the researcher's descriptions of the program (e.g., sport-study format, player's handbook). A formal meeting was organised with the program director who corrected minor inaccuracies and declared that the program was accurately described, bringing out the uniqueness of the case. Codes were used to represent each participant (i.e., School Principal = SP; Program Director = PD; Coach = C; Parent = Pa; Player = P). All quotes were translated in English by the first author and care was taken to protect the integrity of participants' responses.

Results and discussion

The results are presented in three sections, according to the first three components of the Petitpas et al. (2005) framework. In each section, the strengths and challenges of the program are examined. Participant quotes, field notes, and excerpts from the document analysis are used to provide detailed descriptions and support the claims presented.

Context

Strengths. A first strength of the program is its philosophy, which was effectively communicated by appearing on the first page of the player's handbook. The philosophy reads:

The ice hockey program is at the service of the whole person. We consider ice hockey as a means to humanise the person. Through our interventions, we dedicate ourselves to fostering the global development of students. Our goal is to have students acquire modes of living, thinking, and action that make them the master of their physical, mental, emotional, social, and moral development. (Philosophy, Player's Handbook, p.1)

According to the school principal, the program's philosophy is effective because it guides how the program director oversees the program and matches the school's objectives of developing students in multiple dimensions: "What I appreciate about him [program director] is his values.

His philosophy matches the school's philosophy of developing the entire human being. He works on the development of individuals' values, corresponding with what we want to offer as a school" (SP). Players and parents also believed that the program's focus is the global development of players. A player discussed the importance of academics: "The program puts a lot of emphasis on school. Education is important here. It's about performing in class as much as you perform in hockey" (P11). A father praised the program's emphasis on teaching players many life skills and values: "The program teaches self-control, respect, discipline. It makes them more mature. They discover their strengths and weaknesses. It's quite a program" (Pa2).

A second strength of the program is the amount of time it affords coaches and players to interact with one another. The sport-study format allows senior team coaches to work with their players seven days a week during the season. A player discussed how he believes this is a positive situation: "We spend the whole year together at practice and on the bus during weekends. They [coaches] are sort of like our fathers on the road in the United States" (P10). Similarly, a coach stated: "You create strong ties with someone you see seven days a week. I consider that to be very important, especially because of the trust that is created. By listening, they open up to you" (C3). Interactions between coaches and players are also prolonged as players can spend up to five years in the program. A player described how he feels comfortable interacting with his coach: "I've known him [coach] for four years. He knows my situation and what I'm living. I can have a conversation with him and I'm not afraid to be judged. He's there to give us feedback on our problems" (P12).

A third strength of the program is the creation of motivating and psychologically safe environments. For example, coaches organised a three day cottage retreat for the two senior teams as a team bonding initiative. Activities were designed to help players get to know coaches

and other players better. The program director explained the objective of this retreat: “Exercises were prepared systematically for problem-solving and communication. If I want to work on the different dimensions of players’ development, I first need to gain their trust” (PD). A player acknowledged how the retreat was a useful activity to promote interactions: “At the beginning of the year, we went to the forest as a team. What I liked is that everyone was telling their story. You get to know people better and introduce yourself to others” (P2).

The strengths identified support past research, demonstrating how those who adopt a developmental philosophy are in a preferred position to teach athletes skills and attributes (Collins et al., 2009; Danish et al., 2005). It was interesting to note how in this study, administrators purposefully communicated their philosophy in the player’s handbook to ensure players and parents understood the ‘raison d’être’ of the program. These results differ from those of Camiré et al. (2009) who conducted a case study of one high school and found that administrators simply assumed that athletes and their parents were knowledgeable of the mission of school sport. As Bart (2004) stated, administrators must communicate the purpose of their programs given that the usefulness of organisational statements is contingent on stakeholders’ awareness of them. Past research has also discussed the influence of consistent and prolonged involvement in organised activities. Hansen and Larson (2007) demonstrated how youth who spend more hours per week in organised activities report higher rates of developmental experiences. In this study, results indicated that activities designed to nurture team-bonding helped coaches gain their players’ trust and allowed players to find a place within the group. These results indicate that the program’s approach is in accordance with the first component of the Petitpas et al. (2005) framework and supports the notion that creating an appropriate context facilitates youth development.

Challenges. Although the program's structure allowed coaches and players to interact in a prolonged and consistent manner, it also created several challenges. First, the sport-study format meant that players had a compressed academic schedule. A player stated: "This year, we have a big project to do. Other students work on the project in the afternoons but we have hockey. We have to do it with all our other homework at night. It's a challenge" (P7). A parent said: "They have to catch up because they have less class time. They have to be organised and disciplined. It's school, ice hockey and that's about it" (Pa4). Second, not being part of any league meant that the two senior teams played on the road the entire season. A player said: "It's demanding, five days of school and two days of travelling. I have to go to the United States every weekend while my friends go to parties. You have to work harder academically and make sacrifices" (P13). Parents also recognised that the program's travelling schedule was challenging for players. A parent stated: "Every weekend from October to March, they're not home. They have to get organised, do their homework. It's a challenge for them" (Pa4). Travelling was also challenging for coaches who, in addition to their regular coaching duties, had to ensure that players completed their homework on the team bus, removed their hats in schools, wore a suit before matches, and acted in a civilised manner (Field Notes, January 23). Some coaches discussed how coaching seven days a week and ensuring that players act responsibly was strenuous and impacted their family life. For example, a coach said: "Family takes a hit. I don't know how much more I can give to hockey. I love coaching but it's taking away a lot of family time" (C3). The program director also discussed how travelling affected him: "It was our seventeenth trip of the year. It was a six hour ride. I had a lot of things to do but I couldn't do anything. I was too tired. I just watched the time go by" (PD).

As the results indicate, players found it challenging to have less class time than other students and to be on the road every weekend. The question can be raised if the sport-study format and travelling obligations had undesirable influences on players' academic and social lives. Larson and Verma (1999) examined how youth from around the world spend their time and discussed how North American youth spend considerable time in leisure and sport. Past research has demonstrated how we must be careful when drawing conclusions about the influence of leisure and sport on youth development as they can lead to positive and negative outcomes (Dworkin & Larson, 2006; Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009). For their part, some coaches stated how they had reached a limit in terms of the time they could devote to the program. Lacroix et al. (2008) discussed how difficult it can be for high school coaches to remain in coaching positions as coaching requires significant investments in time and energy. Given that coaches in this study worked full-time, seven days a week, it is essential to consider if the program's demands exceed what should be asked of high school coaches, even if they are paid to work full-time.

External assets

Strengths. Coaches used a number of strategies to develop and nurture relationships with their players. A first strategy consisted of having players keep a journal in which they discussed personal events related to hockey or life. Coaches picked up the journals on a weekly basis to analyse the content. The program director offered a rationale for having players keep a journal:

It's an essential tool. It allows us to gather information, perceptions, and feelings from our players as it relates to what is happening in their everyday lives. It allows us to intervene and come back to their goals. It allows them to change certain behaviors and we guide them through that. It's a catalyst that makes them aware of things. (PD)

A player discussed how the journal helped him deal with a personal situation: “The journal is good because through someone’s writing, you can see their personality. It’s a good way to cultivate relationships. Once, I wrote about a fight with a friend and we went to his [coach’s] office to talk about it” (P8). Parents also felt that the journal helped nurture relationships. A parent said: “The journal is good because for some kids, expressing themselves verbally is difficult. The coach can talk to a player who might not disclose a problem directly” (Pa5).

A second strategy used by coaches was coach-parent-player meetings. These meetings were used to communicate the program’s approach and to provide players and parents with feedback on players’ academic, personal, and ice hockey development. The researcher was present during six coach-parent-player meetings and observed how both player and parent asked questions and shared concerns (Field Notes, October 26). The program director discussed how these meetings were used to ensure that the coaching staff and parents shared the same objectives: “I tell parents at the start of the year, our interventions with your child have to complement yours. Our common goal must be the optimal development of your child” (PD). Parents mentioned that the meetings served a purpose and were beneficial. A parent said: “It allows us to know what is happening with our child. We can say what we like and dislike. As parents, we have to work with coaches to develop our child” (Pa1).

As important external assets, parents supported their child’s participation in the program in many ways. A parent discussed how she constantly offered her son emotional support: “I try to ensure that he is well surrounded. I’ve always tried to encourage him without being controlling” (Pa4). Another parent explained how she provided logistical support: “If he needed help planning his trip, doing his homework. Also, I gave him rides to the rink on weekends when he had to go take the team bus” (Pa3). Many players discussed the financial support received

from parents: “Well financially, they contributed a lot that’s for sure, everything that surrounds hockey” (P11). Players mentioned how essential it was to receive emotional support from their parents. A player stated: “My parents can’t come every weekend to see my matches. Nonetheless, they support me by asking me every day how things are going. They really care for my success” (P9).

The coaches in this study invested a substantial amount of time and energy implementing strategies to nurture relationships with their players. Past research indicates that by cultivating meaningful relationships, coaches can gain youth’s respect and ultimately influence their development in a positive manner (Petitpas et al., 2008). For their part, parents offered their child the support they needed and players acknowledged how this support was essential to their success. Research has shown how parents who display supportive behaviors and provide opportunities for success can influence youth’s self-esteem and enjoyment in sport (Camiré et al., 2009; Gould, Lauer, Rolo, Jannes, & Pennisi, 2006). These results contribute to the literature and demonstrate the central role parents and coaches play in supporting youth’s participation in sport (Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009). The results are of value to coaches who can use the strategies described to nurture relationships with their own athletes. Based on the findings, parents and coaches used an approach that is in accordance with the second component of the Petitpas et al. (2005) framework, which states that for youth: ‘it is the quality and density of the social interactions and relationships formed with caring adult mentors that is most likely to lead to the development of positive assets’ (p.69).

Challenges. Sustaining a program with the primary objective of teaching life skills and values was difficult. Some parents and coaches had conflicting opinions regarding the program’s mandate and how the program should be delivered. For example, the program director shared his

frustrations in having to deal with parents who were preoccupied with their son pursuing their ice hockey career in University-preparatory schools: “There’s some hypocrisy with parents. They say ‘we’re going to this program because we know our child will develop’ but the real reason is to continue in hockey. It’s challenging when our values are in conflict with parents’ values” (PD). Throughout the season, the researcher observed how parents often asked coaches questions related to SAT scores and how to approach University-preparatory schools rather than questions related to player development (Field Notes, October 26). The program director explained how trying it was to deal with these parents: “Interactions, they are mostly complaints. It’s the most unpleasant part of my job. It’s frustrating and takes away my energy because they are never satisfied. I feel exploited because they use us as a springboard to go somewhere else” (PD).

Tensions also existed between some coaches and the program director, who felt that coaches did not focus on player development at a level up to his standards: “In general, they don’t go 100%. My expectations are really high and I’m very strict with my philosophy. My doctorate degree is integrated in the program so when it goes down the hierarchy, it gets diluted. It’s a challenge” (PD). Conversely, a coach explained how he felt the program director should let coaches use their own approach: “I don’t agree with the hierarchy. I don’t think the program director should be judging my choices. I’m a professional in education and I don’t need someone telling me ‘you can’t do that’” (C5). The program director described how during the previous year, tensions between himself and his coaches were so high that they sought help from an outside source: “We brought in an expert in work relations. They said I was too strict and they wanted more independence. It was a good exercise. I could still be demanding towards myself but I couldn’t have the same expectations of others” (PD). A coach explained how interactions have since improved with the program director: “Sometimes he [program director] makes

decisions that are frustrating but now, when we don't like something, we meet. When there is a problem, we solve it immediately and the relationship is good now" (C6).

Danish et al. (2004) discussed how there is an ever-growing 'sport as business' mentality in youth sport as parents push their children to compete and "pressure coaches to give them starting positions, in part, because their athletic skills may lead to a college athletic scholarship offer" (p. 38). In the current study, the program's primary goal was to promote the development of players. However, results revealed how some parents were more concerned with their child's career progression than with the life skills and values players developed in the program, leaving some staff members feeling like they were sometimes being used. Interactions were also tense between the program director and coaches as the program director had a firm approach which frustrated some coaches who wanted more independence. Petitpas et al. (2008) discussed the challenges associated with having qualified staff and argued that supervision must be strengthened because of the varied levels of skills of service providers. However, as this study demonstrates, a balance must be maintained as coaches must feel like they are contributing to the program and have some latitude in their approach to coaching. The results offer valuable insight into the challenges faced by administrators but more research is needed to determine how to overcome such challenges.

Internal assets

Strengths. Program staff had many strategies to facilitate the development of players' internal assets. A first activity performed during developmental classes consisted of having players select 15 values (e.g., fairness, respect, honesty), classify them, and identify the behaviors needed to live according to those values (Field Notes, October 26). Referencing this activity, the program director stated: "Our objective is to have students identify, arrange, and

apply their values. Some will like it, some will be indifferent, and some will hate it but my goal is not to be liked. It's to develop human beings" (PD). A player shared how this activity helped him be more self-aware: "I now realise that I value family, sport, education. With the program this year, I developed as a human being. I determined what I want in life and who I want to become." (P11).

A second activity performed during developmental classes consisted of establishing SMART (i.e., specific measurable, attainable, realistic, timely) goals. The researcher observed during a developmental class how coaches taught players how to establish goals using this system. Following the theory, players completed an activity in the player's handbook (p. 79) in which they had to identify an issue faced during training and competition and a psychological skill that would help them overcome this issue. In addition, players had to discuss the actions to be taken in order to train this skill and come up with a realistic time frame to achieve their objective (Field Notes, March 23). The program director and a coach each explained why they believe goal setting is an important skill to learn in life: "It's fundamental. Players develop goals as students, human beings, and ice hockey players. We constantly come back to these goals because they represent their values, where they want to go, and how they want to get there" (PD) and "I make them see the importance of setting goals. Often they will ask 'Why are we doing this?' but in the end, they realise what they have accomplished. So goal setting gives them a greater perspective" (C5). Players reported learning about goal setting through their involvement in the program. A player declared: "With the program, we see many things like goals. If I had not been in the program, I never would have learned that. It allows us to mature and decide what we want to do, our long-term goals" (P3). According to a parent, the program: "Teaches them

how it is in real life and how to set and attain goals. Goals make them more mature, more responsible” (Pa4).

A third activity consisted of having players perform volunteer work. Volunteering allowed players to develop life skills and values such as organisation, empathy, respect, and altruism. During one specific activity, the researcher observed how senior players were, during an entire afternoon, responsible for helping underserved children (5-6 years old) learn how to skate. Furthermore, each player was asked by the program director to donate a toy or a stuffed animal to the children (Field Notes, November 30). The program director explained the activity and provided a rationale for volunteering:

Our players have to design a learning session by themselves. They greet the children and give them their lesson on the ice. It makes them conscious that we are fortunate. The importance of giving back to society. It’s about giving time and being role models for younger kids. I want a society in which different social classes help each other. I may be idealistic but I want my players to be important actors in society. (PD)

Many players commented on how being a volunteer was a positive experience. A player said:

Working with these children made us understand how lucky we are. We did activities with them on the ice and it made me feel important and responsible. I was a hero for this child. It makes me realise that not everyone has the same opportunities in life and I need to take advantage of mine. I’m more conscious of what is happening around me. (P9)

Although numerous developmental activities were specifically planned during the season, efforts to promote the global development of players were not limited to these activities. Life skills and values were continuously taught during practice by coaches who regularly took advantage of teachable moments. For example, during a Monday morning practice, the

researcher observed how a coach debriefed his team after an uninspiring performance over the weekend and reminded them that if they wanted to live according to their stated values, they needed to display more effort and perseverance (Field Notes, October 26). In another instance, the researcher observed how one player was slacking and did not properly execute a drill. The coach stopped practice for 10 minutes and had an in-depth discussion with his players on how they must take responsibility for their own actions and be honest with themselves (Field Notes, October 27). Near the season's end, during a practice, a few players complained that the training drills were too intense, which led other players to tell them to stop whining. This situation created a negative team atmosphere but the coach saw it as an opportunity to deliver a spirited speech about the importance of encouraging rather than bringing down teammates (Field Notes, March 25).

Gould and Carson (2008) discussed that in order to facilitate development, youth sport programs must teach life skills and values in a purposeful and systematic manner. As past research has shown, sport-based development programs, such as TPSR, SUPER, and The First Tee are designed to expose youth to a variety of life skills and values (Hellison & Walsh, 2002; Papacharisis et al., 2005; Petitpas et al., 2008). Similarly, in this case study, developmental strategies were conceived with the explicit rationale of teaching players a wide array of life skills and values. Comparable findings were observed by Gould et al. (2007) who conducted a study with exceptional high school football coaches. These coaches viewed performance and development as inclusive pursuits of coaching and used many strategies to promote player development. By implementing developmental strategies, coaches treated their players as resources to be developed rather than problems to be managed and taught players the life skills and values necessary for becoming productive citizens (Gould & Carson, 2008). The studied

program's approach is in line with the recommendations of the Petitpas et al. (2005) framework as players were involved in activities promoting goal setting and the exploration of values which are most likely to foster a strong identity. Furthermore, players did volunteer work which enabled them to take on leadership roles outside of their primary sport. Petitpas et al. have stated how volunteerism allows individuals to transfer skills beyond sport and to learn about themselves.

Challenges. Due to financial limitations, the program director was not able to hire the staff necessary to effectively facilitate player development. The program director explained: "I need more money to hire one or two coaches. To have more time to reflect, to develop new intervention strategies, to put things in perspective, to evaluate the program. We are never at ease. We don't have time" (PD). The school principal acknowledged that coaches invest a lot of time in the program to ensure its subsistence: "They don't add up their time. I told them, I would be in a difficult position if I had to pay them by the hour. The key to our survival is having devoted staff" (SP). According to the program director, the time he should be devoting to designing developmental strategies often has to be redirected to: "Supervising coaches, negotiating salaries, doing accounting work, advertising the program, booking hotels, ice times, and buses, and answering the phone, emails, letters. We don't have a secretary, it's a problem" (PD). Coaches also stated having little spare time to focus on player development. A coach said: "We don't really have time to plan strategies. We have to manage lots of things that are not necessarily related to coaching. It's the human resources that are missing" (C1). The researcher observed on many occasions in the coaches' office how coaches spent a large amount of their time doing administrative work before and after practices (Field Notes, November 30).

Organising fundraising activities, such as a banquet dinner, an auction, and a souvenir album, also consumed time that should be invested in developing strategies to teach life skills and values. Program fees alone do not entirely cover the program's costs and as a result, the staff is required to find alternative sources of revenue in order to ensure the financial viability of the program. The school principal explained that: "The ice hockey program is expensive. If we add up road trips, ice rentals, and if we want enough coaches, it's quite a challenge. It's possible but it's not evident" (SP). The program director discussed the challenges associated with doing fundraising and the downfalls of being dependent on this revenue source:

The banquet dinner takes a lot of effort to organise. We have to sell souvenir albums to ensure we will have our salaries. Basically, we are working twice to get paid. One year, we had a deficit and I had to take money from my salary and give it to my coaches. (PD)

An important contribution of this study was demonstrating how a sport program designed to teach life skills and values can be difficult to sustain in a school context. Results demonstrated how staff had to invest much time in conducting administrative duties and fundraising activities, leaving little time for the design of new developmental activities. These findings raise an important question: Is it viable to have such a program in the school system, given the amount of resources and work required to sustain it, if past research has shown how regular high school sport programs already have to deal with limited resources? (Lacroix et al., 2008). Sport-based development programs, such as The First Tee, are supported by the national organisations which have the resources necessary to train their leaders and facilitate youth development (The First Tee, 2010). Currently, in North America, most school boards generally do not allocate these types of resources to their sport programs and in the current environment, a growing number of schools are having to rely on collecting more fees from student-athletes. Although challenging,

this case study has demonstrated that life skills and values can be taught in an intentional manner through high school sport by creating an appropriate context, having caring adults, and adopting a systematic approach to development (Petitpas et al., 2005).

Conclusion

It is important to consider some of the limitations of this study. First, the program examined presents distinctive features the strengths and challenges of which are not necessarily representative of those of typical high school sport programs found across North America. Second, participants directly involved in the program (i.e., administrators, coaches, players) were all male and gender effects might have influenced the tone of the data as female participants might have had different opinions. Future research examining sport for development programs should explore the influence of gender more closely. Third, the program examined in this study used ice hockey as a tool to teach players life skills and values. Ice hockey has a distinctive subculture and results might not necessarily be applicable to programs using other sports to foster youth development. Future research is needed to determine how the structure and approach of development programs should be adapted to the subcultures of various sports.

Despite these limitations, this case study offers a valuable contribution to the literature, demonstrating that a sports program designed to teach athletes life skills and values can be established in the school system. The triangulation of data from different participants and different sources of evidence provides an accurate and comprehensive account of the case and demonstrates that the program's approach to youth development is in accordance with the recommendations of the Petitpas et al. (2005) framework. The program's format allowed coaches to spend significant amounts of time with their players, nurture quality relationships, and implement innovative strategies to teach life skills and values. However, gaining access to

appropriate resources and dealing with travelling obligations were demanding for players and coaches. The results of this study help administrators and coaches understand how high school sports can be practiced in an innovative manner and provide concrete examples of strategies that can be used to teach life skills and values. It appears that a shared philosophy, investments in time, suitable resources, and carefully designed strategies are necessary to ensure the success of sport for development programs. Schools can be a viable environment in which to implement such programs, providing youth with opportunities to learn about themselves and acquire skills that benefit them beyond sport.

Author Note

Dr. Dany Bernard was the director of the program studied and also acted as the third author of this manuscript. This manuscript was a collaborative effort and having the program director meticulously involved in the process of analysis and writing was considered helpful in increasing the credibility of the findings.

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Article two

Coaching and transferring life skills:

Philosophies and strategies used by model high school coaches

Camiré, M., Trudel, P., & Forneris, T. (in press). Coaching and transferring life skills:

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Abstract

Whether or not life skills are developed through sport greatly depends on how coaches create suitable environments that promote the development of youth (Gould & Carson, 2008). The purpose of this study was to examine, using Gould and Carson's (2008) model of coaching life skills, the philosophies and strategies used by model high school coaches to coach life skills and how to transfer these life skills to other areas of life. Interviews were conducted with both coaches and their student-athletes. Results indicated that coaches understood their student-athletes pre-existing make up and had philosophies based on promoting the development of student-athletes. Results also demonstrated that coaches had strategies designed to coach life skills and educate student-athletes about the transferability of the skills they learned in sport. Although variations were reported, coaches and student-athletes generally believed that student-athletes can transfer the skills learned in sport to other areas of life. These results are discussed using Gould and Carson's model and the youth development literature.

Keywords: development; high school; transfer; coaching

Coaching and transferring life skills:

Philosophies and strategies used by model high school coaches

Sport is considered a highly desirable setting in which to coach life skills because it is a popular and valued social activity and because most youth are generally motivated to engage in sport (Gould & Carson, 2008). Life skills, which can be behavioral (e.g., communicating effectively), cognitive (e.g., making effective decisions), interpersonal (e.g., working with people you do not necessarily like), or intrapersonal (e.g., being self-aware), enable youth to succeed in the different environments in which they live (Danish & Donahue, 1995; Danish, Petitpas, & Hale, 1993). Previous research indicates that youth involved in organised sports can learn a wide range of life skills that benefit their physical, social, affective, and cognitive development (Bailey, Armour, Kirk, Jess, Pickup, & Sandford, 2009; Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005). However, for the skills learned in sport to actually be considered life skills, they must be transferred and applied in other life domains such as school or work. Coaches, through demonstration, modeling, and practice, play an influential role in coaching youth how life skills can be transferred to other domains (Gould & Carson, 2008).

Recently, Gould and Carson (2008) developed a five component model for understanding the process of coaching life skills through sport. This model emerged from an extensive review of the literature on positive youth development through extracurricular activities and sport. The first component of the model consists of athletes' pre-existing make up and is divided into internal (e.g., existing life skills, personality) and external assets (e.g., parents, siblings, peers, socio-economic status). It is important for coaches to understand athletes' internal and external assets as athletes are not devoid of skills and resources when they enter the realm of sport.

Furthermore, athletes' pre-existing make up can greatly influence coaches' ability to coach life skills.

The second component of the model focuses on the coaching of life skills. According to the model, factors that are critical to the coaching of life skills include (a) philosophy, (b) relationship skills, (c) competence, and (d) accessibility. A coach's philosophy is said to be of particularly great importance given that coaches are considered the most influential individuals in sport and they play an essential role in creating motivational climates for athletes. The actual strategies used by coaches are also vital in the process of coaching of life skills. Gould and Carson stated that coaches can have indirect as well as direct strategies that influence the levels (one to four) at which life skill development occurs. Indirect strategies include creating a sport environment to prevent youth from engaging in risky behaviors (level one) and acting as a role model by displaying positive behaviors and attitudes (level two). Direct strategies consist of implementing activities within the sport environment to intentionally coach life skills (e.g., having clear and consistent rules, providing opportunities for leadership and decision-making) (level three) and implementing activities to coach youth how the skills learned in sport transfer beyond the context of sport (level four).

The third component of the model focuses on possible explanations as to how life skill development occurs and how it influences the development of athletes. The first explanation states that the social environment of sport influences the development of life skill in athletes which leads to positive outcomes such as (a) identity formation, (b) perceived competence, (c) locus of control, (d) self-worth, and (e) autonomy. The second explanation states that life skills are developed based on their utility. For example, life skills such as stress management and communication are learned because they can be applied and are useful in a variety of settings.

The fourth component of the model examines the positive and negative outcomes of sport participation. The premise behind coaching life skills through sport is that the more life skills youth have, the more likely they are to develop in a positive manner. Positive developmental outcomes of sport include (a) enhanced health, (b) school achievement, and (c) psychosocial and emotional attributes. However, according to the model, a failure to develop life skills through sport can lead to negative outcomes such as (a) physical injury, (b) drug abuse, (c) stress, and (d) burnout.

The fifth component of the model discusses the transferability of life skills to non-sport settings. Given that transfer is not an automatic process, there are a number of factors that influence youth's ability and/or willingness to transfer life skills. These factors include (a) perceived value of the skill, (b) confidence in the ability to transfer, (c) comprehension of transfer, and (d) support/reinforcement for transfer.

The Gould and Carson (2008) model clearly outlines how the role of the youth sport coach includes much more than just coaching athletes technical and tactical skills. Indeed as Côté and Gilbert (2009) demonstrated, effective coaching requires that coaches integrate multiple sources of knowledge (i.e., professional, interpersonal, intrapersonal), have a clear understanding of the context in which they operate, and have a philosophy based on promoting the development of athletes. However, it is important to recognise that the current reality in youth sport is that most coaches have minimal coach training/knowledge (Petitpas, Cornelius, Van Raalte, & Jones, 2005), are largely left to themselves to define their coaching philosophy (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004), and generally do not include specific strategies in their coaching plan to coach life skills (McCallister et al., 2000).

In spite of these challenges, Danish, Forneris, and Wallace (2005) contended that schools offer a particularly attractive environment in which to practice sport and intentionally coach life skills given that it is where youth are most accessible and coaches who work to coach life skills in this setting can contribute to the educational mission of schools. Similarly, Bailey (2006) stated that school sport can support the social, academic, and cognitive development of student-athletes when coaches effectively work in this environment to support the development of youth. Large-scale empirical studies support these claims, demonstrating how school sport participation can have positive effects on self-esteem, educational attainment, psychosocial functioning, and healthy behaviors (Harrison & Narayan, 2003; Marsh & Kleitman, 2003). School sport participation has also been associated with less emotional distress, mental health issues, and dietary problems (Harrison & Narayan, 2003; Steiner, McQuivey, Pavelski, Pitts, & Kraemer, 2000).

Recently, Gould, Collins, Lauer, and Chung (2007) conducted a study with outstanding high school football coaches and documented the strategies they used to coach life skills through sport. What distinguished these coaches was how they considered the coaching of life skills and general coaching as inclusive pursuits. They implemented a number of strategies in their coaching plan to coach life skills such as holding players accountable, emphasising academic progress, promoting discipline, and coaching life skill transfer. In a second study examining the philosophical beliefs of these same high school football coaches, Collins, Gould, Lauer, and Chung (2009) demonstrated how coaches emphasised the physical, psychological, social, and academic development of their players. Although they were highly successfully coaches with impressive win/loss records, the development of their players always remained a top priority and they kept winning in perspective. Coaches held beliefs that football should be used to, among

other things, help athletes build their confidence, work as a team, and learn the value of effort. What set these coaches apart was how their philosophies were driven by core values and that deviations from these values were not tolerated.

The work of Gould and colleagues with outstanding high school football coaches has been critical in increasing our understanding of the process of coaching life skills through sport. However, other than these two studies, research has rarely explored how coaches coach life skills and promote life skill transfer in the context of high school sport. Furthermore, no studies have, in the same study, explored both coaches' and students-athletes' perspectives on the coaching of life skills. Given that millions of student-athletes practice high school sport in North America (Canadian School Sport Federation, 2008; National Federation of State High School Associations, 2010) and that coaches have been shown to have the strongest non-parental influence on youth's actions and beliefs (Petitpas et al., 2005), more research is needed in order to have a better grasp of how high school coaches can facilitate the development of student-athletes through sport. Gould and Carson (2008) identified eight future research objectives on the scientific study of life skill development through sport, one of which being the need to examine the transferability of life skills. Taking into consideration this information, the purpose of this study was to examine, from the perspective of coaches and student-athletes, the philosophies and strategies used by model high school coaches to coach life skills and how to transfer these skills to other life domains. Gould and Carson's (2008) model of coaching life skills through sport was used to frame and guide this research. Moreover, Gilbert and Trudel (2004) argued that if the goal of research in coaching is to improve coaching practice, then research conducted with model coaches is required so that their knowledge can be shared with developing coaches and applied in coaching science. Therefore, in this study, model high school coaches, along with

some of their student-athletes, were specifically recruited to help answer four questions: (a) Do model high school coaches take into account their athletes' pre-existing make up?, (b) What are model high school coaches' philosophies?, (c) What strategies do model high school coaches use to coach life skills and the the transferability of life skills?, and (d) Do student-athletes transfer the life skills learned in sport to other areas of life?

Method

Context

Coaches and student-athletes were recruited from different types of high schools (i.e., public schools, private schools, vocational schools) in the provinces of Quebec and Ontario in Canada. Participants from Quebec and Ontario were purposively chosen as the education system varies between these provinces and therefore provided a more diversified sample. However, it should be noted that the sample was also one of convenience given that the researchers' university is in geographical proximity to both provinces. The first difference between both contexts is that students in Quebec start high school upon having completed grade six (11-12 years old) while in Ontario, students enter high school two years later once they have completed grade eight (13-14 years old). Second, students in Quebec spend five years in high school compared to students from Ontario who only spend four years. Third, high school sport seasons in Quebec are six to eight months long and student-athletes typically practice one sport during the academic year whereas in Ontario, sport seasons are two to three months long and student-athletes have the option to participate in many sports (Lacroix, Camiré, & Trudel, 2008). Finally, it is important to mention that in both Ontario and Quebec, many student-athletes are not just involved in school sport but are also involved in community/club sport.

Participants

A total of 25 participants (9 coaches, 16 student-athletes) voluntarily agreed to participate in this study. The nine coaches (eight males, one female) were on average 32 years of age ($R = 21-52$) and had an average of 13 years of coaching experience in high school sport ($R = 4-28$). Six coaches were from Quebec and three were from Ontario. With regards to occupation and education, six of the coaches were high school teachers and held at least a bachelor's degree while the remaining three coaches were university students volunteering to coach at their former high school. Although coaching certifications are not mandatory to coach high school sports in Canada, all coaches were certified through the National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP). Specifically, three coaches held a level one certification, three coaches held a level two, and three coaches held a level three. It is important to note that life skill development, as defined by Danish and colleagues, is not specifically covered as part of the NCCP certification. However, all coaches wishing to get certified, regardless of sport or context, must pass an evaluation on ethical decision-making (Coaching Association of Canada, 2011). The 16 student-athletes (nine males, seven females) were on average 16 years of age ($R = 13-18$). Twelve student-athletes were from Quebec and four were from Ontario. Coaches and student-athletes were involved in individual as well as team sports (i.e., basketball, volleyball, soccer, wrestling, ice hockey). All participants from Quebec spoke French as a first language and all participants from Ontario spoke English as a first language and for each coach, there was at least one aligning student-athlete.

Procedure

In order to recruit model coaches recognised for their work with student-athletes, the researcher contacted representatives from the Ontario Federation of School Athletic Associations

(OFSAA) and the Federation Quebecoise du Sport Etudiant (FQSE). Each organisation grants annual awards at the regional and provincial level to coaches who exemplify the fundamental values of high school sport while promoting the personal, social, and academic development of their student-athletes. The criteria for the award in Ontario also state that coaches have to be role models for student-athletes, demonstrate expertise and leadership in their sport, and be respected by fellow colleagues and coaches (OFSAA, 2010). In Quebec, the criteria for the coaching award stipulate that coaches have to support the development of sport in their community, exhibit behaviors that promote respect and an ethical practice, and display above average technical skills (FQSE, 2010). Representatives from both organisations were asked to provide the researcher with a list of recipients who had won a coaching award during the last five years and who were still actively coaching high school sports. Awards winners from the two regional associations in closest geographical proximity to the researcher were considered. Coaches who met all criteria were contacted by the researcher and seven coaches agreed to participate in the study. The initial goal was to recruit approximately 10 to 12 coaches in order to reach theoretical saturation (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006) and as a result, additional coaches were recruited by using a reputational sampling procedure (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Based on the process employed by Gilbert and Trudel (2004), the researcher contacted a key informant (a regional school sport director) who was highly knowledgeable of the high school sport scene in the region and explained to him the purpose of the study. The director was asked to provide the names of coaches in the region who had not won a coaching award but who, according to him, met the criteria of a model high school coach as defined by the selection standards of coaching awards in his province. The director provided a list of potential candidates who were contacted by the

researcher. From this process, an additional two coaches voluntarily agreed to participate in the study.

Student-athletes on teams coached by the nine coaches were recruited to participate in the study. Snowball sampling (Creswell, 2007) was used as coaches were asked, following their interview, if they had student-athletes who would be willing to take part in a study on their participation in high school sport. Coaches were asked, when possible, to select student-athletes who had diversified characteristics (e.g., starters, reserves, players of different positions). It is also important to note that coaches did not have access or know about the content in the athlete interview guide. Sixteen student-athletes agreed to participate and were contacted by the researcher to make meeting arrangements.

Approval to recruit coaches and student-athletes and to conduct interviews was granted by the researcher's University Ethics Board. Prior to each interview, participants signed a consent form and were informed of their rights to confidentiality and anonymity. Student-athletes under the age of consent had to get a parent or legal guardian to sign a consent form in order for them to take part in the study. Interviews with participants from Quebec were conducted in French while interviews with participants from Ontario were conducted in English. All interviews were conducted in person by the first author, who is fully bilingual, either at the participant's school or home and a digital audio recorder was employed to record the proceedings. All interviews were conducted at the end of the school year once all sport seasons were completed, thereby allowing student-athletes to talk more freely about their coaches without the fear of being reprimanded.

Interview guides

Interview guides exploring themes related to youth development through sport were consulted to build the semi-structured interviews guides utilised in the current study. These interviews guides were originally developed by the authors and have been used in past studies with athletes (Camiré, Trudel, & Forneris, 2009a) and coaches (Camiré, Trudel, & Lemyre, 2011). For the current study, interview guides were developed in English and French for both coaches and student-athletes by the first author. The interview guides were piloted in French with one coach and one student-athlete to ensure the relevance of the questions asked and to ensure the participants understood the concepts presented. The interview guide for the coach was composed of six sections: (a) demographic information, (b) coach learning, (c) coaching philosophy, (d) coaching practice, (e) influence of coaches on youth, and (f) support. More specifically, the first section was used to gather information about the coaches and build rapport. The second and third sections explored how coaches learned to coach and their philosophy of coaching. (e.g., Can you talk about the learning situations that inform your coaching practice?, How do you envision sport being practiced in the context of high school sport?). The fourth section examined the strategies coaches used to coach life skills and how to transfer these skills to other areas of life (e.g., Can you provide examples of strategies you use to coach life skills?, Explain how you show your athletes how to transfer life skills?). The fifth section examined how coaches believe their strategies influenced the development of their student-athletes (e.g., Do you think student-athletes actually apply the life skills learned in sport in others domains?). The final section examined the type of support coaches believed they were receiving to coach high school sport (e.g., Can you explain the type of support you were provided with by your school to implement your coaching philosophy?).

The interview guide for student-athletes was more concise than the one used with coaches as some of the questions asked to coaches were not relevant to student-athletes (i.e., questions on coach learning, coaching philosophy, and the support received to coach). As a result, student-athletes' interview guide was composed of four sections: (a) demographic information, (b) participation in high school sport, (c) coaching practice, and (d) influence of coaches on youth. The first section was used to build rapport and gather information about the student-athletes by asking them their age, school grade, and experiences in high school sport. In the second section, student-athletes were asked to describe various aspects of their participation and how they believed high school sport influenced their development (e.g., What do you like most about practicing high school sports?, Do you believe high school sport participation influenced your development as a person?). In the third section, student-athletes were asked to state how their coaches coached them life skills and how to transfer these skills to other areas of life (e.g., Do you have concrete examples of things your coach did to promote the development of student-athletes?). In the last section, student-athletes were asked to describe how the strategies used by coaches influenced their development. One particular question focused on if student-athletes transfer the life skills learned in sport to areas outside of sport (e.g., Do you believe that the skills learned in sport can be transferred to other life domains?). Interviews lasted on average 66 minutes ($R = 38-113$) for coaches and 25 minutes ($R = 19-33$) for athletes. Although the interview guides had sets of pre-established questions, the interviewing process was relatively flexible. Probing was frequently employed, allowing participants to clarify certain ideas, to explain in further details important themes, and also to elaborate on notions that emerged from their responses. Examples of probing questions include: Can you elaborate on how

sport helped you develop as a person?, and Why do you think not all student-athletes understand how to transfer life skills to other domains?

Data analysis

All 25 interviews were transcribed verbatim resulting in a total of 304 single-spaced pages of text. The transcripts were read by the first author on several occasions to reveal preliminary themes. The software NVivo 8 (NVivo, 2008) was used throughout the analytical process to assist in managing and organising the data. A content analysis was performed by the first author (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Categories (e.g., transfer of life skills, strategies, philosophies) were organised according to Gould and Carson's (2008) model of coaching life skill through sport. Gould and Carson's (2008) levels of life skills development through sport were also used to classify the levels at which the coaches were working with their student-athletes (e.g., level two: modeling, level three: intentional coaching of life skills, level four: coaching for transfer). Once the data were organised, a peer with extensive experience in qualitative research read and reviewed the content to ensure that the data were placed in the appropriate categories. For example, this meant ensuring that the developmental strategies reported by coaches were coded at the right levels according to Gould and Carson's (2008) framework. Then, a first version of the results section was written by the first author using quotes from the participants. This first version was reviewed by the peer to ensure that it captured an accurate portrait of the perspectives of the participants. The quotes used from the French interviews were translated to English by the first author and care was taken to protect the integrity of participants' ideas. Finally, codes were used to represent coaches and student-athletes (e.g., Coach 1 = C1; Student-athlete 15 = SA15) in order to protect participants' identity.

Results

Pre-existing make up

Throughout the interview process, it was apparent that coaches recognised the importance of understanding their student-athletes' pre-existing make up in order to effectively intervene as coaches. For example, a coach, when detailing his philosophy, described how his approach to coaching is heavily influenced by the socio-economic context in which he operates:

It is about giving our student-athletes an opportunity. Most of our student-athletes here do not really have access to community sports because of financial restraints so my philosophy has changed based on where I am situated. So here, at this school, my philosophy is giving the student-athletes an opportunity to gain success through a sport they may otherwise never get a chance to do outside of school. My goal is to get the student-athletes out there, to teach those values of life and you can use sport to grow, network, and be successful in life. (C3)

Coaches not only took into consideration their student-athletes' pre-existing make up when elaborating their philosophies but also when designing their strategies. In fact, many coaches mentioned taking into account student-athletes' existing life skills in order to tailor their interventions. In addition, interventions were based on the specific life skills needed by student-athletes to succeed in life after high school. For example, a coach working at a vocational school explained how he coaches transferability by discussing skills that are relevant to student-athletes' reality:

We will make direct connections. Here, we talk about the world of work constantly. We talk about employability skills. The world of work is everything we do. In the extracurricular program, making those direct references when we talk about skills such as

dedication, being on time, being prepared, being able to get along with others, being able to compromise. That is the reality [of our student-athletes] so we talk about those skills all the time. I try to make those references. (C2)

One of this coach's student-athletes provided an example of an approach his coach used to coach student-athletes how skills can transfer to the world of work:

Like if you were doing something wrong, he would base it on a real life thing and say "Would you do this at work? If you would do this at work, what would happen? So he is just basically showing you this is what would happen if you did not do this right. I think it pushes the kids to do better just because they will have to do better in the workforce. (SA15)

In contrast, rather than discuss transferability to the world of work, a coach affiliated to a private school used examples that were relevant to his student-athletes' reality and referred to how the life skills he was coaching in sport could be transferred to post-secondary education:

I tell them that high school sport gives them useful tools for later in life like problem solving and teamwork. We all agree that in university, you are required to have the ability to work as a team. I tell them that these skills can help them become better people. (C6)

An athlete of this coach mentioned how he believes his coach was proficient at making student-athletes see the connection between how the skills learned in sport can be used in other areas of life: "He really made us conscious that it was important. Now that we are more mature, we understand. He really made that link because for him, that we succeed in school was as important as succeeding in sport" (SA8).

Coaching philosophies

All coaches made it clear that their philosophies were aimed at coaching life skills and using sport as a tool to prepare student-athletes for life. For example, a coach explained how his philosophy of coaching is athlete-centered and in line with the mission of his provincial school sport association:

It is all about the kids. Kids sign up for sports because they want to enjoy themselves, because they want to be active and learn. I think it is our job as coaches to bring out the best in athletes while ensuring that they have fun in an environment that encourages fair play and respect. Frankly, OFSAA lays it out; the mission statement of school sport is to make sure that the values of fair play and sportsmanship are encouraged amongst all athletes. (C1)

Another coach held the philosophy that high school sport should allow student-athletes to learn basic life skills:

As a student-athlete, being able to learn the skills necessary for real life situations, that is what sport does. It prepares you for different situations throughout your life. High school sports are critical for student-athletes to be able to learn those basic skills. It gives them a way to learn them other than in the classroom, to explore different means of going through conflict resolution, working with others. In the end, they have to realise that life after high school is going to be there and I try to teach them to take something from that and use it as a positive. (C2)

A different coach described how his coaching philosophy evolved when he realised the amount of influence he could have on student-athletes through sport:

As long as I am able to teach them something about life. If I succeed in coaching them more than just soccer, that is what is important. I think I am maximising their potential by influencing them on all aspects of their lives. When I realised the influence I had in soccer, I told myself that I needed to have an influence on the rest also. It is really about extending what you do to all aspects of life. (C5)

Strategies for coaching life skills and the transfer of life skills

Keywords. It appears that coaches were able to put their philosophies into practice as coaches and student-athletes elaborated on a number of strategies used by coaches to coach life skills and the transferability of life skills. One coach taught his student-athletes life skills such as social courtesy and respect using a simple strategy he had developed:

The concept of social conscience, I used it as a keyword rather than always saying, “pick up your stuff and take your hats off”. A keyword that represents many things. The message was clear and they associated me with that keyword. They need to have social conscience, to represent our team and our school well. It’s bigger than volleyball obviously; it’s more than just related to sport. (C4)

A student-athlete of this coach explained how the concept of social conscience made him more aware of the need to exhibit respect in social situations:

Social conscience, it meant, be careful, there are other people, stay calm, do not fool around, show some respect to other teams. Development definitely occurred and it is [coach] that helped me develop this. I can really see the difference. (SA3)

Peer evaluations. Another coach discussed how he designed a strategy that helped his student-athletes increase their self-awareness: “I always try to think of ways to make things more efficient. I have a document that I make the players fill out, the strength and weaknesses of each,

a peer evaluation” (C6). During a practice session, this particular coach had each student-athlete identify both a strength and a weakness for each team member. In order for the responses to remain anonymous, the coach gathered them and prepared a summary for each student-athlete, detailing what other teammates believe they are good at and what they need to improve. One of his student-athletes explained how this strategy proved to be very helpful in helping him develop emotional control skills for today and for the future:

Before, I was too competitive. I complained too much and I yelled at my teammates but last year, we completed a sheet with the strengths and weaknesses of each player. I realised that what I was saying was demoralising players. I got better and I learned to control myself. So it helped me a lot and it is going to help me in the future too. Let’s say at work, we are all in a group, well you need to have good team spirit or else it is not going to be productive. (SA2)

Providing opportunities to display skills. Some student-athletes explained how coaches facilitated their development by providing them with opportunities to exhibit skills. For example, a student-athlete mentioned how his coach helped him (a) be more responsible by making him prioritise his academic obligations and (b) develop leadership by compelling him to be a positive influence on younger athletes:

He pushed me to do better. I am a student-athlete but I played the athlete part a bit too much this year. Every day, I would hear the student-athlete speech, “you are a student first”. He pushed me to do better in school; it had to be a priority. He made sure that I had my school work done. [Coach] wants us to work to get better and he also pushed us to teach the younger kids how to do things right. (SA15)

Modeling. Another student-athlete discussed how her coach would talk about core values, such as respecting opponents and referees, but also worked diligently to model appropriate behaviors:

Yeah he always talked about and encouraged fair play. Last year, coach won the [sportsmanship] award and our team also won the sportsmanship award so we were doing something right. We respected the other team in competition and after competition. Not only that but the referees too. One of my favorite things, our assistant coaches stood on the sidelines and yes, referees make bad calls. But if one of them acted up, coach would be like “hey, do not even do that” so he definitely never encouraged disrespect. (SA16)

Taking advantage of teachable moments. Coaches also used a number of strategies to coach the transferability of life skills. For example, a coach explained that to encourage the transfer of life skills, coaches must become efficient at recognising and taking advantage of teachable moments:

Once kids see that you have a genuine interest, it gives you the in. I think a lot of it comes from being able to talk to them about philosophy stuff because soon, they are going to be out in the world and if they do not have a strong set of core values, then they blow with the wind and I do not want my athletes to do that. When the teachable moment comes, take advantage of it. I intentionally talk to them about the greater role I think they should play in the school community in terms of being a role model for other students. (C1)

A student-athlete of this coach provided a concrete example of how he took advantage of a teachable moment to talk to her about the transferability of life skills:

I talked to coach one on one when we came back from what was a hard loss for me. He talked me through it and he was like, “you can learn from this, you trained hard and look

how far you got”. One on one, he would make reference to sport skills and how to apply them elsewhere. (SA16)

Interestingly, another coach explained how he concretely takes advantage of teachable moments during practices. He provided an example of how he gets his student-athletes to practice the life skill of teamwork during practices and how he makes them reflect on its transferability afterwards:

Through a lot of my coaching, while I am doing drills, I will relate those things to real life. It is about giving them an opportunity to have the necessary skills to be able to function in society. Like if we are practicing a penalty kill, you have a problem to solve. I tell them: “What are you going to do? Are you going to work individually or together? If you do not work together as a team then we are not going to be successful and it is like that in the real world”. So taking advantage of those coaching opportunities and relating them to real life. I try and do that, make them see the connection. (C3)

Volunteerism. This last coach mentioned how one of his strategies was to have his student-athletes perform volunteer work which, according to him, proved to be a valuable learning experience. Student-athletes were put in a position where they had to meet a challenge and had to practice their leadership skills outside of their sports team:

I get my student-athletes involved in mini-volleyball for primary school students. They are giving back to younger kids that are also interested in volleyball. They act as coaches. Small teams are formed and each student-athlete is paired with a team. It allows them to reflect on the things they have learned, who they want to be as a person later in life, and the skills that they still need to learn. (C6)

Comprehension of transfer

Coaches and student-athletes were asked to state whether they believe student-athletes are actually capable of making the connection between how the skills acquired in sport can be applied in other areas of life. A majority of coaches were in agreement that student-athletes do make the link. For example, these three coaches stated:

- I really try to make those connections on a regular basis, repetitiveness. With time, my athletes are starting to catch on so from my experiences on my teams, a majority of them are making the connection. (C3)

- Student-athletes work hard in training, they learn to be disciplined, organised. I coach them that throughout the year and I believe that transfer is happening. It is not just in soccer, it is in their lives too. They are intelligent enough that they can make the link. (C9)

- This year, we lost in overtime in the provincial final. The conclusion we came up with as a team was “ok we did not accomplish our goal but soccer was just a vehicle to learn how to live”. I know that the girls understand this. Yes, they are still frustrated that they did not win but they know that what we experienced, what we worked for, it was not just to win a banner for the school. They have a much bigger set of skills now and they know it, I am convinced. (C5)

However, for a few coaches, transfer was not believed to always be straightforward and direct for every skill and for every student-athlete. Many factors were believed to influence the process of transfer. A coach explained how he believes the connection is easier to make with certain skills:

Leadership, I really believe that they can apply it in areas other than volleyball. I am not in their heads but I believe that most of them are making the link. They are old enough to apply it in life as they do in sport. (C7)

Another coach believed that transferability might be dependent on student-athletes' particular characteristics:

Some do, I just think that it is probably a reflection of different levels of readiness or maturation stage. Sometimes, if they do not realise it themselves, as a coach, you can draw on it directly to make the link stronger. So I think it is probably pretty individual, it depends on the student-athlete. (C2)

According to these two coaches, because some student-athletes are not mature enough, transfer probably only occurs at later stages in life:

- I do not think that a lot of them recognise it until later in life which is why you have to point it out to them as much as possible because they are just kids and a lot of us do not learn those lessons until we reflect back on them and say "oh yeah, wow, good point". (C1)

- I think it has more of an influence in the long-term. I know they can persevere in sport so I know they can apply it outside of sport too but are they doing it? That motivation, that will to persevere, it is difficult to say. So knowing that the effort they put in volleyball can also be put in other areas, I think that they realise it later. (C4)

For their part, many student-athletes stated that they do transfer the skills learned in sport to other areas of life. A student-athlete explained:

- If you develop life skills in sport, well you learn how to not be shy with people and how to approach people. I think that is good for the world of work. To be someone that is

motivated and not afraid to talk to people. That is going to help us find jobs and I realise that I have already started using those skills and also that they will help me later. (SA3)

Nonetheless, other student-athletes discussed how life skill transfer is not something they consciously think about. Rather, it is a process that occurs during later stages in life. When student-athletes are faced with a certain situation, they reflect and recognise that the skills they learned in sport in the past can now help them. A student-athlete explained:

If I learn something in volleyball, I do not have the immediate reflex to make the link.

Like teamwork, I know that it will help me later but it is not a reflex. When I find myself in a situation then I will say “yes, I learned this in volleyball”. (SA2)

Discussion

The purpose of the current study was to examine, using Gould and Carson’s (2008) model of coaching life skills through sport, the philosophies and strategies employed by model high school coaches to coach student-athletes life skills and how to transfer these skills to other life domains. Findings demonstrated how coaches recognised the importance of understanding their athletes’ pre-existing make up in order to coach life skills effectively. Coaches worked with student-athletes of varying socio-economic statuses and adapted their philosophies and strategies in order to coach life skills that are relevant to the needs of their student-athletes. Furthermore, student-athletes’ existing life skills and future career objectives (i.e., workforce, post-secondary education) were factors that influenced the examples coaches used as it relates to transfer situations outside of sport. These findings support the work of Côté and Gilbert (2009) who argued that effective coaching requires that coaches understand how the needs of athletes vary across different contexts. These results are also consistent and support the first component of Gould and Carson’s (2008) model. However, it is important to note that coaches in this study did

not specifically report how other assets (e.g., parents, siblings, peers) influence how they coach life skills through sport. Going forward, more studies are needed to explore how other elements of athletes' pre-existing make up influence the coaching of life skills.

Concerning philosophies, findings indicated how the coaches in the current study did not just set out to coach their student-athletes the technical and tactical aspects of sport. Rather, they had well established coaching philosophies that were athlete-centered and geared towards using sport as a tool for development. These results support the second component in Gould and Carson's (2008) model and indicate that a well-articulated philosophy is a crucial element in a coach's repertoire. Furthermore, the results parallel those of Collins et al. (2009) who found that model high school football coaches have well-established coaching philosophies that recognise the importance of coaching life skills. A unique finding of the current study was how some of the model coaches talked about their school sport association's mission statement and reported how it is essential for coaches to align their philosophies with this mandate. Previous research has shown how youth sport coaches are generally not aware of these mission statements as they are often not effectively communicated by administrators (Camiré, Werthner, & Trudel, 2009b; Forneris, Camiré, & Trudel, in press). It appears that coaches in the current study recognised the responsibility they carry to develop coherent philosophies that are relevant to the mandates of the context in which they are operating. Although this study focused on examining coaches' philosophies, it is important to consider that relationship skills, competence, and accessibility are also important coaching characteristics part of Gould and Carson's (2008) model that influence coaches' ability to coach life skills. Further research is needed to better understand the influence of these characteristics in the process of coaching life skills.

Another important element in the second component of Gould and Carson's (2008) model consists of the strategies used by coaches to coach life skills. Previous research indicates how youth sport coaches often struggle in articulating the strategies they use in their coaching practice to coach life skills (Lacroix et al., 2008; McCallister et al., 2000). In the current study, coaches were able to provide several examples of strategies they implement in their coaching practice that are designed to coach life skills. Based on Gould and Carson's (2008) four levels of life skill development through sport, it appears that coaches did not simply work to occupy student-athletes' free time (level one). Rather, they modeled appropriate behaviors (level two), had specific strategies to coach life skills (level three), and taught student-athletes how to transfer life skills (level four). Specifically, coaches used strategies such as keywords, peer evaluations, taking advantage of teachable moments, and volunteer work. These findings extend the work of Gould et al. (2007), highlighting new strategies used by coaches, and as such, adding to our understanding of an optimal approach to coaching life skills and the transfer of life skills. In addition to extending past research conducted with model coaches, the strength of this study lies in how it provides both coaches and student-athletes a voice by documenting their perspectives on the intentional coaching of life skills and the transfer of these life skills to domains outside of sport. Indeed, student-athletes substantiated the strategies used by their coaches and stated how these strategies helped them learn skills, such as social courtesy, respect, self-awareness, perseverance, teamwork, and leadership, that are useful in the workforce and/or in post-secondary education. Such findings offer support to the third and fourth components of Gould and Carson's (2008) model by demonstrating that coaches implemented strategies to coach life skills because such skills are useful in areas of life other than sport. Furthermore, the

student-athletes who were able to develop life skills through sport shared how these competencies and dispositions led to positive psychosocial, emotional, and intellectual outcomes.

Although most coaches and student-athletes believed student-athletes could apply the life skills learned in sport in other areas of life, some had more nuanced perspectives and felt this was not the case for all student-athletes. These results are in line with the work of Martinek, Schilling, and Johnson (2001) who demonstrated how some underserved youth participating in an after-school program had difficulty transferring skills to the classroom. A number of coaches and student-athletes in the current study suggested that transfer might only occur for student-athletes who have attained a certain level of maturity. Given the considerable variation in the age of student-athletes ($R = 13-18$), it is important to mention that some of the younger student-athletes might simply not have acquired the necessary cognitive capabilities to be aware that the skills learned in sport can be transferred to other aspects of life. Several coaches and student-athletes acknowledged that for some student-athletes, transfer might only occur at later stages in their lives. Indeed, cognitive development can vary and as adolescents move from early to late adolescence, their ability to (a) think hypothetically about actions without experiencing them, (b) consider a number of possibilities, and (c) plan behavior increases significantly (Developmental Milestones Chart, 2007). The findings of the current study support the existing literature on youth development through sport and draw further attention to the notion that life skill transfer is not a standardised and automatic process (Danish, Forneris, Hodge, & Heke, 2004; Martinek et al., 2001). Indeed, as the fifth component of the Gould and Carson (2008) model suggests, many factors can influence life skill transfer such as (a) the perceived value of the skill, (b) confidence in the ability to transfer, (c) comprehension of transfer, and (d) support of transfer. This study provides support to the model by showing that for several of these factors, coaches play a crucial

and influential role. However, given the paucity of studies on life skill transfer through sport, many questions remain unanswered and further research is needed to better understand the mechanisms of how coaches can promote the transferability of life skills from the sporting context to other domains. Specifically, future research could examine the degree to which life skill transfer depends on the age/maturity of students, the duration of sport seasons, or the amount of contact coaches have with their student-athletes.

Practical implications

In accordance with the Gould and Carson (2008) model, the coaches in the current study were aware of their student-athletes' pre-existing make up and developed philosophies and strategies designed to coach life skills that meet the needs of student-athletes. Both coaches and student-athletes discussed how these strategies led to numerous positive outcomes and helped a large number of student-athletes transfer life skills learned in sport to other domains. Based on these findings, a few practical recommendations can be made. First, high school coaches wishing to coach life skills through sport should start by developing relationships with their student-athletes in order to understand their internal and external assets. Second, coaches should develop philosophies based on student-athlete development and align their philosophies with the mandates of their sport associations (Camiré et al., 2009b). Third, the coaching of life skills and how they transfer to different domains should not be left to chance; coaches must have strategies in their coaching practice that are used in an intentional and systematic manner to promote the positive development of athletes (Camiré, Forneris, Trudel, & Bernard, 2011).

To coach and transfer life skills in a systematic manner, coaches can use in their coaching plan an instructional design developed by Danish et al. (2005). This design consists of practical suggestions that enable the successful transfer of skills using a three step approach. First, coaches

should focus on one skill at a time, coach the general concept of the chosen skill, and provide examples of how this skill applies in non-sport settings. Second, student-athletes should be provided with opportunities to actually apply the skill and then reflect on their experiences. Finally, student-athletes should exchange with others their successes and failures in applying the skill and be provided with further experiences to reinforce learning. For example, coaches can teach their student-athletes the concept of leadership and how this skill is useful in many areas of life. Then, coaches can have their student-athletes volunteer in community service activities to practice leadership. Following their volunteer work, coaches can organise meetings in which student-athletes can reflect on and share their experiences. As this and previous studies have shown, volunteering is an excellent way to have youth apply life skills such as leadership and encourages the promotion of pro-social behaviors (Eley & Kirk, 2002).

Conclusion

It is important to mention a few of the limitations of this study. First, coaches were responsible for recruiting athletes which may have led to a selection bias. Second, the coaches were model coaches with specific characteristics and it should not be inferred that all high school coaches have philosophies and strategies specifically designed to coach life skills and the transferability of life skills. Finally, the small sample size restricts the generalisability of the results. Despite these limitations, this study offers unique findings and adds to the emerging literature on youth development through sport. In addition, this study offers support to Gould and Carson's (2008) model and demonstrates how it can be used to explain the process of coaching life skills through sport. In sum, findings from this study revealed how the coaches understood their athletes' needs, had well established philosophies, and used strategies to coach life skills and the transferability of life skills. It is important for readers and especially for youth sport

coaches to realise the importance of learning athletes' pre-existing make up, developing a sound philosophy, and having direct strategies for coaching life skills and life skill transfer. Coaches who invest themselves in coaching more than technical and tactical skills can have a powerful and lasting influence on their student-athletes' development.

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Article three

Examining how model youth sport coaches learn to facilitate positive youth development

Camiré, M., Trudel, P., & Forneris, T. (in press). Examining how model youth sport coaches learn to facilitate positive youth development. *Physical Education & Sport Pedagogy*.

Structured abstract

Background: Research indicates that some youth sport coaches have specific strategies in their coaching plan to facilitate positive youth development (PYD) (Gould, Collins, Lauer, and Chung 2007) while others struggle in articulating how they promote the development of their athletes in actual practice (McCallister, Blinde, and Weiss 2000). These variations can be largely attributed to the fact that coaching is a complex activity and that coaches have varying levels of experience and education. Although many studies have explored how coaches learn to coach, to date, none have specifically examined how they learn to facilitate PYD.

Purpose: To examine how Canadian model youth sport coaches learn to facilitate PYD.

Participants and setting: Sixteen model high school coaches were purposefully recruited. Coaches were on average 33 years of age and had an average of 12 years of coaching experience. Participants were involved in individual and team sports (i.e. basketball, volleyball, soccer, wrestling, ice hockey).

Data collection: Coaches participated in semi-structured interviews which lasted on average 76 minutes.

Data analysis: A thematic analysis was performed (Braun and Clarke 2006). The content of the transcripts was subjected to descriptive treatment by segmenting the data into meaning units which were organised in categories according to the different situations in which coaches learn to coach (i.e. formal, non-formal, and informal) (Nelson, Cushion, and Potrac 2006).

Findings: What characterised these model coaches was a genuine openness to learning as they intentionally sought out and took advantage of opportunities to gain knowledge on how to facilitate PYD. Formal, non-formal, and informal learning situations each played an integral role in the coaches' overall learning process. Of note, some coaches discussed how becoming a

parent was a significant life event that helped them reflect on the importance of using youth sport as a tool for development.

Conclusions: The development of a coaching philosophy and a coaching practice based on facilitating PYD is a process that evolves over time through the reflection of one's experiences. Coaches can extend their own learning process by participating in learning communities or by accessing specialised websites that provide tools on how to promote the development of youth.

Keywords: life skills; high school; parenthood; adolescent

Summary for practitioners

Previous research has shown that youth sport coaches have varying levels of knowledge about coaching and this in turn may influence their ability to create environments that facilitate positive youth development (PYD) (Gould et al. 2007; McCallister et al. 2000). Although researchers have explored how youth sport coaches learn to coach, to date, no studies have specifically explored how they learn to facilitate PYD. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine how Canadian model youth sport coaches learned to facilitate PYD. Results indicated that what characterised these model coaches was a genuine openness to learning and that formal, non-formal, and informal learning situations each played a key role in their overall learning process. Of note, some coaches discussed how becoming a parent was a significant life event that helped them reflect on the importance of using youth sport as a tool for development.

**Examining how model youth sport coaches
learn to facilitate positive youth development**

Organised activities, such as sports, arts, academic clubs, and faith-based groups, are contexts that, if appropriately structured, can foster positive youth development (Larson, Hansen, and Moneta 2006). Positive Youth Development (PYD) represents a strength-based approach to development, grounded in developmental systems theories, recognising that youth have the potential for successful development (Eccles and Gootman 2002). Essentially, rather than focusing on reducing or eliminating undesirable behaviours (e.g. violence and drug/alcohol consumption), those using a strength-based approach emphasise the promotion of competencies which can include, among other things, life skills and values (e.g., fair play, leadership, goal-setting, teamwork) (Larson 2000).

Sport has been identified as a context suitable for PYD when such competencies are promoted in an intentional and systematic manner (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, and Deakin 2005). In fact, youth sport stakeholders generally expect sport to be an activity in which young athletes learn competencies that promote PYD (Forneris, Camiré, and Trudel in press). However, in order to effectively promote the development of youth in the sporting context, the presence of competent and knowledgeable coaches is of utmost importance. Coaches are an essential component to the success of sport programs as they hold a position of considerable influence on youth (Cushion 2010). On one end, there are examples in the literature of studies conducted with coaches who use their influence in a constructive manner by prioritising the global development of youth. For example, Gould, Collins, Lauer, and Chung (2007) conducted a study with outstanding high school football coaches recognised for their work with youth. What characterised these coaches was that they were highly educated (bachelor's and master's

degrees), highly experienced (averaged 31 years of coaching experience), and had thought-out and articulated strategies for promoting their athletes' development (e.g., providing individualised feedback, building relationships with athletes, involving athletes in goal setting, and emphasising the link between football and life). Collins, Gould, Lauer, and Chung (2009) examined the philosophical beliefs of these same high school football coaches and demonstrated that the physical, psychological, and social development of their athletes was a top priority. Furthermore, the authors discussed how through their years of experience, these coaches gained confidence in their abilities to coach and refined their philosophies which allowed them to overcome the traditional 'winning versus development' dilemma by treating both as inclusive pursuits of coaching.

On the other end, there are also examples in the literature of studies demonstrating that not all youth sport coaches have well-established philosophies and thought-out strategies. McCallister, Blinde, and Weiss (2000) demonstrated how the youth baseball and softball coaches in their study generally recognised the importance of developing youth through sport but struggled in articulating how they teach values and life skills in actual practice. The authors discussed that the personal demographics of these coaches were important factors to consider when explaining the findings. The coaches in their study were volunteers with no coach education who entered the realm of coaching to coach their child's team given a lack of available coaches. Furthermore, their results showed that many of the coaches assumed that coaching at the youth level requires little knowledge or education and that some coaches believed that PYD occurs automatically through simple participation. Recently, Camiré, Trudel and Lemyre (2011) conducted a study with 15 coaches from a single high school and found similar results. Several coaches in their sample were postsecondary students who had recently graduated from the school

and coached in order to give back to their former sport program. These coaches had less than a year of experience in coaching, had limited education, and had divergent philosophies of what sport should promote in the context of high school sport. In addition, they had difficulty identifying the strategies they use to facilitate the development of youth. Other coaches in their sample were full-time teachers who had several years of experience and bachelor's degrees. These coaches had philosophies which were in line with the school's mission statement and they had detailed strategies in their coaching plan to put their philosophies into practice.

The research outlined above suggests that experience and education are two variables that can help explain the differences that exist between coaches who facilitate PYD in an intentional manner and those who do not. Jenkins (2010) argued that experience is an important factor in coaches' development given that coaching philosophies change over time and that it can take a number of years before coaches establish philosophies with which they are comfortable. In addition, Nash, Sproule, and Horton (2008) conducted a study with 21 coaches involved at varying levels (from one to five) in a coaching course in the UK and demonstrated the influence of both experience and education on coaches' role frames and philosophies. Specifically, results showed that as coaches gain more experience and education, they become more efficient at developing and applying coherent coaching philosophies and holistic coaching practices. Of note, the authors underlined that it is not merely formal coach education that influences coaches' philosophies and practices but also the experience and knowledge they gain in other learning situations. Indeed, it is important to recognise that youth sport coaches cannot solely learn to coach in coach education courses (Lemyre, Trudel, and Durand-Bush 2007). Research has demonstrated how youth sport coaches must expose themselves to a wide range of learning

situations in order to develop the knowledge and skills necessary to be efficient coaches (Erickson, Bruner, MacDonald, and Côté 2008; Wright, Trudel, and Culver 2007).

In recent years, several researchers have worked to conceptualise the various situations in which coaches learn how to coach. Nelson, Cushion, and Potrac (2006) stimulated the discussion by proposing three learning situations: formal, non-formal, and informal. This conceptualisation is based on the original work of Coombs and Ahmed (1974) who developed a framework to classify different learning modes. According to Nelson et al. (2006), formal learning situations represent programmes that require candidates to meet certain admission guidelines, present standardised material, are delivered by specialists, and lead to a form of certification. University coaching courses and large-scale coach education programmes represent formal situations from which coaches can learn to coach. Formal learning situations have been shown to make varying contributions to the learning of youth sport coaches. Inexperienced coaches generally consider formal training courses as viable learning tools because they lack basic knowledge about the sport they coach but more experienced coaches report that formal training courses are often of limited use given that they generally fail to address contextual factors and cannot fulfil all of the coaches' needs (Erickson et al. 2008; Lemyre et al. 2007; Lemyre and Trudel, 2004).

Non-formal learning situations are defined as organised educational activities, delivered outside the formal system, that are offered to particular subgroups of a population that have special areas of interest (Nelson et al. 2006). Non-formal learning situations (e.g., conferences, seminars) are usually short-term, voluntary, and have few prerequisites. Research has shown how coaches generally enjoy attending conferences and seminars because they often address topics not covered in formal courses and offer coaches opportunities to interact with other coaches (Wright et al. 2007). However, despite being appreciated by coaches, Erickson et al.

(2008) demonstrated how non-formal learning situations are not often used by coaches to acquire coaching knowledge in comparison to learning by doing and interacting with other coaches.

Informal learning situations comprise a wide variety of opportunities through which coaches acquire knowledge throughout their lives (Nelson et al. 2006). These can include previous life experiences, interactions with peer coaches, reading books, and using the internet. Lemyre et al. (2007) found that previous athletic experience was the main source from which new youth sport coaches derived their coaching knowledge and gained an understanding for what coaching entails. In addition to athletic experiences, Wright et al. (2007) found that past coaching experiences, past family experiences, and interactions with peer coaches are also informal situations that often inform the learning of youth sport coaches. Coaches with varying levels of experience have been shown to use books for different purposes. More specifically, less experienced coaches use them to retrieve information on technical and tactical elements while more experienced coaches use them to learn about subjects such as motivation, nutrition, and stress management (Lemyre et al. 2007). Finally, research has demonstrated how the internet is predominantly used to retrieve information on things such as drills that can be used in practices (Lemyre et al. 2007; Wright et al. 2007).

Mallett, Trudel, Lyle, and Rynne (2009) expanded on the work of Nelson et al. (2006) and suggested that informal learning situations can be either guided or unguided. Informal guided situations are generated by outside sources; learners can choose to participate in these situations and can choose the content. For example, a learning facilitator can create an online forum in which coaches can exchange ideas on topics that they select themselves. Conversely, informal unguided situations are not influenced by outside sources and can be either intentional (the coach intentionally chooses what he or she wants to learn) or incidental (the by-product of

another activity). An intentional learning situation can consist of a coach deciding to consult a colleague to resolve a coaching issue while an incidental learning situation can include a coach unconsciously learning about his or her sport's sub-culture during his or her time as an athlete (Trudel, Gilbert, and Werthner 2010).

There are several studies in the scientific literature that have examined how youth sport coaches learn to coach and the different situations in which this learning occurs (e.g., Erickson et al. 2008; Lemyre et al. 2007; Wright et al. 2007). However, to date, no studies have specifically explored how coaches learn to promote PYD. It is essential to examine the different situations in which coaches learn to promote PYD given the fundamental and influential role coaches play in the lives of young athletes (Gould and Carson 2008). Furthermore, an examination of how coaches learn to facilitate PYD must go beyond formal coach education because (a) research has shown how coaches require a wide spectrum of knowledge in order to be effective (Werthner and Trudel, 2009) and (b) formal courses have been shown to focus predominantly on performance enhancement rather than the personal development of youth (Cushion, Armour, and Jones 2003; Gould, Chung, Smith, and White 2006). Taking all these factors into consideration, the purpose of this study was to examine how Canadian model youth sport coaches learn to facilitate PYD through formal, non-formal, and informal learning situations. Given the exploratory nature of this study, a basic interpretive qualitative methodology (Merriam 2002) was employed, guided by research on coach learning. This type of methodology is considered appropriate when the objective is to understand how participants make sense of a phenomenon, in this case how model coaches learn to facilitate PYD through sport. Gilbert and Trudel (2004) argued that in order to improve coaching practice through research, studying model coaches is important and represents a logical place to study effective coaching.

Method

Table 1

Demographic information coaches

Coach	Gender	Age	Province	Education	Years of Experience	Sport Coached	NCCP
1	M	34	Quebec	Bachelor Physical Education	10	Ice Hockey	Level 1
2	M	31	Quebec	Bachelor Administration	5	Ice Hockey	None
3	M	32	Quebec	Master's Physical Education	10	Ice Hockey	Level 2
4	M	38	Quebec	Master's Physical Education	18	Ice Hockey	Level 2
5	M	25	Quebec	Master's School Administration	6	Ice Hockey	None
6	M	32	Quebec	Bachelor Physical Education	14	Ice Hockey	Level 1
7	M	46	Quebec	Ph.D. Counseling	25	Ice Hockey	None
8	M	40	Ontario	Bachelor Human Kinetics	23	Soccer	Level 3
9	M	52	Ontario	Bachelor Physical Education	28	Wrestling	Level 3
10	M	37	Ontario	Bachelor Physical Education	20	Ice Hockey	Level 2
11	M	35	Quebec	Master's Molecular Biology	12	Volleyball	Level 3
12	M	20	Quebec	Law (in progress)	3	Soccer	Level 2
13	M	21	Quebec	Bachelor Human Kinetics (in progress)	4	Volleyball	Level 1
14	M	22	Quebec	Bachelor Graphic Design (in progress)	5	Volleyball	Level 1
15	F	28	Quebec	Bachelor Physics/Mathematics	13	Basketball	Level 2
16	M	34	Quebec	Bachelor Physical Education	6	Soccer	Level 2

Note. M = Male; F = Female; NCCP = National Coaching Certification Program

Participants

Sixteen model youth coaches were recruited in high schools in the provinces of Quebec and Ontario in Canada (see table 1). Coaches were on average 33 years of age and had an average of 13 years of coaching experience. Nine coaches had degrees in or were currently studying physical education or human kinetics. Thirteen coaches were certified by the National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP).

Procedure

Coaches were recruited by contacting representatives from the organisations responsible for overseeing the practice of high school sport in Ontario and Quebec, which are the Ontario Federation of School Athletic Associations (OFSAA) and the Federation Quebecoise du Sport Etudiant (FQSE). Each organisation grants annual coaching awards to coaches who act as role models, demonstrate expertise and leadership, are respected by fellow coaches, promote respect and an ethical practice, and facilitate the personal, social, and academic development of their athletes. These characteristics are analogous to Gilbert and Trudel's (2004) definition of a model youth sport coach, which is someone who (a) demonstrates interest in learning about coaching, (b) is respected in the local sporting community, (c) is a good leader, (d) keeps winning in perspective, and (e) encourages children to respect the rules of the games. Representatives from both organisations provided a list of award recipients during the last five years who were still actively coaching high school sports. Coaches in closest geographical proximity to the researcher who met all selection criteria were contacted by the researcher and seven award-winning coaches agreed to participate in the study.

The original objective of this study was to recruit approximately 12 participants given that Guest, Bunce, and Johnson (2006) indicated that experiential saturation usually occurs

within the first 12 interviews in studies using thematic analysis and non-probabilistic sampling. As a result, it was decided to recruit additional coaches by using a reputational sampling procedure (Miles and Huberman 1994). Two key informants (regional high school sport administrators), who were highly knowledgeable of the high school sport scene in their respective regions, were asked to identify coaches who were considered model coaches, based on Gilbert and Trudel's (2004) definition and the criteria of the coaching awards. The key informants provided the contact information of 28 coaches who were deemed to be appropriate candidates. These coaches were contacted by the researcher and an additional nine coaches voluntarily agreed to take part in the study for a total of 16 coaches. Prior to the start of each interview, coaches were asked to sign a consent form and were assured that their responses would remain anonymous and confidential. All interviews were conducted in person by the first author and a digital audio recorder was employed to record the proceedings. Approval to conduct this study was granted by the researcher's University Ethics Board.

Interview guide

A semi-structured interview guide was developed based on the interview guides used in previous studies on youth coach learning (Lemyre et al. 2007) and youth development (Camiré, Trudel, and Forneris 2009). The interview guide was pilot tested with one coach, allowing the researcher to verify the relevancy of the questions asked. Following the pilot interview, some questions were slightly modified to be more descriptive and open-ended rather than closed (e.g. Can you talk to me about your coaching philosophy?) (Smith, Flowers, and Larkin 2009). The interview guide was developed in both English and French as interviews with participants from Quebec were conducted in French while interviews with participants from Ontario were conducted in English. The first author is fully bilingual and was responsible for developing the

interview guide and conducting the interviews in both languages. The interview guide was composed of six sections: (a) demographic information, (b) coach learning, (c) coaching philosophy, (d) coaching practice, (e) influence of coaches on youth, and (f) support. The first section was used to gather information about the coaches (e.g. age, experience, education) and build rapport. The second section focused on coach learning as coaches were asked to elaborate on how they generally learned to coach and the different situations in which this learning occurred. Examples of questions included: (a) Can you identify learning situations that inform your coaching practice? and (b) Can you tell me how NCCP courses have been or have not been useful to you? The third and fourth sections examined coaches' philosophy and the strategies they used to facilitate PYD. As the coaches were detailing their philosophy and providing examples of strategies they put in place, the researcher asked questions specific to learning such as (a) How did you learn to have a philosophy based on those elements? and (b) How did you learn to develop these strategies? The fifth and sixth sections examined the influence of coaches on athletes (e.g. How has your role as a coach allowed you to have an influence on athletes?) and the support coaches received to coach high school sport (e.g. What type of support does your school offer you to implement your coaching philosophy?). Interviews lasted on average 76 minutes. The interview process was relatively flexible and probing was frequently employed to allow participants to clarify certain ideas and to explain in further details certain themes. Examples of probing questions include (a) How exactly has the NCCP helped you learn how to facilitate PYD? and (b) Can you clarify how parenthood has influenced your coaching philosophy?

Data analysis

All interviews were transcribed verbatim by the first author and two research assistants and the transcripts were downloaded into the software NVivo 8 (NVivo 2008) which was used throughout the analytical process to assist in managing and organising the data. The transcripts were read carefully on several occasions, allowing the researcher to get immersed in the data and to identify preliminary themes. For this paper, a thematic analysis was performed (Braun and Clarke 2006) and the content of the transcripts was subjected to descriptive treatment by segmenting the data into meaning units which were organised in three higher order categories (i.e. formal, non-formal, informal). In each of these higher order categories were lower order categories representing the specific situations (e.g. university education, conferences, interaction with peer coaches) in which coaches reported learning how to facilitate PYD. These lower order categories were based on specific learning situations reported in past studies with youth sport coaches (Erickson et al. 2008; Lemyre et al. 2007) except for the category of ‘becoming a parent’ which emerged inductively from the data set. The content of all categories was reviewed by the first author and a peer with extensive experience in qualitative research to ensure that it captured an accurate portrait of the learning process of the participants. Excerpts used in this paper from coaches in Quebec were translated in English by the first author and care was taken to protect the integrity of participants’ responses.

Results

The results are presented in three sections, based on Nelson et al.’s (2006) conceptualisation, and examine how coaches learned to facilitate PYD in formal (i.e. coach education courses, university education), non-formal (i.e. conferences and seminars), and

informal (i.e. previous life experiences, interactions with peer coaches, books and the internet) learning situations.

Formal learning situations

Coach education courses. Several coaches reported that National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP) courses helped them learn how to facilitate PYD. A coach mentioned that when he took part in NCCP courses, he was young and new to coaching. As a result, he credited these courses for exposing him to material that made him realise the importance of prioritising the development of youth through sport: ‘Starting up, I did not really know how to coach or how to share my knowledge. It [NCCP] helped me a lot, the theoretical aspect. It helped me with teaching values and how to manage ethically sensitive situations’ (C14). Similarly, another coach indicated how taking part in NCCP courses at a young age helped him develop a philosophy with an emphasis on youth development:

I think I did my first [NCCP] course when I was 15. It was beneficial because I was in many ways a blank slate and they were able to voice these philosophies on me like fair play. I did not really have a philosophy so wow you know this makes a lot of sense. I was able to apply a lot of NCCP stuff. (C8)

For another coach, NCCP courses proved to be useful because they made him realise the importance of having a philosophy based on development: ‘Over time, my philosophy changed and my values changed. I matured and the shift in emphasis has swung from the competition side to the character side. Those formal training elements were often the catalyst for personal reflection’ (C9). However, several coaches did mention how they felt the NCCP did not help them learn how to facilitate PYD. For example, a coach stated that the NCCP courses he took part in simply did not address this type of material: ‘It is very general what you see in those

courses. It is really more technical and tactical, how to prepare a practice. They teach you new exercises. It had nothing to do with development' (C12). Another coach indicated that NCCP courses generally did not discuss youth development and highlighted that the approach used by course conductors only promoted surface learning: 'We skimmed a lot of subjects without necessarily looking at them in detail and testing them' (C4).

University education. Coaches, especially those with a background in kinesiology, were in agreement that their university education provided them with a solid foundation for coaching and proved to be useful in helping them learn how to facilitate PYD. Many stated they had the opportunity to take specific courses that provided them with knowledge and tools to facilitate the development of youth through sport. For instance, a coach stated how he learned about specific pedagogical concepts and life skills: 'Looking back at my university degree, I learned about pedagogical progression, goal setting. Those are things we touched on during certain courses. After, through reflection, I was able to progress [in my coaching]' (C5). A different coach mentioned how through some of his courses, he learned developmental strategies: 'I did a course during my master's that was called psychosocial analysis. We worked a lot with values, attitudes, behaviours, the three steps to determine your values. I learned many things' (C3). For another coach, it was not necessarily the courses but rather certain professors that inspired him and made him realise the importance of facilitating PYD through sport:

To get those tools. I was lucky to get them from competent professors with lots of experience. The basis of what I know on development, it is my university education that gave me it. My five years allow me to keep a critical perspective on things and not to teach all sorts of things that do not make sense. (C4)

Non-formal learning situations

Conferences and seminars. The large majority of coaches indicated being motivated to attend conferences and seminars on a regular basis. These coaches firmly believed that these types of events were useful learning situations to learn more about youth development. For example, a coach stated: ‘We went to a seminar called Project Humanisation. We listened to speakers and it was not necessarily on hockey but more on human development. So yes, we have gone to some and I count on doing more in the future’ (C2). Another coach mentioned how attending conferences allowed him to gain a different perspective and helped him refine his approaches to youth development:

Many conferences in sport psychology. There is continuous learning that is occurring. I try to go a bit outside of hockey to get other knowledge, values, and relationship skills. That is why I go to conferences. In order to become a more efficient coach. I was able to bring back different things and combine different approaches so it is very interesting.
(C7)

It was interesting to note how some coaches mentioned being highly motivated to attend conferences in order to learn how to facilitate PYD but found it difficult to do so for financial reasons and also because of a lack of time. As an example, a coach stated:

For sure it interests me. I have done some in the last few years. It was on the philosophy of human development. It’s had an influence on my coaching and the foundations of my professional practice but there is not a lot of time and money invested in that. We do not have the money. It is limited but for sure I am interested in doing those things. (C5)

Finally, there was one older coach close to retirement who felt he had more than enough knowledge and coaching experience to facilitate PYD and therefore, he did not feel the need to

attend as many conferences to learn more on this subject. This particular coach had over 28 years of coaching experience and said: 'I do fewer conferences now. I do not seek them as much anymore because the knowledge and skills that I have are more than adequate to develop high school athletes'. (C9).

Informal learning situations

Previous life experiences. Many coaches mentioned learning about the importance of using sport as a tool for development from a variety of past life experiences. A number of coaches reported incidental learning situations, such as being exposed to great coaches during their athletic careers, which made them realise the significant influence a coach can have on an athlete's personal development. For example, a coach stated:

I started to understand the influence a coach can have on athlete development when I was 19 years old. The influence my coach had on me. It made me realise to what point a coach could help me develop in all the spheres of who I am as a person. It made me realise that I could and wanted to help athletes develop in the best way possible. The day I realised that, I wanted to have that influence. (C2)

A different coach discussed how reflecting on not only positive but also negative past experiences with coaches helped him learn how to facilitate PYD:

I learned how to be a role model and how to be a good coach through people I had in those roles as an athlete. I also learned how to be a good role model through the failure of others to be so. So I think I have learned about development by being a reflective practitioner and because of the experiences I had. (C9)

A novel and unexpected finding was how the coaches who have children described that becoming a parent was a past life experience that greatly influenced their philosophy of coaching

and made them realise the importance of facilitating the development of youth through sport. For example, a coach stated:

I remember after getting married thinking how this was going to change my life. That was nothing compared to having kids. Man does your life change and it really makes you come to the realisation that every child is someone's son or daughter and every parent wants what is best for their child's development. I think that comes into play. (C8)

Many coaches expressed how parenthood made them adopt a coaching style that is focused on facilitating PYD. For example, a particular coach stated:

I think I am much more relaxed and more laid back because in the big picture of things, it is only a game. In the end, life goes on and I think being a parent gives you a different aspect of looking at the game. I am still competitive and I want to win but I believe in a bigger picture. We have to develop athletes. So most definitely, parenting has an influence on how I approach the game. (C10)

Interactions with peer coaches. Many coaches considered it an essential learning tool to have the opportunity to interact and exchange with other coaches. Several coaches mentioned how they intentionally seek out interactions with peer coaches and how these interactions have allowed them to be better prepared to facilitate PYD because they were able to learn the strategies other coaches use to develop their athletes. For example, a coach explained how he benefited from interacting frequently with other coaches in his sport programme:

We reflect together, we make decisions together, we talk about events, what happened, how we reacted. I think it helps. A coach can talk about a situation he lived with a certain player. It allows us to be aware of and learn from different intervention methods. It helps us in our own interventions because we have the point of view of many coaches. (C5)

Another coach discussed how important he believes it is for coaches to network and also to seek out interactions with other coaches in order to learn how to facilitate PYD:

I believe life and coaching are all about networking. It is about making those connections. What makes coaches successful is knowing how to use the resources around them. It is about who you surround yourself with and the strategies you formulate to achieve what you want because ultimately, you are making the decisions to influence the development of your athletes. (C10)

Books and the internet. A large number of coaches mentioned that they consider books to be useful tools to learn how to facilitate PYD through sport. For example, a coach indicated how he intentionally seeks out books on advanced topics to learn more about youth development: ‘I have books on long-term athlete development. For sure I use those. I also have a few books on sport psychology and I often come back to those’ (C2). For a few coaches, books even proved to be essential tools that had a great influence on orienting their coaching practice towards PYD. For example, a coach explained how books helped him redefine his philosophy:

I buy a lot of books, and with my readings, it [PYD] became important. I could not conceive of anything else other than humanising through sport. Before, I talked about educating but I find humanising is much more comprehensive. So this is how it happened. Right now, I am reading a book on knowledge transfer. It helps me enormously. So those are elements that help me develop my cognitive map. (C7)

For another coach, reading a particular book proved to be a powerful and enlightening experience that still influences his approach to coaching today:

The readings that I did, I was one of those crazy kids that actually read more than I had to in school. I will never forget reading *Every Kid Can Win* by Terry Orlick for the first

time. Seminal work and it just made so much sense. So many of those philosophies and lessons, they still carry through to my philosophy of today. (C8)

For its part, the internet was not viewed as a tool that was useful to learn how to facilitate PYD. Most coaches reported the internet was used more to find technical material for practices. These two coaches stated: ‘Yeah I use it if I need to find new drills or something like that. If I want to spice things up, I will use the internet’ (C3) and ‘The internet, a bit, mostly when I was starting up. I would look for exercises’ (C14).

Discussion

Generally, what characterised the model youth sport coaches in this study was a genuine openness to learning how sport can be used as a tool for development. This motivation and willingness to learn has also been observed in other studies with sport coaches. Werthner and Trudel (2009) interviewed 15 elite Canadian coaches and demonstrated how these coaches constantly engaged in different learning situations to improve their skills. These elite coaches shared many characteristics with the model coaches in the present study as they had many years of experience and all but one had a college/university degree. Nash et al. (2008) demonstrated how both experience and education significantly influence coaches’ ability to frame their roles and philosophies. In their study, coaches with only a few years of experience and no postsecondary education did not consider their coaching practice in a wider role frame and did not link it to a specific philosophy. Conversely, coaches with over 20 years of experience and postgraduate degrees demonstrated a complex understanding of how their values and beliefs influence how they coach. According to Nash et al. (2008), this means that coaches who articulate their philosophy (i.e., values, beliefs) in a coherent manner do not just focus on teaching technical skills but are in a preferred position to adopt a holistic coaching practice and

facilitate the development of life skills and other competencies in their athletes. Such findings correspond to those of Collins et al. (2009) and Gould et al. (2007) and suggest that as coaches acquire experience and education, they are better equipped to (a) understand the complex role of the coach, (b) develop coherent philosophies, and (c) learn how to connect their philosophies to coaching strategies that are aimed at facilitating PYD. The current study adds to the literature by demonstrating how important it is for coaches to be proactive and continuously seek out learning opportunities in order to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to positively impact the development of youth through sport. Indeed, the coaches in this study showed themselves to be lifelong learners who learned how to facilitate PYD by regularly engaging in formal, non-formal, and informal learning situations, with each situation playing a vital role in their overall learning process. The following sections present in greater detail how each situation contributed to the coaches' learning.

Formal learning situations

Previous research has discussed the limited benefits that can be derived from formal coach education courses (Lemyre et al. 2007). In this study, coaches had mixed opinions concerning the value of these courses in helping them learn how to facilitate PYD. On one end, several coaches who participated in coach education courses when they were young and new to coaching stated that the courses were beneficial because they exposed them to some of the fundamental values of sport, which helped them develop a coaching philosophy based on facilitating PYD. On the other end, some coaches felt that coach education courses were of limited use to learn about the development of youth because the courses they took only promoted surface learning or simply did not address this type of material. These results are consistent with past research as youth sport coaches with varying levels of experience have been shown to have

different opinions regarding the usefulness of formal coach education courses (Lemyre and Trudel 2004; Wright et al. 2007). For its part, a university education was believed to be a great formal learning situation that helped coaches develop critical-thinking skills and pedagogical tools necessary for facilitating PYD. This finding supports the work of Trudel et al. (2010) who reviewed past studies on university coaching courses and found that overall, these courses were beneficial as they helped students develop their reflection skills and understand the complexity of coaching.

Given that not all youth sport coaches have a university education or have access to university courses on coaching, large-scale coach education programmes like the NCCP must be made more readily accessible to coaches and must be designed to help them face the changing trends in sport (McCullick et al. 2009). Many researchers contend that presently, not all of the coach's needs are being met because coaching education courses focus mainly on elements such as performance enhancement, technical and tactical knowledge, and injury prevention while little attention is given to PYD (Cushion et al. 2003; Gould et al. 2006; Vella, Oades, and Crowe 2011). The findings of the current study offer some support to this notion as some coaches stated that coach education courses do not always discuss material specific to the positive development of youth. This lack of relevant material was an important factor influencing some of the coaches' perceptions on the usefulness of coaching courses in learning how to facilitate PYD. In addition to the relevance of the material presented, past research has revealed how a programme's structure, the credibility of course conductors, and the integration of up to date research are also important factors that impact on coaches' receptivity towards coach education courses (McCullick, Belcher, and Schempp 2005). Going forward, if formal coach education is to become an integral part of coaches' overall learning process and help them learn how to facilitate

PYD, courses must be designed with these factors in mind. Furthermore, formal courses must be intentionally designed to include material that exposes coaches to their responsibilities as educators of youth and specific training on how to promote positive developmental outcomes (Vella et al. 2011). Specifically, Jones (2009) and Noddings (1984) discussed the importance of incorporating the concept of care into education and coach education. It is argued that care is critical to the development of positive social relationships between coaches and athletes. The work of Telfer (2010) discussed the recent progress being made in this area as some coach education courses are starting to place more emphasis on making coaches aware of their ‘duty of care’ and the ethical responsibility they have to use their influence for the good of athletes. Such progress can be seen in Canada where coaches who wish to get certified through the NCCP must first complete an online evaluation entitled ‘making ethical decisions’ (Coaching Association of Canada 2011).

Non-formal learning situations

The literature indicates that coaches generally appreciate opportunities to take part in conferences and seminars because they usually cover more specific and specialised topics (e.g. human development) than formal courses (Wright et al. 2007). The findings of this study support this notion as many coaches participated in conferences that specifically covered material related to PYD. Conferences were viewed by most coaches as valuable learning experiences used to refine their knowledge and redefine their coaching philosophy. However, several coaches did mention how time and money were two factors that restricted their ability to participate in conferences and seminars. In order to lessen these barriers, Gilbert, Gallimore, and Trudel (2009a) suggested reorganising pre-existing structures, such as league meetings that typically focus on organisational issues, and transforming them into coach development seminars that are

designed to help coaches further refine their coaching skills. Gilbert, Lichtenwaldt, Gilbert, Zelezny, and Côté (2009b) discussed how youth sport coaches must be afforded opportunities throughout their careers to engage in continuing professional development as it allows them to create and share knowledge with coaching peers.

Informal learning situations

Past research has demonstrated how youth sport coaches generally accumulate several years of experience as athletes prior to becoming coaches and that these experiences usually represent one of the main sources of knowledge that inform their coaching (Gilbert et al. 2009b; Lemyre et al. 2007; Wright et al. 2007). In this study, coaches indicated that indeed, their previous experiences as athletes were incidental learning situations that informed their coaching and made them recognise the influence a coach can have on the development of youth. An original and unexpected finding was how the coaches who have children noted that becoming a parent was the most influential past life experience as it relates specifically to developing a philosophy based on PYD. Coaches who have children believed that the transition to parenthood was an incidental learning situation that greatly influenced their approach to coaching and made them adopt a coaching style that is much more focused on facilitating PYD. Past research in nursing and developmental psychology has demonstrated how the transition to parenthood is a significant life event that leads to new roles and responsibilities (Ferketich and Mercer 1995). Major changes in behaviours, attitudes, and social relationships occur because the transition to parenthood involves demands that alter the existing context (Katz-Wise, Priess, and Hyde 2010). In the current study, coaches stated how parenthood made them realise that the young athletes they coach are people's sons and daughters and that it is more important to facilitate their development than to focus on winning. Given that this aspect of coaches' development has

seldom been explored, further research is warranted to understand in greater detail how parenthood impacts youth sport coaches' philosophies and coaching practices.

Although incidental learning opportunities had great influences on learning, the coaches in this study were often the catalysts of their own development as they intentionally participated in informal learning activities to learn how to facilitate PYD. Coaches initiated interactions with peer coaches on a regular basis to learn the strategies other coaches use to develop their athletes. Gilbert et al. (2009b) suggested that having access to peer coaches is necessary to nurture the creation of coaching knowledge that is context-specific and relevant to coaches. Furthermore, coach interactions are informal learning situations that can help coaches integrate the professional, interpersonal, and intrapersonal knowledge necessary for effective coaching (Côté and Gilbert 2009). In addition to interacting with peers, coaches intentionally sought out books on specialised topics to learn more about the positive development of youth. Previous research has demonstrated how books are often informal learning tools employed by experienced youth sport coaches to learn about specialised coaching-related topics (Lemyre et al. 2007; Wright et al. 2007). In this study, it was interesting to note how for some coaches, books even proved to be important catalysts that made them realise the importance of using sport as a tool for development. For particular coaches, reading books on themes such as knowledge transfer had a great influence on orienting their philosophy and coaching practice towards facilitating PYD. As it relates to the internet, the results of this study parallel those of past research (Wright et al. 2007). Specifically, the internet was not believed to be useful as a means to learn how to facilitate PYD as it was used by coaches primarily to find new drills.

Implications

The model youth sport coaches in the current study recognised the importance of adopting a lifelong learning approach (Jarvis 2007) and had ultimately ‘learned to learn’ (Lyle, Mallett, Trudel, and Rynne 2009). They acquired sufficient experience and knowledge in coaching and in life to frame their role as coaches and to understand the importance of adopting a coaching philosophy that is based on facilitating PYD. Of particular interest was how the results showed that all three learning situations contributed and played key roles in coaches’ overall learning process (Nelson et al. 2006). Indeed, the findings indicated that in addition to acquiring knowledge from formal learning situations (i.e. coach education courses, university education), coaches intentionally sought out and took advantage of non-formal and informal learning opportunities to learn how to facilitate PYD. One of the original contributions of this study was demonstrating how parenthood is a significant life event that can transform a coach’s philosophy. The findings indicate that becoming a parent led coaches to reflect on the importance of using sport as a tool for development in the context of youth sport. As Côté and Gilbert (2009) stated, coaching is a complex social process and to be effective, coaches must integrate various sources of knowledge, understand the context in which they operate, and facilitate the development of youth.

An important question raised by the result of this study is: Can the model coaches’ motivation to learn to facilitate PYD be nurtured in all youth sport coaches? According to Werthner and Trudel (2009), this could prove to be difficult as the learning situations coaches decide to partake in vary due to many personal (e.g. willingness to learn, experience, education) and situational (e.g. time, money) factors. Although not all coaches are inclined to confront the obstacles to learning, what the findings of this study tell us is that youth sport coaches who wish

to have a positive influence on their athletes' development must adopt a lifelong learning approach by taking advantage of learning opportunities when they present themselves. Such opportunities to learn could come in the form of learning communities as suggested by Gilbert et al. (2009a). A learning community consists of a group of coaches sharing similar interests who get together during regularly organised meetings to discuss coaching issues. The premise behind a learning community is that it allows coaches to become responsible for their own learning and provides them a setting in which they can reflect on topics that are real and meaningful.

Although a learning community approach has the potential to foster coach learning, results of this and other studies have shown that the current reality in the youth sport context is that time is a factor that strongly impact coaches' ability to engage in professional development opportunities (Vargas-Tonsing 2007). Flexible approaches that allow coaches to learn during their individual free time are also needed to ensure that coaches have the resources necessary to facilitate PYD. Although this study and past research have indicated that the internet is primarily used by youth sport coaches to find drills (Lemyre et al. 2007), new online tools could prove to be flexible and cost effective enough to help meet coaches' needs. For example, coaches can now access several specialised websites, such as Coaching 4 Life (2009), that provide coaches with tools on how to promote the development of youth. Furthermore, online courses, such as those designed by the National Federation of State High School Associations in the United States, can be used by coaches to learn the fundamentals of coaching. Many of the courses are free or can be purchased for a reasonable fee. These courses are informed by research and provide coaches with tools on how to teach values and life skills that athletes need on and off the playing surface (NFHS, 2010).

Conclusion

Readers should be careful not to generalise the results of this study to all youth sport contexts given the specific setting in which this study took place (i.e. high school sport). Furthermore, coaches shared particular characteristics and are not necessarily representative of high school coaches and youth sport coaches in general. It is also important to consider that there was an overrepresentation of male coaches in our sample which might have an influence on the type of answers provided. In spite of these limitations, this study offers a valuable contribution to the emerging youth development literature as an important first step in understanding how model youth sport coaches learn to facilitate PYD. The coaches in this study were genuinely open to learning and understood the importance of adopting a lifelong learning approach in order to continuously refine their knowledge and skills as coaches (Jarvis 2007). Essentially, they had ‘learned to learn’ and recognised the importance of exposing themselves to a wide range of learning situations. Taking these findings into account, it is recommended that youth sport coaches who aspire to facilitate PYD (a) take advantage of and reflect on the different learning situations that are presented to them and (b) recognise that the development of a coherent coaching philosophy and a sound coaching practice is a process that evolves over time. Given the exploratory nature of this study, further research is warranted to better understand how coaches of various demographic backgrounds and coaches in different youth sport settings learn to facilitate PYD. Furthermore, future research endeavours should focus on identifying new and innovative learning initiatives that could be used to help a greater number of youth sport coaches learn how to facilitate PYD through sport.

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Article four

Preferred sporting environment and coaching behaviours:

Perspectives from Canadian high school athletes

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the sporting environment and coaching behaviours preferred by Canadian high school athletes. Thirty athletes (23 boys, 7 girls) between the ages of 13 and 18 years ($M=16.2$; $SD=1.45$) participated in individual semi-structured interviews lasting between 19 and 39 minutes ($M=28$). Participants were asked to describe what type of environment they believe should be fostered in high school sport and to indicate what constitutes effective versus ineffective coaches in this context. The software NVivo was used to organise the data, which was analysed through a content analysis. Results indicated that most athletes prefer an environment that promotes participation and development and coaches who are supportive, knowledgeable about the sport they are coaching, that prioritise athlete development, and are good motivators. Conversely, athletes believed high school sport should not prioritise competition and ineffective coaches were seen as those who offer little or no support, prioritise winning, are not organised, and have limited knowledge of the sport they are coaching. Results are discussed using models of coaching and the coaching science literature.

Keywords: participation; competition; winning; development; support

Preferred sporting environment and coaching behaviours:

Perspectives from Canadian high school athletes

Coaches play a significant role in the sporting environment (Gould & Carson, 2008) and have even been identified as having, along with teachers, the strongest non-parental influence on youth (Petitpas, Cornelius, Van Raalte, & Jones, 2005). The behaviours of coaches determine the quality of their coaching and ultimately the positive or negative experiences athletes can derive from sport (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005). In order to maximise positive experiences for athletes, coaches: “have a responsibility first to understand sport’s significance in society and second to seek to reproduce the very best aspects of this practice” (Kirk, 2010, p.174). To efficiently use sport’s potential to foster positive development, Jones (2006) argued that sports coaching needs to be reconceptualised and coaches must not only be viewed as physical trainers but as educators who develop athletes. The coaching environment must be framed as a learning context that allows athletes to be fully realised. In essence, rather than instruct, coaches have to educate and the act of coaching should be viewed as a: “holistic developmental activity connected with a wider set of beliefs about social learning” (Jones, 2006, p.5).

In order to effectively educate athletes in a holistic manner, Côté and Gilbert (2009) argued that it is necessary for coaches to integrate various forms of knowledge, understand the context in which they operate, and work towards the positive development of their athletes. Thus, to coach effectively is a complex process due to the dynamic and social nature of the act of coaching (Cushion, 2010). To better understand the coaching process, a number of coaching models have been developed over the years that focus on the outcomes of coach and athlete interactions (Côté, Bruner, Erickson, Strachan, & Fraser-Thomas, 2010). Such models include the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1984), the coaching model (Côté,

Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russel, 1995), and more recently the model of expert coaches' perspective on building successful programs (Vallée & Bloom, 2005).

Chelladurai's (1984) model was the first sport-specific model of leadership to explain the satisfaction and performance of athletes. According to the model, athlete satisfaction and performance are influenced by three states of coaches' behaviours: (a) actual behaviours, (b) athletes' preferred behaviours, and (c) required behaviours. These three types of leadership behaviours are in turn influenced by the characteristics of athletes, coaches, and the environment. The model's usefulness resides in how it considers that coaching success is not only related to great leadership skills but also to a coach's ability to meet a combination of demands and to incorporate required and preferred behaviours in their actual behaviours (Côté et al., 2010)

The coaching model (CM) was developed using a grounded theory approach to better understand how coaches conceptualise their work and tasks (Côté et al., 1995). According to the model, coaches work towards their objectives by establishing a mental model of their athletes' potential. The CM is made up of six components that can be divided into two levels of variables. Competition, training, and organisation are variables that represent actual coaching behaviours while athletes' characteristics, coaches' characteristics, and the context are variables that affect coaching behaviours (Côté et al., 2010). The act of coaching consists of taking into account these variables and working to develop athletes, both inside and outside of sport, by planning training and helping athletes acquire skills (Côté et al., 1995).

Vallée and Bloom (2005) proposed a conceptual model of how coaches can build successful sport programs. The model was developed through a study conducted with Canadian university coaches. According to the model, four components (i.e., coaches' attributes, individual growth, organisational skills, and having a vision) are necessary for building successful

programs. As it relates to attributes, coaches should be committed to continuously learn, be open-minded, be genuinely interested in their athletes, and self-evaluate. Coaches who display great organisational skills also drive successful programs and coaches who teach their athletes competencies, recognise the importance of academics, and communicate effectively. Finally, coaches of successful programs are those who have a vision and set high standards to facilitate the holistic development of their athletes.

These models share common elements in that effective coaching is said to require that coaches take into consideration a wide range of factors and also necessitates that they work to facilitate the holistic development of their athletes. An important factor coaches must consider is the particular environment in which sport is practiced because it can greatly influence the behaviours they are required to display and the behaviours athletes expect them to display (Chelladurai, 1984). One particular environment, high school sport, specifically requires that coaches work to develop in their athletes competencies that promote their holistic development. Kirk (2010) indicated how the school sport environment differs from other contexts such as club sport because: “Schools do more than teach sports, while sports clubs have a very specialised and particular focus” (p.173). This is particularly true in Canada where high school sport has been framed as a context that should do more than just teach sports. In fact, according to the Canadian School Sport Federation (2004), the mission of high school sport in Canada consists of: “encouraging, promoting and being an advocate for good sportsmanship, citizenship and the total development of student athletes through interscholastic sport” (p.4).

Although researchers have developed models and school sport federations have developed mission statements communicating how coaches should coach and how the sporting environment should be structured, there is sparse information available concerning the sporting

environment and coaching behaviours that are preferred by high school athletes. If, as Jones (2006) argued, coaching is to be reconceptualised as an activity that enables athletes to reach their full potential, then it is essential to determine what athletes themselves believe constitutes a suitable sporting environment as well as appropriate coaching behaviours. Cassidy, Jones, and Potrac (2004) indicated that the degree to which coaches behave in a manner that is perceived by athletes to be appropriate largely determines the overall benefits of their interactions. If coaches meet athletes' expectations, positive outcomes should result; however, when expectations are not met, dissatisfaction and a counterproductive environment can ensue.

In recent years, some studies have examined athletes' experiences in sport and how coaches have influenced those experiences (see Table 1). A few of these studies were conducted with adolescents but none have been found to specifically examine the context of high school sport. Generally, the results of these studies indicate that athletes believe effective coaches are those who are knowledgeable about the sport they were coaching, are good communicators, and put athletes' needs first. Conversely, athletes believe ineffective coaches are those who lack knowledge and experience, are poor communicators, and do not demonstrate that they care for their athletes. Although these studies offer valuable information to researchers and practitioners alike, it is essential to extend previous research and to specifically examine the perspective of athletes in the high school context.

Table 1

Sample of recent studies on athletes' perspective of coaching

Authors	Participants	Effective Coaches	Ineffective Coaches
Roy et al. (2002) (Canada)	University athletes	Foster positive relationships Have knowledge Credible	Foster negative relationships Lack knowledge/experience
Cassidy et al. (2004) (New Zealand)	Undergraduate students	Knowledgeable Good motivators Good communicators Organised	
Dworkin and Larson (2006) (USA)	Adolescents		Display favouritism Disrespectful Place unreasonable demands Lack knowledge
Fraser-Thomas et al. (2008) (Canada)	Adolescent swimmers	Supportive Good communication skills Offer one-on-one coaching	Ignore weaker athletes Are highly critical Intimidating
Becker (2009) (USA)	Elite/professional athletes	Knowledgeable Approachable Athlete-centred	
Fraser-Thomas and Côté (2009) (Canada)	Adolescent swimmers	Good communicators High expectations Constructive feedback	Poor communicators Display favouritism Intimidating
Gearity (2009) (USA)	Collegiate/professional athletes		Not teaching Unfair Uncaring Inhibiting Coping

Gould and Carson (2008) argued that more context-specific research is needed in sport given that: “One weakness with the existing research is that participation in sport has been viewed as a single entity. However, youth sport programs vary greatly in terms of their goals, structure and whom they involve” (p.70). Indeed, as previously indicated, high school sport has specific mandates and objectives that differ from those of other contexts (Kirk, 2010). That is why it is important to examine what are athletes’ preferences in this particular context. Studies focusing on high school sport are also warranted given the popularity of sport participation in this context. Statistics indicate that over 750 000 athletes in Canada practice high school sport (Canadian School Sport Federation, 2008) and research conducted with athletes can increase our understanding of the dynamics of participation in this particular environment. Taking into account this information, the purpose of this study was to examine high school athletes’ preferred sporting environment and coaching behaviours. Two research questions guided this study: (a) What type of environment do athletes believe should be fostered in high school sport? and (b) What do athletes believe constitute the behaviours of effective versus ineffective coaches in high school sport?

A qualitative methodology was employed to answer the two research questions as it allows researchers to develop in-depth explanations of particular events by emphasising the importance of the context and the beliefs held by participants (Maxwell, 2004). A qualitative methodology was also used because it allows researchers to examine the underlying reasons behind an object of study and renders itself appropriate to understand how participants make meaning of a situation (Merriam, 2002). Gaining insight into underlying reasons was particularly important in this study as understanding the type of environment preferred by athletes helps explain in large part the behaviours they favour in their coaches given that coaches are greatly

responsible for cultivating the sporting environment. Examining these two questions from an athlete's perspective is an important exercise as athletes are inevitably the ones who directly practice sport and should have their voices heard. Such findings can reveal if high school athletes' preferences for sporting environment and coaching behaviours coincide with the views held by researchers and communicated by school sport federations. Coaches can also use these findings to frame their coaching practices and the sport environment according to athletes' preferences and needs.

Method

Participants

A total of 30 high school athletes (23 boys, 7 girls) from the provinces of Quebec and Ontario in Canada voluntarily agreed to participate in this study. All participants are Caucasian and those from Quebec spoke French as a first language while those from Ontario spoke English as a first language. Athletes were recruited in different types of schools (i.e., public schools, vocational schools, private schools) and needed to have been involved in high school sport for at least one year in order to be eligible to participate in this study. Athletes ranged in age from 13 to 18 years ($M = 16.2$; $SD = 1.45$). Twenty-six students were from Quebec and four were from Ontario. Participants were involved in the sports of wrestling ($n = 1$), basketball ($n = 2$), soccer ($n = 5$), volleyball ($n = 6$), and ice hockey ($n = 16$).

Context

High school sports in Canada are offered to boys and girls who have the option of practicing many team and individual sports. High school sports are usually practiced after school hours and athletes/teams participate in organised competitive leagues that lead to annual regional and provincial championships. In Ontario, high school sport seasons are typically only a few

months long and athletes have the option to participate in many sports over the course of their four-year high school career. The province of Quebec has a different system as students spend five years in high school. In addition, sport seasons are longer in Quebec (six to eight months) and athletes usually practice only one sport during the academic year (Lacroix, Camiré, & Trudel, 2008). Traditionally, high school sport teams in Canada have been overseen by school teachers who volunteer their time to coach, however, in certain contexts; coaches from the community are solicited to fill vacant coaching positions due to a lack of teacher volunteers (Camiré, Trudel, & Lemyre, 2011). Whether they are teachers or from the community, high school coaches are encouraged to acquire certifications from the National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP). It is important to note that coaching certifications are not mandatory in this context.

Procedure

All 30 athletes took part in individual semi-structured interviews. Athletes were recruited using a snowball sampling procedure (Miles & Huberman, 1994) through their coaches (nine males, one female) who were participating in another research project headed by the first author. After having participated in interviews themselves, coaches were asked by the researcher if they had athletes who would be willing to take part in a study on their participation in high school sport. Coaches were asked, when possible, to select athletes with varying backgrounds (e.g., starters, reserves, players of different positions). Furthermore, it is worth mentioning that coaches did not at any point have access to the questions in the athlete interview guide. The researcher contacted athletes who agreed to participate in order to make meeting arrangements. In accordance with the researcher's University Ethics Board, athletes signed a consent form and those under the age of consent also had to get a parent or legal guardian to sign a consent form.

Prior to each interview, athletes were told that their participation was voluntary and were explained the measures taken to protect their confidentiality and anonymity. Interviews with athletes from Quebec were conducted in French while interviews with athletes from Ontario were conducted in English. All interviews were conducted in person by the first author, who is fully bilingual, either at the participant's school or home using a digital audio recorder. All interviews were conducted at the end of the school year when all sport seasons were completed to avoid having athletes feel like their involvement in this study would influence their sport participation or their relationship with their coach.

Interview guide

The interview guide was composed of three sections: (a) demographics, (b) participation in high school sport, and (c) coaching. The first section was used to gather basic information about the athletes such as their age, school grade, and sport(s) practiced and also to build rapport. In the second section, athletes were asked to discuss various aspects of their participation in high school sport. Examples of questions include: (a) According to you, what is the purpose of having sports in schools? and (b) Describe how you believe high school sports should be practiced? In the third section, questions centred on coaches as athletes were asked to describe their coaching preferences in the context of high school sport. Questions were posed to athletes in the following manner: (a) Can you describe what the ideal high school coach is, according to you? and (b) Can you describe what is ineffective coaching in the high school context? In order to gather rich details from the athletes, probing was regularly employed during the interview process. Probes were used to help athletes clarify ideas and further elaborate on specific themes. For example, the researcher asked probes such as: (a) Can you elaborate on what aspects of sport participation you believe should be prioritised in the high school environment? and (b) Can you further

describe what you believe high school coaches should focus their efforts on? Interviews with athletes ranged from 19 to 39 minutes ($M = 28$).

Data analysis

The 30 interviews were transcribed verbatim resulting in 347 pages of single-spaced text. Analysis began by reading the transcripts in order to get a general sense of the data. Each transcript was then downloaded into the software NVivo 8 (NVivo, 2008) which was used to assist in organising the information. A thematic analysis was conducted to examine the data, essentially consisting of breaking the data into meaning units and clustering similar meaning units together to form themes and categories (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In relation to preferred high school sport environment, meaning units were organised in two general themes: ‘participation’ and ‘competition’. As it relates to what athletes believe high school coaches should focus on, two other general themes emerged: ‘development of athletes’ and ‘winning’. As for athletes’ perspectives on effective and ineffective coaching behaviours, meaning units were organised in numerous themes such as ‘lack of positive reinforcement’, ‘organised’, and ‘favouritism’. Given the large number of themes related to coaching behaviours, similar themes were reviewed and were combined to form higher-order categories. For example, the themes ‘lack of positive reinforcement’ and ‘negative attitude’ were combined to form the higher-order category entitled ‘not supportive’. Similarly, ‘places unreasonable demands’, ‘does not distribute playing time equally’, and ‘displays favouritism’ were combined to form ‘prioritises winning’. In total, six categories representing effective coaching behaviours and four categories representing ineffective coaching behaviours were developed. To increase the trustworthiness of the findings, investigator triangulation was performed by having a peer with extensive experience in qualitative research involved throughout the analytical process. The peer helped the researcher

develop and organise themes and categories and ensured that the researcher's interpretations were accurate and reflected the data. The quotes used from the French interviews were translated in English by the first author and care was taken to protect the integrity of participants' ideas. Finally, codes were used to represent the athletes (e.g., ninth athlete interviewed = A9) in order to protect the participants' identity.

Results

The results are presented in four sections. The first section examines if athletes prefer an environment promoting participation or competition while the second section explores if athletes prefer coaches who prioritise development or winning. The third and fourth sections present what athletes believe are effective (six themes) versus ineffective (four themes) coaching behaviours.

Preferred high school sport environment

In the interviews, athletes were asked to describe how they believe high school sports should be practiced. Nearly all of the athletes believed that an environment promoting participation should be prioritised over an environment promoting competition in this context. An athlete stated everyone should have an equal chance to play in order to promote pleasure for all: "At school, I think they should encourage everyone to participate. This way, everyone can have fun and it is not necessarily the best players that have all the playing time" (A10). For another athlete, participation should be promoted because high school sports should be about allowing athletes to interact socially: "I think school sport should be more about participation. You participate to have fun with your friends. That is the goal. If you want competition, you go to a higher level like club sports" (A3). Nonetheless, a few athletes did mention that a competitive environment should be favoured. An athlete stated how competition is what

motivates him to engage in sport: “I am really competitive. I would not like to just play for fun. It [competition] gives me an objective and it drives me to push myself. For me, it is more competition than participation” (A2). Interestingly, several athletes had nuanced perspectives and suggested how both participation and competition can be inherent components of high school sport, as long as a balance is found and participation remains a priority. For example, an athlete mentioned:

A balance is required between the two. For sure there needs to be competition. You need to try your hardest but at a certain point, you also need to have fun and participate. If you really want to play competitive, then go play on a club team. At school, it is more for fun. Like this year, we had a good team and we pushed hard to compete but participation always remained important. (A1)

What coaches should prioritise

To help create an appropriate sporting environment, athletes were asked to state what they believe should be the priority of high school coaches. The majority of athletes stated that coaches should promote the development of athletes over winning games and/or championships. An athlete stated that through sport, coaches should teach their athletes lessons that will prepare them for life beyond sport: “I think it should be about the development of athletes. If we win, it is fun but it is clear that coaches need to prepare us for our future and not just to win” (A10). Another athlete talked about some of the benefits that can be derived from having coaches who create an environment that promotes development: “In sport, we can express ourselves. If you are shy in class but good in sport, it allows you to develop confidence. By [coaches] focusing on development, it allows us to expand our horizons” (A9). Interestingly, an athlete compared school sport to club sport and mentioned preferring the school context because he believes

coaches on club teams focus too much on winning: “For sure school sport helps develop people. It can be a motivation for school. In club sport, I played much less. They [coaches] were more focused on winning and I did not like it” (A4). Only a couple of athletes mentioned that high school coaches should promote winning over development. For example, an athlete said: “For sure winning is important. Winning has become really important. Winning occupies a big place in sport” (A18).

Effective coaching behaviours

After having discussed the type of environment that should be promoted, athletes were asked to elaborate on the behaviours that represent effective coaches. A number of behaviours were reported and were organised into six general themes.

Supportive. A majority of the athletes indicated that they prefer a high school coach who is supportive. For example, two athletes stated: “The coach I prefer would be not too pushy. If you make a mistake, he says ‘Keep trying, do not give up’ instead of saying ‘You can’t do better than that? Are you weak?’” (A13) and “He needs to be positive. If you make a mistake, he will correct you and show you how to not make that mistake again and support you” (A3).

Knowledgeable. Many athletes also felt that an effective coach is someone who is knowledgeable about the sport he/she is coaching. Athletes indicated how they prefer a coach who has playing experience in the sport he or she is coaching and someone with sufficient pedagogical skills to teach the sport in a manner that allows athletes to improve. Two athletes indicated that: “He needs to have played soccer and have some experience and knowledge. It is not fun when you have a coach that you could almost coach in his place” (A1) and “I think he needs to have played at a somewhat high level. Someone with experience who can teach you things you do not already know. Someone who is good at explaining too” (A9).

Prioritise athlete development. A number of participants provided responses indicating that they believe an effective coach is someone who prioritises athlete development. According to several participants, one way for coaches to demonstrate that they prioritise development is to establish meaningful relationships with their athletes. An athlete stated: “He needs to be able to create a good connection with his athletes outside of the court. He is friendly and talks to us about anything. He can give us his passion for sport” (A17). Another athlete suggested that coaches who prioritise development must set the example for appropriate behaviour: “He needs to be a role model for us. He must be able to control himself in front of referees and the other teams” (A19). Other athletes discussed how high school coaches should teach more than just sport-specific skills. One particular athlete stated: “It is someone who is able to really teach you and show you what life is all about and what is waiting for you after school” (A24). Finally, some athletes felt an effective coach is someone who prioritises academic achievement and recognises that school must come before sport. An athlete said: “He makes sure the team gets to classes and goes to school. The coach has to have the right idea. If kids do not go to class, they should not have the right to play” (A13).

Motivator. An effective coach was also perceived by many to be a good motivator, someone who can inspire athletes to work hard and fulfil their potential in all of life’s domains. Two athletes mentioned: “It is a person that pushes you to your maximum and knows when to use the abilities you have. To know what to do in the right moment” (A21) and “For me, an ideal coach, it would be someone that pushes you. I like it when someone explains things and inspires me to improve. It helps me progress” (A9).

Demanding and challenging. For a few athletes, an effective coach is someone who is fair but demanding and challenging. For example, an athlete stated: “At the beginning, you might

say ‘this coach is relentless’ but that coach will make you improve the most. Years later, you will say ‘I am glad I had that coach and because of him, I am here today’” (A22).

Organised. Finally, a small number of participants mentioned that an effective coach is someone who is organised. An athlete said: “He must be able to manage and to control his athletes. To be in control of what is happening on and off the ice” (A21).

Ineffective coaching behaviours

Athletes discussed a wide range of behaviours that represent ineffective coaches. These behaviours have been organised and are presented in four general themes.

Not supportive. A majority of participants provided answers indicating that they believe an ineffective coach in the context of high school sport is someone who is not supportive. For many athletes, this meant a coach who is always angry and does not provide any positive reinforcement. For example, an athlete said: “He yells at the kids for no reason. He is always negative and discouraging. If you make a bad play, he yells at you. If you make a good play, he does nothing to encourage you” (A17). For other athletes, an ineffective coach is someone who is not there when athletes are in need. Two athletes answered: “A bad coach is someone who does not care for his athletes. He is never available for us. When we need advice, he does not provide any. He always screams without telling us why” (A30) and “He is not there for the girls and boys that play basketball. He does not encourage them. He does not explain. He simply looks at you play and does nothing” (A9). Finally, an athlete indicated how coaches who are not supportive can decrease athletes’ motivation to participate in sport: “Let’s say you make an error and he sends you to the bench. It does not give you an opportunity to develop in the sport that you love. Without support, it does not make you want to continue to play” (A3).

Prioritise winning. Rather than prioritise athlete development, the majority of participants believed that ineffective coaches are those who exhibit behaviours demonstrating that they prioritise winning. For some athletes, this meant coaches who use athletes as a means to an end. An athlete said: “Someone who does not care about his players. He views them as numbers. His personal interests come before those of the team and he neglects athletes for performance. I do not think it is the right thing to do” (A29). For others, an ineffective coach places unreasonable demands and pushes athletes beyond their capabilities. Two athletes answered: “When a coach puts too much pressure on you because he wants to win, then he is not paying attention to the well-being of his athletes, to the development of his athletes” (A11) and “A bad coach makes the athletes feel pressured. The athletes feel that their best is not good enough and that the coach does not appreciate their hard work” (A16). According to a few athletes, an ineffective coach is also someone who displays favouritism as it relates to playing time in order to win. An athlete stated: “I see it as a coach who has his favourite players on the team. A coach who always plays the same players and does not give other players an opportunity to develop” (A26).

Not organised. Ineffective coaches were also perceived by a number of athletes as people who are not organised. Two athletes asserted: “It is a coach who puts together his practices at the last minute and who does not arrive on time for matches” (A25) and “He does not really organise his things. During practices, we are pretty much left to ourselves” (A10).

Not knowledgeable. Finally, a few athletes stated that ineffective coaches are those who do not have the necessary knowledge to teach the sport they are coaching. An athlete mentioned: “He does not know his hockey. During practices, we do not progress. The team stays at the same

level with no improvements. He does not know what to say or what to do. That is a really bad coach” (A22).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the sporting environment and coaching behaviours preferred by high school athletes. Results indicate that athletes prefer an environment that promotes participation and development over competition and winning and believe effective coaches are: (a) supportive, (b) knowledgeable, (c) centred on athlete development, (d) good motivators, (e) demanding and challenging, and (f) organised. Conversely, athletes believe ineffective coaches are: (a) not supportive, (b) focused on winning, (c) not organised, and (d) not knowledgeable. Athletes in the past research presented in Table 1 also cited many of the coaching behaviours identified in this study. As a result, it appears that some coaching behaviours (e.g. being supportive, having a positive approach) have universal appeal and are preferred by athletes involved in a wide range of sporting environments and levels. Such results confirm that coaches in all contexts must offer adequate support and work to develop meaningful relationships with their athletes (Camiré, Forneris, Trudel, & Bernard, 2011). It is by nurturing relationships that are based on compassion and respect that coaches can gain their athletes’ trust and can have a lasting and positive influence on their development. The worth of this study lies in how it provided a voice to high school athletes as they shared concrete examples of preferred behaviours that, according to Chelladurai’s (1984) multidimensional model of leadership, coaches should work to integrate in their actual behaviours in order to increase athletes’ satisfaction in sport.

Although athletes prefer some coaching behaviours across contexts, Gould and Carson (2008) discussed the importance of not viewing sport as a single entity and how researchers must

take into consideration the differences of diverse sporting environments. The current study acknowledged this recommendation by specifically examining the context of high school sport in Canada and it is important to highlight some of the unique and significant findings. First, it was interesting to note how some athletes believed an effective high school coach is someone who uses sport to teach athletes more than just sport skills but also important life lessons. This has previously only been reported by athletes in a few studies (e.g., Becker, 2009) and suggests that high school athletes have a particularly good understanding of the greater role that school sport should play in the lives of youth, a mandate that differs from that of other contexts such as club sport (Canadian School Sport Federation, 2004; Kirk, 2010). Indeed, in Canada, high school sport programs are often justified based on their educational value (Holt, Tink, Mandigo, & Fox, 2008) and because coaches hold a position of considerable influence (Petitpas et al., 2005), they have a responsibility to use the potential of sport to facilitate athletes' holistic development.

Second, it was also of note how a number of athletes mentioned that an effective coach is someone who understands the importance of prioritising academic achievement. These results are in line with Vallée and Bloom's (2005) model and illustrate how coaches in academic institutions have an obligation to foster athletes' individual growth on the playing surface but most importantly in the classroom. This is an important factor for high school coaches to consider as athletes' eligibility to participate in school sport is often tied to their academic performance. However, as the athletes in this study indicated, high school coaches should do more than simply ensure that their athletes meet the minimum criteria to participate in sport. Ideally, coaches should be in regular contact with school teachers in order to support their athletes' academic performance. As Jones (2006) argued, coaches must view themselves as

educators of youth and must work to foster a learning environment that allows athletes to be fully realised not just in sport but in all areas of life.

Third, many participants in this study indicated that ineffective coaches are those who exhibit behaviours demonstrating that they prioritise winning (e.g. place unreasonable demands, display favouritism, do not distribute playing time equally). These behaviours have been reported in past research (see Table 1) but the original contribution of the current study lies in how it sheds light on the underlying reasons as to why high school athletes particularly dislike such coaching behaviours. Specifically, results showed how high school athletes consider that competition and winning should not take precedence over participation and athlete development. These findings support past research, demonstrating that young athletes primarily enter the realm of sport not necessarily to win but to be active, to have fun, and to participate with their friends (Garcia Bengoechea, Streat, & Williams, 2004). Kirk (2010), citing Daryl Siedentop, stated: “children would rather play on a losing team where they had their fair share of field time than sit on the bench of a winning team” (p.173). As highlighted in the coaching model (Côté et al., 1995) the ultimate goal of coaching consists of developing athletes and this goal can be achieved when coaches consider contextual factors, their own characteristics, as well as athletes’ characteristics. Therefore, it is recommended that high school coaches: (a) understand the specific mandates of the context in which they operate, (b) reflect on their coaching practice and focus their efforts on offering a pleasant sporting experience to all their athletes, and (c) know their athletes’ limits and capabilities.

Fourth, it is essential to mention that the most popular responses provided by the athletes of this study were that they prefer coaches who display supportive behaviours and dislike coaches who do not display supportive behaviours. In order to adequately support athletes’

participation in sport, Camiré et al. (2011) suggested that coaches start by taking time to articulate a well thought-out philosophy. This can be achieved by reflecting on essential questions such as: What do I want my athletes to derive from sport? and Are my athletes having positive experiences in sport? Then, to put into practice an athlete-centred philosophy and a supportive structure, it is recommended that coaches display behaviours such as: (a) making themselves available to their athletes, (b) getting to know their athletes on a personal level, (c) providing athletes with constructive feedback, (d) refraining from using derogatory comments, and (e) giving athletes equal opportunities to participate. Recommendations can also be extended to school administrators who should, for example, focus their efforts on recruiting competent coaches who are knowledgeable about the sport they are coaching and most importantly, who have a proven track-record of prioritising development and of making athletes feel supported and appreciated.

Overall, the strength of this study lies in how it provides athletes with a voice to share their preferences regarding participation in high school sport in Canada. By asking athletes to discuss not only their preferred coaching behaviours but also how they believe the environment should be structured, this article offers researchers and practitioners a more comprehensive picture of the dynamics at work in a context that presents very precise mandates and objectives (Canadian School Sport Federation, 2004). Nonetheless, it is also essential to discuss a few limitations. First, there was an overrepresentation of boys in our sample, which might have an influence on the nature of the responses provided by participants. An interesting future study would consist of examining if differences exist between girls and boys in how they perceive the context of high school sport. Second, the majority of coaches through which participants were recruited were male and having a male coach as a referent may have influenced the results.

Future research in this line of inquiry is needed to examine if athletes look for different characteristics in male or female coaches. Third, our sample consisted of Canadian participants who might not necessarily share the same views as high school athletes in the United States or in other countries because of differences in how the sporting environment is structured. For example, some researchers have argued how more of a ‘sport as business’ mentality exists in the United States as high school athletes are often pushed extensively by parents and coaches to secure university athletic scholarships (Danish, Forneris, Hodge, & Heke, 2004). Therefore, more research is needed to examine the similarities and differences between high school sport structures in different countries and how they influence athletes’ preferences and aspirations.

Conclusion

Given the popularity of high school sport in Canada (Canadian School Sport Federation, 2008) and in many other countries around the world, coaches in this context have the potential to influence the development of a large number of youth. In order to maximise this potential, coaches must, as Jones (2006) stated, reconceptualise their role and view themselves as educators of youth. By promoting participation and athlete development, high school coaches are in preferred position to support athletes in their sport experiences and to facilitate their holistic development. As Collins, Gould, Lauer, and Chung (2009) stated, it is by having high school coaches who treat performance and athlete development as inclusive pursuits of coaching that sport can meet the needs and expectations of athletes and be used as a tool for development.

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Article five

Strategies for helping coaches facilitate positive youth development through sport

Camiré, M., Forneris, T., Trudel, P., & Bernard, D. (2011). Strategies for helping coaches facilitate positive youth development through sport. *Journal of Sport Psychology in Action*, 2, 92-99.

Abstract

Coaches are arguably the most important actors in the youth sport context and play an influential role in facilitating or hindering the development of youth. Despite the great impact they can have on youth development, most coaches have limited training or knowledge on how to structure suitable environments to facilitate youth development. Over the last several years, our research group has conducted a number of studies with exceptional youth sport coaches. In this article, we present some of the strategies these coaches implemented in their coaching practice to promote positive development along with examples of challenges they confronted.

Keywords: life skills; transfer; philosophy; relationship

Strategies for helping coaches facilitate positive youth development through sport

In the context of sport, the adult with whom youth most often interact is the coach. Even though most youth sport coaches generally want to and believe they are able to promote positive developmental outcomes in youth, the current reality is that the majority of coaches do not have formal coach education and therefore may not have extensive knowledge on how to foster suitable environments for development (Coatsworth & Conroy, 2007; McCallister, Blinde, & Weiss, 2000). Petitpas, Cornelius, Van Raalte, and Jones (2005) stated that: “Without trained leadership, it is doubtful that life skills and other positive characteristics are taught in a systematic way” (p.65). Given that mere participation does not guarantee development (Danish, Forneris, Hodge, & Heke, 2004), initiatives must be undertaken to help coaches more effectively facilitate positive youth development in the context of youth sport.

Positive youth development (PYD) is a broad concept used to define the promotion of desirable competencies that lead to positive developmental outcomes for youth (Gould & Carson, 2008). Rather than focus on reducing or eliminating undesirable behaviors, such as violence and drug/alcohol consumption, coaches using a positive youth development approach emphasise the promotion of various competencies (Larson, 2000). These competencies include life skills, which can be behavioral, cognitive, interpersonal, and intrapersonal, that enable youth to succeed in the different environments in which they live (Danish & Nellen, 1997). Examples of life skills include communicating effectively, making good decisions, problem solving, goal setting, leadership, and time management (Danish, Petitpas, & Hale, 1993). In order for a skill to be characterised as a life skill, it must not only be used in sport but must also transfer and help youth succeed in non-sport settings (Danish et al., 2004). Furthermore, in order for life skills to

be learned, they must be intentionally taught in an effective manner by competent coaches (Danish et al., 2004; Petitpas et al., 2005).

Over the last several years, our research group has conducted a number of studies with exceptional high school coaches working in various settings (e.g., private schools, public schools, vocational schools) with adolescent-aged youth (13-19 years of age) (e.g., Camiré, Trudel, & Bernard, 2011; Camiré, Trudel, & Forneris, 2011; Camiré, Trudel, & Lemyre, 2011). In this paper, we offer a summary of major findings. The coaches selected to participate in these studies were deemed exceptional given that they had either won high school coaching awards recognising their work with youth or had been identified by key informants (regional school sport directors) as model coaches who promoted the global (i.e., physical, psychological, social) development of their athletes. Five general strategies to facilitate positive youth development through sport are explained along with concrete examples of activities these coaches implemented in their coaching practice. In addition, some of the challenges coaches confronted when implementing activities are presented. Although the strategies described were implemented by high school coaches, they can be applied by sport coaches working with adolescent-aged youth in a variety of settings.

Strategies for facilitating positive youth development

1. Carefully develop your coaching philosophy

A crucial first step for coaches in establishing an effective coaching practice consisted of developing a well thought-out philosophy that prioritises the physical, psychological, and social development of athletes. When developing their philosophy, coaches considered the context in which they operate (e.g., What is the mission of the school?), the performance demands of their sport (e.g., What type of commitment is needed from athletes?), and the developmental level of

their athletes (e.g., Are my athletes freshmen new to the sport or experienced seniors?). Many coaches used reflection as a preferred strategy to refine their philosophy and reflection proved essential in helping them define the fundamental principles guiding their coaching practice. Coaches asked themselves important questions such as, (a) Am I teaching what I want my athletes to learn through sport?, (b) Are my athletes having positive experiences in sport?, and (c) Am I appropriately balancing winning with athlete development?

An important activity some coaches undertook at the beginning of the season was to present their coaching philosophy to athletes and parents. Specifically, coaches described to athletes and parents how their philosophy was going to be practically implemented in their annual coaching plan. For example, one coach described how self-awareness was important to him and explained to parents how he had activities planned during the season that were designed to help athletes define their core set of values. Presenting their coaching philosophy proved to be a beneficial activity for coaches as it allowed athletes and parents to be exposed from the onset to their approach to coaching.

Although useful, some coaches acknowledged that both reflecting on their philosophy and presenting it to athletes and parents were time-consuming endeavors. Furthermore, sharing their philosophy sometimes created tensions as some coaches realised that parents' values were not always in line with their own values. Finally, some coaches explained how it was sometimes a challenge to have their assistant coaches share and put in practice their philosophy at a level that satisfied them. For more information on coaching philosophies in the youth sport context, see Collins, Gould, Lauer, and Chung (2009).

2. Develop meaningful relationships with your athletes

Many coaches quickly realised that in order to gain athletes' respect and make the coach-athlete relationship work, they first had to demonstrate a certain level of credibility. This meant demonstrating to their athletes that they had the knowledge and skills necessary to coach effectively. Another important aspect coaches considered when developing relationships was their athletes' internal and external assets (Gould & Carson, 2008). Internal assets include the life skills athletes already possess, their personal attributes, and their physical abilities and external assets represent athletes' experiences with previous coaches, their family background, and their socio-economic status. In order to learn more about their athletes' internal and external assets, some coaches held comprehensive selection camps which included fitness testing, practices, and even an interview. This process was crucial to the development of relationships because it helped coaches realise that their athletes did not enter the sporting context as blank slates. In addition, it provided coaches with valuable information when planning developmental strategies for their team.

A practical and effective activity used by many coaches to strengthen the coach-athlete relationship was the organisation of team activities outside of the sporting context. For example, after their teams were selected, some coaches organised a dinner as a team-bonding activity. To ensure that the dinner was productive, coaches purposely planned discussions on specific themes (e.g., having athletes discuss where they are from and what their goals are for the upcoming season) and provided all their athletes an opportunity to share. Coaches also actively participated in these discussions by sharing information about themselves and by informing their athletes that they could be approached in any situation, on and off the playing surface, if athletes had questions, comments, or if they simply wanted to talk.

During the season, to nurture the coach-athlete relationship, some coaches held individual meetings with their athletes. These meetings were beneficial to both parties as they allowed coaches to give their athletes constructive feedback and provided athletes with an opportunity to discuss issues and/or concerns. During the meetings, coaches worked to create a climate in which athletes felt comfortable sharing and discussing ideas without the fear of being reprimanded. Coaches created an inviting climate by acknowledging athletes' ideas in a positive manner and by telling their athletes that they welcome and appreciate their feedback. As a preventative measure, coaches should make efforts to meet their athletes in a public location given concerns about sexual abuse in sport today.

Another activity used by coaches to foster relationships consisted of having athletes keep a journal. One coach had his athletes write weekly journal entries that focused on having athletes discuss, analyse, and evaluate personal events related to sport and/or life. In addition to fostering introspection, reflection, and problem-solving, this type of activity allowed this particular coach to gather information, perceptions, and feelings from his athletes as it relates to what is happening in their everyday lives. The journal was also an excellent tool to better understand his athletes' internal and external assets.

Coaches reported a few challenges associated with performing these activities. First, it was sometimes difficult to organise activities outside of the sporting context and have all team members participate. Second, individual meetings were feasible for coaches in sports with a smaller number of athletes (e.g., basketball) but proved more difficult in sports with a larger number of athletes (e.g., football). Finally, some coaches acknowledged how athletes sometimes viewed the journal entries more as a hassle than a learning opportunity and perhaps did not take

it as seriously as they should have. For more information on the coach-athlete relationship, see Rhind and Jowett (2010).

3. Intentionally plan developmental strategies in your coaching practice

Although a sound philosophy and positive coach-athlete relationships are necessary requirements, they are not sufficient for positive youth development to occur. Coaches understood that life skills had to be taught in a systematic manner in order to be learned. Coaches considered the coaching of life skills and sport as inclusive pursuits and had a number of strategies designed to facilitate positive youth development.

Coaches made efforts to educate their athletes on basic fundamental concepts such as (a) What is a life skill?, (b) What are examples of life skills?, and (c) Why are life skills important? Once these basic concepts were acquired, coaches had activities organised for athletes to further develop various life skills. For example, as it relates to goal setting, some coaches taught their athletes how to create SMART goals (i.e., specific, measurable, attainable, realistic, and timely) and had them elaborate short and long-term goals following these principles. These coaches sat their athletes in a classroom and asked them to come up with short and long-term goals that can be realistically attained and that would help them reach their potential not just in sport, but also at school and in life. To encourage effective communication, some coaches held team debriefing sessions following games and practices and encouraged their athletes to share their opinions regarding what went well and what needed to improve. The goal of these debriefing sessions was to have athletes negotiate and reach a consensus on the progress the team had to make for the upcoming game or practice. In order to foster responsibility, some coaches developed learning contracts with each of their athletes. More specifically, both coach and athlete took time to evaluate the different elements on which they believe the athlete needed to improve. Then,

during coach-athlete meetings, both parties shared their thoughts, negotiated, and reached a consensus on the course of action that had to be taken in order for the athlete to improve. Coaches mentioned how such learning contracts were valuable because they fostered athlete empowerment and helped athletes assume responsibility for their own development.

A few challenges presented themselves when coaches implemented these types of activities in their coaching practice. Some mentioned simply not having the human resources necessary (e.g., assistant coaches) to put in place the activities in an efficient manner on a consistent basis. Others explained how they had too many administrative tasks (e.g., booking tournaments, reserving buses, attending league meetings) and lacked the time necessary to plan and improve their developmental activities. For more information on how to plan developmental activities in the context of youth sport, see Gould and Carson (2008).

4. Do not just talk about life skills, make your athletes practice life skills

A number of coaches understood that life skills must be experienced in order to be effectively learned. To facilitate the experiential learning of decision-making, some coaches encouraged their athletes to participate in some of the decisions that affect team activities. For example, a few coaches negotiated with their athletes practice drills and had them decide on one goal they wanted to achieve by the end of practice. Another activity used by coaches to practice the life skill of leadership consisted of providing team captains with greater responsibilities on and off the playing surface. Finally, some coaches had their athletes practice a wide range of life skills by having them perform volunteer work. For example, rather than organise a traditional practice, one afternoon, an ice hockey coach took his players to a community centre and had them donate their time to teach children how to skate. To ensure the success of this activity, this coach monitored his athletes and helped them carefully plan their interventions by having them

detail the skills they wanted to teach and the specific approach they were going to take in order to do so. Volunteerism is highly advantageous as it allows for development at two levels. Athletes learn organisational skills when planning their volunteer activity and also learn initiative, empathy, and compassion when performing volunteer work.

Coaches mentioned how negotiating the content of practices and giving captains more responsibilities were activities that were relatively easy to implement. The main challenge that confronted coaches was designing, organising, and putting in place volunteer activities. Although highly valuable, planning volunteer activities requires a significant amount of time and effort from coaches. For more information on strategies that allow athletes to practice life skills, see Voelker, Gould, and Crawford (2011).

5. Teach your athletes how life skills transfer to non-sport settings

Most coaches understood the fact that transfer is not an automatic process and that it is something that must be reinforced continuously in an explicit manner. Whenever teachable moments presented themselves, coaches took advantage of them to talk to their athletes about the transferability of life skills and provided athletes concrete examples of situations and contexts in which life skills can be transferred. For example, some coaches discussed how learning to work with teammates is important because the ability to work in a team environment is a valuable skill to have in the workforce. Other coaches encouraged their athletes to set goals in sport and told them how this skill would be useful when and if they decide to pursue post-secondary education. In sum, coaches strived to identify transferable skills and provided encouragement to help their athletes gain the confidence necessary to use their skills in a wide range of situations.

Many coaches believed their athletes had difficulty understanding how the skills learned in sport can be used in other areas of life and mentioned how it was sometimes a challenge to

continuously have to identify specific situations of transfer. These coaches indicated that some athletes were simply not mature enough to make the connection and would only understand the transferability of life skills in later stages of their lives. To learn more about the transfer of life skills, see Martinek, Schilling, and Johnson (2001).

Conclusion

Youth sport coaches play an important role in our society as they provide millions of children an opportunity to be physically fit and learn sport skills. However, for coaches who wish to go beyond sport itself, it is important to recognise that facilitating positive youth development through sport is not an easy endeavor, nor is it automatic. The strategies presented in this paper were meant to increase coaching effectiveness and teaching success. By using sport as a tool for development, all youth sport coaches can nurture the qualities, skills, and attributes necessary for youth to become productive and contributing members of society. As Gould and Carson (2008) stated, sport is a highly desirable setting in which to facilitate positive youth development because it is a valued social activity that attracts a large number of participants. Coaches are in a preferred position to use the power of sport to positively influence the lives of their athletes in a lasting manner.

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General discussion

The general purpose of this doctoral dissertation was to examine how high school sport can be framed as a context that facilitates positive youth development. Based on the data gathered in phase one of data collection, one article was written. In this first article, a case study of a high school ice hockey program designed to teach life skills and values was presented. Results indicated that program leaders had a philosophy and strategies that were purposefully designed to teach players life skills and values but that they faced many challenges in sustaining the program. It was interesting for the researcher to observe, throughout the entire season, how the program's philosophy was implemented in actual practice mainly because it was negotiated by those in positions of authority. Results demonstrated how the school principal and program director shared views on what they believe should be the fundamental purpose of the program. Furthermore, the program director had strategies in place to carefully select his coaches, thereby ensuring that they also shared the program's philosophy and worked diligently to put it into practice. The findings of this study support and extend past research by demonstrating how those who have well established philosophies are in the best position to use sport to develop athletes' skills (Collins, Gould, Lauer, & Chung, 2009).

Another interesting finding was how program leaders understood the importance of developing meaningful relationships with their players in order to gain their trust and respect. A three day cottage retreat was specifically planned at the start of the season by the coaching staff to create relationships with players. Players participated in team bonding activities throughout the weekend which allowed them to develop connections with their new teammates and coaches. Past research indicates how coaches who are able to develop special bonds with athletes can foster positive developmental experiences for youth (Becker, 2009; Fraser-Thomas & Côté,

2009). Once relationships were formed, a wide range of strategies with the purpose of facilitating positive youth development were implemented. These strategies were carefully planned and delivered throughout the season, using the player's handbook, and allowed players to develop various life skills and values. Past research on sport programs that intentionally teach life skills indicates how specifically designed developmental activities allow youth to learn life skills that can have positive influences on their development (Hellison & Walsh, 2002; Papacharisis et al., 2005; Petitpas et al., 2008). Despite being successful at exposing players to a number of strategies that promote development, the results of this study indicate that it was challenging to sustain this type of program in the school context. Financial limitations meant that the program director could not hire the staff necessary to conduct all the desired program activities. Staff members had to spend considerable amounts of time conducting administrative duties and fundraising initiatives, meaning that they had less time to implement new developmental strategies and to reflect on ways to improve the program. The original contribution of this article lies in how it was able to demonstrate that life skills can be intentionally taught through sport in the school system but that proper resources must be made available to create conditions in which coaches can plan developmental strategies that will help players succeed in sport and in life.

In this article, players, parents, and coaches also provided their perspectives on how the ice hockey program influenced the development of players. Findings indicated that participants believed players were learning a wide range of life skills and values that can be transferred and applied in settings such as school and work. These findings support past research indicating how stakeholders believe that high school sport participation allows players to develop a variety of life skills and values that can be transferred to other life domains (Camiré & Trudel, 2010; Camiré, Trudel, & Forneris, 2009ab). Players, parents, and coaches stated that the program's

emphasis on human development and the focus on academics were all factors that promoted player development. This study serves as a useful example, demonstrating how even a sport like ice hockey, which is considered by many to be violent and aggressive, can be used as a tool for development if a comprehensive approach is undertaken to put the global development of players as a first priority.

In the second phase of data collection, interviews were conducted with model high school coaches and some of their athletes. Based on the data gathered, three articles were written (articles two, three, and four). In article two, the strategies used by model high school coaches to teach life skills and how life skills transfer to other areas of life were examined. Using Gould and Carson's (2008) model of coaching life skills through sport was useful because it clearly delineates the factors coaches must consider in order to effectively promote youth development. Findings indicated that model coaches did not just teach their students the technical and tactical aspects of sport nor did they focus solely on occupying students' free time. Rather, they intentionally taught students important life skills such as social courtesy, respect, self-awareness, perseverance, teamwork, and leadership. Furthermore, these coaches were proficient at talking to students and making them realise how the skills they learn in sport can be transferred to other areas of life. Coaches not only talked about transfer but also made their students practice transfer through drills, volunteer work, and other team activities. In general, it appears that the coaches in this study clearly understood the importance of using sport not as an end in itself but as a tool for development. Students acknowledged how interacting with these coaches was beneficial to their overall development as a person. As it relates to transfer, it is essential to mention that many students reported understanding how the life skills learned in sport can be applied elsewhere. However, some students did not appear to grasp how transfer occurs as they probably had not

attained the necessary level of maturity and/or cognitive development. This article contributes to the literature on youth development by drawing attention to the fact that transfer is not an automatic process. To foster transfer, life skills must be continuously reinforced over significant periods of time by competent coaches. These results are in line with the work of Martinek, Schilling, and Johnson (2001) who showed, in a study with underserved youth, how youth often struggle to transfer skills to the classroom. By demonstrating that not all students were aware of the skills they learned through sport and how these skills can be transferred, the results of this study highlight how it is essential for coaches to design strategies to teach life skills and life skill transfer if they want to have a powerful and lasting influence on their students' development.

In article three, the purpose was to examine how model coaches learned to facilitate positive youth development through sport. Nelson et al.'s (2006) holistic conceptualisation of coach learning was used to frame the different situations in which coaches learn (i.e., formal, non-formal, informal). Concerning formal coach education courses, coaches had mixed opinions concerning their value in helping them learn how to facilitate PYD. On one hand, the coaches who participated in coach education courses when they were young stated that the courses were beneficial because they exposed them to the fundamental values of sport and helped them develop a coaching philosophy that is based on facilitating PYD. On the other hand, some coaches felt that coach education courses were of limited use to learn about the development of youth because the courses they took only promoted surface learning or simply did not address this type of material. These results are consistent with past research as youth sport coaches with varying levels of experience have been shown to have different opinions regarding the usefulness of formal coach education courses (Lemyre and Trudel 2004; Wright et al. 2007). A university education was perceived as a valuable formal learning experience that helped all coaches

develop critical-thinking skills and pedagogical tools necessary for facilitating PYD. Non-formal learning situations, such as conferences, were used by many coaches to refine their knowledge and redefine their coaching philosophy. Despite being motivated to participate in conferences, some coaches mentioned how time and money were two factors that restricted their ability to take part in these non-formal learning situations. Gilbert, Lichtenwaladt, Gilbert, Zelezny, and Côté (2009) discussed how youth sport coaches must be afforded opportunities throughout their careers to engage in continuing professional development as it allows them to create and share knowledge with coaching peers. Finally, a number of informal learning situations were discussed by the coaches. Although the internet was not considered to be useful to learn how to facilitate PYD, books were believed to be important tools that made some coaches realise the importance of using sport as a tool for development. Interactions with fellow coaches were also important learning situations as they were seen by coaches as helpful in refining their intervention strategies and solving coaching problems. It was interesting to note how many coaches stated that becoming a parent was probably the most significant life experience that influenced their coaching philosophy. Coaches who had children believed it was a catalyst that transformed their approach to coaching and made them adopt a coaching style that is much more focused on developing youth. Parenthood made coaches realise that the young athletes they are coaching are people's sons and daughters and that it is more important to prioritise development than to focus on winning. However, it is important to state that coaches do not necessarily need to be parents in order to be good coaches. It is the perspective developed as a result of the responsibilities that accompany parenthood that most probably helps explain why this significant life event influences coaches in a positive manner. Therefore, in order to promote learning, coaches should seek out situations that force them to reflect on their practice and innovate. As Côté and Gilbert

(2009) stated, coaching is a complex activity and to be effective, coaches must learn to integrate various sources of knowledge, understand the context in which they operate, and work to promote athletes' global development. The worth of this study lies in how it demonstrates that it is essential for coaches to 'learn how to learn', adopt a lifelong learning approach, and take advantage of learning opportunities when they are presented to them in order to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to facilitate PYD.

Article four examined the preferred coaching characteristics of high school athletes. Findings indicated that athletes prefer coaches who (a) are supportive, (b) knowledgeable about the sport they are coaching, (c) prioritise athlete development, (d) are good motivators (e) are demanding and challenging, (f) are well organised. These results support past research indicating how coaches who exhibit such behaviours are in the best position to foster positive experiences and motivate their athletes to remain engaged in sport (Becker, 2009; Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2008; Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009). On the other hand, ineffective coaches were perceived by athletes as those who are (a) not supportive, (b) prioritise winning, (c) are not organised, and (d) are not knowledgeable about the sport they are coaching. The original contribution of article four resides in how it not only supports past findings but also extends them by documenting the processes involved in the formation of athletes' perceptions of effective and ineffective coaches. Indeed, by demonstrating that athletes favour a context that promotes participation and coaches who focus on athlete development, it is possible to understand some of the underlying reasons as to why athletes favour coaches who share particular characteristics. Based on their responses, it appears that athletes share views that correspond with those of the Canadian School Sport Federation that the fundamental mandate of high school sport should be to encourage the global development of athletes. Such findings also suggest that athletes

understand that high school sport should be framed as an extension of the classroom (Holt et al., 2008) and that high school coaches should play a greater role in the development of athletes rather than simply promote competition and winning. These results can inform high school coaches and motivate them to adopt an athlete-centred approach and offer athletes the support they need. In order to solve the long-standing dilemma between development and winning, coaches should make efforts to treat both outcomes as inclusive pursuits of coaching while focusing on allowing athletes to have fun, be active, and be with their friends (Collins et al., 2009; Garcia Bengoechea, Streat, & Williams, 2004).

Based on the results of the two phases of data collection, a fifth article was written to provide coaches with practical strategies on how to facilitate positive youth development through sport. Five general strategies were suggested: (a) develop a coaching philosophy, (b) develop relationships with athletes, (c) have developmental strategies in your coaching practice, (d) make athletes practice life skills, and (e) teach athletes about the transferability of life skills. These strategies can greatly help coaches define the fundamental principles guiding their coaching and assist them in putting these principles into actual practice. As Gould and Carson (2008) stated, sport is a highly desirable setting in which to facilitate youth development because it is a valued social activity that attracts a large number of participants. Coaches are in a position of considerable influence and have a responsibility to use the power of sport to positively influence the lives of their athletes in a lasting manner.

Limitations

It is essential to address some of the limitations of the studies conducted as part of doctoral dissertation. In the first phase of data collection, members of a high school ice hockey program were interviewed and observed over the course of an entire sport season to better

understand the program's functioning. As mentioned in the methodology section, this program had several unique features that distinguished it from regular high school sport programs in Canada. As a result, it is essential not to generalise that all high school sport programs have a philosophy, strategies, and challenges analogous to those of the program presented in article one. It should also be noted that the first study was conducted in a single sport (ice hockey) and entirely with male participants. Consequently, readers should be careful when making inferences to other sports and to females. Another limitation that is important to consider is that the life skills and values discussed in article one reflect those that the participants believe were learned in the program. There might be a discrepancy between the life skills and values that were believed to be learned and those that were actually developed by the students.

In the second phase of data collection, articles examined (a) how high school coaches teach life skills (article two), (b) how high school coaches learn to facilitate positive youth development through sport (article three), and (c) athletes' preferred coaching characteristics (article four). An important point to consider is that the model coaches recruited in phase two were not representative of typical high school coaches in Canada as they were specifically recruited for having philosophies and strategies that facilitate positive youth development. As a result, readers should not assume that all high school coaches have a wide repertoire of strategies specifically designed to teach life skills. Furthermore, snowball sampling was employed as coaches were asked to recruit athletes from their teams to participate in the study. Having coaches involved in the recruitment of the athletes in articles two and four may have led to a selection bias. In article three, it is necessary to point out that there was an overrepresentation of male coaches in our sample which might have influenced the types of answers provided. Finally, it is important to state one general limitation that applies to both phases of data collection. High

school sport is a specific sporting context with particular mandates and objectives and as a result, the findings and recommendations reported by the researcher may not be necessarily applicable to other settings such as community/club sports.

Future research

Despite some limitations, the findings of this doctoral dissertation have increased our understanding of how high school sport can be used as a tool to facilitate positive youth development. The results have also raised a number of interesting questions that future investigations should examine more closely. Looking at the results of article one, it appears that within the school system, it is possible to develop and implement a sport program that promotes the development of students. However, given the particular characteristics of the studied program, future research is needed to examine how regular sport programs (e.g., no sport-study format, no full-time coaches) can intentionally promote the positive development of youth and the challenges these programs might face. Research is also needed to better understand how the resources of sport programs can be maximised, thereby allowing high school coaches to focus on teaching their students life skills and values and not be overwhelmed with administrative and fundraising duties. Participants in this case study reported that being involved in the ice hockey program led to positive outcomes; however, in order to provide support to participants' perspectives, outcome evaluations of sport programs that intentionally teach life skills and values should be conducted to determine the actual benefits that can be derived. It is also important to consider that most of the past research on ice hockey has been conducted in the community context. Therefore, future research is needed to better understand how the school setting can minimise the influence of ice hockey's sub-culture and promote positive youth development.

The findings of article two demonstrate how model coaches intentionally teach students life skills and how to transfer life skills to other life domains. Many coaches discussed that it is important to reinforce transfer given that some students are unfamiliar with this concept.

Although this study has shown that model coaches have strategies to educate students about transfer, additional studies are needed to examine how coaches who have not been identified as model coaches can make students become more aware of the transferability of the skills they learn in sport. In addition, future research is needed to uncover the most effective strategies for teaching youth about the transferability of skills.

In article three, results suggested that coaches learned to facilitate positive youth development in a wide range of learning situations. Given that no research on this particular subject has been conducted in the past, future research is needed to explore in greater detail how coaches in different sports and in different settings learn to facilitate positive youth development. In addition, more research is needed to better understand how and why parenthood appears to be an important catalyst in the development of many coaches, making them realise the importance of adopting an approach that places athlete development as a first priority. Given that the influence of parenthood on coaches' learning has not been explored, future research should focus on how this particular life experience influences youth sport coaches' philosophy and practice.

In article four, athletes discussed that support is the most important behaviour differentiating an effective coach from an ineffective coach. Additional research is needed to probe deeper into how athletes believe supportive coaches influence their development and their motivation to participate in sport. Although article four highlighted that athletes prefer a context that promotes participation, future research is needed to explore in greater detail the motivations of athletes to participate in high school sport.

Practical implications

The strategies presented in the five articles of this dissertation can be used by practitioners and applied in the youth sport context. The findings of article one demonstrate how a sport program with the fundamental purpose of promoting the development of students can be implemented in the context of high school sport. However, for successful program implementation, a number of elements must be taken into consideration. First, for school administrators, they must ensure that coaches share a philosophy that is based on promoting the development of youth. Additionally, administrators must be creative and work to maximise the resources at their disposal. For coaches, they must make efforts to develop meaningful relationships with their athletes that are built on trust and respect. Once relationships are created, coaches need to carefully plan developmental strategies on a regular basis to teach their students life skills and values.

The results of this article also demonstrate how it is possible to promote the global development of students when the primary objective of the program is to facilitate the acquisition of life skills and values. Results highlight how parents and students had favourable opinions of the program, stating that it allowed students to develop in a positive manner. Administrators and coaches can use these findings as a concrete example of how high school sports can be practiced and experienced in an innovative manner. By adopting an asset building perspective and by considering youth as resources to be developed rather than problems to be managed, coaches can create an environment in which high school sport benefits the lives of participants.

The results of article two indicate how coaches are in a preferred position to facilitate the development of students when they use a wide range of strategies to teach life skills and life skill transfer. Practitioners can use the results of this article to frame how they want to work with their

athletes. It is essential for coaches who want to develop their students to take a proactive approach and concentrate their efforts on teaching life skills and life skills transfer rather than taking a passive approach and simply occupying youth's free time and thereby preventing them from engaging in risky behaviours.

Article three was the first of its kind to examine how high school coaches learned to facilitate positive youth development through sport. The findings indicate how the model coaches in this study were motivated learners who, through a variety of experiences, developed a coaching philosophy that is based on promoting the development of students. Coaches can use these findings to understand that continuously learning through various situations is essential in order to become and remain an effective coach. As Jarvis (2006) stated, through the whole of our social experiences, we are always transforming and integrating our perceptions of our life world into our biography. Learning is a continuously evolving process and as a result, high school coaches must adopt a lifelong learning approach and always seek new knowledge in order to improve their coaching practice and offer a quality sporting experience that benefits the global development of students.

The results of article four offer valuable information as they can help coaches frame their coaching practice in line with athletes' preferences. Support was deemed to be the most important behaviour athletes prefer in coaches. This means that coaches should make themselves available to athletes, work to develop good communication skills, offer constructive feedback, and promote pleasure and participation if they wish to offer their athletes a rewarding and positive sporting experience. By promoting participation and offering athletes a supportive environment, coaches are in a preferred position to develop trusting relationships with their

athletes which has been shown to be a necessary precursor to the effective teaching of life skills and values (Petitpas et al., 2005).

Despite their worth as separate entities, the four empirical articles have the most practical usefulness when they are integrated to inform coaches about the process of coaching for development. Consequently, it was decided to write a fifth article and provide coaches with practical strategies on how to facilitate positive youth development through sport. Given the complex and dynamic nature of coaching (Cushion, 2007; 2010; Cushion, Armour & Jones, 2006), care was taken to write article five in an accessible style in order to inform coaches and further broaden their understanding of coaching in the context of high school sport. Results from previous research indicate how coaches generally believe they have the necessary knowledge to coach youth sport because they perceive that coaching in this context requires little effort and that their past athletic experiences provide them with the tools necessary to be effective (McCallister, Blinde, & Weiss, 2000). However, it is important to recognise that the current reality in youth sport is that most coaches have minimal coach training/knowledge (Petitpas et al., 2005), are largely left to themselves to define their coaching philosophy (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004), and generally do not include specific strategies in their coaching plan to teach life skills (McCallister et al., 2000). The five strategies presented in article five are meant to help coaches understand that they must adopt a philosophy that is based on development and that they have to nurture supportive and respectful relationships with their athletes. Furthermore, an effective coaching practice requires that coaches teach life skills and values in an intentional and systematic manner. These strategies can be used by youth sport coaches in a variety of sport settings and were developed to make coaches more aware of the responsibility they have to positively influence youth through sport.

The results of this dissertation can also be integrated into formal coach education courses which have been shown to neglect discussing issues related to positive youth development (Gould, Chung, Smith, & White, 2006). For instance, the developmental strategies discussed in articles one and five could be used to provide coaches with examples of activities they can implement to teach life skills and values through sport. Furthermore, in coaching courses, coaches could be exposed to the preferred characteristics of high school athletes that were discussed in article four. This information could potentially help a large number of coaches reframe their coaching practice and increase their awareness of the importance of displaying supportive and constructive behaviours. Ultimately, the objective of integrating the results of this dissertation into coach education would be to have more coaches who work to develop not only great sportspersons, but also responsible and accomplished citizens in all life domains.

Conclusion

High school sport is a popular practice in Canada and in many other countries around the world. If this context is to truly be considered an extension of the classroom and meet the mandates communicated by school sport organisations, efforts must be made to teach students important life skills and values (Camiré et al., 2009). This doctoral dissertation contributes to the scientific literature on positive youth development through sport by increasing our understanding of how high school sport can be framed as a context that facilitates the development of students. Findings from phase one demonstrated how the context of high school sport can be modified and structured to promote the development of students. Findings from phase two demonstrated how model coaches can work within high school sport's existing structure and develop strategies that foster students' growth. The findings of this doctoral dissertation have many practical applications as they can inform school administrators and coaches and be integrated into coach

education. Although the findings of this dissertation have generated new knowledge, many questions remain unanswered. More research is needed to examine how the appropriate social, contextual, and pedagogical circumstances can be created in order for school sport to be an environment in which youth can learn about themselves and acquire life skills and values that can benefit them in all areas of life.

Statement of Contribution

I, Martin Camiré, was responsible for gathering and analysing data in the two phases of data collection. Furthermore, I was entirely responsible for writing the five articles part of this doctoral dissertation. Dr. Pierre Trudel reviewed all five articles on numerous occasions and provided valuable feedback as it relates to the overall organisation and orientation of each article. Therefore, Dr. Trudel's contribution was at a conceptual and organisational level. In articles one and five, Dr. Dany Bernard, who was the director of the program studied in the first phase of data collection, provided feedback regarding my descriptions of the program's structure and corrected several inaccuracies. In articles two, three, and five, Dr. Tanya Forneris ensured that the frameworks used were accurately described, that there were no grammar mistakes, and that the articles respected journal guidelines.

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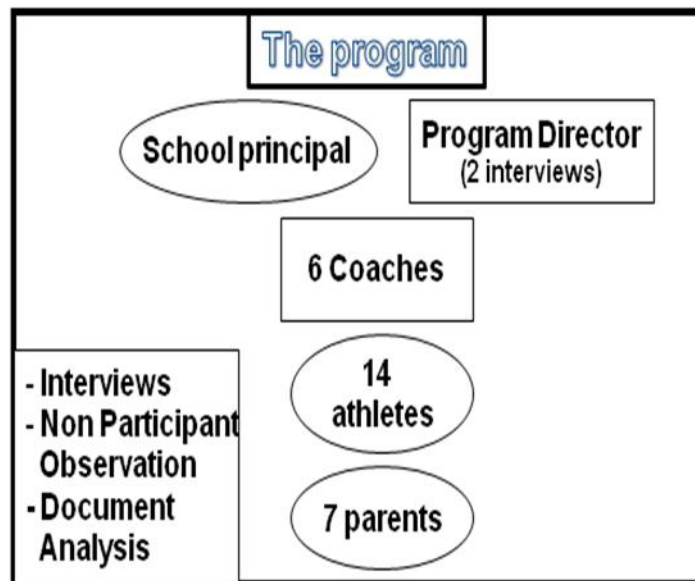
Appendices

Appendix A

Case Study Protocol Phase One

Phase 1: Single Case Study Protocol

High School “Sport-Study” Ice Hockey Program



Total Number of Interviews: 30

Appendix B

List of Observations Phase One

Non-Participant Observation (14 days) Académie St-Louis Sport-Study Ice Hockey Program

On ice practices

1. On-ice practice for Benjamin Scolaire A 10:00 am October 26
2. On ice practice practice for Relève team 3:15 pm October 26
3. On-ice practice for Relève Team 2:00 pm October 29
4. On-ice practice 2 prep school teams (Espoir and Relève) 3:15 pm November 30
5. On-ice practice for Relève team 3:15 pm March 22
6. On ice practice for Relève team 2:00 pm March 25

Off ice practices

1. Off-ice conditioning for Espoir team 1:45 pm October 27
2. Off-ice conditioning for Benjamin Traditionnel team 10:10 am November 30
3. Off-ice conditioning for Benjamin Scolaire team 9:30 am March 25
4. Off-ice conditioning for Benjamin Traditionnel team 10:00 am April 14
5. Off ice training Pool at PEPS Secondaire 3-4-5 1:30 pm April15

Development classes

1. Development class Relève team class on **Values** 1:30 pm October 26
2. Development class Benjamin class on **Nutrition** 9:45 am October 27
3. Development class Benjamin Traditionel class on **Mission** 10:00 am December 2
4. Development class Benjamin Scolaire class on **Goal Setting** 10:00 am March 23
5. Development class Espoir Team class on **Trip to Denver** 1:30 pm March 23

Games

1. Regular season game Benjamin Scolaire A vs Gaulois de Israeli 2:00 pm December 1
2. Regular season game Relève vs Deerfield Academy 7:30 pm January 22
3. Regular season game Relève vs Exeter Academy 3:30 pm January 23
4. Regular season game Benjamin Scolaire B 8:30 am March 24
5. Regular season game Benjamin Scolaire A 10:30 am March 24

Life Skill Strategies

1. Captain's Election – Benjamin Scolaire ASL-A 10:00 am October 29
2. Quebec en Forme Volunteer Work – Secondaire 3-4-5 1:30 pm November 30
3. Educational Film Viewing – Relève 2:00pm January 22, 8:30 pm January 23

Coach-Athlete Meetings

1. Coach-athlete reunion on school grades 10:25 am December 2

Coach-Parent-Athlete Meetings

1. Coach-parent-athlete reunion (2) 5:00 pm October 26

Appendix C

Interview Guide School Principal (French)

Guide d'entrevue (administrateur)

Questions démographiques:

1. Depuis quand êtes-vous directeur ici à l'Académie St-Louis?
2. Étiez-vous enseignant avant d'être directeur?
 - a. Quelle matière enseigniez-vous?
 - b. Pendant combien d'années?
3. Avez-vous eu d'autres carrières à part d'être enseignant et directeur?

1. La place qu'occupe le sport à mon école

1. Selon vous, quelle est la raison principale d'avoir des sports dans les écoles secondaires?
2. Quelle place diriez-vous que les sports occupent à votre école?
3. Comment fonctionnent vos programmes sportifs ici à l'ASL?
 - a. Particularités des programmes Étude-Sport?
4. Selon vous, comment est-ce que les athlètes devraient gérer leurs obligations scolaires et les sports?
5. Quel est votre rôle à titre de directeur pour le programme des sports ici à l'Académie St-Louis?
6. Combien de sports sont offerts à l'école?
 - a. Nombre d'équipes?
 - b. Ratio d'équipes masculines/féminines?
 - i. Est-ce que c'est une priorité pour l'école d'offrir aux garçons et aux filles les mêmes opportunités de pratiquer des sports?
7. Selon vous, quel est le pourcentage approximatif d'étudiants à l'école qui font parti des équipes sportives compétitives?
8. Dans les années à venir, est-ce que l'ASL prévoit augmenter le nombre d'étudiants impliqués dans les sports scolaires?
9. Est-ce que les parents sont impliqués dans le programme sportif de l'école?
 - a. Avez-vous des contacts avec les parents à propos des sports?
10. Selon vous, quel est le plus grand défi auquel le programme sportif de l'ASL fait face?

2. Développement des jeunes à travers le sport

10. Pourriez-vous me parler de votre projet éducatif ici à l'ASL?
 - a. Développement Intégral
 - i. Plan Intellectuel
 - ii. Plan Social et Personnel
 - iii. Plan Spirituel

- b. Comment est-ce que les sports s'insèrent au sein du projet éducatif?
- 11. Croyez-vous que les sports scolaires favorisent le développement intégral des jeunes?
 - a. Exemples d'initiatives pour promouvoir le développement?
 - b. Quels types d'habiletés apprennent-ils?
- 12. Croyez-vous que les habiletés apprises en sport peuvent être appliqués dans d'autres sphères de la vie?
 - a. Selon vous, quels types d'habiletés peuvent être transférés?
 - b. Avez-vous des exemples de comment ses habiletés peuvent être appliqués dans d'autres sphères?

2. Le recrutement des entraîneurs

- 1. Comment est-ce que vous procédez pour recruter vos entraîneurs ici à l'ASL?
- 2. Pourriez-vous me décrire le type d'entraîneur que vous recherchez généralement?
- 3. Pourriez-vous me décrire la facilité ou la difficulté que vous avez à recruter des entraîneurs?
- 4. Est-ce que vous demandez aux entraîneurs d'être certifié afin de pouvoir entraîner à l'école?
- 5. En général, d'où viennent les entraîneurs?
 - a. Personnel enseignant?
 - b. Communauté externe?
- 6. Est-ce qu'il y a un processus pour évaluer la performance des entraîneurs?
 - a. Si oui, quels sont les critères d'évaluations?

3. Le support offert aux entraîneurs

- 1. Pourriez-vous me décrire vos interactions avec les entraîneurs ou directeurs des différents sports ici à l'ASL?
- 2. Est-ce que les entraîneurs reçoivent une compensation monétaire pour entraîner?
 - a. Combien?
 - b. Autres types de compensations?
 - i. Dégrèvement d'enseignement?
- 3. Est-ce que l'école fournit des opportunités de formation en coaching aux entraîneurs?
 - a. Formation formelle (PNCE, cliniques, séminaires)?
- 4. Est-ce que les entraîneurs à votre école se rencontrent régulièrement afin d'échanger, de collaborer et de discuter du coaching?
- 5. Y a-t-il à la fin de l'année scolaire un gala sportif pour reconnaître les réalisations des athlètes et des entraîneurs?
 - a. Pouvez-vous décrire les types de prix décernés?
 - b. Pouvez-vous décrire l'importance de cette cérémonie à l'école?

4. L'entraîneur 'modèle' à mon école

- 1. Selon vous, quels sont les caractéristiques et comportements d'un entraîneur 'modèle' dans le contexte du sport scolaire?
- 2. Comparativement, pouvez-vous me décrire ce que vous considérez être du mauvais coaching?

3. Pourrais-tu me décrire M. Dany Bernard et comment il est à titre d'entraîneur et directeur du programme de hockey?
4. Selon vous, qu'est-ce que M. Bernard incorpore dans sa pratique du coaching pour promouvoir le développement des jeunes?
5. Qu'est-ce qui distingue M. Bernard des autres entraîneurs?

Merci!

Appendix D

Interview Guide Program Director (Interview One) (French)

Guide d'entrevue (directeur du programme)

1. Mon expérience en sport comme athlète et entraîneur (Biographie)

1. Âge?
2. Occupation?
3. Éducation?

Grande question générale

4. Pourquoi est-ce que tu coach et que tu as développé un programme de hockey ici à l'Académie St-Louis?

Athlète

1. Pratiques-tu présentement des sports?
 - a. Lesquels?
2. As-tu pratiqué des sports dans le passé?
 - a. Lesquels? La durée? Le niveau?
3. Crois-tu que tu as retiré quelque chose de tes expériences en tant qu'athlète?
 - a. Quoi?
 - b. Niveau 3 = Est-ce que tes anciens entraîneurs avaient des stratégies spécifiques pour promouvoir le développement des jeunes?
 - c. Niveau 4 = Les choses que tu as appris en sport comme athlète, sont-elles utiles dans d'autres aspects de ta vie?

Entraîneur

1. Peux-tu me décrire tes expériences comme entraîneur en milieu scolaire?
2. Depuis combien d'années es-tu entraîneur au secondaire?
 - d. Assistant entraîneur
 - e. Entraîneur
3. Est-ce que tu coach des sports à l'extérieur de l'école?
 - a. Lesquels?
4. Est-ce que tu planifies coacher durant les années à venir?

Directeur

1. Depuis quand es-tu directeur du programme de hockey?
2. En gros, quelles sont tes fonctions?

2. Apprentissages en coaching

1. Connais-tu le Programme National de Certifications des Entraîneurs (PNCE)?
 - f. Es-tu certifié à travers le PNCE ou une autre organisation?
 - g. Quand as-tu reçu ta certification?

- h. Pour quelle raison as-tu décidé de devenir certifié?
 - i. Est-ce que tu considères que cette certification est utile pour entraîner?
 - i. Comment?
- 2. Est-ce qu'il y a d'autres situations d'apprentissage qui informent ton coaching?
 - a. Livres, DVD
 - b. Mentor en coaching
 - c. Internet
 - d. Cliniques, séminaires, conférences
 - e. Selon toi, est-ce que c'est important pour un entraîneur d'aller chercher de l'information et des connaissances à travers ces situations?
 - a. Pourquoi?
 - f. Est-ce que tu as appris comment développer des environnements propices au développement des jeunes dans ces situations?
- 3. Est-ce que tu fais de la réflexion sur ta pratique du coaching?
 - a. Si oui, décris-moi à quoi tu réfléchis?
 - b. Est-ce que c'est important pour toi la réflexion?
 - i. Pourquoi?
 - a. As-tu des outils ou stratégies qui t'aide à réfléchir sur ton coaching?
 - i. Lesquels?

3. Mon approche en coaching (Philosophie)

- 1. Peux-tu me décrire ta philosophie du coaching dans le contexte du sport scolaire?
 - a. Pour quelles raisons considères-tu qu'il est important d'avoir une philosophie qui met l'accent sur ces éléments dans le contexte du sport scolaire?
 - b. Relation coach/athlète**
 - i. Est-ce que c'est important pour toi de développer des relations significatives avec tes athlètes ?
 - ii. Pourquoi est-ce important?
 - iii. Comment procèdes-tu à développer des relations avec tes athlètes?
 - c. Victoire versus développement**
 - i. Comment important est-ce que c'est pour toi de gagner?
 - ii. Est-ce que tu essayes de trouver un juste milieu entre la victoire et le développement des jeunes?
 - iii. Comment est-ce que tu arrives à concilier les deux ?
 - d. Entraîneur comme modèle**
 - i. Est-ce que tu crois que les athlètes voient les entraîneurs comme des modèles?
 - ii. Est-ce que tu te considères comme un modèle?
 - iii. Qu'est-ce que tu fais pour agir à titre de modèle?
 - iv. Comment as-tu appris à agir comme un modèle à suivre pour les jeunes ?
 - e. Distribution du temps de glace**
 - i. Comment est-ce que tu distribues le temps de glace entre tes joueurs?
 - ii. À la fin d'une partie importante?
 - iii. Pour quelles raisons choisis-tu de distribuer le temps de glace de cette façon?

2. Pourrais-tu me décrire comment tu as développé ta philosophie?
 - a. Comment as-tu appris à propos de l'importance d'avoir une philosophie qui met l'emphasis sur le développement des jeunes?
 - i. Est-ce qu'il y a un ou des moments spécifiques ou c'est plus graduel?
 - b. Influence des expériences passées**
 - i. Crois-tu que tes expériences en tant qu'athlète ont influencé ta philosophie du coaching?
 1. Comment?
 - ii. Est-ce qu'il y a d'autres expériences que tu as eu dans ta vie que tu crois qui ont influencé ta philosophie du coaching?

3. Développement des jeunes

- a. Selon toi, pour le développement des jeunes, est-ce que c'est mieux de les suivre de près afin de guider leurs comportements dans la bonne direction ou est-ce c'est mieux de leur donner une certaine autonomie pour qu'ils puissent apprendre par eux-mêmes?
- b. Selon toi, quel est l'envergure de l'influence du sport sur le développement des jeunes, est-ce que c'est une petite ou grande influence?

4. Mettre en pratique mon approche en coaching

1. Comment est-ce que tu procèdes pour mettre en pratique ta philosophie?

Niveau 3 = Stratégies pour le développement des jeunes

- a. Exemples de stratégies ?
- b. Comment as-tu appris ces stratégies ?
- c. Est-ce qu'il y a des défis/obstacles qui surviennent lorsque tu mets en place ces stratégies?
 - i. Lesquels ?
 - ii. Est-ce que l'aspect compétitif du hockey est un obstacle?
 - iii. Est-ce que tu considères que les jeunes sont réceptifs à ce type de matériel?
- d. Comment est-ce que tu règles ces défis/obstacles?
- e. As-tu appris des leçons du processus de mettre en place des stratégies pour le développement des jeunes?
 - i. Lesquels?

Niveau 4 = Transfer des aptitudes de vie

2. Crois-tu que les aptitudes que les jeunes développent en sport peuvent être utilisées dans d'autres domaines de la vie ? (concept de transfert)
 - c. Quelles aptitudes sont, selon toi, le plus important?
 - d. Peux-tu donner des exemples de comment les aptitudes apprises en sport peuvent être utilisées dans d'autres sphères? (école, travail)?
 - e. Est-ce que tu utilises des stratégies pour dire ou montrer à tes athlètes comment ils peuvent utiliser les aptitudes apprises en sport dans d'autres sphères?

- i. Comment est-ce que tu leur dis ou montres ceci?
- ii. Selon toi, quand et comment as-tu appris à propos de l'importance de montrer aux jeunes ces choses là?
- iii. Crois-tu que tes athlètes appliquent vraiment ce qu'ils apprennent en sport dans d'autres domaines de la vie?

Lien Philosophie-Pratique du coaching

3. Selon toi, est-ce que tu es en mesure de mettre en pratique, dans ton coaching, les choses que tu as dit que tu voulais accomplir dans ta philosophie du coaching ?
 - a. Selon toi, est-ce qu'il y a des choses que tu pourrais faire afin de lier de plus près ta philosophie et ta pratique du coaching ?

Influence du coach en dehors du hockey

4. Est-ce que tu interagis avec tes athlètes en dehors du contexte du hockey (dans les corridors ou autres situations?)
 - a. Pourrais-tu me décrire la nature de ces interactions?
5. Est-ce que tu restes en contact avec les athlètes lorsque la saison de hockey est terminée?
 - a. Crois-tu qu'il est important pour un coach de rester en contact avec ses joueurs après la saison?
 - i. Pourquoi?
 - b. Crois-tu qu'il y a des bénéfices à maintenir un contact avec les jeunes?
 - i. Lesquels?

Le coach comme personne avec une influence spéciale sur les jeunes

6. Crois-tu que ton rôle à titre d'entraîneur te permet d'avoir une certaine influence sur les jeunes comparativement aux autres membres du personnel de l'école?
7. Pour quelles raisons crois-tu que les coaches ont ce type d'influence?
8. Comment utilises-tu cette influence comme coach auprès des jeunes?
9. Comment as-tu appris à gérer ce rôle comme personne ayant une grande influence sur les jeunes?
10. Est-ce que c'est déjà arrivé d'avoir des enseignants qui t'approche pour les aider à guider un jeune dans la bonne direction?
 - a. Quoi exactement te demandent-ils?
11. As-tu un ou des exemples de succès que tu as eu avec un ou des athlètes à l'école?
12. As-tu un ou des exemples d'échecs que tu as eu avec un ou des athlètes à l'école?
13. As-tu des limites en termes du montant de temps et énergie que tu investies dans ton coaching?
 - a. Quelles sont tes limites?
 - b. Comment as-tu appris à établir ces limites?

5. Les facteurs environnementaux

1. Est-ce que tu crois que l'école t'offre le support nécessaire afin de te permettre de mettre en pratique ta philosophie?
 - a. Crois-tu que certaines choses peuvent être améliorées?
2. Selon tes connaissances, est-ce que les autres équipes et coaches dans la ligue que vous jouez fonctionnent comme vous fonctionnez ici à l'Académie St-Louis ?
 - a. Que font-ils de similaire ou différent ?

3. Décris-moi tes interactions avec les différentes personnes impliquées dans le sport scolaire.
 - a. Parents
 - b. Direction de l'école

6. Tes entraîneurs

1. Tes entraîneurs sont-ils des entraîneurs à temps plein?
2. Est-ce qu'ils sont aussi enseignant à l'école?
3. Leur éducation ?
4. Comment procèdes-tu au recrutement de tes entraîneurs ?
 - a) Est-ce que le recrutement est difficile ?
 - b) Que cherches-tu chez tes entraîneurs ?

Entraîneurs modèles

4. Selon toi, peux-tu me décrire quels sont les caractéristiques et comportements de l'entraîneur idéal au niveau secondaire?
5. Est-ce que tu considères tes entraîneurs comme des entraîneurs modèles?
 - a. Est-ce que tu crois que le bien-être et le développement des athlètes est une priorité pour tes entraîneur?
 - b. En général, est-ce que tu dirais que tes entraîneurs partagent ta philosophie?

Apprentissage des entraîneurs

6. Comment est-ce que tes entraîneurs apprennent-ils la philosophie du programme?
 - a) Est-ce qu'il y a des stratégies concrètes mise en place pour leur enseigner ça?
 - b) Est-ce que tu leurs enseignent des stratégies à mettre en place dans leur coaching?
7. Essayes-tu d'agir à titre de mentor pour tes entraîneurs?
 - a) Pourrais-tu décrire cette relation?
 - b) Pour quelles raisons considères-tu qu'il est important d'avoir ce type de relation?
8. As-tu des rencontres avec tes entraîneurs?
 - a) De quoi discutez-vous durant ces rencontres?
 - b) L'importance, la raison d'être de ces rencontres?

Dernière question

Finalement, selon toi, est-ce que faire partie de ce programme permet ultimement aux jeunes de développer de façon holistique? Quand les jeunes quittent le programme, considères-tu qu'ils sont de meilleures personnes que lorsqu'ils sont entrés?

Appendix E

Interview Guide Program Director (Interview Two) (French)

Guide d'entrevue deux

A. Retour sur la dernière saison:

1. Tes impressions générales sur la dernière saison?
 - a. Sur le processus de sélection des joueurs en début d'année?
 - b. Relations avec les parents
 - i. Rencontres parent-athlètes-entraîneur
 - c. Relations avec les autres entraîneurs
 - i. Échange d'idées, collaboration
 - ii. Philosophie du programme
 - d. Relations avec l'école et l'administration
 - i. Réforme scolaire
 - ii. Financement
 1. Si tu ne faisais pas autant de levé de fonds, à quoi aurait l'air ton programme?
 - iii. Plan pour l'aréna
 - e. Relations avec tes joueurs
 - i. Communication et stratégies d'intervention
 1. En entraînement
 2. En classe
 3. En situation de match
 - f. Placements des jeunes dans les Prep School américains
2. Les trois aspects du développement de la personne
 - a. Le développement académique
 - b. Le développement de la personne
 - c. Le développement du hockeyeur
3. Est-ce que les objectifs de développement visés par le programme son en lien avec le projet éducatif de l'Académie?
 - a. PLAN INTELLECTUEL
 - b. PLAN SOCIAL ET PERSONNEL
 - c. PLAN SPIRITUEL

B. Défis et bénéfices

1. L'an prochain je décide que je commence un programme sport-étude en hockey avec une philosophie axée sur le développement des jeunes et je t'engage comme consultant pour m'aider à m'être le programme sur pied.
 - a. À quoi dois-je m'attendre?
 - b. Que dois-je faire pour aider les jeunes à développer?
 - c. Quels défis devrais-je affronter?
2. En conclusion, est-ce que tu considère que ça vaut la peine d'avoir un tel programme?

Appendix F

Interview Guide Students (French)

Guide d'entrevue (athlète)

1. Mes expériences en sport scolaire en tant qu'athlète

4. Âge?
5. Année scolaire?
6. Quel(s) sport(s) pratiques-tu ou pratiquais-tu au secondaire?
 - a. Années d'expériences
7. As-tu pratiqué ou pratiques-tu autres sports?
 - a. Lesquels? Pendant combien de temps? À quel niveau?

Question générale

Pourquoi jouais-tu au hockey à l'ASL pendant le secondaire?

2. Le développement par le sport scolaire

4. Selon toi, pour quelles raisons y a-t-il des sports dans les écoles secondaires?
5. Décris-moi la place que le sport occupe dans ta vie?
 - a. École ou sport?
6. Pourrais-tu me décrire comment tu crois que le sport scolaire devrait être pratiqué?
 - a. Distribution du temps de jeu entre les joueurs?
 - b. L'importance de la victoire?
7. Est-ce que tu crois que la participation dans les sports scolaires a influencé ton développement personnel?
 - a. Comment?
8. Crois-tu que tu as développé des aptitudes de vie à travers ta participation dans les sports scolaires?
 - a. Lesquelles?
9. Crois-tu que les aptitudes que tu apprends en sport peuvent être utilisées dans d'autres sphères de la vie?
 - a. Quels types d'aptitudes sont le plus applicable à d'autres sphères de la vie?
 - b. Peux-tu donner des exemples de comment tu utilises ces aptitudes?
10. Est-ce que tes parents s'intéressent à ta pratique des sports scolaires?
 - a. Que font-ils?
11. Selon toi, quelle place occupe le sport scolaire à ton école?
 - a. Comparativement aux autres activités parascolaires? (Arts, clubs académiques...)
12. Qu'aimes-tu le plus de ta participation dans les sports scolaires?
13. Est-ce qu'il y a quelque chose que tu aimes moins de ta participation dans les sports scolaires?
14. Est-ce que le sport scolaire pourrait être amélioré?
 - a. Comment?
 - b.

3. Mon ancien entraîneur

6. Peux-tu me décrire les caractéristiques et comportements de l'entraîneur idéal au niveau secondaire?
7. Peux-tu me décrire les caractéristiques et comportements d'un mauvais entraîneur au niveau secondaire?
8. Peux-tu me décrire ton ancien entraîneur à l'ASL?
 - a. Dirais-tu que c'était important pour cet entraîneur d'établir des relations significatives avec ses joueurs?
 1. Que faisait-il pour développer des relations avec vous autres?
 - b. Est-ce qu'il priorisait le développement des jeunes ou la victoire?
 - c. Est-ce qu'il faisait un effort pour agir à titre de modèle?
 - d. Peux-tu me décrire la communication athlète-entraîneur?
 - e. Est-ce que tu crois que ton bien-être était important pour cet entraîneur?
 - f. Est-ce que cet entraîneur faisait des choses concrètes pour promouvoir le développement des jeunes sur l'équipe?
 1. Que faisait-il?
 - g. Est-ce que tu interagissais avec cet entraîneur en dehors du contexte du hockey? (dans les corridors, après la saison)
 1. Quel était la nature de ces interactions?
 - h. En général, crois-tu qu'être sur l'équipe de ce coach a aidé ton développement personnel?
4. Peux-tu comparer cet entraîneur avec les autres entraîneurs que tu as eu au courant de ta carrière sportive?
 - a) Quels comportements et stratégies distinguent cet entraîneur des autres?
5. Peux-tu comparer cet entraîneur avec les autres entraîneurs dans la ligue que tu œuvres?

Merci!

Appendix G

Interview Guide Parents (French)

Guide d'entrevue (parent)

1. Mes expériences en tant qu'athlète

8. Âge?
9. Avez-vous pratiqué des sports organisés pendant votre secondaire?
 - a. Quel(s) sport(s)? Pendant combien d'années?
 - b. Croyez-vous que ces expériences en sport ont influencé votre développement en tant que personne?
 - i. Comment?
10. Pratiquez-vous des sports présentement?
 - a. Lesquels?
 - b. Pour quels raisons pratiquez-vous des sports?
11. Pouvez-vous me décrire la place qu'occupe le sport dans votre vie?

Question générale :

Pourquoi vouliez-vous que votre enfant participe au sein du programme Étude-Sport hockey à l'ASL?

2. Le développement par l'entremise du sport scolaire

15. Selon vous, quelle est la raison principale d'avoir des sports dans les écoles secondaires?
16. Quelle place diriez-vous que les sports occupent à l'ASL?
17. Selon vous, quel est l'importance du sport dans la vie de votre enfant?
18. En ce qui concerne la façon que le sport scolaire devrait être pratiqué, selon vous, quelles composantes devraient être priorisées?
 - a. Participation vs compétition, développement vs victoire
 - b. Comment est-ce que le temps de jeu devrait être distribué entre les joueurs?
19. Croyez-vous que les sports scolaires favorisent le développement intégral des jeunes?
 - a. Quels types d'habiletés apprennent-ils par le sport?
 - b. Exemples d'initiatives pour promouvoir le développement à l'ASL?
20. Croyez-vous que les habiletés apprises en sport peuvent être appliqués dans d'autres sphères de la vie?
 - a. Selon vous, quels types d'habiletés peuvent être transférés?
 - b. Avez-vous des exemples de comment ses habiletés peuvent être appliqués dans d'autres sphères de la vie

3. Parents

1. Selon vous, quel rôle devrait jouer les parents en ce qui concerne la pratique des sports scolaires de leur enfant?
2. Pouvez-vous décrire votre implication dans la pratique des sports scolaires de votre enfant.
 - a. Support logistique
 - b. Support émotionnel
 - a. Support financier

3. Est-ce que vous diriez que votre rôle à titre de parent a évolué quand votre enfant est devenu plus vieux?
 - a. Comment?
 - b. Qu'est-ce qui a changé?

4. Entraîneurs

1. Selon vous, quel est le rôle fondamental des entraîneurs au niveau secondaire?
2. Pouvez-vous me décrire les caractéristiques et comportements de l'entraîneur modèle au niveau secondaire?
3. Selon vos connaissances, pouvez-vous me décrire l'ancien entraîneur de votre enfant à l'ASL?
 - a. Pourriez-vous me décrire, si possible, quelle était sa philosophie du coaching?
 - b. Croyez-vous que votre enfant a bénéficié en étant sur l'équipe de cet entraîneur?
 - i. Comment?
 - ii. À quels niveaux?
 - c. En général, diriez-vous que le bien-être de votre enfant était une priorité pour cet entraîneur?
 - i. Exemples de choses qu'il faisait pour aider votre enfant?
 - d. Est-ce que votre enfant a eu l'opportunité de développer une relation significative avec son entraîneur?
 - i. Comment est-ce que cette relation s'est développée?
 - ii. Est-ce que cet entraîneur interagissait avec ses athlètes en dehors du contexte du hockey?
 1. Exemples?
 - iii. Est-ce que votre enfant est toujours en contact cet entraîneur?
 - e. Est-ce que cet entraîneur utilisait des stratégies dans sa pratique du coaching pour promouvoir le développement des jeunes?
 - i. Lesquels?
4. Croyez-vous que les entraîneurs ont la possibilité d'avoir une influence significative sur le développement, les choix des jeunes?
 - a. Comment est-ce que les entraîneurs devraient utiliser cette influence afin de bénéficier au développement des jeunes?
 - b. Diriez-vous que l'entraîneur de votre enfant utilisait son influence de façon positive?
5. Croyez-vous que l'école offrait à cet entraîneur le support nécessaire afin qu'il puisse promouvoir le développement positif des jeunes?
6. Pouvez-vous comparez cet entraîneur aux autres entraîneurs que votre enfant a eu dans le passée?
 - a. Quels caractéristiques ou comportements le distingue des autres?
 - b. Diriez-vous que cet entraîneur est un entraîneur modèle?

Appendix H

Interview Guide Coaches (French)

Guide d’entrevue (entraîneur)

1. Mon expérience en sport comme athlète et entraîneur (Biographie)

- 5. Âge?
- 6. Occupation?
- 7. Éducation?

Grande question générale

- 8. Pourquoi entraînes-tu?

Athlète

- 12. Pratiques-tu présentement des sports?
 - a. Lesquels?
- 13. As-tu pratiqué des sports dans le passé?
 - a. Lesquels? La durée? Le niveau?
- 14. Crois-tu que tu as retiré quelque chose de tes expériences en tant qu’athlète?
 - a. Quoi?
 - b. Niveau 3 = Est-ce que tes anciens entraîneurs avaient des stratégies spécifiques pour promouvoir le développement des jeunes?
 - c. Niveau 4 = Les choses que tu as apprises en sport comme athlète, sont-elles utiles dans d’autres aspects de ta vie?

Entraîneur

- 5. Peux-tu me décrire tes expériences comme entraîneur en milieu scolaire?
- 6. Depuis combien d’années es-tu entraîneur au secondaire?
 - d. Assistant entraîneur
 - e. Entraîneur
- 7. Est-ce que tu coach des sports à l’extérieur de l’école?
 - a. Lesquels?
- 8. Est-ce que tu planifies coacher durant les années à venir?

2. Apprentissages en coaching

- 2. Connais-tu le Programme National de Certifications des Entraîneurs (PNCE)?
 - f. Es-tu certifié à travers le PNCE ou une autre organisation?
 - g. Quand as-tu reçu ta certification?
 - h. Pour quelle raison as-tu décidé de devenir certifié?
 - i. Est-ce que tu considères que cette certification est utile pour entraîner?
 - i. Comment?
- 2. Est-ce qu’il y a d’autres situations d’apprentissage qui informent ton coaching?
 - g. Livres, DVD

- h. Mentor en coaching
 - i. Internet
 - j. Cliniques, séminaires, conférences
 - k. Selon toi, est-ce que c'est important pour un entraîneur d'aller chercher de l'information et des connaissances à travers ces situations?
 - a. Pourquoi?
 - l. Est-ce que tu as appris comment développer des environnements propices au développement des jeunes dans ces situations?
3. Est-ce que tu fais de la réflexion sur ta pratique du coaching?
- a. Si oui, décris-moi à quoi tu réfléchis?
 - b. Est-ce que c'est important pour toi la réflexion?
 - ii. Pourquoi?
 - b. As-tu des outils ou stratégies qui t'aide à réfléchir sur ton coaching?
 - i. Lesquels?

3. Mon approche en coaching (Philosophie)

21. Peux-tu me décrire ta philosophie du coaching dans le contexte du sport scolaire?
- a. Pour quelles raisons considères-tu qu'il est important d'avoir une philosophie qui met l'accent sur ces éléments dans le contexte du sport scolaire?
 - b. Relation coach/athlète**
 - i. Est-ce que c'est important pour toi de développer des relations significatives avec tes athlètes ?
 - ii. Pourquoi est-ce important?
 - iii. Comment procèdes-tu à développer des relations avec tes athlètes?
 - c. Victoire versus développement**
 - i. Comment important est-ce que c'est pour toi de gagner?
 - ii. Est-ce que tu essayes de trouver un juste milieu entre la victoire et le développement des jeunes?
 - iii. Comment est-ce que tu arrives à concilier les deux ?
 - d. Entraîneur comme modèle**
 - i. Est-ce que tu crois que les athlètes voient les entraîneurs comme des modèles?
 - ii. Est-ce que tu te considères comme un modèle?
 - iii. Qu'est-ce que tu fais pour agir à titre de modèle?
 - iv. Comment as-tu appris à agir comme un modèle à suivre pour les jeunes ?
 - e. Distribution du temps de glace**
 - i. Comment est-ce que tu distribues le temps de glace entre tes joueurs?
 - ii. À la fin d'une partie importante?
 - iii. Pour quelles raisons choisis-tu de distribuer le temps de glace de cette façon?

22. Pourrais-tu me décrire comment tu as développé ta philosophie?
- a. Comment as-tu appris à propos de l'importance d'avoir une philosophie qui met l'emphase sur le développement des jeunes?
 - i. Est-ce qu'il y a un ou des moments spécifiques ou c'est plus graduel?
 - b. Influence du programme Étude-Sport**
 - i. Crois-tu que le programme de hockey de l'Académie St-Louis a une influence sur ta philosophie du coaching?
 - 1. Comment ?
 - ii. Est-ce qu'il y a eu une période d'adaptation lorsque tu es arrivé dans le programme?
 - c. Influence des expériences passées**
 - i. Crois-tu que tes expériences en tant qu'athlète ont influencé ta philosophie du coaching?
 - 1. Comment?
 - ii. Est-ce qu'il y a d'autres expériences que tu as eu dans ta vie que tu crois qui ont influencé ta philosophie du coaching?

23. Développement des jeunes

- a. Selon toi, pour le développement des jeunes, est-ce que c'est mieux de les suivre de près afin de guider leurs comportements dans la bonne direction ou est-ce c'est mieux de leur donner une certaine autonomie pour qu'ils puissent apprendre par eux-mêmes?
- b. Selon toi, quel est l'envergure de l'influence du sport sur le développement des jeunes, est-ce que c'est une petite ou grande influence?

4. Mettre en pratique mon approche en coaching

14. Comment est-ce que tu procèdes pour mettre en pratique ta philosophie?

Niveau 3 = Stratégies pour le développement des jeunes

- a. Exemples de stratégies ?
- b. Comment as-tu appris ces stratégies ?
- c. Est-ce qu'il y a des défis/obstacles qui surviennent lorsque tu mets en place ces stratégies?
 - i. Lesquels ?
 - ii. Est-ce que l'aspect compétitif du hockey est un obstacle?
 - iii. Est-ce que tu considères que les jeunes sont réceptifs à ce type de matériel?
- d. Comment est-ce que tu règles ces défis/obstacles?
- e. As-tu appris des leçons du processus de mettre en place des stratégies pour le développement des jeunes?
 - i. Lesquels?

Niveau 4 = Transfer des aptitudes de vie

15. Crois-tu que les aptitudes que les jeunes développent en sport peuvent être utilisées dans d'autres domaines de la vie ? (concept de transfert)
 - c. Quelles aptitudes sont, selon toi, le plus important?
 - d. Peux-tu donner des exemples de comment les aptitudes apprises en sport peuvent être utilisées dans d'autres sphères? (école, travail)?
 - e. Est-ce que tu utilises des stratégies pour dire ou montrer à tes athlètes comment ils peuvent utiliser les aptitudes apprises en sport dans d'autres sphères?
 - i. Comment est-ce que tu leur dis ou montres ceci?
 - ii. Selon toi, quand et comment as-tu appris à propos de l'importance de montrer aux jeunes ces choses là?
 - iii. Crois-tu que tes athlètes appliquent vraiment ce qu'ils apprennent en sport dans d'autres domaines de la vie?

Lien Philosophie-Pratique du coaching

16. Selon toi, est-ce que tu es en mesure de mettre en pratique, dans ton coaching, les choses que tu as dit que tu voulais accomplir dans ta philosophie du coaching ?
 - a. Selon toi, est-ce qu'il y a des choses que tu pourrais faire afin de lier de plus près ta philosophie et ta pratique du coaching ?

Influence du coach en dehors du hockey

17. Est-ce que tu interagis avec tes athlètes en dehors du contexte du hockey (dans les corridors ou autres situations?)
 - a. Pourrais-tu me décrire la nature des interactions?
18. Est-ce que tu restes en contact avec les athlètes lorsque la saison de hockey est terminée?
 - a. Crois-tu qu'il est important pour un coach de rester en contact avec ses joueurs après la saison?
 - i. Pourquoi?
 - b. Crois-tu qu'il y a des bénéfices à maintenir un contact avec les jeunes?
 - i. Lesquels?

Le coach comme personne avec une influence spéciale sur les jeunes

19. Crois-tu que ton rôle à titre d'entraîneur te permet d'avoir une certaine influence sur les jeunes comparativement aux autres membres du personnel de l'école?
20. Pour quelles raisons crois-tu que les coachs ont ce type d'influence?
21. Comment utilises-tu cette influence comme coach auprès des jeunes?
22. Comment as-tu appris à gérer ce rôle comme personne ayant une grande influence sur les jeunes?
23. Est-ce que c'est déjà arrivé d'avoir des enseignants qui t'approche pour les aider à guider un jeune dans la bonne direction?
 - a. Quoi exactement te demandent-ils?
24. As-tu un ou des exemples de succès que tu as eu avec un ou des athlètes à l'école?
25. As-tu un ou des exemples d'échecs que tu as eu avec un ou des athlètes à l'école?
26. As-tu des limites en termes du montant de temps et énergie que tu investies dans ton coaching?
 - a. Quelles sont tes limites?
 - b. Comment as-tu appris à établir ces limites?

5. Les facteurs environnementaux

9. Est-ce que tu crois que l'école t'offre le support nécessaire afin de te permettre de mettre en pratique ta philosophie?
 - a. Peux-tu me décrire le type de support que tu reçois pour entraîner en milieu scolaire.
 - b. Crois-tu que ce support est adéquat afin que tu puisses avoir une influence positive sur le développement des jeunes?
 - c. Crois-tu que certaines choses peuvent être améliorées?
10. Selon tes connaissances, est-ce que les autres équipes et coachs dans la ligue que vous jouez fonctionnent comme vous fonctionnez ici à l'Académie St-Louis ?
 - a. Que font-ils de similaire ou différent ?
11. Décris-moi tes interactions avec les différentes personnes impliquées dans le sport scolaire.
 - a. Parents
 - b. Directeur du programme de hockey
 - c. Direction de l'école

Appendix I

Consent Form Administrators

I, _____, agree to participate in the research conducted. The purpose of the research is to study the approach to coaching of ‘model’ school sport coaches, meaning coaches who not only teach sport-specific skills but also skills that lead to the global development of athletes.

My participation will essentially consist of participating in one (1) tape-recorded interview lasting approximately 90 minutes. The interview will focus on a) the place sport occupies in my school, b) how the school proceeds to recruit coaches, c) the support offered to coaches, and d) according to me, what coaches must do in order to create a context that fosters the global development of high school athletes.

I understand that the contents of the documents related to my participation will be used only for research project and that my confidentiality will be respected through the use of a code number on all raw data and the alteration of minor context details where necessary.

I am free to withdraw from the project at any time or to refuse to answer questions. If I choose to withdraw from the study, the data collected from my interview until the time of withdrawal will be destroyed and will not be used. I have received assurance from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. Anonymity will be assured through the use of a code number on all documentation including original transcripts. Tape recordings of interviews and other data collected will be stored at the University of Ottawa, in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher’s office and will be kept for five (5) years after which they will be destroyed.

There are two copies of the consent form, one of which I may keep.

Research Participant: _____ Date: _____

Researcher: _____ Date: _____

Appendix J

Consent Form Coaches

I, _____, agree to participate in the research. The purpose of the research is to study the approach to coaching of ‘model’ high school coaches, meaning coaches who not only teach sport-specific skills but also skills that lead to the global development of athletes.

My participation consists of participating in one interview lasting approximately 60 minutes. The interview will focus on a) my experiences as a coach and athlete, b) my approach to learning to be a coach, c) my coaching philosophy, d) my coaching strategies, and e) the environmental factors that facilitate or hinder my work with athletes.

I understand that the contents related to my participation in this study will only be used research project and that my confidentiality will be respected through the use of a code number on all raw data and the alteration of minor context details where necessary.

I am free to withdraw from the project at any time or to refuse to answer questions. If I choose to withdraw from the study, the data collected from my interview until the time of withdrawal will be destroyed and will not be used. I have received assurance from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. Tape recordings of interviews and other data collected will be stored at the University of Ottawa, in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher’s office and will be kept for five (5) years after which they will be destroyed.

Participant: _____ Date: _____

Researcher: _____ Date: _____

Appendix K

Consent Form Parents

I, _____, agree to participate in the research. The purpose of the research is to study the approach to coaching of ‘model’ school sport coaches, meaning coaches who not only teach sport-specific skills but also skills that lead to the global development of athletes.

My participation will essentially consist of participating in one (1) tape-recorded interview lasting approximately 90 minutes. The interview will focus on a) how I consider sport to be an important practice, b) the type and level of support offered to my child, c) how actively involved I am in my child’s sporting practice, and d) what I think coaches must do in order to create a context that fosters positive youth development.

I understand that the contents of the documents related to my participation will be used only for research project and that my confidentiality will be respected through the use of a code number on all raw data and the alteration of minor context details where necessary.

I am free to withdraw from the project at any time or to refuse to answer questions. If I choose to withdraw from the study, the data collected from my interview until the time of withdrawal will be destroyed and will not be used. I have received assurance from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. Anonymity will be assured through the use of a code number on all documentation including original transcripts. Tape recordings of interviews and other data collected will be stored at the University of Ottawa, in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher’s office and will be kept for five (5) years after which they will be destroyed.

Participant: _____ Date: _____

Researcher: _____ Date: _____

Appendix L

Consent Form Athletes

I, _____, agree to participate in the research. The purpose of the research is to study the context of high school sport and the approach to coaching of ‘model’ coaches, meaning coaches who not only teach sport-specific skills but also skills that lead to the global development of athletes.

My participation consists of participating in one interview lasting approximately 30 minutes. The interview focuses on a) my demographic information, b) my experiences as an athlete in high school sport, and c) my perspective on coaching in high school sport.

I understand that the contents related to my research team. I am free to withdraw from the project at any time or to refuse to answer questions. If I choose to withdraw from the study, the data collected from my interview until the time of withdrawal will be destroyed and will not be used. I have received assurance from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. Anonymity will be assured through the use of a code number on all documentation including original transcripts. Tape recordings of interviews and other data collected will be stored at the University of Ottawa, in a locked filing cabinet in the researcher’s office and will be kept for five (5) years after which they will be destroyed.

Participant: _____ Date: _____

Parent: _____ Date: _____

Researcher: _____ Date: _____

Appendix M

Ethics Approval



La présente confirme que le Comité d'éthique de la recherche (CER) de l'Université d'Ottawa identifié ci-dessus, opérant conformément à l'Énoncé de politique des Trois conseils et toutes autres lois et tous règlements applicables de l'Ontario, a examiné et approuvé la demande d'approbation déontologique du projet de recherche ci-nommé. L'approbation est valide pour la durée indiquée plus haut et est sujette aux conditions énumérées dans la section intitulée "Conditions Spéciales / Commentaires".

Lors de l'étude, le protocole ne peut être modifié sans approbation préalable écrite du CER sauf si le sujet doit être retiré en raison d'un danger immédiat ou s'il s'agit d'un changement ayant trait à des éléments administratifs ou logistiques de l'étude comme par exemple un changement de numéro de téléphone. Les chercheurs doivent aviser le CER dans les plus brefs délais de tout changement pouvant augmenter le niveau de risque aux participants ou affecter considérablement le déroulement du projet. Ils devront aussi rapporter tout événement imprévu et / ou dommageable et devront soumettre toutes les nouvelles informations pouvant nuire à la conduite du projet et/ou à la sécurité des participants. Toutes modifications apportées au projet, aux lettres d'information / formulaires de consentement ainsi qu'aux documents de recrutement doivent être soumises pour approbation à ce Service en utilisant le document intitulé "Modification au projet de recherche" au:

Appendix N

Timeline for Data collection



Timeline for Data Collection

Phase 1

- August-September 2009: Document Analysis
- Early October 2009: Pilot Interviews
- Late October 2009: 1st trip to Quebec City, Observations, Interviews with Coaches, the School Principal, and Program Director
- December 2009: 2nd trip to Quebec City, Observations, Interviews with Coaches
- January 2010: 3rd trip to Quebec City, Road Trip to USA with Team
- March 2010: 4th trip to Quebec City, Observations, Interviews with Athletes, Parents
- April 2010: 5th trip to Quebec City, Observations, Interviews with Athletes, Parents
- May 2010: 2nd Interview with Program Director

Phase 2

- April 2010: Recruitment of Participants
- May-June 2010: Interviews with Coaches and Athletes

Appendix O

Interview Guide Students (English)

1. Demographic Information

- 15. Age
- 16. School grade
- 17. What sport(s) do you practice in the high school context?
 - a. Years of experience?
- 18. Have you practiced any other sports outside of school?

General Question:

Why did you decide to practice sports during your high school?

2. Participation in High School Sport

- 24. According to you, what is the purpose of having sports in schools?
- 25. Can you describe to me the place sport occupies in your life?
 - a. Priority: School or Sport?
- 26. Describe how you believe high school sports should be practiced?
 - a. Competition vs Participation
 - b. Youth Development vs Winning
 - c. Distribution of playing time for athletes?
- 27. Do you believe high school sport participation influenced your development as a person?
 - a. How?
- 28. Did you develop life skills through your participation in high school sport?
 - a. Which ones?
- 29. Do you believe that the skills learned in sport can be transferred to other life domains? (e.g., school, work...)
 - a. What type of skills can be transferred?
 - b. Examples of how they are applied in other domains?
- 30. Can you describe your parents' involvement in your participation in high school sports?
 - a. What do they do?
- 31. According to you, what is the place of sport at your school? (Importance)
- 32. What do you like most about practicing high school sports?
- 33. What do you like least about practicing high school sports?
- 34. In your opinion, what could be improved?
- 35.

3. Coaching

- 12. Can you describe what the ideal high school coach is, according to you?
- 13. Can you describe what is bad coaching in the high school context?
- 14. In the same manner, can you describe your former coach?
 - a. Would you say it was important for this coach to establish relationships with his/her players?

1. What did he do to develop relationships?
 - b. Would you say that this coach prioritized player development or winning?
 - c. According to you, do you consider this coach to be a model for youth?
 - d. Can you describe the coach-athlete communication?
 - e. Was your academic performance and overall well being a concern for this coach?
 - f. Do you have concrete examples of things this coach did to promote the development of the players?
 - g. Did you interact with this coach outside of sport?
 1. (hallways, in class, other activities?)
 - h. In general, would you say that being on this coach's team help your development as a person?
15. Can you compare this coach to other coaches you have had in high school sport? Similarities or differences?

Appendix P

Interview Guide Coaches (English)

1. Biography

- 9. Age?
- 10. Occupation?
- 11. Education?

General Question:

Why do you coach?

Athlete

- 19. Do you currently practice any sports?
- 20. Have you practiced sports in the past?
- 21. What did you get out of your experiences as an athlete?
 - a. Do you use the skills learned in sport in other parts of your life?

Coach

- 22. Can you describe your experiences as a high school coach?
 - a. Assistant coach
 - b. Head coach
- 23. For how long have you been a coach at the high school level?
- 24. Do you coach outside of the school?
- 25. Do you plan on continuing to coach in the future?

2. Coach learning

- 3. Are you familiar with the National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP)?
 - a. Are you certified through the NCCP or another program?
 - b. Do you consider this certification useful?
- 2. Are there any other learning situations that inform your coaching?
 - a. Books, DVD, Internet
 - b. Mentors
 - c. Clinics, seminars, conferences
 - d. Do you think it's important for coaches to continuously learn?
- 3. Do you reflect on your coaching practice?
 - a. What do you reflect upon?
 - b. Is reflection important? Why?

3. Philosophy

36. Can you describe your coaching philosophy in the context of high school sport?
- a. Why is it important to have a philosophy based on those elements in the context of high school sport?
 - b. How did you learn to have a philosophy based on those elements?
 - c. **Coach/Athlete Relationship**
 - i. Is it important to you to develop relationships with your athletes?
 - ii. How do you develop those relationships?
 - d. **Coaching Scenarios**
 - i. Competition vs Participation
 - ii. Youth Development vs Winning
 - iii. Distribution of playing time between athletes
 - e. **Coaches as Models**
 - i. Do you consider yourself to be a model for your athletes?
 - ii. What do you do specifically to act as a model?
 - iii. How did you learn to be a model?
 - f. **Past Experiences**
 - i. Apart from your athletic experience, are there any other life experiences that you believe have an influence your coaching philosophy?

37. Youth Development

- a. In order to promote the development of youth, do you think it's better to guide their behaviours closely or to give them more autonomy to learn by themselves?
- b. According to you, what is the influence of sport on youth development, is it a small or large influence?

4. Coaching Approach and Strategies

Level 3: Strategies for Youth Development

1. Do you have examples of strategies that you use that are aimed at teaching youth life skills?
2. How did you learn to develop these strategies?
3. Are there any challenges or obstacles faced in implementing such strategies?
4. Do you consider that your athletes are receptive to this type of material?

Level 4: Transfer of Life Skills

1. Can youth use the life skills learned in sport and transfer them to other life domains such as school, work or family life?
2. Do you have examples of how these skills can be transferred?
3. According to you, what are the most important life skills to transfer?
4. Do you talk to your athletes and show them how to transfer these skills?
5. How did you learn to teach them about transfer?

6. Do you think that athletes are aware that they can use the skills learned in sport in other domains?
 - a. Is it something they actually do in practice?
7. In your opinion, are you able to put into practice your coaching philosophy?

5. Influence of the Coach

1. Do you interact with your athletes outside of sport? (hallways, in class, other)
 - a. What is the nature of these interactions?
2. Do you think there are benefits for a coach to maintain contact with athletes outside of sport of after a season?

The special influence of coaches

1. Do you think that your role as a coach allows you to have a special influence on students compared to teachers or other school staff?
2. Why do you think coaches have such an influence?
3. How do you try to use this influence to have a positive impact on youth?
4. Do other teachers approach you to intervene with students they might have problems with? Example?

Limits

1. Do you have limits as it relates to the amount of time and energy you invest in your coaching?
 - i. What are your limits?
 - ii. How did you learn to set those limits?

6. Environmental factors

1. Do you believe your school offers you enough support for you to be able to implement your coaching philosophy?
 - a. What type of support do you receive to coach?
 - b. Do you think this support allows you to have a positive influence on youth development?
 - c. Are there any things that you believe could be improved?
 - d. Are there any other challenges that you face as a coach?
16. Can you describe your interactions with the different stakeholders involved in high school sport?
 - a. Parents
 - b. Athletes
 - c. Administrators

Appendix Q

OFSAA Leadership in School Sport Award



LEADERSHIP IN SCHOOL SPORT AWARD

The OFSAA Leadership in School Sport Award is presented annually at each OFSAA Championship to a teacher-coach who has made a significant contribution to the educational athletic program. The recipient of this award exemplifies the values of fair play and good sportsmanship, while promoting enjoyment, personal growth and educational achievement through school sport.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION OF NOMINEES AND RECIPIENTS

The following criteria should be given consideration when selecting nominees for this award. It is expected that every candidate will fulfil most, but not all, of these criteria.

- has had a longstanding career as a teacher-coach (15-20 years)
- is a good role model for students
- is respected by students, colleagues and fellow coaches
- has qualities exemplifying the values of fair play and good sportsmanship which are reflected in the behaviour of those coached by the individual
- treats the student-athletes with respect
- has demonstrated expertise, experience and leadership in the specific sport for which the nomination is given
- has demonstrated commitment to the overall school sport program through coaching a variety of sports, working with the intramural programs or being involved with other sport initiatives
- has shown leadership in the sport program by convening events, hosting clinics, and/or conducting developmental activities for students
- has been involved in sport in an administrative capacity at the local, Association and/or OFSAA level as a member of a Board, Executive or committee
- has been involved in other areas of the school program such as staff committees or task forces

Appendix R

Colin Hood OFSAA School Sport Award



COLIN HOOD - OFSAA SCHOOL SPORT AWARD

The *Colin Hood OFSAA School Sport Award* is named after retired OFSAA Executive Director, Colin Hood. During his time at OFSAA, Colin set National precedents through his relentless dedication to school sport, developing all-inclusive OFSAA programs as well as promoting and developing the high school athlete in this province. He is considered a true leader and role model in both the educational and sport sectors.

The intent of this award is to recognize those athletes who dedicate their time, in not only the pursuit of athletic and academic success, but in the overall promotion and development of sport in the educational setting. In addition, to raise OFSAA's visibility in every school in the province by having a presence at their athletic banquet.

The *Colin Hood Award* is given out annually to one graduating male, one graduating female and one coach in every school in the province, who have been committed to the success of school sport at their school and within their Association, throughout their high school career.

The student is not necessarily the "all-star athlete" but the one who never misses a practice and is always working in school, athletics and in the community. The recipient of this award is a role model for other student-athletes through all aspects of their daily life.

The coach recipient is a dedicated role model, coaching multiple sports during their career. Although not always producing championship teams, the coach has instilled in his or her athletes the true essence of school sport. This coach demonstrates the value of school sport and teaching lifelong lessons, both on and off the field of play, that will shape the student-athlete today, tomorrow and forever.

Coach Criteria

- is an active teacher-coach at the high school level
- understands the value of school sport involvement
- has coached multiple sports
- has coached a minimum of five years
- a leader in all aspects of the school setting
- has a presence in their school and community
- teacher-coach is eligible to receive this award once.

Appendix S

FQSE Entraîneur par Excellence

Catégorie 10 Entraîneur masculin par excellence



Veuillez inclure une photo portrait ou d'action de la candidature

La période d'admissibilité des candidatures au Gala d'excellence est du 1er mai 2009 au 30 avril 2010

** Le candidat peut exercer tant au niveau primaire qu'au niveau secondaire **

Association régionale :

Nom du candidat :

Lieu de résidence
(ville) :

Nom de l'école :

Nombre d'étudiants :

Nom de la commission scolaire :

Discipline sportive :

Répondant du comité de sélection

Nom :

Tél. :

À lire avant de compléter :

Ce formulaire est protégé.

Vous ne pouvez utiliser que les espaces prévus à cet effet. Un maximum de 2000 caractères d'écriture par bloc est alloué (environ 25 lignes). Le comité ne considérera que ces informations."

Critère obligatoire : l'entraîneur doit détenir une certification niveau 1 du PNCE – technique, théorique et pratique du même niveau ou formation équivalente reconnue dans un sport donné.

A) Performances sportives réalisées dans le réseau du sport étudiant au niveau local, régional et provincial (citez les événements et les résultats obtenus).

10/25 pts

B) Avoir rayonné dans son milieu par son implication dans le développement vertical d'une discipline sportive (stage, cliniques, manifestations, etc.), avoir fait preuve d'initiative et s'être impliquée dans le processus administratif des structures de développement d'une discipline sportive.

7/25 pts

Catégorie 10 Entraîneur masculin par excellence

C) Citez des situations concrètes démontrant le respect de l'éthique sportive du sport étudiant dans l'exercice de ses fonctions.

4/25 pts

D) Performances sportives hors réseau du sport étudiant.

2/25 pts

E) Démontrez des qualifications techniques supérieures au niveau requis

2/25 pts

Appendix T

Recruitment Letter OFSAA

Greetings,

As part of a research program on youth development through sport, our research team at the University of Ottawa's School of Human Kinetics is currently conducting a study with high school coaches and athletes. The purpose of the study is to better understand how outstanding high school coaches become leaders in their school by emphasizing not only the development of sport-specific skills but also positive life skills and values in youth.

This study is being conducted with the help of the Ontario Federation of School Athletic Associations (OFSAA) who have provided us with a list of coaches from the [National Capital Secondary Schools Athletic Association](#) (NCSSAA) who are recipients of the Leadership in School Sport Award during the last 4 years. By having won this award and by being recognized as an outstanding coach in the sport of soccer, you are invited to participate in this study.

Participation consists of taking part in a one on one interview with a researcher at a time and place that is convenient to you. The interview lasts approximately 60 minutes and consists of questions on your athletic experience, your experience with high school coaches, and your general view of how high school sports should be practiced.

Thank you for your help

Appendix U

Recruitment Letter FQSE

Bonjour,

Dr. Pierre Trudel et Martin Camiré de l'École des sciences de l'activité physique de l'Université d'Ottawa sont dans le processus de développer un projet de recherche sur l'entraînement dans le contexte du sport scolaire. Afin de mener à terme ce projet, il s'agit de recruter des entraîneurs de niveau secondaire dans la région de l'Outaouais.

En gros, le projet consiste à étudier des entraîneurs qui ont été reconnu publiquement pour leur travail au sein de leur école et de leur communauté en mettant de l'emphase non seulement sur le développement d'habiletés sportives mais aussi sur le développement intégral des jeunes. Le projet consisterait à faire des entrevues avec ces entraîneurs (environ 60 minutes), ainsi que certains de leurs athlètes (environ 30 minutes), afin de mieux comprendre les stratégies qu'ils utilisent pour promouvoir le développement des jeunes et aussi comment ils ont appris à mettre l'emphase sur cet élément dans leur pratique du coaching.

Nous voulons recruter des entraîneurs qui sont reconnus pour ces éléments et non seulement leur record de victoires et le nombre de championnats qu'ils détiennent. La FQSE et l'ARSEO décerne des prix d'excellence aux entraîneurs pour reconnaître leurs accomplissements en ce qui concerne leur travail auprès des jeunes. Ceci est notre point de départ afin de procéder à l'identification et le recrutement de ces entraîneurs.

Merci pour votre aide

Appendix V

Bracketing Interview

8 SEPTEMBRE 2009

BRACKETING INTERVIEW AVEC MARTIN CAMIRÉ

DONC MARTIN CE QUE J'AI FAIS, J'AI IDENTIFIÉ UNE SÉRIE DE QUESTIONS LE BRACKETING INTERVIEW C'EST DE PERMETTRE À LA PERSONNE DE PRENDRE CONSCIENCE DES CHOSES QUI SONT INCONSCIENTES. DONC CE QUE J'AI FAIS, J'AI FAIS UEN LISTE À PARTIR DE CERTAINES LECTURES ET ENSUITE J'AI ANALYSÉ POUR VOIR SI JE COUVRE À PEU PRÈS TOUT. DONC ON PEUT Y ALLER.

LA PREMIÈRE SERAIT, TA THÈSE DE DOCTORAT VA TRAITER DE QUEL THÈME, OUIN C'EST QUOI LE SUJET DE TA THÈSE DE DOCTORAT, CA PORTE SUR QUOI?

C'EST QUOI TON EXPÉRIENCE TOI DANS LE SPORT SCOLAIRE, EN AS-TU DE L'EXPÉRIENCE DANS LE SPORT SCOLAIRE?

PARLE MOI DONT DE TON EXPÉRIENCE EN TANT QU'ATHLÈTE?

EST-CE QUE L'ENTRAÎNEUR A UN RÔLE LA DEDANS, APPRENDRE DES VALEURS ET DES LIFE SKILLS?

EST-CE QU'IL AURAIT DEUX RÔLE LE COACH? UN D'INITIER LES ACTIVITÉS PIS L'AUTRE DE LAISSER LES JEUNES PAR EUX-MÊMES, ENCADRER LE JEUNE POUR QU'IL PRENNE L'INITIATIVE?

TON EXPÉRIENCE COMME ENTRAÎNEUR, POURQUOI TU VEUX FAIRE CA CETTE ANNÉE, TU L'AVAS FAITE UN AN, POURQUOI TU VEUX LE FAIRE DEUX AN?

AVIEZ-VOUS UNE APPROCHE SPÉCIALE CONCERNANT L'APPRENTISSAGE DES VALEURS PIS LES LIFE SKILLS?

TA THÈSE TU VEUX LA FAIRE AVEC DES MODELS COACH, COMMENT TU VAS FAIRE POUR RECONNAÎTRE UN MODEL COACH?

EST-CE QUE VOUS ÊTES DES MODEL COACH TOI ET TON CHUM?

LES AUTRES ENTRAÎNEURS DANS LA MÊME LIGUE QUE TOI, EST-CE QU'IL Y EN AVAIT DES MODEL COACH?

QUI SONT LES MEILLEURES PERSONNES POUR JUGER? QUI SONT LES MEILLEURES PERSONNES POUR DIRE CA C'EST UN MODEL COACH? C'EST TU LES ENTRAÎNEURS ENTRES EUX, C'EST TU LES ATHLÈTES, C'EST TU LES DIRECTEURS

D'ÉCOLE, C'EST TU LE RESPONSABLE DE LA LIGUE, C'EST TU LES ARBITRES,
C'EST À QUI QUE CA REVIENT

EST-CE QU'IL FAUT CHANGER NOTRE MÉTHODE?

PENSES-TU QUE LES ENTRAÎNEURS SONT FORMÉS POUR TRAVAILLER SUR LE
POSITIVE YOUTH DEVELOPMENT? LES VALEURS PIS TOUT CA?

TOI AS-TU UNE FORMATION, AS-TU DES CERTIFICATIONS?

EST-CE QUE LE MODEL COACH C'EST CELUI QUI ENCADRE TELLEMENT BIEN SES
ATHLÈTES, TOUT CES ATHLÈTES ONT DES BONNES NOTES, FONT DU GOAL
SETTING À LA MAISON, TIME MANAGEMENT AINSI DE SUITE, QUI RÉUSSIT À
FAIRE TOUT CA?

EST-CE QUE TU SAIS DANS QUEL CONTEXT TU VAS FAIRE TON ÉTUDE?

SI JE REPRENDS LE CONTEXTE À L'ACADÉMIE ST-LOUIS, JUSTE QU'OU C'EST UN
EXEMPLE DE GOOD PRACTICE D'APRÈS TOI?

TU DIS QUE TU VA Y ALLER PIS QUE TU VAS OUVRIR LES YEUX, SI TU ES LA PIS
YA DES CHICANES ENTRE LES ENTRAÎNEURS, QUOI TU VAS FAIRE?

DANS TA TÊTE EST-CE QUE CES DÉFIS LA FONT PARTIE DU PROCESSES
D'APPRENTISSAGE?

POURQUOI TU FAIS CETTE RECHERCHE LA?

DIRAIS-TU QUE TON PROJET EST DU SENSITIVE RESEARCH?

CROIS-TU QUE TU AS DES ASSUMPTIONS QUE L'ON A PAS TRAITÉ?

PIS COMMENT TU VAS FAIRE POUR CONTRÔLER TES ASSUMPTIONS