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**VARSITY TEAM SPORT COACHES' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR ROLES AND
RESPONSIBILITIES**

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**A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of**

Master of Arts in Sport Studies



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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to describe the perceptions of varsity team sport coaches roles and responsibilities within the university setting. In-depth interviews were conducted with eight full-time varsity basketball and volleyball coaches from four universities in Ontario, and inductively analyzed following procedures similar to Côté, Salmela and Russell (1995a). Three major categories emerged from the analysis including the athletic, educational and professional roles. The athletic role described the activities of the coaches concerning the athletic performance of their athletes and organization of their varsity programs. Within the organizational property of this category, planning, competition and administrative tasks emerged as important coaching responsibilities. The educational role included the reported activities of the coaches regarding academic pursuits and personal development of their student athletes. The coaches assumed active roles in the academic lives of their athletes and facilitated the educational process by placing academics as a priority. The personal development property represented the roles of the coaches as counselors and parental figures, and teachers of life skills and priorities. The professional role described the obligations of the coaches towards the development of their sport and the coaching profession, as well as the conditions of working within an educational setting at the university level. While consistent with earlier research on the role of coaches in the skill development, academic achievement and the development of life skills, the results illustrated an athlete-centered approach associated with coaching within an educational setting. The findings provided new directions for future research.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The most visible role of coaches is to promote and facilitate the development of the physical ability of their athletes. Many studies have investigated this role within both training and competitive environments. Tharp and Gallimore (1976) were among the first researchers to develop an observation tool to record and analyze coaching behavior during training based on observations of John Wooden, often described as the greatest American varsity basketball coach ever. Since, a number of observation tools, varying in their format and content, have been introduced to code coaching behaviors within practice and game situations (Jenkins & Hughes, 1995; Lacy & Darst, 1984; Lombardo, 1989; Rushall, 1989; Smith, Smoll & Hunt, 1977; Trudel, Côté & Bernard, 1996). More recently, researchers have tried to identify the less obvious knowledge base that mediates coaching behaviors. Côté, Salmela, Trudel, Baria and Russell (1995) identified the conceptual and operational knowledge of high level coaches within the framework of three central areas: training, competition and organization. The central goal of these expert coaches was the development of their athletes. Helping athletes perform to their full potential may be the most obvious role of coaches, but it is not their only responsibility. It was Wooden after all who said, "Basketball is not the ultimate. It is of small importance in comparison to the total life we live" (Tharp & Gallimore, 1976, p. 75).

University coaches like Wooden shoulder a wide variety of responsibilities beyond the instruction of the motor skills of their sport. Among these other duties are their obligations toward the academic achievement and the personal, social and moral development of their athletes.

The role of varsity coaches with respect to the academic performance of their athletes is difficult to determine. Overall, the literature investigating the relationship between participation in intercollegiate athletics and academic achievement is controversial. Some researchers have reported a negative relationship between involvement in intercollegiate athletics and various measures of academic success,

including high school and university grade point averages, graduation rates and number of years required to graduate (Adler & Adler, 1985; Danylchuk, 1995; Eitzen & Purdy, 1986; Kiger & Lorentzen, 1987). Other investigators have found a positive relationship (Henschen & Fry, 1984; Pascarella & Smart, 1991; Shapiro, 1984), while several researchers have reported no relationship (Curtis & McTeer, 1990; Dubois, 1981; Hood, Craig & Ferguson, 1992). Most of these studies have considered the American intercollegiate sport environment, which is financially driven by television exposure and large gate receipts, and where violations of academic integrity have been well publicized (Hoffer, 1996). The impact of intercollegiate sport is not believed to be as strong nor as detrimental to academic performance within the Canadian context (Curtis & McTeer, 1990; Danylchuk, 1995; Martens, 1985). Many studies have examined this relationship between athletic participation in varsity sport and academic performance, yet the actual roles played by coaches within the academic achievements of student-athletes has not yet been clearly identified. Few studies have directly assessed the responsibilities of varsity coaches, despite the central role coaches can play in the academic lives of student-athletes.

The role of varsity coaches in the personal, social, and moral development of student-athletes is also difficult to define. The positive impact of participation in physical activities and athletics on the psychological well-being of children (Martens, 1990) and adults (Berger & McInman, 1993; Boutcher, 1993) is well documented. However, this relationship is less favorable within the context of competitive sport (Bloom & Smith, 1996; Bredemeier, 1985; Brustad, 1993; Olgilvie & Tutko, 1971). Some researchers have reported a negative relationship between participation in intercollegiate athletics and various indices of personal, social and moral development (Bredemeier, 1985; Sowa & Gressard, 1983; Stone & Strange, 1989); others have found a positive relationship (Pascarella & Smart, 1991; Ryan, 1989). Few empirical studies have focused specifically on the role of varsity coaches in the personal development of student-athletes, despite the pervasive influence of some varsity coaches in the lives of their athletes. With the exception of popular literature (Walton, 1992; Wooden, 1988), rarely have intercollegiate coaches been given an opportunity to express their perceptions of their responsibilities to the personal development of their athletes.

Further, coaching within the Canadian university context has changed in recent years. Cuts to federal and provincial education funding have limited the financial resources available to athletic programs (MacIntosh, 1986). Accordingly, varsity coaches across the country have had to create diverse fund raising activities in order to supplement their operating budgets (Hall, Slack, Smith & Whitson, 1991; Janzen 1986; MacIntosh, 1986). These changes have added the role of financial officer to the responsibilities of varsity coaches. How this has impacted on varsity coaches' perceptions of their roles and responsibilities is uncertain.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of varsity team sport coaches regarding their roles and responsibilities within the university setting by means of qualitative inductive analysis of in-depth, open-ended interviews.

Sport scientists have begun to question the use of traditional, positivistic approaches in the study of sport. Researchers in sport psychology and sport pedagogy have explored the use of novel paradigms and procedures, and have initiated a trend towards the use of qualitative methodologies in sport research. The current study followed this trend through the use of qualitative analysis of in-depth interviews to explore and describe the perceived roles and responsibilities of university coaches.

Significance

Researchers have focused on novice, and more recently, expert individual and team sport coaches. The findings of this investigation contributed to the growing literature on coaching and provided information on a distinct group of coaches, intercollegiate coaches. This study offered varsity coaches an opportunity to discuss their perceptions of their roles and responsibilities, providing an insider's description of varsity coaching to their peers, players, administrators, and university directors, as well as aspiring and developing coaches. Such descriptions may foster an understanding of the roles of varsity coaches in the university experiences of student athletes from personal and academic perspectives and give coaching educators direction in the establishment and improvement of coaching courses for aspiring and current varsity coaches.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research in coaching has focused mainly on the behaviors of coaches within the context of training and competition. However, researchers have begun to appreciate that coaching involves much more than an obligation to the skill development and athletic performance of athletes. This chapter will review the research on coaching behaviors related to performance enhancement, on various conditions and constraints specific to coaching within an educational setting, and on the role of coaches in the academic pursuits and personal development of their athletes.

Literature on the Role of Coaches in the Skill Development of Athletes

A composite picture of the tasks of high-level coaches in training and competition can be drawn from research on skill development in sport and other performance domains, and career development within the coaching profession. Further accounts can be found in research on the systematic observation of coaching behavior and the knowledge structure of elite coaches.

Research on athlete skill development. Bloom (1985) conducted innovative research on talent development of expert performers in the arts, science and sport domains. Comprehensive structured interviews were carried out with 120 performers who had reached world-class levels of accomplishment in their fields to better understand the process of talent development. Bloom identified three developmental stages of the career evolution of top performers in these domains: the early, middle developmental, and final years of skill perfection.

Bloom (1985) addressed the role of coaches and/or mentors at each stage. Within the sport domain, Bloom considered the functions of mentors and coaches in the development of expertise of world class swimmers and tennis players. The first stage of skill development began with initial curiosity and the introduction to the activity. During these early years, the coaches' primary objectives were to promote interest and participation, while teaching the fundamental skills of the sport. Rewards were given for

effort rather than outcome and achievements, and rarely did the coaches punish or criticize the young athletes. The second stage was marked by a fuller commitment to skill development. The athletes, now firmly “hooked” on the sport activity, had become increasingly concerned with performance outcomes and sought coaches qualified to improve their physical ability. Coaches at this stage were more knowledgeable, often considered the best within their region, and were exemplary in their instruction and training of the technical aspects of their sport. During the final stage, the performers with exceptional ability often auditioned for coaches widely recognized as master teachers. The athletes were singularly directed towards achieving excellence in their domain and had begun to contribute their own input into training and competition. The coaches provided less instruction and greater performance evaluation and feedback in these final years.

Ericsson and his colleagues (Ericsson & Charness, 1994; Ericsson, Krampe & Tesch-Römer, 1993; Ericsson & Smith, 1991) also examined the development of performance skills in various domains. Their research has contributed to the field of expertise by extending Bloom’s (1985) developmental stages to include a fourth level the researchers termed “eminence” that required a unique and innovative contribution to one’s performance domain. More importantly, the researchers argued the development of expertise requires a minimum period of effortful practice, a process they labeled “deliberate practice”. However, the researchers reasoned that constraints, including resource, effort and motivational constraints, would interrupt deliberate practice. In their research with elite violinists, pianists, chess masters and athletes, the researchers briefly described the function of instructors and coaches in facilitating the deliberate practice of these performers. The instructors provided knowledge, direction and feedback, and created a training climate that promoted skill development.

To ensure effective learning, subjects ideally should be given explicit instructions about the best method and be supervised by a teacher to allow individualized diagnosis of errors, informative feedback, and remedial part training. The instructor has to organize the sequence of appropriate training tasks and monitor improvement to decide when transitions to more complex and challenging tasks are appropriate. (Ericsson et al., 1993, p. 367)

The work of Bloom (1985) and the research of Ericsson and his colleagues (Ericsson & Charness, 1994; Ericsson et al., 1993; Ericsson & Smith, 1991) suggested coaches at different levels of skill development fulfill distinct roles and responsibilities. At each stage, coaches taught and emphasized different skills, their roles changing based on the developmental level of the performer.

Research on the progression of coaching careers. Schinke, Bloom and Salmela (1995) demarcated seven chronological stages in the careers of six expert Canadian basketball coaches. The first three stages in the coaches' career evolution spanned their athletic involvement from early sport to national and international elite sport participation. The last four stages marked their career progression as coaches from novice, to developmental, national elite and, finally, international elite coaching. Schinke and his colleagues determined the responsibilities of the coaches were different and increasingly complex as they progressed from early to elite coaching, consistent with Bloom (1985). "[I]n the first coaching level, teaching competencies were of little importance. However, during the developmental coaching phase, coaching became a career with a competitive orientation and emphasis towards understanding the needs of the athletes and the sport of basketball" (Schinke et al., 1995, p. 57).

Novice coaching involved coaching in a non-competitive primary school or local league. Coaches at this stage were often responsible for teaching academics in primary schools, as well as supervising a number of sports. In the next developmental coaching stage, coaches held positions at the secondary school level and led competitive high school teams. The national elite level was achieved when the coaches secured positions with successful university and/or provincial teams. Initially, coaching was often a shared responsibility and, as the coaches acquired greater experience, they advanced to higher profile coaching positions. The coaches had reached the highest coaching level, international elite coaching, when appointed national team coaches for international level competition.

The national elite coaching stage described the experiences of the participants while coaching at the university level. Schinke and his colleagues (1995) reported that as university and national team coaches, the tasks of the expert basketball coaches included

short- and long-term goal-setting, quadrennial and seasonal planning and refining the physical and psychological skills of players.

The literature discussed to date provides an indication that coaches at different levels have distinct roles and responsibilities. The research by Schinke and his colleagues (1995) provided a picture of specific responsibilities of varsity coaches. Researchers have also provided a detailed description of the roles of intercollegiate coaches within training and competition settings through systematic observation of the coaching behavior of varsity coaches.

Research on coaching behavior. A detailed review of the literature by Trudel and Gilbert (1995) revealed a number of researchers have systematically observed the conduct of individual, but most often team sport, and almost exclusively amateur coaches within both training and competition environments. Tharp and Gallimore (1976) observed the coaching behavior of UCLA National Basketball Hall of Fame inductee, John Wooden, during the final two thirds of his last season. The researchers coded his behavior into 10 categories, which included instruction, hustle, praise, scold and a combination category of scold and reinstruction. The results showed Wooden most often provided instruction and rarely offered praise or reproach. The researchers recorded over 2800 teaching behaviors during 30 hours of practice, almost 60% of which included information and instruction.

Langsdorf (1979) observed the coaching behavior of Arizona State University head football coach, Frank Kush, during 18 spring practice sessions. The coding system was an event recording procedure similar to the instrument used by Tharp and Gallimore (1976) with the inclusion of an additional category, use of first name. These findings supported the results reported by Tharp and Gallimore and served as the basis of subsequent research.

Lacy and Darst (1985) observed the coaching behavior of 10 experienced high school head football coaches during pre, early and late season practices using a rudimentary event recording systematic observation tool derived from the instrument used by Langsdorf (1979). Their findings were consistent with earlier research showing a predominant use of instruction with minimal praises and scolds. The researchers did record a greater use of instruction, praise, scold and positive modeling in the pre, as opposed to

early and late season. This was an indication that coaches placed a greater emphasis on teaching fundamentals in the first part of the year. The researchers divided the practice sessions into four segments and were able to determine that the coaches exhibited more frequent teaching behaviors during the group and team segments, than during the warm-up and conditioning periods. The coaches used the group and team segments for instruction and demonstration, while delegating the supervision of non-instructional portions of practice to the assistant coaches and support staff.

Lacy and Darst (1984) revised their coding tool and released the Arizona State University Observation Instrument (ASUOI). The ASUOI was designed to provide a more detailed record of the teaching behaviors of coaches and therefore divided the instruction category into four separate classes: pre, concurrent and post-instruction and questioning. The ASUOI was based on an event recording system, which provides researchers with the number of behaviors observed in each category over a specified time period. Researchers have used the ASUOI to evaluate the coaching behavior of male and female coaches of high school girls' basketball (Lacy & Goldston, 1990) and to compare the instructional behaviors of teachers and coaches (Rupert & Buschner, 1989).

Smith, Smoll and Hunt (1977) developed the Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS) based on a content analysis of coaching behaviors during practices and games. The CBAS included 12 behavioral categories, 8 reactive and 4 spontaneous behaviors. The reactive categories coded the responses of coaches to desirable performance, mistakes and errors, and players' misbehaviors. The spontaneous categories included game relevant and unrelated behaviors initiated by the coach. Smith and colleagues have used the CBAS to investigate the influence of coaching behavior on the psychological growth and well being of children (Smith, Smoll & Curtis, 1978, 1979; Smith, Zane & Smoll, 1983).

A number of other coaching observation tools have been introduced since the early research by Tharp and Gallimore (1976) and Smith and his colleagues (1977): the Lombardo Coaching Behavior Analysis System (LOCOBAS) (Lombardo, 1989), the Coach Observation Schedule (COS) (Rushall, 1989) and the Computerized Coaching Analysis System (CCAS) (Jenkins & Hughes, 1995).

Many of these observation tools are for use within practice and training environments and typically use an event recording format. When event recording systems are used, such as the ASUOI, studies have shown that instruction was the most frequently exhibited behaviour (Lacy & Darst, 1985; Lacy & Goldston, 1990; Tharp & Gallimore, 1976). However, results of studies using an interval recording system, in which the behaviour observed at given intervals are recorded, tell a different story. Claxton (1988), for example, observed the behaviour of coaches using both event and interval recording procedures. The researcher found that when using an event recording tool, instruction was the most frequently observed behaviour, consistent with earlier research. However, the interval recording data found that instruction accounted for less than 10% of the recorded intervals of coaching behaviours during training. These results indicate that the two instruments provided divergent information on the amount of instruction transmitted from coach to player during practices.

A team of researchers who have developed an interval recording tool to record coaching behaviors during competition found similar results. Trudel, Côté and Bernard (1996) designed the Coaching Observation System for Games (COSG) to index coaching behaviors of youth ice hockey coaches during games. The instrument was inductively developed through the analysis of several videotaped games of youth ice hockey. The COSG is an interval recording procedure based on six second observation and six second record periods, and includes 16 categories describing coaching behaviors and another 8 indicating to whom the behaviors were directed. The researchers observed the behaviors of 14 volunteer youth ice hockey coaches over 32 games and reported the coaches spent considerable time watching their players, organizing and directing the game. The coaches directed their behavior most often to players in action (players on the ice) and players on the bench. The researchers found that using an interval recording procedure the coaches offered little instruction to their players during games, only 11% of recorded intervals included giving information, and providing positive and negative evaluation. This findings was consistent with those reported by Claxton (1988). The researchers concluded that youth ice hockey coaches did not provide a high degree of teaching during games. While the COSG has yet to be used outside the context of youth ice hockey, it has provided

further support for the differences which have been noted when using an interval recording as opposed to an event recording procedure in the observation of coaching behaviours.

Research on the knowledge structure of elite coaches. A group of researchers have examined the operational and conceptual knowledge structure of expert gymnastic coaches and provided a broader understanding of the roles and responsibilities of high level coaching. Côté and his colleagues (Côté, Salmela, Trudel, Baria & Russell, 1995) conducted in-depth interviews with 17 expert Canadian gymnastic coaches, probing their entire careers in sport from their early athletic participation to their attainment of elite coaching positions. The researchers developed the Coaching Model (CM) (see Appendix A) based on inductive analysis of the interview transcripts. The CM contained three central components (training, competition and organization) as well as three peripheral components (coaches' personal characteristics, athletes' personal characteristics and contextual factors).

Côté, Salmela & Russell (1995b) elaborated upon the training and competition components of the CM. The researchers outlined the knowledge and strategies used by the coaches to help gymnasts achieve their potential at competitions. The central tasks were maintaining the gymnasts' readiness to perform, avoiding offering technical information immediately prior to a competition and trying to act as a spectator during a meet. They also helped gymnasts deal with distractions, supervised trial routines while at the competition site, and provided the athletes with lead up meets to prepare them for more important competitions.

The knowledge of the expert coaches used to develop the skills of their gymnasts within training or practice sessions was described in the training component (Côté et al., 1995b). Their knowledge was classified into several categories which described for example, the involvement of the coaches in training technical and mental skills and in simulation, and their intervention styles. The time spent by the coaches in training ranged from 20 to 60 hours per week. The technical skills category was defined as the knowledge of the coaches used to teach the technical skills of gymnastics, and included such properties as the importance of teaching progressions, athlete-readiness and safety. The knowledge of the expert coaches in developing the mental skills of their athletes was

described and included teaching athletes to cope with stress and pain, and to develop motivation, awareness, self-sufficiency, self-confidence and intensity. The researchers also identified how the coaches used the simulation of the mental and technical demands of competition within the training setting.

Organization was the third central component of the CM (Côté et al., 1995) and described the knowledge of the expert coaches in planning training, working with assistants and parents, helping gymnasts with personal concerns, monitoring gymnasts' weight and developing esthetics.

The three peripheral components - coaches' personal characteristics, athletes' personal characteristics and contextual factors - were identified as variables that could affect the training, competition and organization components (Côté et al., 1995). The coaches' personal characteristics included the coaches' personal approach to coaching, their sources of satisfaction, and opinions regarding coaching boys and girls. The athletes' personal characteristics component outlined the gymnasts' personal qualities, variables affecting their performance and their stages of learning.

Côté and his colleagues (1995) noted the environment in which coaches worked could influence the coaching process and ultimately the performance of athletes. The contextual factors component described the knowledge used when working with parents, assistant coaches, and within various job conditions. Contextual factors included variables specific to the nature of gymnastics, such as its funding, coaching salaries, and the Canadian elite gymnastics system. Like the context of international level gymnastics, university athletics is characterized by distinctive features such as the educational mandate of universities and dwindling funding which can affect the roles of varsity coaches.

A partial record of the responsibilities of university coaches has been constructed by examining research on the development of expertise, the career progression and knowledge structure of elite coaches, and the coding of coaching behavior. However, the roles and responsibilities of coaches extend far beyond those assumed within the context of teaching skilled motor performance. Coaches often need to be educators, counselors, and financial directors (Caccese & Mayerberg, 1984; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Martens, 1990; Taylor, 1992; Schinke et al., 1995): "Specifically, coaches may be required to fulfill

the roles of physical trainer, technician, fund raiser, accountant, parent, administrator, and recruiter" (Taylor, 1992, p. 30).

Literature on the University Setting and its Impact on the Roles of Coaches

There are a number of conditions within a university setting that may determine or affect the roles and responsibilities of varsity coaches. These include the commercialization of intercollegiate sport and the decrease in financial support within Canadian universities.

Commercialization of intercollegiate sport. As sport began to attract media attention, the opportunity for commercial endorsements grew to a point where intercollegiate athletics in the United States has now become a multi-billion dollar industry (Bale, 1991). Competition and tournament schedules are often dictated by available media coverage and television ratings. Athletes are expected to spend time with media, fans and boosters, which drastically limits their academic and free time. Varsity coaching positions have become more precarious and dependent on athletic victory. The director of athletics at the University of Michigan recently stated: "In truth, there is little today that separates professional and intercollegiate athletics, and the gap is narrowing" (Roberson, 1996, p. 7).

The gap between professional and intercollegiate sport within the Canadian environment remains fairly wide. Varsity sport in Canada commands little attention other than from the coaches and athletes directly involved. Curtis and McTeer (1990) reported attendance at a varsity basketball or football game at two universities in their study seldom exceeded 2000 spectators, and more often was less than 1200. Further, Canadian varsity sport receives little media coverage. At most, one varsity football game was televised per week, and when both varsity hockey and basketball were in season, the weekly television coverage alternated between the two sports (Curtis & McTeer, 1990). Further, the broadcasting revenue from Canadian varsity sport is minimal, a fraction of the revenue generated in American intercollegiate athletics. These circumstances suggest varsity coaches within the Canadian setting must struggle both to increase media interest in their varsity programs and to secure sponsorship, tasks that are relatively unknown to American coaches of major intercollegiate programs.

Impact of decreasing financial support in Canadian universities. The Matthews Report (Matthews, 1974), a national study sponsored by Sport Canada in 1974, examined intercollegiate sport and recommended varsity athletic programs be financed by their university. At the time, this recommendation allowed the expenditure of governmental university funding, then distributed by Sport Canada and Recreation Canada, to operate athletic programs in Ontario. Today such governmental funding has been drastically cut and monies previously allocated to athletic programs are used to support academic departments. Administrators of interuniversity athletic programs across Canada participating in a national conference on the changing role of sport in the university context, recognized universities can no longer operate athletic programs completely by themselves and must generate revenue from other sources (MacIntosh, 1986). Authors have noted that: "Canadian universities are now more than ever faced with shrinking resources, which means that athletic departments must increasingly look outside the university for money to support their programs or they must cut back on the breadth of their offerings" (Hall, Slack, Smith & Whitson, 1991, p. 208).

One source of external funding has been the implementation of an athletic fee for all students. Janzen (1986) surveyed the funding of athletic programs at all Canadian universities and reported all now have a mandatory athletic fee, except for one university in western Canada. Other sources of revenue have included contributions, sponsorships, rental and equipment fees and gate receipts.

When these sources of revenue have been insufficient, athletic administrators and coaches have had to seek other sources of funding. This has meant many coaches have now become fund raisers and marketing directors for their own varsity sport programs. The financial strain "has placed pressure on athletic administrators and coaches to become fund raisers, and as such, has further fragmented their workload and increased their job frustrations" (MacIntosh, 1986, p. 5). Coaches have begun to operate sports camps throughout the summer months, and player and coach workshops throughout the academic year, as fund raising ventures. A number of other fund raising events have been implemented in Canadian universities including commercial advertising in programs, lotteries, and the marketing of athletic services.

While funding cutbacks have increased the responsibilities of varsity coaches, they have decreased the number of employment opportunities. Many universities facing financial difficulty have had to reconsider the breadth of sport services to be supported (Janzen, 1986; MacIntosh, 1986). Some universities have chosen to maintain recreational and intramural sport programs for the wider student population at the expense of their varsity sport programs. Others have continued to support both sport curricula in a reduced capacity. Both alternatives have limited the opportunities for coaches, either by cutting the number of available coaching positions or by downgrading full time positions to part time status. Coaches who previously allocated all of their time to coaching, often have to take on additional responsibilities to secure their jobs. These changes have increased the already saturated list of roles and responsibilities of varsity coaches.

Literature on the Role of Coaches in the Academic Achievement of Athletes

The relationship between participation in intercollegiate sport and academic achievement has drawn considerable scholarly attention. However, the results of studies investigating this relationship are mixed, at best. Some research have reported a negative impact of athletic participation on academic achievement; others have found a positive relationship with academic grades and graduation rates enhanced through involvement in intercollegiate sport; while others still, have found no significant relationship.

On one side of this controversy are a number of researchers who have reported a negative relationship between athletic participation and academic performance (Adler & Adler, 1985; Danylchuk, 1995; Eitzen & Purdy, 1986; Kiger & Lorentzen, 1987). Adler and Adler (1985), for example, examined the academic achievements of the members of a major college basketball program, representative of "big time" athletics in American intercollegiate sport, from 1980 to 1984 through participant observation. The researchers reported most of the student-athletes had been optimistic about obtaining a degree when they first entered college. However, their athletic, social and classroom experiences as varsity athletes led to diminished interest and objectives in academic success, and culminated for most in academic failure and non-completion. The researchers commented: "Athletes progress through a pattern of experiences, which first raises their hopes and then

diminishes their opportunities for attaining the professed goals of the educational system” (Adler & Adler, 1985, p. 53).

A body of research maintaining a positive relationship between athletic participation and academic performance (Henschen & Fry, 1984; Pascarella & Smart, 1991; Shapiro, 1984) stands on the other side of this controversy. In an archival study of a single university, Henschen and Fry examined the graduation rates of male and female intercollegiate athletes from the University of Utah between 1973 and 1982. Athletes graduated at a higher rate compared to their non-athlete counterparts, 49 to 45% respectively. Shapiro reported similar findings for male student-athletes of varsity football, basketball, baseball and hockey at Michigan State University over a 30-year period. Athletes graduated at a higher rate than non-athletes and also had significantly higher graduation rates compared with national figures. The researchers concluded the “results of this case study support the position that intercollegiate athletics have a positive influence on the educational attainment of participating athletes” (Shapiro, 1984, p. 50). National studies by Ryan (1989) and Pascarella and Smart found athletic participation had a positive, although sometimes modest, impact on college and university academic achievement and completion of a bachelor’s degree.

Several researchers fall in the middle of this debate reporting no relationship between athletic participation and academic performance (Dubois, 1981; Hood, Craig & Ferguson, 1992). Hood and his colleagues compared the academic achievements of 952 varsity athletes with non-athletes matched on gender, ethnicity and scores on academic aptitude tests, and with a random sample of undergraduate non-athletes. The results indicated student-athletes achieved lower grades when compared to the random sample of the undergraduate population. However, their grades did not significantly differ when compared to their matched non-athlete counterparts.

Researchers have also compared the academic performance of black and white student-athletes, male and female student-athletes, and participants in revenue and non-revenue generating sports (Eitzen & Purdy, 1986; Kiger & Lorentzen, 1986, 1987; Pascarella & Smart, 1991). Again the results are mixed. Pascarella and Smart (1991) reported the overall influence of athletic participation differed little for African American

and Caucasian male student-athletes. However, Eitzen and Purdy (1986) found considerable differences in pre-college test scores, that is, Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and high school grade point average (GPA), and university graduation rates for black and white student-athletes. Their findings suggested African Americans who were ill-prepared for college and university were recruited based almost solely on their athletic abilities. Studies comparing the academic attainment for female versus male varsity athletes suggested that women fare slightly better. Women had higher university GPAs, were less likely to be placed on academic probation (Kiger & Lorentzen, 1987), and demonstrated greater motivation to succeed throughout their academic careers (Bedker Meyer, 1990).

Most studies cited to date were based upon the American intercollegiate athletic context. Only a handful of studies has investigated the relationship between athletic participation and academic attainment within the Canadian environment. Martens (1985) compared intercollegiate athletes with non-athletes at the University of Victoria from 1970 to 1980. The high school and university GPAs of athletes were lower and they took longer to graduate, yet graduated at a higher rate than their non-athlete peers. Danylchuk (1995) reported results from comparisons across male and female athletes, and type of sport, between athletes and a non-athlete sample, and across type of faculty. The researcher reported significantly higher GPAs for female athletes, lower GPAs for both male and female athletes compared to non-athletes and negligible results for type of sport and faculty. Curtis and McTeer (1990) presented slightly different results from two studies contrasting the academic performance of student-athletes of men's varsity football, basketball and hockey of a small and a large Canadian university to non-athletes matched on university, year of entry, program of study and gender. Athletes of both universities were equally or more likely to graduate, especially when in honors programs, and showed no significant difference from non-athletes in cumulative university GPA. The researchers concluded "our results suggest that the findings of a negative relationship, as in some US studies, does not generalize to the Canadian case" (Curtis & McTeer, 1990, p. 188).

It is clear, a definite relationship between athletic participation and academic performance has yet to be determined both in Canada and the United States. Criticism of this body of research is its variable and inconsistent use of indicators such as high school

GPA's, SAT scores, university GPA and university graduation rates and its failure to solicit the opinions of those involved, namely student-athletes (Adler & Adler, 1985; Bedker Meyer, 1990). And, while few empirical studies have examined the perceptions of student-athletes, the perceptions of varsity coaches have been neglected to an even greater extent.

Athletes spend 30 hours per week (Adler & Adler, 1985; Bedker Meyer, 1990) and, in some cases, as many as 60 hours per week (Eitzen & Purdy, 1986) in sport-related activities. Their coaches often become significant adults and role models in their lives, part of what Scanlan and Lewthewaite (1988) have termed the "primary family of sport". It is warranted to conclude that coaches can play an important role in the scholastic achievements of student-athletes.

At the elite level, expert gymnastic coaches identified school success as a priority and were willing to adjust their expectations and schedules to accommodate the academic demands of athletes:

Because the gymnasts' school success was perceived by expert coaches as more, or at least equally important as gymnastic success, coaches would never hesitate to redefine a gymnast's performance goals in order to diminish school difficulties or prevent failure in school (Côté et al., 1995, p. 137).

At the high school level, coaches listed the emphasis on academics and the completion of high school and college requirements as one of their most important obligations as coaches (Kirk & Kirk, 1993). Wishnietsky and Felder (1989) examined the reasons for the resignation of high school coaches by sampling 124 school superintendents. The results indicated that 19.4% of the coaches who had been dismissed, were let go due to the poor academic performance of their athletes.

At the university level, the role of varsity coaches in the academic pursuits of their athletes has been addressed by several researchers (Adler & Adler, 1985; Bedker Meyer, 1990). Adler and Adler conducted a study of a men's college basketball team and briefly discussed the role of the coaches in the academic performance of their athletes. The coaches stressed the positive aspects of higher education and the importance of obtaining a degree, during the recruiting process and the pre-season. The researchers reported that the coaches involved themselves in the academic matters of the athletes including

declaring their majors, registering for classes and setting up their schedules. Adler and Adler suggested this disassociation from academic decision-making created a misplaced belief that everything was taken care of academically, when only the administrative tasks were completed. The athletes still had to complete the course requirements, over which their coaches had no control and about which their coaches showed little interest. The female athletes interviewed by Bedker Meyer, however, reported little or no involvement of their coaches in their academic decisions or their progress.

Some exceptional American varsity coaches have discussed their impact on the academic success of their players, despite discouraging graduation rates among athletes of large revenue generating sports and highly publicized violations of NCAA regulations. Boston University's head football coach Jack Bicknell said: "I take it as my responsibility to make sure this student is going to class. There is no excuse for poor class attendance; and a head coach can get the message across better than anyone on his staff" (Bicknell, 1989, p. 144). Coaches convey significant messages to their players when they respect academic regulations and encourage athletes to do well. The importance that university coaches place upon academics can be meaningfully conveyed to their athletes:

If the coach is not convinced that education is important to that student-athlete, the student-athlete is not going to be interested in going to class and making as good grades as he can. He's got the only excuse he needs. The man he looks up to for all his guidance has made it clear that it really doesn't matter what he does as long as he shows up on Saturday and gets it in the end zone. He's been taught from day one: you please the coach and everything's OK. (Bailey & Littleton, 1991, p. 120)

Academic violations are not as prevalent within the Canadian interuniversity athletic system, perhaps due to the absence of athletic scholarships and financial incentives, and dramatically lower revenue from athletic contests. Furthermore, limited budget for support staff means that Canadian varsity coaches have greater contact with their players than typical NCAA Division I head coaches. This suggests Canadian varsity coaches may have a stronger role in the academic pursuits of their student-athletes.

Literature on the Role of Coaches in the Personal Development of Athletes

Research investigating the impact of involvement in sport on personal, social and moral development of athletes is controversial. In general, studies have indicated that participation in exercise and athletics has a positive impact on the personal development of participants (Berger & McInman, 1993; Boutcher, 1993; Martens, 1990). However, the benefits are less certain within the context of competitive sport (Bloom & Smith, 1996; Bredemeier, 1985; Olgilvie & Tutko, 1971; Silva, 1983), and especially within the highly competitive sport environment at the college and university level (Bredemeier, 1985).

Bredemeier (1985) investigated the perceived legitimacy of intentionally injurious acts in sport and found college student-athletes rated a greater number of injurious acts as legitimate than their high school counterparts. These findings corroborated earlier research by Silva (1983) who found the competitive sport environment encouraged legitimacy of rule-violating, potentially injurious behavior. Sowa and Gressard (1983) compared the score of 48 athletes and 43 non-athletes on the Student Developmental Task Inventory and provided further support for the claim intercollegiate athletics hinders the development of personal and life skills. This instrument contained three major scales: the development of autonomy, purpose, and mature interpersonal relationships. The scores of athletes and non-athletes significantly differed on several subscales, namely career plans and mature relationships with same sex peers, although no effects were found for the major scales. Stone and Strange (1989) examined the personal experiences of college freshman athletes and non-athletes using the College Student Experiences Questionnaire. The researchers found athletes were more involved in athletics and recreation on campus but took part less in art, music and theater, and clubs, organizations, fraternities and sororities. The study suggested that athletic participation adversely affected participation in traditional means of interaction on campus.

Conversely, Ryan (1989) reported a positive association between intercollegiate athletic participation and several measures of personal and social development. The experiences of a national sample of freshman athletes and non-athlete peers were compared from two- and four-year American colleges and universities. Participation in intercollegiate athletics was related to a reported increase in interpersonal and leadership

skills: "The positive results indicate that athletic involvement may make a fairly strong contribution to affective educational goals, in terms of the development of interpersonal skills and leadership abilities" (Ryan, 1989, p. 126). Similar indices of a positive influence of varsity athletic involvement were reported by Pascarella and Smart (1991).

Intercollegiate athletic participation had a beneficial impact on social self esteem, including leadership, among their national sample of American male varsity athletes.

The role of intercollegiate athletics has also been addressed from the perspectives of athletic directors. Chelladurai and Danylchuk (1984) reported that, when asked to rank the operative goals of intercollegiate athletics, 99 athletic administrators ranked the transmission of culture, the promotion of the personal growth and health (physical, mental and emotional) of athletes, and public relations as the three most important goals.

While the overall impact of intercollegiate sport as a whole on the personal development of student-athletes remains unclear, the role of coaches in the personal development of their athletes is more certain. Empirical research, as well as biographical (Bloom, 1996a; Miller, Bloom & Salmela, 1996; Walton, 1992) and autobiographical (Wooden, 1988) accounts of intercollegiate coaches have indicated they have a strong influence on the personal development of their athletes.

At the high school level, for example, Radford (1991) assessed 151 American high school varsity athletes' perceptions of the values they acquired directly from former coaches. The participants were former high school athletes currently taking physical education courses in a Basic Instruction Program of the Department of Exercise and Sport Science of an American university. Over 90% of the student-athletes reported they gained more positive than negative values from the personal example of their coaches. Many of the athletes believed their coaches intended to positively influence their performance on and off the field, instilling both sportsmanship and scholarship. Their coaches did not promote, nor tolerate dishonesty; 90% of the respondents indicated that their coaches did not cheat nor bend rules to win. Sixty percent of the high school student-athletes in this study reported they learned more values from their coaches than from any other teacher.

Authors have addressed the role of varsity coaches in the personal development of student-athletes at the college and university level. Perna, Zaichkowsky and Bocknek

(1996) examined the association between mentoring and the psychological development of male athletes and non-athletes at the end of their college or university career. The presence of a mentor was measured by two means: self-report and scores on the Mentoring Functions Survey (MFS). Psychosocial development was measured using two subscales of the Modified Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (MEPSI): identity and intimacy. Results indicated athletes were more likely than non-athletes to self-report having been mentored, and most identified a coach as their mentor. Athletes who received more psychosocial mentoring had higher intimacy scores, as measured by the MEPSI than non-athletes, however no relationship was found for the identity subscale. The findings suggested athletes who received more mentoring developed greater intimacy, which demonstrated a tendency for mature emotional expression and self disclosure. The researchers concluded that “mentoring represents a potentially fruitful paradigm from which to investigate the coach-athlete relationship, which may clarify the role of significant adults in collegiate athletes’ lives” (Perna et al., 1996, p. 86). Finally, Hinkle (1993) surveyed the student-athlete population of an American university and found 70% of student-athletes turned to their coaches for assistance with problem-solving and coping skills.

Schinke (1995) reported expert basketball coaches had also been concerned with the personal lives of their athletes while coaching at the national elite coaching stage, which included coaching university and national teams. The coaches were often sought for advice and guidance in academic and personal matters, and because of the limited number of athletes under their supervision, were able to help their athletes with confidential issues: “The coaches were aware that their responsibilities extended beyond producing a successful competitive team. They wanted their athletes to develop positive life long values from their sport experiences, so the coaches also encouraged their athletes to maintain healthy social lives” (Schinke, 1995, p. 78).

Literature on the Dual Role of Teacher and Coach

Varsity coaches may face the dual role of teacher and coach within an educational institution. Considerable literature has investigated the role conflict and role strain that emerges from the assumption of multiple roles (Bain, 1983; Locke & Massengale, 1978;

Sage, 1987; Taylor, 1992). Inter-role conflict involves a person occupying several roles that require inconsistent or contradictory behaviors, while intra-role conflict refers to holding a single role of which others have different, and often times divergent expectations. Role strain, or role overload, involves having more responsibilities than one's time, energy and resources allow (Bain, 1983).

There is agreement in the literature that physical education and coaching differ in many respects, including the relevance of role performance to career advancement, the extent of daily preparation for role execution, the skill level of the athletes, the instructor to student ratios, the motivation of participants and the time and equipment available for instruction (Chu, 1984; Locke & Massengale, 1978; Piéron & Gonçalves, 1985; Sage, 1987). Locke and Massengale (1978) interviewed 201 educators employed in the dual role of teacher and coach at the college, high school or middle/elementary school levels. Almost one quarter of the respondents indicated that being assigned to teach physical education where class conditions required a different set of abilities, had been a "great" or "very great" problem. The respondents estimated that the multiple demands of both positions caused serious problems for half of the professionals employed both as teachers and coaches.

Sage (1987) followed six high school teachers/coaches for two weeks and conducted formal in-depth interviews with another 50 high school teacher/coaches regarding their multiple role demands. Teacher/coaches were often overwhelmed by their responsibilities and demands, rushing from one task to the next. Teachers/coaches regularly committed 30 to 40 hours per week beyond their teaching responsibilities to their coaching duties. Coaching tasks included planning and supervising practices, preparing for matches, attending and coaching all of their games, meeting with coaching staff, supervising equipment and transportation, and counseling athletes.

Most of the teachers/coaches preferred the coaching position, although they valued their teaching experiences and recognized that they were employed primarily as teachers (Sage, 1987). Teachers/coaches often established the preferred coaching role as the dominant one and committed less time and effort to the fulfillment of the other, in order to

cope with incompatible and exhausting role demands (Locke & Massengale, 1978; Sage, 1987; Taylor, 1992).

Sage (1987) recognized several limitations of the research in this area: "Some research has looked at the subject of multiple role demands of teachers/coaches and their responses to them, but most research has focused only on teachers of physical education who were also coaches and it has tended to be quantitative" (p. 221). Sage provided rich, pragmatic data on the social world of high school athletic coaches through extensive observation and in-depth interviews. The researcher noted that varsity coaches who have teaching responsibilities were often assigned lighter teaching loads in deference to their coaching demands and suggested they may therefore, not share the perspectives of high school teachers/coaches.

Literature on the Professional Responsibilities of Coaches

Literature available in the coaching domain suggests coaches may perceive several responsibilities related to their membership in the coaching profession. Gould, Giannini, Krane and Hodge (1990) surveyed the educational needs of elite national team, Pan American and Olympic coaches. These researchers found that for 90% of the respondents, attending clinics and lectures or seminars contributed to their coaching knowledge. These coaches continued to upgrade their coaching knowledge and expertise even though they had achieved high level coaching positions. Moraes (1996) recognized similar patterns with elite Canadian team sport coaches. These coaches continued to participate in formal learning through attending and leading clinics and seminars, and completing coaching certification requirements even though they had already been recognized as experts in their field. Neither group of coaches identified a commitment to learning as a specific role. However, it is estimated coaches do perceive professional development as a personal and professional coaching responsibility.

High level coaches have indicated their status carried a responsibility towards the development of aspiring coaches (Moraes, 1996). Expert team sport coaches indicated they considered the preparation of young, developing coaches a responsibility associated with their positions as elite coaches. Intercollegiate and national team coaches have also reported a responsibility towards the development of aspiring coaches (Schinke et al.,

1995). Three out of six coaches interviewed were committed to mentoring aspiring coaches. One participant shared: “[An] important part of my job is to work with high school coaches. I accept this as part of my job, to help coaches learn to develop players. I do this through clinics, bringing them to games and letting them come to practices” (Schinke et al., 1995, p. 58). This was consistent with recommendations of expert coaches on the future training of aspiring coaches (Bloom, Salmela & Schinke, 1995). The expert coaches expressed the need for greater learning opportunities for young coaches through clinics, seminars and symposium, hands-on experience, passive observation of other coaches, and a structured mentorship program.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

A qualitative methodology was chosen to investigate the perceptions of varsity coaches concerning their roles within the university environment. Researchers in sport pedagogy and sport psychology have successfully used qualitative research to investigate the coaching domain (e.g., Côté, Salmela & Russell, 1995b; Schinke, Bloom & Salmela, 1995; Trudel, Dionne & Bernard, 1992). In-depth, open-ended interviews allow the collection of rich, descriptive information of the area of interest and was an appropriate methodology in this exploratory study. This chapter will focus on the qualitative methodology used to acquire information on varsity team sport coaches' perceptions of their roles and responsibilities.

Participants

For the purpose of this study a varsity coach was defined as an athletic instructor employed by a university whose main responsibility was the supervision and organization of a varsity athletic program. Four varsity basketball and four varsity volleyball coaches were selected based on several criteria. The participants had to be employed on a full-time basis for a university for whom 50% or more of their duties were coaching a varsity sport. It was argued coaches employed on a full-time basis would have a greater understanding of the demands of coaching at the university level, than part-time or assistant coaches. Participants had to have a minimum of four years coaching experience at the university level, ensuring they had a good understanding of the roles and responsibilities of varsity coaches.

Participants were selected from the Ontario Universities Athletic Association (OUAA) and the Ontario Women's Intercollegiate Athletic Association (OWIAA), organizations that regulate men's and women's sport teams in Ontario universities. This provided more rigorous selection criteria and facilitated data collection by limiting travel and cost.

Basketball and volleyball were chosen for two reasons. First, these sports engage both men and women coaches, unlike other varsity team sports such as football and hockey who traditionally employ only men. Secondly, their seasons extend throughout the academic year, unlike varsity soccer for example, suggesting more coaches would be employed on a full-time basis and more would be available throughout the duration of the research project.

A list of varsity basketball and volleyball coaches in the OUAA and OWIAA was compiled. The researcher contacted a number of these coaches, briefly explained the purpose of the study, determined if the coach met the selection criteria and was willing to participate. Those who met the criteria, were willing to participate and were available for an interview within a reasonable time period, were included in the study. Six of the participants were contacted by telephone and the remaining two, in person. Arrangements were made to conduct the in-depth interviews at the participants' convenience.

The average age of the participants was 38.6 years, ranging from 30 to 43 years. Their coaching experience at the university level ranged from 5 to 20 years, with an average of 13 years. Seven of the eight participants maintained secondary positions within their universities; two as professors, one on tenure track, four as supervisors of intercollegiate or intramural sports programs, and one as coordinator of an athlete support program.

Data Collection

A pilot study was conducted with one full-time varsity volleyball coach and one full-time varsity hockey coach before the data collection began. The pilot study was necessary to ensure coaches could discuss their perceptions of the roles and responsibilities associated with coaching in the university setting within an open-ended interview format. The pilot test also improved the interviewing style of the researcher, contributing to the credibility of the data collection. Feedback was solicited from the participants on the interview process and the interviewing style of the researcher.

In-depth interviews were conducted with each of the eight selected participants within a one month period between November and December. All but one of the interviews took place in the offices of the participants, the last in a nearby meeting room,

and lasted between 60 and 90 minutes. Each interview began with introductory comments to the participants, a brief reminder of the purpose of the interview and objectives of the research project, allowing the researcher to develop rapport with the coaches (Patton, 1980). This was followed by completion of a consent form (see Appendix B) and biography sheet (see Appendix C). Permission to record the interview was obtained from all participants, followed by an explanation of the recording device (Cohen & Manion, 1989). The participants were then ensured anonymity and advised that the interview tapes would be destroyed upon completion of the project. An alphabetic coding system was used throughout the research project to guard the identity of the participants.

Next, the data collection began in earnest; the participants were invited to discuss in detail their perceptions regarding their roles as varsity coaches. The interviews were not structured in the sense that a series of identical questions were asked of each participant but were flexible, allowing the researcher to develop questions as the interview progressed, and explore areas relevant to the research topic as they emerged. Similar interview approaches have been successfully used in qualitative research in sport (Côté, Salmela & Russell, 1995a; McDonald & Orlick, 1994; Orlick & Partington, 1988; Patton, 1987; Schinke et al., 1995). The researcher did have access to a list of possible probe questions, although the list was used sparingly. Rather, the researcher posed questions in response to the participants comments, often repeating their phrases and terminology. A debriefing process during which the interviewees were thanked for their participation concluded each interview.

Data Analysis

The taped interviews were transcribed verbatim and produced 94 single spaced pages of text. The transcripts were then "cleaned up" which involved removing incomplete sentences, and repetitive or redundant phrases. Alterations to the transcripts were editorial in nature and did not alter the content or its significance (Tesch, 1990).

An inductive analysis was conducted following procedures similar to those outlined by Côté and his colleagues (1995a). Inductive analysis follows a bottom-up approach, beginning with the smallest units of meaning and moving towards higher order organization and conceptualization of the data. The categories and classes are not pre-

determined, but emerged from the meaning of the data. Côté and his colleagues (1995a) described three steps in their methodological discussion of the analysis of expert gymnastic coaches' knowledge. These included creating tags, properties and categories, and were accommodated to the research objectives of the present study.

Creating tags. The first step was to divide the interview material into "meaning units". A meaning unit is "a segment of text that is comprehensible by itself and contains one idea, episode or piece of information" (Tesch, 1990, p. 116). The identification of meaning units can be verified by the presence of two conditions; that the meaning unit be understandable if read out of context and that the meaning unit contain only a single topic (Côté & Salmela, 1994). Each meaning unit was given or "tagged" with a descriptive label that expressed its content. The researcher looked for "in vivo" tags (Côté, Salmela & Russell, 1993), namely terms used by the participants that could serve as labels. Examples of the tags used in the present project include fund raising, recruiting, and scouting. The researcher reviewed the interview transcripts, line by line, and divided the text into 777 meaning units, and initially generated a 44 tags. Following revisions this number dropped to 40 tags.

Creating properties. The second step of the analysis involved creating properties. Similar meaning units were grouped and organized into distinct categories called "properties" (Côté et al., 1995a). Côté and his colleagues (1993) warned against sorting based on the content of the meaning unit, rather than the essence of the tags. Properties were labeled according to the shared features of its tags. For example, the tags administrative task, budget and fund raising were regrouped under the property administrative responsibility. The 40 tags were initially sorted into 8 properties, however, following discussions with peer debriefers one property was eliminated so that the 40 tags were regrouped into a final total of 7 properties.

Creating categories. The third step of the analysis involved assembling similar properties into categories. Creating categories permitted the researcher to make connections within the data and generate a broader representation of the emergent perceived roles and responsibilities of the varsity coaches. The relationships between properties were identified leading to a small number of higher order categories. The 7

properties were regrouped into 3 categories: athletic role, educational role and professional role.

Establishing Trustworthiness in the Data Analysis

Some researchers have questioned the applicability of the traditional evaluative measures applied to quantitative research with the growing popularity of qualitative research (Brenner, 1985; Guba & Lincoln, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Several have argued that the classical constructs of reliability, validity and generalizability have little relevance to qualitative research and specifically to the interview process. "It is questionable whether the concepts of reliability and validity as used conventionally in the methodology of the social sciences can be usefully applied in the context of intensive interviewing or, for that matter, of interviewing in general" (Brenner, 1985, p. 155). Qualitative researchers have adapted these concepts to exemplify the intent and process of qualitative data collection and analysis. Several of these measures were included at various stages of the data analysis to establish trustworthiness (see Table 1).

Table 1

Measures Used to Establish Trustworthiness in Data Analysis

	Interview Transcripts	Creating Tags	Creating Properties	Creating Categories	Descriptive Narratives
Member Checking					X
Independent Judges		X	X		
Peer Debriefing			X	X	
Electronic Data Handling	X	X	X	X	X

Member checking. Lincoln and Guba (1985) described a credibility check, called member checks, that involves returning to the source of data for verification of the interpretations and conclusions of the researcher. Lincoln and Guba argued that if "the investigator is to be able to purport that his or her reconstructions are recognizable to audience members as adequate representations of their own realities, it is essential that they be given the opportunity to react to them" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 314). A one

page descriptive narrative (Hycner, 1985; Jensen, 1989; Locke, 1989; Miles & Huberman, 1994) was written for each participant reflecting their perceptions of their roles and responsibilities following the final stage of data analysis. Their narrative and an accompanying letter were mailed to each participant, and at which time they were asked to evaluate the factual accuracy and credibility of interpretations (Guba & Lincoln, 1981). Five of the descriptive narratives were returned. Mostly editorial changes were made by the participants, although one coach provided additional comments, which were included in the database.

Independent judges. Hycner (1985) and Mostyn (1985) both recommended training independent judges to check the units of relevant meaning in order to establish credibility in the analysis of interview transcripts. Hycner, for example, argued:

If there is significant agreement between the researcher and the judges, then this indicates that the researcher has bracketed his/her presuppositions and has been rigorous in his/her approach in explicating the data. If there are minor differences, they can usually be worked out in dialogue between the researcher and the judges. (p. 285)

Two independent judges checked the first stage of the inductive analysis procedure; creating tags. Judge A, a master's student, conducted a reliability check by retagging 195 or 25% of the total meaning units. Judge A was familiar with research in the coaching domain and the analysis procedures. Therefore, the precautions listed by Côté and his colleagues (1993) were not followed. The researcher met with Judge A to familiarize her with the research project, provide her with the 195 meaning units and a list of the 44 tags generated during the first stage of the analysis. Each tag was briefly explained. Judge A chose to tag the meaning units on her own and agreed to meet the researcher several days later. This first meeting lasted approximately 30 minutes. It took Judge A five hours to tag the 195 meaning units, after which she met again with the researcher. The researcher and Judge A agreed on the tag assigned to 157 meaning units leading to an inter-rater reliability of 80.5%. The researcher and independent judge discussed the cases on which they did not assign the same tag until a consensus was reached. The results of the independent judging by Judge A led to several revisions. For example, the tag "personal

growth” was identified as a dimension of the tag “life skills” and therefore, the meaning units previously tagged personal growth were assigned the life skills tag. Following this first reliability check, the number of tags dropped from 44 to 41.

Following these changes, a doctoral student also familiar with research in the coaching domain and the analysis procedures acted as a second independent judge, Judge B. Judge B repeated the same task as Judge A with a separate 77 or 10% of the meaning units and the revised list of 41 tags. It took Judge B approximately one hour to complete the task and the tags assigned by Judge B were then compared against those used by the researcher. The tags matched in all but nine cases providing an inter-rater reliability of 88%. Minimal changes were suggested; two tags were combined and one descriptive label was modified. This left the total number of tags at 40.

The researcher retagged the entire database following the changes suggested by Judges A and B with the revised list of 40 tags in order to ensure consistency.

After the second stage of analysis, creating properties, was completed, Judge A was contacted again. This time Judge A was given the final list of 40 tags, and a list and explanation of the properties generated in the second step of the analysis. Judge A was asked to regroup the 40 tags into the original eight properties, which took approximately 30 minutes. Judge A placed all but 3 tags in the corresponding property, leading to an inter-rater reliability of 93%.

Peer debriefing. Lincoln and Guba (1985) stressed the importance of establishing credibility in data analysis and offered a number of methods and strategies to do so. Peer debriefing is a process of submitting one’s working hypotheses and procedures to the scrutiny of fellow researchers with whom the researcher shares a mutual respect. A research group of graduate students at the University of Ottawa who are familiar with research in coaching, acted as peer debriefers throughout this research project. They questioned working hypotheses, sought clarification in the conceptualization of the properties and categories, and provided feedback and recommendations. Meetings with two peer debriefers warrant description. Following the independent judging of the eight properties, Judge A shared her views on the interpretations of the research to date. Judge A was a former varsity team sport athlete and former assistant varsity team sport coach,

and so her feedback and suggestions contributed to the credibility of the analysis. Following the final stage of the analysis procedures, the researcher met with a doctoral student completing his dissertation on the attitudes and beliefs of expert team sport coaches. The researcher shared the initial categories, with their respective properties and tags. Several changes were made following a discussion including the unification of two properties, leaving the total number of properties at seven.

Electronic data handling. The data was manipulated using Microsoft Access designed for qualitative analysis. As noted by Côté and his colleagues the “electronic organization of the data facilitated the interpretation of the results by keeping a systematic classification of each meaning unit and its source” (1995a, p. 74). The analysis was more efficient and the loss of data or its sources eliminated by handling the data electronically.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

The purpose of the research was to identify the perceptions of varsity team sport coaches regarding their roles and responsibilities in the university environment. Following procedures similar to Côté, Salmela and Russell (1995a) 777 meaning units drawn from the interview transcripts. Like meaning units were grouped and labeled with 40 different descriptive tags, which regrouped into seven properties and then into three categories (see Table 2). The three categories were conceptualized as roles, the properties as responsibilities within the roles, and the tags as tasks or duties specific to their corresponding responsibilities. From a bottom-up perspective, tasks or duties described in detail more general responsibilities, which in turn represented broader coaching roles. This chapter presents these three roles with their properties and respective tags.

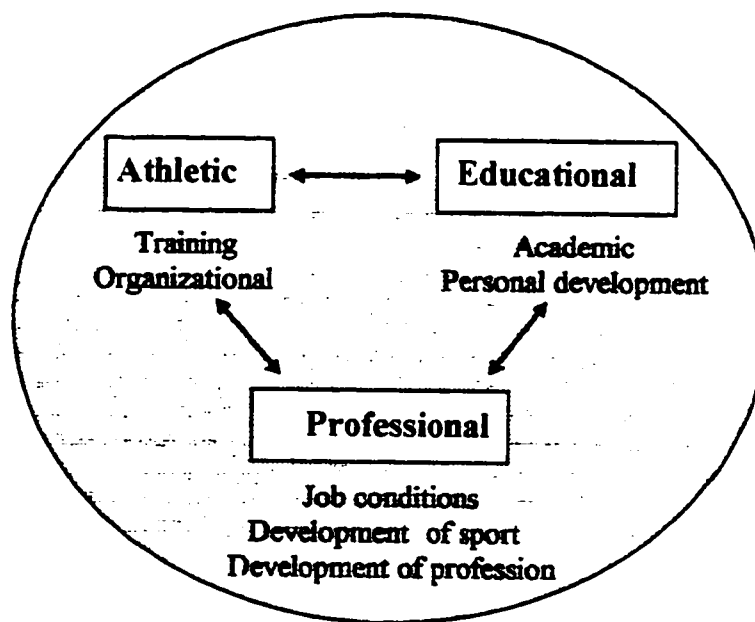


Figure 1: Varsity Team Sport Coaches' Perceptions of their Roles and Responsibilities

Table 2

Levels and Frequency of Components of Analysis

Level of Analysis	Frequency of Occurrence
1. Tags	40
2. Properties	7
3. Categories	3

Table 3 reports the number of coaches and meaning units within each category and their respective properties. Each category and six of the seven properties were represented by all eight coaches and one property was represented by seven of the eight participants.

Table 3

Number of Coaches and Meaning Units within each Category and Property

CATEGORY and Property	Coaches (N = 8)	Meaning Units (N = 777)
Training Responsibility	8	173
Technical training	8	69
Tactical training	5	21
Physical training	5	15
Psychological training	6	36
Athlete work ethic	4	22
Athlete input	4	10
Organizational Responsibility	8	310
Planning		
Setting the vision	3	20
Recruiting	7	62
Seasonal planning	7	35
Practice planning	8	42
Competition		
Scouting	3	7
Pre-game preparation	5	13
Post-game evaluation	4	14
Build Team harmony	4	21
Complete Administrative tasks	8	96
Academic Responsibility	7	60
Promote academics as a priority	7	13
Provide academic assistance	7	40
Respect university mission	3	7

Responsibility to the Personal Development of Athletes	8	113
Provide counseling	7	42
Provide parenting	4	11
Teach life skills	6	46
Teach life priorities	6	14
Effect of Job Conditions on Roles of the Coaches	8	46
Responsibility to the Development of their Sport	7	54
Ensure athletes enjoy sport experience	3	7
Promote varsity program	4	28
Promote sport	5	19
Responsibility to the Development of their Profession	8	21
Promote professional development	5	6
Represent profession	3	5
Mentor aspiring coaches	5	10

The following sections describe the athletic, educational and professional roles, their responsibilities and specific duties. In each section, one or two sample meaning units are included to add depth to the descriptions of the perceptions of the roles and responsibilities of varsity coaches.

THE ATHLETIC ROLE

The athletic role was defined as the tasks and responsibilities of the coaches in relation to their varsity sport programs and the athletic performance of their teams. The two properties of this category were the training and organizational responsibilities.

Training Responsibility

The meaning units classified within the training responsibility were defined as the tasks of the coaches in the athletic instruction of their athletes. Four aspects of athletic instruction emerged within the training responsibility: technical, tactical, physical and psychological training.

Technical training. Technical training referred to the tasks of the coaches in their athletes' acquisition and development of technical, sport-specific skills. The participants had important obligations towards the technical skill development of their players.

My role in the skill aspect is paramount. You have to have certain skills to be effective as a player. You have to have certain offensive skills and then you have to have certain understandings of the defensive skills that are involved. (BB2)

Within technical training, the participants placed a strong emphasis on teaching their athletes, especially rookies, fundamentals skills of their sport.

I am just a strong believer if the players cannot execute the fundamentals, they are not going to be able to play, no matter what you do. They can not do the things we need them to unless we work on the fundamentals on a regular basis. (BB1)

Five coaches incorporated individual training sessions into their technical training agendas. These were designed to help individual athletes refine technical skills and improve weaknesses. Three coaches committed two to three hours per week to individual technical instruction. Among these coaches, several spent extra time in individual instruction with central players, namely setters.

At the beginning of the year, you work on technical things and at some point, you decide where you are at and what you are doing. Sometimes there is just not enough time, particularly for the ones at the beginning of learning a skill. That's why I try to do individual practices. (VB1)

However, this procedure was not evident for all coaches. Two coaches reported neither they nor their athletes had time for one on one training sessions. These coaches felt there was little opportunity for individual technical instruction due to added responsibilities in their coaching positions and increased pressure on student-athletes.

In the 70's and right through to the late 80's I used to spend a lot of time on one on one teaching and then we ran out of time. The academic requirements on the students became heavier. The students became stressed out coming into school. There was the need to achieve those great grades to do well. (BB3)

Tactical training. Meaning units related to the instruction of strategies and systems of play were combined under the property tactical training. The focus shifted from an emphasis on technical to tactical training as their players matured and their technical abilities improved.

The focus on technical and tactical shifts depending on the competitive period. In the university setting, it will go through cycles. For example, this year I have a fairly senior team which means a low technical side, more tactical and get the job done. Whereas four years ago, it was overload on the technical, simple tactical. Now I can get more tactical as they get more experience playing. (VB1)

The participants taught their players when and how to take advantage of their own strengths, as well as the weaknesses of their opponents.

There is the whole tactical component of it. The tactical side of volleyball involves an awareness of what goes on, when to play this defense and that defense, how to score against this defense and against that defense, when to hit here versus there, when to block here, when to release. (VB1)

Five coaches reported the use of video as a means of evaluation and instruction for both technical and tactical training

We use the film sessions a lot in the summer time and during the year. We try to show them what is happening on the floor. Some of the basic things I wanted to point out to them on the game tape may be where the skill was done or was not done. That way they can see the results when they were done incorrectly and correctly. (BB1)

A women's basketball coach however, did not support the use of video as a training tool.

There are a very few athletes who can dissect a film and see what you are trying to talk to them about. Most athletes want to go in and watch themselves on video, 'Oh look at that!' It is up to me to try to identify what kind of learners they are and to verbalize to them what I think they should do. (BB3)

Physical training. Physical training was defined as the tasks of the coaches in the development and maintenance of the fitness, endurance and strength of their athletes.

Physical is a main part in developing the athletes. You have to guide the athletes so they are physically prepared, can handle the physical work, endurance and have the power, strength and all the motor performance factors required in sport. (VB4)

There was a range of involvement of the coaches in the physical training of their athletes. Several coaches introduced physical training techniques such as weight and aerobic training early in the season and then expected their athletes to individually maintain their physical training, only periodically monitoring their progress throughout the season. "The power training and the weight training is something we introduce them to and then it is up to them how far they want to take it." (BB2) In contrast, two coaches implemented, supervised and monitored endurance and strength training programs which included pool and weight training. "Another side of my coaching includes making sure the athletes' fitness level is there and so I spend time with them on a one on one at times, ensuring their weight training program is progressing." (BB3)

Intercollegiate athletic regulations prohibited technical and tactical training during the off-season. However, the participants were allowed to provide their athletes with off-season, physical training programs. Three coaches provided their athletes with summer personal training programs and monitored their adherence through letters, periodic summer training camps, and physical testing at the outset of the following season.

In terms of off-season physical training, this year we sent out a 50 page plenary physical training manual for developing maximal strength, endurance strength, speed strength and power to the athletes with a sheet they had to fill in weekly and mail back to me. It is a way of monitoring that they are doing their work. (VB4)

Psychological training. The meaning units compiled under psychological training were defined as the function of the coaches in the introduction and development of psychological training skills, such as focusing, visualization and distraction control. Psychological training was included within the training responsibility because it was the decision of the coaches to implement mental skills training programs within their overall training curriculum, whether using their own experience or by having consultants intervene with their players.

Six of the eight coaches provided their athletes with psychological training, two based on their own knowledge, and four using the expertise of a sport psychology consultant, sometimes a professor but most often, a sport psychology graduate student.

We use sport psychology and work with several sport psychology professors here at the university and we have a graduate student, a former soccer player, working with us this year. We encourage our guys to go in to talk to these people in individual sessions and then we will schedule team building, focusing in team meetings. (BB1)

The coaches and sport psychology consultants worked on several specific areas including goal-setting, imagery, focusing and motivation. A basketball coach reported: "I want them setting goals. We do weekly goal-setting this year and they have a buddy. They have to verbalize their goal to their buddy and then talk about it." (BB4) Another basketball coach said:

We use imagery; 'See yourself performing your good plays. What was in your mind when you were performing them? What was in your mind leading up to your best game? When you were playing well in the game,

what was in your mind? When you weren't playing, what was in your mind? Think back and replay it in your mind. (BB1)

Within all four training components, the coaches taught and expected from their athletes a strong work ethic and a commitment to giving one's full effort.

We spend a lot of time trying to get them to work hard in practice. I talk to them before every practice giving them a message everyday that has something to do with working hard in practice. We spend a fair amount of time explaining to them: "It does not matter who starts. It does not matter how much you play. It matters how much you practice, how hard you work in practice." (BB1)

Four coaches prompted their athletes to provide them with feedback on training sessions and their performance as coaches within the four training areas, while two coaches had their athletes complete explicit evaluation forms.

We have the players rate their physical factors: strength, speed, conditioning, endurance, flexibility, quickness and then general factors like coaching, reinforcement, clarity of game plans and instruction, management, trainers, officials, equipment, schedules, practices, organization of practices, the effort of players in practices, the effort of the coaches in practices, travel, rest. Besides the number rating, there is a comment and suggestions block they are required to fill out. The evaluation is a fairly comprehensive. We want them to take the time to think, to put down comments and suggestions for each question. (BB1)

The coaches solicited feedback not only from their athletes, but also from their assistant coaches. Two coaches allowed their assistants to critique their training methods and strategies, providing new perspectives and suggestions. "I constantly ask the assistant coach or coaches, 'What do you think about this? What do you think about that?'" (VB3)

Another coach said:

My assistant coaches and I debate thoughts and talk about how to deal with players. Sometimes they have great insights because they are on the side lines and when I am involved in it, it is very hard to take a step back. (BB3)

Organizational Responsibility

This property was interpreted as the organizational and administrative tasks of the coaches directly related to their varsity sport programs. There were four main components within the organizational responsibility property and these were the duties of the coaches

in: planning, building team harmony, attending to competition procedures and completing administrative tasks.

Planning. The meaning units combined within the planning property were classified as the duties of the coaches in various forms of planning their season and were grouped under four areas: setting the vision, recruiting, seasonal and practice planning.

Setting the vision was considered the task of the coaches in establishing achievement objectives for their teams on a seasonal basis. Three coaches discussed setting the visions of their team as a coaching function. For these coaches winning was an important and consistent achievement goal.

We are always trying to win the National Championship because we figure we only have 12 games in a regular season which means we have to come in the top 4. We try to get them on that mission every year. (BB1)

There is a large responsibility towards winning. That is huge. That is what I am here for, what I am paid to do and what our team expects. We expect to win, we do not expect to lose and as the coach, I expect my team to want to win. (VB2)

The coaches maintained similar achievement objectives from year to year and recruited athletes based on these objectives. Recruiting, defined as the identification and selection of new, potential athletes, was described by seven participants as a major task at the varsity level.

Several coaches indicated their two most salient selection criteria were the physical ability and work ethic of athletes.

In terms of recruiting, the bottom line is a mediocre athlete will make a mediocre volleyball player even though he has great coaching. A good athlete will make a good volleyball player. A great athlete will make a great volleyball player. (VB4)

When I first recruited, I said, 'I am going to get the best athletes I can. Now, I try to find hard working kids. I want to find kids whose nature is to be hard working. That is not very easy to do. (BB1)

The coaches identified potential recruits based on these selection criteria, often as early as grade 10, and followed their development throughout high school. Many attended high school and club games, and several had contacts within the local and regional sport community who helped identify potential recruits.

Recruiting involves player identification from about grade 10 and when they first enter Cegep. My two assistant coaches this year coached a regional team under 16, so we identified those kids at 15, 16. This summer I went to a regional tournament that has all the under 18 kids playing in the six regions in the province. (BB4)

The coaches contacted potential recruits in Grades 12 or 13, occasionally in person but more often by phone, as they began to consider university attendance. The coaches often forwarded information about their varsity athletic programs, universities and their academic departments, spoke with parents and high school coaches about potential candidates, and arranged for home and campus visits.

Recruiting is basically identifying the athlete, finding out who some good athletes are, contacting them to find out what their academic interests are, and then indicating I think they are good enough to play on our team and asking them 'Have you thought of coming here?' and 'Do they have any questions?', 'Would they like to come down for a tour?', 'Let me talk to your folks.' (VB3)

I see a lot of players play in the summer time in the programs and keep an eye on them and then we approach them. We write to them, we phone them, we approach them, we talk to them, we go see them, we bring them on our campus, we show them the campus, we take them to lunch. We do all those things you need to do. (BB3)

The coaches often verified whether likely recruits could meet the academic requirements of their institutions, and ensured their institution could satisfy the academic interests of potential student-athletes.

We recruit relatively selectively, in that we look at the best possible people available for the university. There is no sense in me trying to recruit the best player if I know academically they are not able to get into the university; we do not have any avenues open to those people. (BB2)

Recruiting is identifying first of all what the student wants to study, and hopefully it is not something like journalism, which we don't have. We are lucky because they offer a million programs here. If it is a program we have, you bring them in and take them to the registrar or dean of that program. (VB1)

Many of the coaches disliked recruiting because of the time required to attract talented athletes, and the discomfort stemming from having to sell themselves, their programs and their universities. The loss of potential athletes to other varsity programs in Canada and the United States was also frustrating.

Recruiting is probably every coach's least favorite activity. It takes time and I don't look at myself as a sales person. If I wanted to be in sales, I would go into sales and make more money. That is why it is not a lot of fun to do. (VB3)

For the most part you are getting kids you know are not the best. We don't pay them anything. We don't give them anything except an opportunity to play. If they are good enough they can get paid to play in the States. No matter how hard you work, you are not going to get the best players. (BB1)

The next planning task was seasonal planning, outlined as the planning of training and competition schedules including exhibition, tournament and league play, and the establishing of skill development objectives over the season. Seasonal planning was described by seven of the eight participants as an important coaching duty.

I sit down at the beginning of the season and plan out from the beginning to the end of the season, where I want to be and how I will get there, the steps I have to take to accomplish that. (VB2)

I plot ourselves based on the skills and team techniques I want them to have accomplished by a certain date. There are goals I set out for the team and I slot in certain defenses I want in at this time. I break the whole year off and plot it. (BB3)

Within seasonal planning, the season was often broken down on a monthly and then weekly basis.

With the technical and tactical side of it, it is the planning and periodizing on a four year and then a one year and then a one month and then a one week and then the organization of the practice. It is the whole planning process. It's periodizing and planning the technical and the tactical, psychology and physical. (VB1)

The coaches considered several factors when mapping out their seasonal plans including the ability and competitive level of their team and the academic schedules of the athletes.

It's trying to figure what level of competition they need. This year we need the best competition there is, so we are playing all the teams in the top ten as often as possible. Next year, we will see what the level of the team is but we probably won't have as competitive a schedule. (VB1)

When scheduling, you have to keep in mind the academic work load. When we play our Provincial and National Championships in the second half, academically speaking, it just around reading week. It is a brutal overload. Do you try to simulate the same thing in the first half when they are in midterms, so they recognize it? Do you try decrease the amount of competition closer to their academic crunch? It means scheduling

competition, practices and school and trying to keep it all in perspective.
(BB4)

Most of the coaches reported their seasonal plan changed throughout the year based upon the progress of their athletes and their performance in competition.

When I lose a game, I always have a tendency to re-evaluate, to throw things out, to bring new things in and even after 16 years, I still do it.
(BB3)

I will change things during the season. For example, we might decide we want to put in a certain zone by the third week in October and I will decide, 'No, we are not ready for that. We need more man to man principles' and so we won't put it until the second week in November. But the plan is there to start from, then you make changes from it. (BB4)

One men's basketball coach, however, indicated he rarely changed his seasonal plan while the season was in progress, but often made notations for the following year.

I stick to the schedule throughout the year because it is thought out. We don't deviate from the it much. I want to alleviate rash management or being reactive instead of proactive as much as possible. When I do the yearly schedule, I am fairly proactive because I am thinking, plotting, seeing, and understanding where we are going to be. I stay with what I had planned because it is good, so why change it? I make notes and maybe the next year make some changes. (BB2)

From the seasonal plan, the coaches set up their daily practice plans.

After I have broken my seasonal plan down into months, weeks and I have my master calendar plan for the whole season, I go back and see where I should be day to day. That is how I see what I need to do for practice.
(VB2)

Practice planning, the final component of the planning task, involved the tasks of the coaches in building series of drills, and teaching lessons designed to meet the training objectives detailed in their seasonal plans.

For practice, there are always contingencies which deal with the technical, tactical, physical, psychological aspects within the drills themselves. Tactically we will want them to do this. We'll have a little game here and see who wins. Physically or psychologically they have to stay in the drill until they complete ten good ones or they'll work on plus, zero, minus criteria. (VB4)

Of the seven coaches who outlined daily practice plans before practices, two participants in particular felt an obligation to their athletes to be prepared and organized for each practice session.

The coach in any sport has to be organized when they go into practice. You talk about athletes respecting a coach. The cliché is 'Respect is earned, not given.' So I have to walk into practice and know exactly what I am going to do, what my objectives are for the practice session. (VB3)

The participants spent between one half and two and a half hours planning each practice which varied from one and a half to two hours. VB1 noted: "I spend probably two to two and half hours each day planning every two hour practice." Another coach expressed:

Part of my job involves setting up drills for them within the practice plan. I'll spend about half an hour going through a practice and planing, 'OK, these are the things we have to work on. How are we going to work on them?' Then I set up the specific drills. (VB4)

Three coaches indicated they completed their practice plans late in the summer, and gave their athletes a practice schedule for the upcoming term or full season.

My practice planning for the year includes when we are going to practice so everything fits in. I do it in the late summer so I can give the athletes our whole practice schedule for the year in September, so they know when they are doing what. (BB2)

As when outlining their seasonal plans, the participants appreciated the academic schedules and workloads of their student-athletes when planning daily practices, often changing practice times and intensities around mid-term and exam periods.

I get an exam schedule from them so I know when each of their exams are and I try to work out practices in and around their exam schedule or work in individual sessions for them in the month of December. (BB4)

The flexibility of their seasonal plans was also evident in the practice planning portion of their coaching tasks. Practice plans changed throughout the year based on the skill acquisition and progress of their athletes. A basketball coach noted: "I usually stick to the practice plan, but obviously make adjustments depending on how we are playing, how certain things are going with the team, how certain things are going with the practices and the skills." Another coach related: "The practice plan is not set in stone. It changes on a

regular basis in accordance to how they are performing, how fast they are learning, and how well they are acquiring a skill. It regularly changes.” (VB2)

Competition. This property was defined as the duties of the coaches directly prior to and following a game or match. Before a game, three coaches indicated they reviewed scouting reports and often watched video tapes of previous games against their upcoming opponent.

Scouting is a major part of my role as a coach. The more you know of the opposition the better able you are to deal with them. Scouting may be a telephone call to a fellow coach to ask what are they doing. We have video tape on most of the teams we play against, so I watch the video tape and then set up all sorts of scouting reports on the teams. (VB4)

We look at a lot of video tape. We look at video of the teams before we play them when we are on the road or the week before we play them. I think it helps them to visualization when they are actually seeing somebody or a system another team is playing. When they visualize it, they are visualizing from a knowledge base. (BB4)

Leading up to or on game day, the coaches worked out a game plan detailing, for example, who would start, and which offensive or defensive systems would be used.

I usually go with the players for the pre-game meal and then they get dressed. I use that time to put down on paper a game plan so I have an idea of who I want on the floor, if I am going to change defenses, change offenses, the defense we are going to start in. I write this up 2 hours before a game even though I've thought it through much earlier during the week. (BB4)

For my own preparation before a game, I usually go through a scouting report and make sure we have identified what we want to do, identified how they will start, these are their strengths, these are their weaknesses, this is where we want to attack, in this situation we'll try to do this or that. (VB4)

On game day, several coaches structured preparation routines for themselves and their athletes, while others allowed their athletes to prepare individually.

Right after the game preparation meeting, we will have a team meal about four hours before the game. After that, they kind of scatter and do their own thing. A lot of them go back and rest, some go play video games and some watch the women's game. If they were watching the women's game, they get together afterwards and start getting ready themselves. (BB1)

You read clips that say some kids perform better if they get to the gym two seconds before warm up while some perform better if they arrive 45

minutes before warm up. I can see where that works, but how I am going to have two of my players show up an hour before, three others twenty minutes before, two more two minutes before? It does not work that way. (VB1)

Following each game, three coaches indicated they evaluated the performance of their teams, judging the technical and tactical execution of the players and if necessary, made changes to subsequent training and game plans.

There is an evaluation that goes on after every game. There are films that have to be watched to make sure you are doing the right thing, so you are ready the next time you meet this or another opponent. You repair errors along the way. (BB3)

Build team harmony. The meaning units classified under team harmony were defined as the capacity of the coaches to build rapport amongst team members. Team harmony was included within the organizational role because the content of the meaning units did not reflect an opinion that this task was a psychological training skill similar to visualization and distraction control. Rather, the coaches described an obligation to organize opportunities and facilitate understanding and communication among their players. Three of the eight coaches provided opportunities for the players to get to know each other, and tried to prevent and resolve conflict between teammates.

I have to establish a lot of opportunities for the team to do things together because they need to get to know each other. How you interact with each other on the court during practice and games is a lot different than how they act with each other sitting on the bus or going out to dinner together. I plan outside events as a group to help them have a better understanding of how each other works. (VB2)

My job is to see if there are personal problems occurring on the team between two individuals or three individuals. It is my job to nip it in the bud early, to go in there and deal with it before it becomes a major problem. (BB3)

We try to bring them back in the summer to keep that sense of the team working, that sense of camaraderie. We just did that when we started with our guys, to pump ourselves up. We had a fairly successful season three seasons ago and then we got away from it and did not make them come back anymore. We will get back into that again this year. (BB1)

Complete administrative tasks. The meaning units classified under this property were defined as the managerial tasks associated with the coaching positions of the

participants. The administrative tasks included duties related first to the coaches' varsity programs and their athletic departments, and second to their provincial athletic leagues, the OUAA or OWIAA, respectively, and the supervisory association of intercollegiate athletics in Canada, the CIAU.

Meaning units classified at the program and departmental levels included the administrative tasks related directly to the varsity sport programs of the participants and their athletic departments within their universities. These included, for example, departmental business and meetings, scheduling of facilities and equipment among the entire varsity sport and intramural programs, arranging of minor officials for home and travel plans for away matches.

I am involved with minor officials, for example: 'Who is going to work the clock? Keep score? Keep the stats? Do we have a stats program and is it effective? Who is going to get the money to pay them?' There is also gym scheduling. We have limited facilities in terms of our intercollegiate, intramural, open recreational and rental programs so we have scheduling meetings where everyone comes around the table and we try to get all of this done. (BB2)

There are a lot of administrative tasks that go along with basketball, such as just getting ready for the schedule in terms of buses and hotels, when and where we are going to practice, what kind of meetings we are going to have and booking classrooms and video sessions and equipment. (BB1)

One of two major administrative tasks at the departmental level was the maintenance of the budgets of the coaches. The meaning units describing budget related tasks indicated the coaches planned and strictly adhered to the finances of their programs on an annual basis.

The big administrative things are scheduling, administration, scheduling budget meetings, and financial management which includes paying your staff, reviewing the budgets to make sure you are on track. There is no fat in our budgets anymore. You can't really be within \$2,000, you are looking to see if you are within \$200. Some people think you put a whistle around your neck, roll the ball out and away you go, but it is so much more than that. (BB4)

Over the last few years the participants began to supplement their budgets through fund raising ventures following heavy funding cuts. One coach commented: "Our varsity program never has enough money to do what you want to do so we run a variety of events

over the season to raise money.” Another coach noted: “What is going on right now with the budget cuts mean we have got to go out and re-think our jobs. Fund raising has now become part of the job.” (BB1)

The coaches created a number of means through which they generated money for their varsity programs. For example, many ran clinics for athletes and coaches, high school tournaments, and summer camps and leagues.

Fund raising includes everything from selling chocolate bars and popcorn, to running high school tournaments and clinics. We run a plant sale at the beginning of the year and a tournament and make a few thousands dollars. Sometimes after competitions or events, we clean the stadiums and arenas to raise money. We try to find any way possible to make money. You name it, we have tried it. (VB1)

Fund raising also included involvement with alumni and sponsors. Four coaches solicited donations directly from alumni, and athletic and corporate sponsors. Two others worked within athletic departments who employed marketing and promotions officers. The responsibilities of these participants were to attend functions and events, often as guest speakers.

The other part of the fund raising is the alumni and that is part of the coach's responsibility, but we have an alumni officer here so it is also their responsibility. When you have an alumni officer, the coach's responsibility is to attend functions, so he or she can be there and talk to people and shake hands. The alumni obviously does have a financial implication on programs based on how much money they will donate. (BB2)

I also work the sponsorship deal. We are sponsored by Asics and I deal with them directly. It is taking care of that relationship, making sure they get pictures and all of our paraphernalia and making sure they want to be back on board again the next year. (VB1)

Many of the coaches found that organizing and implementing fund raising ventures was time-consuming and often interfered with their training responsibility and interaction with their athletes.

The time fund raising takes is draining and I don't want to use the little time I have fund raising, when I know I could use it in basketball. I have 12 girls relying on me, so if I spent all my time fund raising, I am going to be drained and they are going to be missing out on an opportunity. (BB3)

Few coaches enjoyed fund raising and many felt generating financial support for their program should not have been a coaching responsibility, nor the responsibility of their athletes.

I think it is somebody else's job to market and promote my program. I don't think it is the coach's job to do that. We can't do it all, because it is too draining, unless you are skilled in that area. (BB3)

I really do not believe our athletes should be fund raising for our program. I think our athletes have enough with school and basketball. Out of 14 athletes, 7 of them are working this year. I do not want them out fund raising. (BB4)

The administrative tasks of the coaches associated with their provincial and supervisory associations were less time-consuming and less frequent than the administrative demands at the program and departmental levels. At this higher level, the administrative tasks included league meetings, reporting of scores and occasionally making and revising league schedules.

I have all the league business with the Ontario University Athletic Association, reporting of scores, making and changing of schedules, the business meetings which occur twice a year for two or three days, and any other items that have to do with the intercollegiate program, such as finances for the league. (BB2)

THE EDUCATIONAL ROLE

A strong educational role of the coaches emerged from analysis of the coaches' interviews. The educational role described the perceived responsibilities of the participants beyond the training of athletic skills and strategies. The educational role category was defined as the responsibilities of the coaches in facilitating the academic pursuits and the development of personal and life skills of their athletes. There were two properties in this category: academic responsibility and responsibility of the coaches to the personal development of their athletes.

Academic Responsibility

This property was delimited to the engagement of the coaches in the academic pursuits of their student-athletes. The coaches were involved in the academic lives of their

athletes in several ways, including promoting academics as a priority, providing academic assistance and respecting the mission statements of their universities.

Promote academics as a priority. The coaches facilitated the academic process of student-athletes by stressing and placing academics as a priority. "You have to recognize that at the university level, they are here for academics. They are students first. Volleyball is a bonus. It is an extra thing they want to commit themselves to doing." (VB2) The coaches taught their players the importance of their education and academic achievements throughout their varsity careers.

I tell the student when they come to university, school is their first priority. Basketball is their second priority and we will never take the first step. I will never let them not go to class and come to practice. (BB3)

As reported earlier, when planning their competitive seasons and individual practice plans, the coaches considered the academic schedule and workload of their athletes, often adjusting travel plans and training intensities to accommodate the academic calendar. This reconfirmed for their athletes that academics was a priority.

Maybe during midterms, I have to re-evaluate my goals for the month because the athletes are not going to be able to learn a new system. They need to just do more physical kinds of drills. At that time, they are coming to practice to turn off their brains rather than turn them on. (VB2)

Provide academic assistance. The meaning units classified under this tag described the perceived obligation of the participants to provide their athletes with direct academic assistance. The coaches gave academic assistance, for example, by monitoring the progress of their athletes, and arranging time management seminars and tutors.

Seven coaches monitored the academic progress of their athletes, ensuring they completed required course work and passed exams, as illustrated by the following meaning unit: "My role is to ensure they are academically suited in the right programs and they are successful academically, they are able to pass their grades and they are doing well." (BB3) Most had computer access to their athletes' grades and, with the students' permission, periodically checked their marks.

On line academically means making sure they are progressing towards and are going to get their degree after four years and they are in an area they enjoy. It is just touching base with them, speaking with them. We do have the ability to follow their progress academically through the computer, so if

they tell me one thing, I know whether they are telling me the truth and that is important. (BB2)

Helping them with academics is just making them aware then hopefully they are in full control. I can't study for them or write their exams for them but I can set up their schedules for them. If you take them by the hand, they are not going to learn anything. When they're not in control, 'This is perhaps what you should have done. Now you're in this situation. These are some of your options.' (VB4)

Part of monitoring the academic progress of their athletes was ensuring they maintained their eligibility to play on a varsity team, although the participants indicated this was rarely a problem. "I keep track of their courses during the year also to make sure nobody falls ineligible because they dropped a course which brought them below the 12 credits they need to be eligible." (BB4)

We have to monitor their academic eligibility. I take a look at the final grades and I'll call the athletes up and say, 'Congratulations, it's nice to see you got a B average. With your B average, make sure you apply for this bursary.' With others, "I notice you only completed two and a half courses this year. This means you are probably going to have to take summer courses or maybe another year. It also means you are not eligible to compete. If you want to play next year, you're going to have to pick up a summer course." (VB4)

Two coaches provided direct academic assistance to their athletes by organizing time management courses through the counseling services of their universities at the outset of the academic year.

We did a time management session early in the year with the Counseling Service on academics and how to manage your time and how to prepare for the academic crunch that is going to come up, that usually comes up at the same time as basketball. (BB4)

Three varsity programs provided their athletes with tutors as needed from money generated through team fund raising events.

We spend a lot of time on the academics. We will take practice time and we will bring in someone to help the guys. For example, we have an alumni and who is just finishing a Ph.D. in English, tutoring our guys in English. (BB1)

Many of the coaches maintained a relationship with the professors of their athletes through informal meetings and letters. Some communication was necessary when an

athlete was struggling or when travel and competition interfered with test and exam schedules.

I have literally taken an athlete by the hand and introduced them to their professor: 'This is a student in your class. Unfortunately, he is struggling. He has the mental capacity to do significantly better than he is doing. We do not like wasting your time. Are there any clues you can give us in terms of having him focus a little better so he can do better in the requirements of this course?' (VB4)

Two coaches also provided athletes with individual academic assistance, by revising papers and assignments, and sharing their references, manuals and texts. "They know I am pretty passionate in some areas and I have a lot of resource material in some areas, so they will come and just borrow a lot of my books and articles and stuff." (VB1)

Today, I am reading over a paper for a student who did not get a very good mark, and then we will see if there are some areas I can help her with or maybe she can go back to the professor and say, 'Well, I think you may have misread this.' (BB4)

Respect university mission. These meaning units identified the perceived accountability of the coaches to respect and uphold the mission statement of their universities, in terms of the academic achievement and personal growth of their students, within their interaction with their players, their peers and their communities. This obligation was illustrated in the following meaning units:

I think it is my job to ensure our program fits within the philosophy and the mission of the university. I have to be able to do, and try to work that in. I want to ensure I am demonstrating the values of our mission and what we are trying to do in terms of our mission to people inside and outside. (BB2)

It is my job to ensure the integrity of our institution is always there and we do not try to undermine anyone or do things illegally. That is not what I am all about or what the school is all about. (BB3)

Responsibility to the Personal Development of Athletes

This property was defined as the active participation of the coaches in the personal and life skills development of their athletes. The coaches often developed and shared relationships with their players which extended beyond the scope of the athletic context to touch their personal lives. There was a strong connection between the athletic role and the personal development property of the educational role as it was sometimes within the

context of training and competition that coaches taught their athletes personal and life skills. However, because the instructional content was not strictly related to athletic performance, the coaches' involvement in the personal development of their athletes was not well represented in the athletic role. The personal development property had four components: provide counseling, provide parenting, teach life skills and teach life priorities.

Provide counseling. The meaning units grouped under this tag characterized the coaches' capacities as counselors, helping their athletes cope with personal issues. The participants often provided guidance, and clarified options and alternatives for their athletes.

Providing counseling extended beyond the athletic responsibility of the coaches but was not completely separate. Often an uncharacteristic level of intensity, or poor execution on the court, was an indication that a personal problem needed to be addressed.

If things are not going well for at school or at home, as a coach you become somewhat of a counselor. A lot of what happens in their personal life affects their performance and you can not isolate the two. (BB4)

However, the coaches often discussed personal issues with athletes outside training and competition environments, frequently in one-on-one sessions and informal meetings. "I have a pretty open door policy and the players come in occasionally, just to sit down and talk about different things. The more senior players come by more often." (BB2)

Six coaches maintained an open door policy, allowing athletes to come in to speak with them on an informal, as needed basis. "I have a 24-hour phone line if they get into trouble, if they need something and it is not unusual." (VB1)

You are responsible as a coach to be available to your athlete whenever they want you to be. As soon as one of them knocks on my door, everything is put aside and it is, 'How can I help you? What is wrong? What do you want to talk about?' They struggle a lot. If they want to come in to speak to me, I will give them the time, no questions asked. (VB2)

If things are not going well for them academically or at home, as a coach you become a counselor. A lot of what happens in their personal life affects their performance, so you can not isolate the two. It is not that I want to get really involved in every aspect of a personal life but they know my door is open. I think the proximity of my office to the locker room and the gym

tends to encourage them to come and talk about things that are going on. (BB4)

In order to facilitate the counseling function and make athletes aware they were open to discussing issues other than their athletic performance, the coaches made efforts to establish benevolent relationships with their players. Three participants made an effort to get to know their athletes on a personal level by learning about their families and friends. "You have to understand where these athletes are coming from." (VB1)

We try to learn as much about the players' families as we can. We try to learn as much about their friends. We try to learn as much as we can about them, so we know what we are dealing with. (BB1)

Building a relationship based on familiarity established a foundation of trust and caring outside the boundaries of the athlete/instructor connection.

I think it is really important to have a trust factor. I think it is very important you establish trust with your athletes, so if they come in with any form of a problem, you are available to help them. (VB2)

Three common concerns with which the participants dealt emerged from the interviews. The coaches often helped athletes manage difficulties with personal relationships, transitions to university life, and finances.

We've had athletes struggle with their personal relationships with the opposite sex. It is just being someone to talk to and try to put things in perspective. Emotions are very difficult to deal with but we try to assist them however we can. (VB4)

You are not just going out and playing basketball. It is so much more than that. It is about the kid coming here in his first year completely overwhelmed and flunking every single course he takes. How are you going to get him back in school? How are you going to get him to believe he is not a piece of junk? (BB1)

I think financial concerns have increased for students. Because we don't offer scholarships or financial assistance, I feel, a lot more now than I ever did before, my role includes helping them with summer jobs, helping them find employment during the year and dealing with stresses they have because of finances. (BB4)

While providing their athletes with some counseling, the coaches recognized the limitations of their roles and were equipped to refer athletes to professional resources, should the need arise.

I can't provide all of those things, but they are things the program needs to provide for the athletes. I am a resource for the athletes in terms of making sure I have the support people or they know of the support people who are necessary to help them with whatever it might be. (VB2)

Provide parenting. The responsibilities of four participants occasionally included acting as a surrogate parent, which was defined as nurturing their athletes, and providing care and discipline. The examples shared by the coaches suggested this task was less explicit in nature than their interaction as counselors, less in reaction to a single problem or concern and more generally towards being a caring, nurturing adult.

Sometimes I am a mom for my players which means nurturing, stroking and disciplining them at times about things not basketball related, by just being stern. More often than not, it is just nurturing them. It means encouraging them and motivating them a little bit, helping them out on some personal problem and giving them a hint about something. (BB3)

Sometimes I feel as though I am a parent. I have one athlete who is a single mother with no family here and last year I had two athletes who were single mothers with no family. It means being there for them in a care taking role. Some people call me 'Mother Hen.' (VB1)

The counseling and parental tags have been included in the educational role category because there was a pedagogical component in the interaction of the participants with their athletes. The coaches had a definite intent when dealing with their athletes on this level to teach them to cope more effectively and responsibly with their current and future personal concerns.

There are some athletes who make financial boo-boos like buying a membership they are never going to use. Basically you try to help them figure out what to do. I don't do it for them, but I try to teach them to be responsible. (VB1)

It's up to the individual to select the options they feel are more suited for themselves. I can't make those decisions for them. It is their life. I can advise them, guide them and sometimes, I strongly encourage one option or another option, but it is their choice. (VB4)

Teach life priorities. The meaning units classified as life priorities defined the perceived duty of the coaches to teach their athletes global life priorities. In the academic responsibility, the perceived obligation of the participants to place academics as a priority was described. The life priorities tag extended the task of the coaches to include teaching

their athletes priorities related to all dimensions of their lives, including personal and professional objectives.

We talk about education, and it's more than just university, it is more than just volleyball. It is this whole life thing, it is the big picture. I am not just this fanatic who is really into volleyball; I have a wife and two little girls. I try to take that approach with the athletes. There is more to life then being a varsity athlete. (VB3)

The global life priorities the coaches taught and modeled revolved around three components: family, academics and athletic achievements.

I look at it as three priorities. There is a family they are responsible for first. The second thing they are responsible for is their academics and the third is to play for the basketball team. When they come into the program, we try to explain these to them from day one and we try to live that throughout their careers. (BB1)

Our philosophical priorities within our program are, number one, your family. The number two priority is school and number three is volleyball. If you can fit anything else into those priorities without negatively effecting the first three, then by all means go ahead. (VB4)

Teach life skills. Life skills was been defined as whole person issues including the psychological, emotional, personal, social, moral, and intellectual development of the athlete. Seven coaches felt a responsibility to teach their athletes life skills, as illustrated by the following meaning units: "Within the teaching category of my role, there is also teaching young adults to become better people or develop character." (VB3)

My role is to ensure I provide them with a good set of values and expectations of how I live my life and how they should be thinking of living theirs, and to teach them that it is OK to be different but that they have to be able to conform with society. In order to survive to the next level, you can not always be set apart from everybody. (BB3)

When you are dealing with young players, you really have to teach them life skills and how to cope with failure and losing and how to cope with giving the absolute best they can do and yet still not succeed. (VB1)

Few commonalties emerged among the life skills discussed by the participants, rather most coaches taught their athletes life skills which reflected their personal attitudes and ethics.

I have a code of ethics and values. I want the athletes to learn them and to have them to have to represent the university. It is to be fair, to play fair,

and to treat people fairly. That is how I treat others and that is the way I want to be treated. (BB3)

Two coaches spoke about teaching their athletes to deal with stress and peer pressure.

The psychological part of coaching ties in with teaching the sport and teaching a person to deal with stress. You have to deal with peer pressure in our sport and there is also peer pressure involved in the academic success of the players. (VB3)

Two participants taught their athletes to respect both others and themselves.

I want to be respected and I respect people, my opponents, friends and even people I don't personally like because we are not like minded. I respect them for what they have achieved or what they can bring to the game of basketball. I try to instill that in people to whom I talk. (BB3)

There is a lot of life skills. For example, players have to know how to maintain a sense of self confidence and self respect when they lose a match. Some teams like to run up to the change room if they lose, but if they win they like to go out in the crowd. It doesn't matter if we win or lose, we are still out in the crowd. It goes back to the life skills side of coaching. I respect that because the person you become is a large function of the experiences you have as an athlete. (VB1)

Among other life skills, two coaches educated their athletes about social and cultural awareness.

We organized a one week trip to Cuba during this year's Christmas break to train and play against their juvenile national team. We have gone to California and Holland as well. How many people get those opportunities? It's part of their education to experience different cultures. You broaden your horizons and are more culturally aware of what is out there. (VB4)

Because of their leadership capabilities and experiences, many athletes tend to be leaders in the community when they graduate. We have a responsibility at the university to educate them about social issues they will be facing as leaders in the community X number of years down the road. (VB1)

One coach instilled discipline and team work within his athletes to prepare them for the transition to and success within higher level education and the professional workforce.

My goal is to get these people working on a plan to get a degree and be disciplined enough while they are getting that degree to play for a basketball team, to go out and compete everyday and try to win a national championship. We say get your degree and show the work force you can accomplish something. (BB1)

We are basically about how we can get them prepared to work as a group, as a team, like they are going to do when they work in the workforce. Even if they work for themselves they have to still be able to build relationships with people. Basketball is an extension of that. (BB1)

As a role model, BB3 encouraged her athletes to accept greater life challenges.

Too often we see programs in which winning is the only thing, that what is important is on the scoreboard and not in athletes' lives. Winning comes in many ways so we have to teach our student-athletes to embrace the challenges and opportunities given to them and not to pass them up because, 'I did not quite feel like it.' That is not good enough. (BB3)

As seen earlier in the organizational responsibility of the athletic role, many participants demanded high intensity and effort during training and competition. Several coaches indicated their purpose in doing so was not only to teach the athletes a strong work ethic in sport, but to have athletes translate that standard to other areas of their lives.

I am from the old school where you just have to work at things, just keep throwing effort at it and sooner or later, it will come around. We try to get these kids to compete, work hard and understand if they do that here and out there, they are going to get a job and be a success in society. (BB1)

It is important you are demanding because that carries on later to almost everything they do. There is nowhere else in life where you deal with success and failure on a regular basis, except when you walk into the gym for daily practice. (VB2)

THE PROFESSIONAL ROLE

The professional role was defined as the responsibilities emerging from the conditions of working within a university setting and those associated with being a member of the coaching profession. Two properties emerged and were classified within the professional role of the coaches, and these included the role of the participants in the development of their sport and their profession. It is necessary to first describe the conditions of working within the university setting that effected the coaches' perceived responsibilities.

Effect of Job Conditions on Roles of the Coaches

The university setting imposed varied working conditions on the coaches which impacted upon their perceptions of their roles and responsibilities. The participants

described long hours, considerable job security, secondary positions, and professional satisfaction among the conditions of their work environments.

Most assistant coaches of the participants worked on a part-time and more often on a volunteer basis due to the limited funding for additional athletic staff available from the universities of the participants. Therefore, the participants were solely responsible for the varsity programs which required tremendous amounts of time to individually fulfill the tasks outlined to date.

It is a seven day a week job, almost 18 hours a day during the season because you are the sports information person, the promotion person, the publicity person, the public relations person, the statistician, you are responsible for alumni development, and on top of that, you are the technician and tactician of the team. (VB1)

Three coaches discussed job security in relation to the athletic success of their teams, and agreed their institutions did not judge performance or base their job security on wins and losses.

The priority is to produce successful kids and along the way, try to win a National Championship. My pay check is not based on how many Championships I win. If I can't put a competitive team out there and can't represent the university in a positive light, they might ask me to leave. But, my job is not in jeopardy because of wins or losses or if I don't make it to the playoffs one year (BB1)

Seven participants had additional responsibilities within their universities, frequently within their athletic departments. A secondary role was defined as job requirements secondary and not directly related to their coaching responsibilities. Four coaches maintained secondary roles related to the supervision of other varsity or intramural sports programs.

I coordinate four of our other sports, men's and women's fencing and men's and women's cross country. That requires doing budgets, the pay forms for the staff, the travel arrangements. I handle getting travel reimbursement for the coach and the coaches salaries. I do preparatory work for and attend all their league meetings. In total, I am probably away at league meetings 10 days a year. (BB4)

Despite the added responsibilities, mostly administrative, two participants acknowledged their secondary role provided a broader overview of coaching.

Running the intramural program puts a few things in perspective for me as a coach. If I spend two hours working on an intramural project, I am affecting 200 people. If I spend an hour with one of my players, I am affecting one person. Five thousand versus 12 and 60% of my time goes towards 12 people while the other 40% of my time goes towards 5000. (VB2)

One coach initiated and continued to operate an athlete support program based within the athletic department of her university. The program grew out of her own varsity and national team experiences. The Edge Program was designed to provide student-athletes with a confidential, objective resource and to educate them to cope effectively with life issues. This was closely related to her role in the personal development of her athletes, but as a condition of her full-time position, was included within the job conditions property.

We started the Edge Program about a year and a half ago to provide the athletes with support. I was a student-athlete at this university and there was nothing in place for athletes. The concept is to educate athletes to cope with and balance the stresses in their lives, and to help them perform in everything, not just in sports but in academics and relationships. It also provides athletes with objective, confidential support. We need to provide the athletes with a place where they can go and talk without feeling I am going to judge them and decide not to play them because of what they said. The Edge Program also provides the athlete with some education. For example, we have student-athletes on the Council of Athletics so let's teach them about Robert's Rules, teach them to speak effectively and that they do have the right to say how they feel and don't have to be silenced, teach them to stand up for their rights. (VB1)

Two participants were faculty professors, one on tenure track, at their respective universities and both spoke about the ease of combining their coaching and teaching roles.

I look at myself as a teacher which happens to be the title of coach when I am in the gym and professor when I am in the classroom, but it is not a big difference. The gym is your lab as opposed to the classroom. I think there is a fair number of similarities. (VB3)

I am in the tenure track so I teach academic courses. I see the role of coaching and teaching fitting together very easily because the academic course I teach is coaching. This year I'm teaching a course on the Science and Methodology of Coaching. (VB4)

One participant indicated that being recognized as a professor by his athletes lent a structure to his training sessions. "A lot of my players are in Physical Education and so

they see me teaching. I am fairly demanding in class and then when we get to practice, there is a structure, an organization to it.” (VB3)

Despite the hours and additional responsibilities, several coaches indicated they enjoyed their jobs. One of the satisfactions the participants shared was their sense of accomplishment from watching athletes grow into mature, independent young adults throughout their varsity careers.

My greatest satisfaction is the reward I get when I see a student-athlete I coached graduate and know she is going to make it. She is going to be able to stand up for herself, figure out what she wants and find the people and resources to achieve the things she wants. It is seeing those people develop, grow up, mature and change over the course of four years. (VB1)

It is a great feeling to work with athletes and see them develop as people and come together as a team because then I feel I have had some input into that. That is the part important to me; that is the exciting part. (BB2)

One coach shared that not only did she enjoy her position, but felt it was central to her profession. “Overall, my first responsibility as a coach is to have the want, the need and the desire to be a coach and that is a big part of it.” (VB2)

Responsibility to the Development of their Sport

This property was defined as the responsibility of the participants to contribute to the growth and development of their sport, and was achieved on three levels. On an individual level, the coaches encouraged the continued interest and participation of their athletes by ensuring they enjoyed their varsity sport experiences.

On the education side, I think it is important that your athletes have a positive experience through their varsity lifetime. I have got a number of graduates who are now coaching at other universities and that tells me is they must have enjoyed what they were doing enough to want to do it for somebody else. (VB3)

When I walked into this program my first goal was to provide my players with a good experience. They had flip flopped coaches before me and a lot of players had quit because they did not have a good experience. The goal of winning never changes, but the goal of making sure the athletes have a good experience is my first responsibility and does not change. (VB2)

In fact, several participants coached a number of athletes who later pursued coaching careers at the high school and varsity levels after retirement from competition.

The second level on which the participants contributed to the development of their sport was to promote their varsity programs within their universities and local communities. This included soliciting attention from university, and local media in written, radio, and occasionally, television coverage, and by positively presenting themselves and their athletes on and off the court.

I want to represent our program well and that does not mean I dress appropriately. It means I conduct myself appropriately. I want to be part of what people see and I want what they see to be positive. Off the court, I watch high school tournaments and club ball in the summer, and do clinics and speak at awards dinners. (BB2)

The coaches promoted their programs through exposure in their universities, and local communities by hosting clinics for athletes and coaches, and spring and summer leagues which, as seen earlier, also contributed to fund raising.

I work at getting the program promoted in the community as much as possible. I often speak at OFFSA and high school athletic banquets, and clinics. I do as many clinics as possible, and I have the athletes do clinics. (VB1)

It is my role to ensure women, and my program in particular, receive significance and the accolades they deserve in the media, whether it be radio, TV, newsprint. That is very difficult. It is important to me that we get representation in the media because the women work so hard, they deserve to be recognized. (BB3)

I also feel my role as a coach of this university is the promotion and development of volleyball. I try to raise the profile of the sport in conjunction with raising the profile of the our team, our players, and our program as such. For example, this year I started getting high school rankings in the paper. I'm also the East Division Coordinator for the OUAA and the East Division Coordinator for the CIAU coaches Top Ten. (VB4)

At the third level, several coaches promoted their sports beyond the scope of their athletes and varsity programs by improving the quality and interest in basketball and volleyball at national and international levels.

I write chapters for coaching manuals and sit on the executive of the CIAU Volleyball Coaches Association as vice-president in charge of awards and on a technical committee for our national and our provincial association. There is committee work and stuff that happens for the betterment of the sport. A number of us get together and say, 'What is going to make the women's volleyball game in Canada better? How are female athletes going

to get more recognition? How are we going to make our National or our Provincial Championships better?' (VB3)

One thing I have been involved with in Canada is statistics. I have also been involved with the national team and provincial team programs. I have been a guest coach with the national team. I have set up an identification camp for the national team here at York University and did the promotion and the organization. (VB4)

Responsibility to the Development of their Profession

This property was defined as the obligations of the coaches towards the maintenance and betterment of the coaching profession. Their professional responsibilities were realized in three ways. The first contribution of the coaches to their profession was through their own personal development which maintained the quality of intercollegiate coaching. Four participants improved their own experience and coaching expertise by attending coaching clinics and seminars, and related conferences, as well as participating in national team programs.

Another aspect of coaching is my own professional development. You need time for that and you have to plan it into your yearly plan. I do not consider professional development going scouting, watching teams. I want time to be able to learn. I want to be able to attend clinics or conferences that will help with my professional development as a coach. Certification is one of these things and last year I went to an international congress on mental training. (BB4)

The participants also promoted the development of coaching by being positive representatives and ambassadors of the coaching profession. The coaches guarded the ethics of their profession within the sport and general communities.

I think of myself as a professional within the profession of coaching. I'm a role model, not only for the sport but for professional coaching. It is an honorable profession. In Canada we don't hold coaches in as high esteem as perhaps we should. There are some coaches I would not want to hold in high esteem as it is. But as a profession, I think it is a very honorable profession. (VB4)

It is my job to ensure I do the right things and set the right tone in terms of the ethics and values involved in sport. This is reflected in how I recruit, and what I demand from my athletes, and how I demand it, and how I treat my athletes and the coaches I coach with and against, the people all around. It also includes how I am with the media when I lose and when I win. You don't want to be arrogant or a sour puss loser. I view that as a very important role. (BB3)

The participants also contributed to the development of the coaching profession by facilitating the training of aspiring coaches. Several participants allowed local coaches to observe them during practices and games, and were willing to share their strategies and plans.

I also conduct clinics at the National Coaching Certification Program. If someone at a school requests it, I will go in and do a clinic for their team for an hour or two during a practice session. I have done that on a number of occasions. (BB2)

I also act as a resource person for high school and university coaches. Former athletes and assistant coaches now coaching elsewhere call me once a week and ask, 'What do you think I should do?' 'OK, here is some advice.' Coaches also ask, 'Can I come watch one of your practices?' and, 'Can I bring some kids along?' 'No problem.' I also act as a resource person for the national associations and their coaches. (VB3)

The coaches also felt an obligation to educate their assistant coaches. The participants recognized that, as volunteers, their assistant coaches were not compensated financially, but through the sharing of their coaching knowledge and experience and the opportunity to coach under the supervision of an experienced coach.

When you have assistant coaches, they don't want to come and stand on the side line and watch the practice. They want to be involved. I have to plan my practice with that in mind and understand I have to give them some opportunity to coach at the same time. (BB4)

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The objective of this investigation was to describe the perceptions of varsity team sport coaches regarding their roles and responsibilities within the university milieu. This chapter will examine the three categories that emerged from the inductive analysis: the athletic, educational and professional roles and conclude with recommendations for future research.

THE ATHLETIC ROLE

The results indicated the coaches had a strong role in the athletic performance of their teams and the administration of their varsity programs, as reflected by the large number of meaning units and properties classified within the training and organizational responsibilities.

Training Responsibility

The varsity coaches were responsible for the technical, tactical, physical and psychological training of their athletes. The identification of this responsibility as a major task of varsity coaches was comparable to the Coaching Model (CM) described by Côté and his colleagues (Côté, Salmela, Trudel, Baria & Russell, 1995) who conceptualized training as one of three central components of the coaching processes of expert gymnastic coaches. Coaches at both the expert and intercollegiate levels perceived training as a primary coaching responsibility.

Technical training. The varsity coaches placed a strong emphasis on teaching fundamental technical skills. This focus on technical skills was consistent with the second stage of skill development described by Bloom (1985), in which athletes demonstrated a commitment to skill development and coaches stressed the technical aspects of their sport. This finding also corresponded to work by Durand-Bush (1996) which reported expert team sport coaches focused on teaching their athletes fundamental technical skills, often teaching skills progressively and sequentially.

Tactical training. The objectives of the varsity coaches within tactical training matched those of expert coaches who taught their athletes the rules and strategies of their games, and to counter the strengths and weaknesses of their opponents (Durand-Bush, 1996).

In terms of both technical and tactical training, the current findings may suggest a novel focus for researchers interested in the amount of teaching which occurs within sport environments. Researchers who have used interval and event recording instruments to code the behavior of coaches within training and competition have disagreed on the amount of time directed towards teaching technical and tactical skills. For example, Tharp and Gallimore (1976) recorded a significant amount of instruction by coach John Wooden during basketball practices using an event recording observation tool. Trudel and Brunelle (1985) and Trudel, Côté and Bernard (1996) however reported limited instruction among youth ice hockey coaches in both practice and game situations when using the Coaching Observation System for Games (COSG), an interval recording tool. Several of the coaches in the current study indicated they spend sometimes four or five hours per week in one-on-one training sessions, especially with new and central players. These individual training sessions may provide a rich environment for the instruction of technical and tactical skills, and serve as an alternative setting for research on the systematic observation of instructional behaviors of coaches.

Physical training. There were distinct differences in the level of involvement of the participants in the physical training of varsity athletes. Several coaches were very involved throughout their regular and off-seasons, while others showed little direct engagement in the physical training of their athletes. The varsity coaches closely involved with the physical training of their athletes reflected certain aspects of the approaches of expert coaches toward the physical fitness of their athletes. Durand-Bush (1996) reported expert coaches placed a strong emphasis on physical training, often providing intense, individualized programs to their athletes. The increased demands on student-athletes trying to combine athletics and academics, along with their changing timetables may explain why several of the participants in the current study did not implement and supervise physical training programs. The student calendar has changed over recent years

to include earlier, evening and weekend classes, in order to accommodate the increasing number of part-time professors and adults returning to school. This has reduced the time available for morning and evening physical training sessions, and may have in turn attenuated the involvement of varsity coaches in this aspect of training. Conversely, coaches interest in psychology training programs seems to have increased.

Psychological training. The present results showed that six of the eight participants supported the use of psychological training within their overall training agendas. This agreed with the research by Côté, Salmela and Russell (1995b) and Schinke, Bloom and Salmela (1995) which described the widespread inclusion of mental training strategies within the training curriculum of expert coaches. This was also in accord with research by Gould, Hodge, Peterson and Petlichkoff (1987) who found significant use of psychological skills training by intercollegiate wrestling coaches. Several of the varsity coaches in the current study relied on their own knowledge and experiences, while others solicited the services of sport psychology consultants. A similar pattern was noted among expert team sport coaches (Durand-Bush, 1996); some implemented mental training programs on their own, while others preferred to engage the services of sport psychologists. Durand-Bush also noted that the hiring of sport psychologists has become a “phenomenon of the nineties” in high performance sport, and the current findings suggested the same may be true in intercollegiate sport. This suggests that varsity athletics may be a valuable setting in which sport psychology students can gain applied experience. It may, however, not be an optimal avenue for professional sport psychologists due to the limited funding within Canadian interuniversity athletics.

Organizational Responsibility

The large number of meaning units in this property reflected the magnitude of responsibilities that were organizational in nature. This supported a central tenet of the CM (Côté et al., 1995) which identified organization as a primary category of the knowledge structure of expert gymnastic coaches.

Planning. Planning involved providing a vision, recruiting, seasonal and practice planning. The task of the participants in setting a vision for their teams was in agreement with Desjardins (1996) who described the role of expert coaches in establishing mission

statements for their teams. There was, however, a significant difference between the two groups. The expert coaches sometimes had difficulty selling the team vision to athletes who harbored their own personal agendas (Desjardins, 1996; Draper, 1996). The varsity coaches, however, rarely encountered athletes unwilling to buy into the teams' visions. A reasonable explanation might be offered that few varsity athletes progress from intercollegiate to professional sport. Gilbert, Chouinard and Draper (1996), for example, found that in the 1991-1992 season, only two NHL players out of 600 had been drafted from Canadian university hockey programs. Intercollegiate athletics in Canada is not generally considered a stepping stone to professional sport. Therefore, intercollegiate athletes may be more willing to discard their personal agendas for the objectives of their team, than elite and professional athletes competing for greater rewards.

Recruiting was identified by the participants as a vital aspect of their jobs. This was compatible with findings of a survey of 50 of the most successful college basketball coaches in the United States (Cook, 1967). The respondents rated the ability to recruit as the most important attribute of top college coaches, followed by knowledge of the game and public relations skills. Recruiting was also described by the participants of the present study as a very time-consuming task. Varsity coaches often traveled to high school and club games within their region in the evenings and on weekends. Their varsity seasons coincided with high school seasons and finished shortly before club seasons, which meant the varsity coaches recruited throughout most of the year. These findings contradicted a statement by Curtis and McTeer (1990) that recruiting in the Canadian context is not a rigorous task.

The recruiting task was made more difficult by several constraints, including limited travel budgets. The varsity coaches indicated their travel budgets for recruiting were minimal, and allowed for few trips, often restricting travel to within provincial boundaries. This point supported the findings of a task force on gender equity in athletics for the Ontario Commission on Interuniversity Athletics (OCIA), which reported a total recruiting budget for all varsity programs in its 18 member universities of approximately \$180 000 (OCIA, 1995). This limited budget allowed for little provincial travel, and even less across the country.

Recruiting was further complicated by the fact potential recruits often considered factors beyond the control of the varsity coaches, such as the academic reputations and faculties of the institutions, and their geographical locations. Earlier, Chouinard and Proulx (1984) surveyed ice hockey players in the five intercollegiate conferences across Canada and found the primary reasons for selecting their university were its academic and hockey programs, the geographical location and the recruiting process by the coach. Similarly, Mathes and Gurney (1985) found male and female student-athletes of revenue and non-revenue generating sports on full and partial scholarships in the United States rated the academic reputation and the characteristics of the recruiting and the head coach as the most influential factors in their choice of college. Varsity coaches therefore may have little influence over the factors considered by potential student athletes when selecting a university.

Competition with other college and university programs also made the recruiting task more difficult. The loss of exceptional university athletes from the Canadian market to the United States is well documented (Bale, 1991). Talented Canadian athletes have been drawn to American programs by large athletic scholarships, well-equipped sport facilities, potential privileged status and greater opportunities to advance to professional sport (Gilbert et al., 1996). A number of the participants noted the loss of potential recruits to their American counterparts, as illustrated by the following comment from a women's basketball coach: "Recruiting is a lot of phone calls, a lot of constant contact with individuals, especially kids you want because probably the top 10% of the kids go to the States." (BB4).

Recruiting is a well-accepted element and the target of considerable scrutiny in the American intercollegiate athletics system. Recruiting is not commonly considered a significant factor in Canadian varsity sport (Curtis & McTeer, 1990), but the current findings demonstrated it was both an important and time-consuming task for Canadian varsity coaches, one that was often hindered by financial, travel and time constraints. Canadian intercollegiate athletics is, therefore, a rich setting for researchers interested in the tasks of recruiting, recruiting patterns, and the decision-making factors of coaches and potential recruits.

The roles of the participants in seasonal and practice planning were in agreement with earlier work by Côté and his colleagues (1995) who identified seasonal and daily planning as a central organizational task of expert gymnastic coaches. Desjardins (1996) also identified similar tasks as prime responsibilities of expert team sport coaches. There was, however, one significant distinction within the current study. The varsity coaches accounted for the academic schedules of their teams when planning their upcoming season and individual practices. For example, one coach commented that she never planned exhibition games that required two consecutive weekends out of town, or an away weekend right before mid-terms or exams. This reflected the level at which the present participants were coaching, where not only did the coaches assume an academic role, but within the contexts of training and competition, education remained the priority. The difference in orientation of coaching at the university and international levels has been noted by Schinke and his colleagues (1995) who found coaches became less concerned with the development of their athletes and more concerned with winning, as they progressed from coaching university and provincial teams to coaching national teams at international level competitions.

The difference between coaching at the national and international elite levels did not reflect a change in coaching knowledge, but rather a change in coaching orientation. In the international level, coaches prioritized performance results as they were accountable to more people including national sport governing bodies, the media and the public. (Schinke et al., 1995, p. 59)

Competition. The tasks of the varsity coaches within competition did not emerge as a significant responsibility in comparison to the strength of the competition component in the CM (Côté et al., 1995). The competitive level in elite gymnastics, in which expert coaches were preparing their athletes for major national and international competitions, such as the World Championships and Olympic trials, resulted in competition being a central process in the CM. The lack of competition as a central process in the university context may be explained by several factors. Primarily, the competitive level of international gymnastics differs significantly from the competitive level of varsity athletics in Canadian universities. Secondly, the competitive schedules of intercollegiate volleyball and basketball were relatively short. Their regular seasons were an average of 12 to 14

games between mid-January and March. This greatly contrasts the competitive calendar of international gymnastics, where athletes typically perform in only four meets throughout a year but often compete on a four year cycle in preparation for the Olympic Games. The competitive calendar of interuniversity athletics also contrasts with professional sports where for example, the schedule of professional ice hockey includes 80 games over seven months of regular season play, with the possibility of two additional months of play-off games (Draper, 1996).

The objectives of Canadian intercollegiate sport may also have attributed a lesser role to competition. Administrators from small and large universities across Canada have maintained their priority is the education of students (Connell, 1986; McKinnon, 1986; Ouellet, 1986). Athletics has been considered a vehicle to enrich the educational experience, and not an aspiration in itself. This mission statement has been adopted by intercollegiate coaches in Canadian universities, as seen within the current sample. Therefore, the orientation of intercollegiate athletics may have diminished the competitive nature of the perceived roles of varsity coaches.

Thirdly, the loss of Canadian talent to American colleges and universities (Bale, 1991) may have lowered the competitive level of intercollegiate sport in Canada. Expert team sport coaches at the university level have recognized the difference in competitive levels of American and Canadian intercollegiate sport (Draper, 1996). This may have contributed to the lesser status of competition within the perceived roles and responsibilities of varsity coaches.

Build team harmony. The emergence of team harmony as a responsibility of the varsity coaches supported accounts that expert team sport coaches included team building strategies in practices and training camps (Desjardins, 1996). Team harmony was included within the organizational role of the varsity coaches in the current study. At first glance, one may wonder why this task was not classified within the psychological training property of the athletic role. Team cohesion is a strategy often addressed within the sport psychology field (Orlick, 1986a, 1986b). Orlick (1986b), for example, included team harmony as a primary objective of a sport psychology manual for coaches. However, the varsity coaches in the current study discussed team harmony as a responsibility to organize

team building opportunities on and off the court, rather than as a strategy to include in their mental training programs. This sentiment was found even among coaches who engaged the services of sport psychology consultants. It may be that although team harmony has been identified in the field of sport psychology as a key element to success, it is also perceived by team sport coaches as a fundamental coaching responsibility.

Complete administrative tasks. The final component of the organizational responsibility was administrative tasks, the most notable being fund raising. Increased budget cuts and redirection of funding from athletic to academic programs have forced coaches into generating revenue to operate their varsity programs. This finding supported the observations of both researchers and administrators (Hall, Slack, Smith & Whitson, 1991; Janzen, 1986; MacIntosh, 1986). Hall and his colleagues (1991) noted increased budget cuts have forced universities to locate other sources of external funding. Janzen (1986) identified blanket athletic fees as one source of external funding secured by Canadian universities.

Not only did the identification of financial constraints at the varsity level support earlier work, but the frustration expressed by the varsity coaches echoed the sentiments of expert coaches (Côté et al., 1995; Draper, 1996). Côté and his associates (1995) noted that expert gymnastic coaches frequently discussed the lack of funding as a factor affecting their coaching processes and development of athletes. Fund raising however, was not included within the CM. It is probable that female gymnasts at the elite level, who are typically 14 and 15 years old, were financially supported by their parents. Their male counterparts are usually older and self-sufficient. Their financial responsibilities, therefore, may have fallen upon the parents of female gymnasts and upon the male competitors themselves. Expert team sport coaches also noted their frustration with the lack of funding from their sport governing bodies and did identify the need to generate added revenue through fund raising (Draper, 1996). It is anticipated that fund raising will continue to be a burdensome task for Canadian varsity coaches, based on the pervasive lack of financial support within Canadian amateur sport.

THE EDUCATIONAL ROLE

The educational role emerged as a significant responsibility of the varsity coaches despite its absence from their job descriptions and official lists of duties. The roles of the coaches in the academic pursuits and personal development of their athletes stemmed from their personal attitudes and beliefs regarding their responsibilities as coaches within educational environments.

Academic Responsibility

The coaches had an active, helpful role in the academic pursuits of their athletes by stressing its importance, providing assistance and maintaining the educational mission of their universities. These findings were consistent with earlier research on the role of coaches in the academic pursuits of their athletes at the expert level, which reported that expert coaches were willing to adjust their expectations and schedules to accommodate the academic calendar and demands of their athletes (Côté et al., 1995). This also supported research that reported high school coaches first emphasized academics and the completion of high school and college requirements (Kirk & Kirk, 1993).

However, the findings contradicted research by Adler and Adler (1985) and Bedker Meyer (1990) at the intercollegiate level. Adler and Adler reported that the athletes in their study felt their coaches emphasized the importance of their education during recruiting and pre-season training, but seldom afterwards. In comparison, the participants in this study emphasized the significance of the education of their student-athletes consistently throughout the season and across their careers. Adler and Adler also noted the intercollegiate coaches were responsible for the academic decision-making of their student-athletes, often arranging their academic calendars and declaring their majors. The researchers argued that the detachment of student-athletes from such important academic decision-making created an illusion that their coaches were safeguarding their education, when they were not, and consequently diminished the student-athletes' interest in obtaining their degrees. Bedker Meyer, on the other hand, indicated that female college athletes reported little or no involvement by their coaches in their academic lives. The participants in the present study were involved to a lesser degree than the coaches observed by Adler and Adler but to a greater extent than those discussed by Bedker

Meyer. The varsity coaches in the current study offered guidance and advice, but avoided making choices for their athletes. Further research is warranted in this area.

The findings of this study illustrated that the coaches provided significant personal academic assistance to their athletes. The methodology of the study did not allow for the measurement of grades or graduation rates of the student-athletes. This made it impossible to determine whether or not the involvement of the coaches translated to higher university grade point averages and graduation rates. Earlier research reporting a positive relationship between athletic participation and actual academic performance suggested this might have been the case (Henschen & Fry, 1984; Pascarella & Smart, 1991; Shapiro, 1984). It is proposed that varsity coaches in the current study facilitated not only the academic pursuits but the academic success of their athletes, suggesting university coaches may be a mediating factor in the relationship between athletic participation and academic performance. This is based on the coaches' reports that a number of their athletes were academic All-Canadians, indicative of participation on a varsity team and consistently high academic achievement. It is also possible that varsity coaches selected athletes who demonstrated characteristics which allowed them to excel in sport as well as in school, and that the coaches therefore had little impact on the academic success of their athletes. Or even, that the academic requirements of the universities in the current study ensured its student athletes would succeed academically. However, were either of these the case, the coaches would not have needed to provide their athletes with academic assistance, as well as time management courses and tutors. No conclusive findings regarding the translation of assistance from coaches to academic success can be reported. This does however, suggest a new direction from which to investigate the relationship between participation in intercollegiate sport and academic performance.

Responsibility to the Personal Development of Athletes

The participants felt a responsibility to promote the personal growth and development of their athletes and demonstrated this by acting as a counselor and parent-like figure, and through teaching important life skills and priorities. The emergence of a perceived obligation to the personal and life skills development of student-athletes was in accord with earlier studies reporting a positive impact of intercollegiate coaches on the

personal development of their student-athletes (Hinkle, 1993; Perna, Zaichkowsky & Bocknek, 1996; Schinke, 1995). Perna and his colleagues (1996), for example, found that varsity athletes often identified their coach as a mentor, and that student-athletes who received psychosocial mentoring displayed greater comfort with emotional expression and in relationships marked by commitment and mutuality, than non-athletes. Schinke (1995) also reported expert basketball coaches often provided their athletes with guidance in academic and personal matters, while coaching at the university level. Moreover, these findings agreed with the perspectives of intercollegiate athletic directors who ranked the personal growth of athletes as one of three primary operative goals of varsity sport programs (Chelladurai & Danylchuk, 1984).

The involvement of coaches in the personal lives of their athletes was likewise noted at the expert level (Côté et al., 1995b). The elite gymnastic coaches dealt with the personal concerns of their gymnasts, namely school, relationships with friends, family and peers, and retirement from sport. Côté and his associates included acting as a counselor under the organization component of the CM. The perceived responsibility of the varsity coaches to provide counseling was described under the educational role within the current study, and not the organizational responsibility. This difference may be attributed to the fact that the research objectives of Côté and his colleagues were to describe the knowledge used by coaches in training and competition. Their participants, therefore, described their obligations to deal with the personal issues of their athletes within the context of practices or competitions. The participants in the current study were asked to discuss all roles and responsibilities associated with their positions as varsity coaches, not strictly those within competition and training. While indices of personal difficulties were visible in the performance of their athletes, the varsity coaches most often dealt with them outside the performance domain. The varsity coaches spent time outside of training and competition dealing with their athletes' personal lives, often in one-on-one meetings.

That varsity coaches perceived their roles to include a counseling and personal growth component raised a relevant question about the preparation and training of varsity coaches. None of the coaches in this study indicated that they had received formal training in psychological or educational counseling, yet seven of the eight participants perceived

dealing with athletes' personal issues as part of their responsibilities. There are several ways to respond to this concern. The first would be to follow the trend recently implemented in the United States which provides athletes with an alternative source of assistance, and limits the counseling role of intercollegiate coaches. American universities have recently introduced the NCAA Life Skills Program, an athlete-centered service designed to promote the emotional, personal, social, moral, intellectual and athletic development of student-athletes. Special services are established on campus by qualified personnel to meet the holistic needs of varsity athletes, once a university has been designated a life skills university (Vinci, 1995). For example, the Life Skills Program at Washington State University is operated by professors and doctoral students of the Psychology Department, and provides time management courses, drug and alcohol abuse seminars, academic and personal counseling, as well as sport psychology consulting (Smith, 1995). There are, however, several problems with this alternative. A similar standardized program with certified counselors or helping professionals has yet to be established within the Canadian milieu, and will not take place overnight. In the meantime, coaches continue to assume the roles of counselors and guides. Further, it is unlikely that coaches will no longer be called upon to act as counselors, based on the liberal amount of time they spend with student-athletes (Adler & Adler, 1985; Bedker Meyer, 1990; Eitzen & Purdy, 1986) and the often close relationships coaches and athletes share.

A second and possibly more feasible alternative is to follow recommendations made by helping professionals working in university settings to educate coaches in counseling. Counseling psychologists (Grant & Darley, 1993; Hill, 1993) have recommended that varsity coaches be trained in the principles of counseling and work in coordination with academic and personal counselors on campus. Hill suggested that intervention programs designed to teach student-athletes life skills involve coaches, making them aware of the developmental needs of athletes. Grant and Darley argued that coaches are still the most appropriate adults to act as mentors and guides for student-athletes, based on the amount of time spent together and the few relationships athletes develop with other adults. "Students see their coaches approximately 20 hours per week. This is their most viable adult relationship. We must make better use of it" (Grant &

Darley, 1993). The authors encouraged coaches to acquire training in counseling skills, such as achieving rapport and active listening, performance enhancement, and life development intervention techniques. It is uncertain, however, whether coaches, whose duties are already extensive, would be willing to undertake further training.

A survey of the educational needs of Canadian varsity coaches seems to be warranted. A survey of the educational needs of US national, Pan-American and Olympic coaches has already been completed by Gould and his colleagues (1990). These researchers found that 54% of the respondents did not feel there existed a well defined set of concepts and principles for coaches. The researchers were able to identify specific areas where coaches lacked formal training and made recommendations to improve the training of elite and developing coaches. A comparable survey with varsity coaches may first confirm the counseling function of varsity coaches and, secondly, provide coaching educators with requisite direction in the training of intercollegiate coaches.

THE PROFESSIONAL ROLE

Effect of Job Conditions on Roles of the Coaches

The university setting imposed a number of occupational conditions upon the coaches which affected their perceived roles and responsibilities. The identification of job conditions as a factor affecting the perceived roles of varsity coaches was anticipated, based on the contextual factors component of the CM (Côté et al., 1995). The researchers defined contextual factors as unstable factors that needed to be considered when intervening with athletes, and included dealing with parents and the nature of their job conditions.

The participants in the current study enjoyed a high measure of job security within their coaching positions. The coaches have held their current positions for an average of 13 years and most have coached at the same institution for the length of their university coaching careers. This finding differed significantly from reported job security of American intercollegiate (Cady, 1978) and professional coaches (Draper, 1996). Cady (1978) reported the average tenure of intercollegiate head football coaches in the United States

since 1901 has been less than five years. Similarly, Draper (1996) referred to job insecurity as a hallmark of professional sport.

The difference in job security in Canadian intercollegiate athletics, and American varsity and professional sport in general, may have been determined by several factors. First, the total number of coaching positions within Canada is lower than in the United States (Draper, 1996), which suggests that coaches in Canada may be reluctant to leave their positions, once secured. Further, the varsity coaches in the present investigation have assumed additional responsibilities, as supervisors of varsity and intramural sports for example, to complement and maintain their full-time positions. The willingness of the coaches to accept additional tasks in order to maintain their full-time positions may have contributed to their greater job security. The task force on gender equity (OCIA, 1995) reported that 30% and 40% of the respective workload allocation of head female and male varsity coaches, fell within the category "other duties", defined as responsibilities outside their coaching tasks. This implies that not only the participants, but coaches across the province have accepted additional duties as a condition of safeguarding their full-time employment.

A third reason for the difference in job security in Canada and the United States may be the varying degree of importance placed upon winning. Winning is not a primary objective within the Canadian intercollegiate environment, as evidenced by the reports of both athletes and athletic directors (MacIntosh, 1986). Accordingly, the job performance of the current sample of varsity coaches was not based solely on the athletic success of their teams. However, Schinke and his colleagues (1995) noted that the difference between university and provincial team coaches, and national team coaches lay in the prioritization of winning, and their accountability to sport governing bodies, media and fans. Draper (1996) similarly recognized that the short tenures of many professional coaches were mainly based on the unsuccessful performance of their teams. Varsity coaches, therefore, may not be judged by the same performance criteria, and consequently enjoy greater job security.

The fact that varsity coaches in the Canadian context maintained their positions for considerable lengths of time has serious implications for the training of intercollegiate

coaches. Coaching educators should make available to these coaches courses designed to refresh their coaching knowledge, within the principles of adult and continuing education. A similar recommendation was made by Gould and his colleagues (1990) who reported the typical national team coach in their sample had 15 years of coaching experience and that 97% of their sample of elite American coaches intended to continue in coaching.

A review of the literature revealed that college and university coaches who were also responsible for teaching within their institution, may experience role conflict and/or role strain, leading to a diminished commitment to one or both roles (Locke & Massengale, 1978; Sage, 1987; Taylor, 1992). The interviews with the two varsity coaches who also taught within their respective universities did not support this body of literature. Neither coach experienced role conflict or role strain associated directly with the assumption of both roles, and indeed one felt there were several concomitant benefits. The lack of reported role conflict may be due to the fact the two coaches/teachers had been coaching 17 and 20 years, respectively, and may have learned early in their careers to deal with the demands of both roles. It is also probable that the lower emphasis on performance in sport lowered the overall demands and conflicts. Further qualitative research would be required with teacher/coaches at the university level. This recommendation is consistent with criticisms by Sage (1987) on the limited qualitative studies in this area, and the focus on high school teachers/coaches teaching physical education.

The varsity coaches reported experiencing some personal satisfaction from their coaching positions, despite long hours and added responsibilities. They enjoyed having the opportunity to interact with young adults and watch them mature over their playing careers. Côté and his colleagues (1995) also found that developing successful individuals and building relationships with athletes were among the highest sources of satisfaction of expert gymnastic coaches. Moraes (1996) similarly noted that expert team sport coaches enjoyed their profession, although the sources of satisfaction were not specified. It appears that high level coaching is a profession that affords its members considerable satisfaction and enjoyment. This may be a factor in the longevity of some of the coaching careers of participants in the current study and the intention of almost all of the American national

team, Pan American and Olympic coaches surveyed to continue coaching their respective sports (Gould et al., 1990).

Responsibility to the Development of their Sport

The emergence of significant responsibilities to the development of the sports and profession of the varsity coaches was not anticipated, based on the limited literature suggesting that Canadian intercollegiate coaches perceive such professional obligations.

Three coaches felt responsible to ensure their athletes enjoyed their varsity athletic experiences. The coaches believed athletes who valued their varsity careers were more likely to maintain their interest in the sport and continue to participate after retirement. Indeed several participants noted at least five former athletes were currently coaching at the high school and intercollegiate levels. Bedker Meyer (1990) similarly reported that when asked about their future plans, most female student-athletes intended to continue in their sport at a recreational level and five intended to pursue coaching careers. Bedker Meyer concluded the “desire of these women to continue in athletics indicated that the sport experience had been a positive one for them” (1990, p. 54). This pattern has already been documented by several researchers. Both Schinke and his colleagues (1995) and Miller (1996) noted that expert team sport coaches had progressed from university athletic settings to eventually reach expert level coaching. Not only did intercollegiate coaches contribute to the varsity experiences of their athletes, but represented a viable career choice and fostered the promotion of the coaching profession.

Little empirical research has addressed the tasks of intercollegiate coaches in the promotion of their individual programs and their sports. It can be speculated that this role emerged from the decreasing interest in intercollegiate athletics on Canadian campuses and the limited interest in varsity sport among the general population. The administrator of a large Canadian university recognized that intercollegiate sport, once a major force in campus spirit and alumni loyalty, no longer held the same power (Connell, 1986). At the same time, researchers have noted the meager attendance and media attention afforded to intercollegiate athletics in Canada (Curtis & McTeer, 1990). Varsity coaches may assume the responsibility to increase interest on campus and within the local community in their programs and sport in response to these indices of declining strength and appeal.

The emergence of the responsibility of the varsity coaches to market and promote their programs and sports, whether self-imposed or not, begs a previously asked question. Is the training of intercollegiate coaches designed to prepare them for the roles and responsibilities of coaching at this level? One of the participants, for example, remarked that she lacked the technical knowledge to successfully promote her program. Again, a survey of the educational needs of intercollegiate coaches may confirm their role in the development of their programs and their sport, and provide pertinent directives to coaching educators.

Responsibility to the Development of their Profession

The professional responsibility of the coaches included a perceived obligation to the development of the coaching profession, demonstrated by their commitments to their own professional development and the development of aspiring coaches. This supported an earlier claim by the researcher that coaches may perceive their own continued development as part of their professional responsibilities. This claim was based on research by Gould and his colleagues (1990) and Moraes (1996) which reported that high level coaches continued to learn more about coaching through formal and informal methods, even though they had already reached the highest levels in their professions and were recognized as elite coaches.

Several of the varsity coaches felt a responsibility to facilitate and promote the development of aspiring coaches, often local high school and assistant coaches. Expert Canadian coaches have similarly felt an obligation towards the development of aspiring coaches, and have demonstrated this by offering clinics, and inviting them to games and practices (Bloom, Salmela & Schinke, 1995). Moraes (1996) recognized comparable efforts among expert team sport coaches who both advocated a formalized mentorship program and acknowledged their obligation to act as mentors to developing coaches. This perceived responsibility of varsity coaches likewise coincided with the ranking by American national team, Pan-American and Olympic coaches of mentorship programs and experience working with top coaches as the third most important strategy to preparing elite coaches (Gould et al., 1990). This finding has serious implications for the training of aspiring coaches. It suggests that coaches recognized mentoring relationships as more than

a valuable teaching tool, but as a responsibility associated with membership in the coaching profession. With the findings of Bloom and his associates (1995), coaching educators should consider this as an important step in the prospect of implementing a structured mentor program for the development of aspiring coaches.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The current findings add to the growing research on coaching. Côté and his colleagues (1995) made a significant contribution to the field with the conceptualization of the knowledge structure of elite individual sport coaches. More recently, Salmela (1996) has described the coaching process of expert team sport coaches and Bloom (1996b) has outlined their dominant attitudes and beliefs. The present study has expanded previous research to address the perceptions of roles and responsibilities of varsity team sport coaches. Continued research on coaching at all levels is advocated to fully understand the individuals and processes that shape the coaching domain. Several recommendations for future research are offered.

Too often researchers in the sport sciences have relied on but one form of data collection. This field of research would benefit greatly from a movement towards data collection from multiple sources and the use of complementary methodologies. Further, the majority of research has traditionally been conducted using quantitative paradigms and only in the last several decades have researchers begun to use qualitative methodologies in the sport sciences. Researchers are encouraged to augment the use of qualitative means of data collection and analysis, as has been suggested by Bedker Meyer (1990), Gould and his colleagues (1990), and when possible, combine qualitative and quantitative methodologies.

Continued research on the educational needs of coaches at all levels and within various contexts is required. As varsity coaches assume roles beyond that of technician and tactician, they face situations for which they are not always trained. The time varsity coaches spend with student-athletes and the frequency with which student-athletes turn to their coaches for assistance and problem solving suggest these coaches should be better prepared to deal with academic and personal issues. Future research should be directed

from a multidimensional perspective including coaches, student-athletes, professors and counselors to determine the most appropriate and feasible means to implement requisite training for intercollegiate coaches. Only then can the full potential of the professional and personal experiences of varsity coaches, and the educational and athletic experiences of varsity student-athletes be realized.

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APPENDIX A

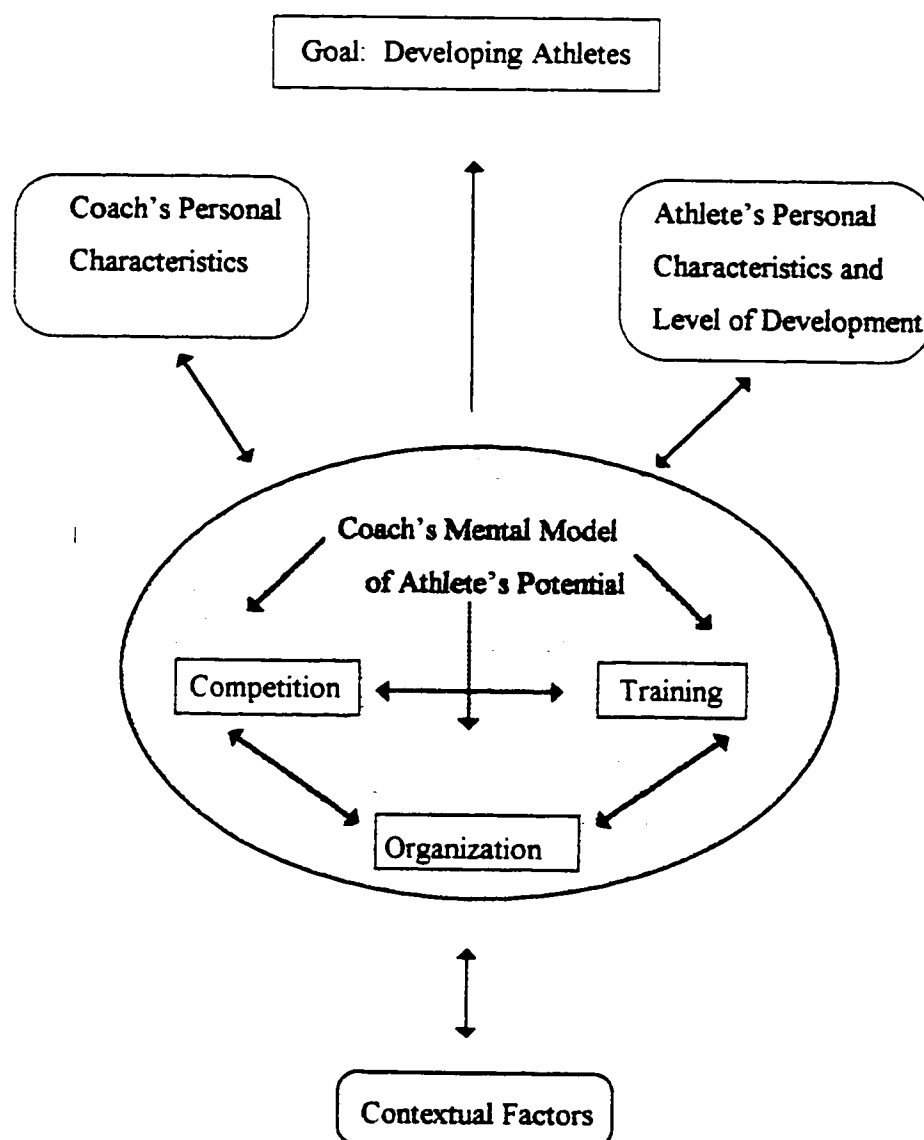


Figure 2. The Coaching Model

Note. "The coaching model: A grounded assessment of expert gymnastic coaches' knowledge," by J. Côté, J. H. Salmela, P. Trudel, A. Baria and S. J. Russell, 1995, *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 17, p. 10. Copyright 1995 by Human Kinetics. Adapted with permission.

APPENDIX B

Information Letter and Consent Form

When a research project is designed to understand human beings by a member of the University of Ottawa, the Ethics Committee of the university requires written consent of the participants. This does not imply that the project involves risk. The intention is simply to ensure the respect and confidentiality of the individuals concerned.

This project is conducted by master's student Patricia Miller and is supervised by Dr. John Salmela both of the Department of Human Kinetics at the University of Ottawa. The intent of this project is to better understand the functions and responsibilities of varsity team coaches of basketball and volleyball. The interview process will probe the role of coaches within the university setting.

Each participating coach will be involved in an interview which will last from one to one and a half hours. The participants can stop the interviews at any time they wish without fear of reprisal. All interviews will be transcribed verbatim and the complete transcript will then be returned to the coaches for authentication. At this time the coaches can remove anything they would rather have not said, transform, correct or adjust any part of the interview transcript.

I consent to participate in this research project.

I understand that there is no direct benefit to me from participating in this study. I will be advised on my personal results when all the analyses have been completed. There will also be debriefing of the interview process immediately after the interview and a final report of the investigation will be sent to me if I wish. Also, I understand that the results will be kept strictly confidential and that my name will not appear in any publications and that the audiotapes will be erased when the analyses are completed. If transcripts are appropriate to illustrate the data analysis procedures, I give my consent to have it used under conditions that confidentiality and anonymity be safeguarded by the researchers.

Signature _____

Date _____

Please feel free to contact us at any time.

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APPENDIX C

Coaching Biography Sheet

Please complete the following biographical information sheet in order to ensure accuracy of coaching history. If you would prefer not to answer any question, feel free to leave it blank.

Name: _____ Age: _____

Current Status: _____

Address: _____

University Degree (s): _____ Institution: _____

_____ Institution: _____

_____ Institution: _____

NCCP Certification Level: _____ Years of Coaching: _____

Average hours per week Coaching: _____ Average hours per week Planning: _____

Do you hold another position at the university i.e.: program director? Yes/No

If yes, please indicate position. _____

Coaching Responsibilities:

Year	Institution	Team	Record
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
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_____	_____	_____	_____

Again, thank you so much for your cooperation!