

**National Sport Policy in a Developing Country:
The Case of Jamaica's Elite Sport Development in Selected Sports**

Richard Toomer

A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies
in partial fulfillment of the requirement
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Human Kinetics

School of Human Kinetics
Faculty of Health Sciences
University of Ottawa

May 2019

© **Richard Toomer, Ottawa, Canada, 2019**

Abstract

The purpose of this thesis was to explore the development of elite sport through national sport policy within a developing country, Jamaica. Taking a qualitative approach, the thesis drew on the SPLISS framework (De Bosscher et al., 2006, 2015) to understand government influence in the development of elite sport, through policy, and to investigate other contributing factors for elite sporting success. A logic model illustrated the input-throughput-output pillars of the SPLISS framework, and aided in the interpretation of both a theoretical and rival proposition (Yin, 2018). This thesis purpose, accomplished in part by exploring the most successful elite sport in Jamaica, athletics (track and field), incorporated three interconnected studies on that developing country's national sport system, a sport system that produced its first Olympic success in 1948, forty-six years before the introduction of national sport policy.

Three interconnected studies allowed for findings that highlighted the roots of Jamaica's sport development, beginning with the introduction of a school and community sport system by the former colonial British government, and retained and expanded by the Jamaican government from 1962. The findings also highlighted that the school and community sport systems facilitated a local approach to the development and training for athletics. It included factors outside of the influence of government, such as the impact of coaches and role models that assisted in creating a fraternity in the sport through tradition, culture and passion, and established an environment for elite sport. This environment involved a collaboration between educational institutions and the professional local club system, and represents the critical elements in the success of athletics, indicating that the influence of government policies for sport development was not impacting international sporting success up to 2017.

The interconnected studies also provided support for gaps identified in the SPLISS framework and the literature on elite sport policy. For SPLISS, the findings provided evidence in

understanding what happens when input factors are processed (the ‘black box’) leading to outputs, and national outcomes. For the literature, the thesis found that an historical context is important in understanding the coalescing of micro-, macro-, and meso-level factors for elite sporting success.

Acknowledgements

This journey has been long and filled with many hurdles, but along the way several wonderful people that I can call my friends, colleagues, mentors, and family have supported me, emotionally, spiritually, and financially.

First, I want to thank my family, for allowing me to put them through these years of undue hardship while I pursue this dream and personal achievement. My family in Jamaica, especially my daughters Shantana and Shalae, and Canada, especially Ammanie and my daughter Jade, my sincere thanks and appreciation for enduring, and I will be forever thankful. To my family in the USA, especially those in Florida, words cannot express my appreciation for your love and support, and I will never forget your kindness, and many words of encouragement towards the end, especially the final night – Thank You!

Second, to my supervisor and mentor, Professor Milena Parent, I will be forever grateful and thankful for your guidance and knowledge throughout my journey, especially for the final months. You went beyond what I knew was the norm for an advisor, and you taught me, and molded me into the academic I am currently, and I will be forever grateful to have been your student, and look forward to learning more from you. You took over from my first supervisor, Professor Jean Harvey, who retired, and I have appreciated all our time spent together as a committee.

Third, to my colleagues and friends in Ottawa and the USA, I know that, without your support I would not have made it this far on my journey. Special appreciation goes to my friend Dan Richardson, as you were the rock that kept me together through many of life's hurdles. To my friend Abiy, you, your family, and the entire team that you lead, have had an impact on my life that I will take with me forever; your kindness and support is appreciated forever. To my colleagues in Kingston, Jamaica, especially Denise Wisdom and Paulton Gordon, and those in Dallas, Texas,

especially Susan Holland, Iris Briscoe, Susan Sifford, Lynn Romejko-Jacobs, and Peter Carton, I thank you for your encouragements and support throughout this journey. Special appreciation to my brother, my friend, my colleague, words cannot express how I appreciate you, and you know that I will be forever in your debt.

Finally, to my examiners, I want to thank you for your kind words and direction for this project and I look forward to your comments and feedback. To everyone that I cannot name, and there are many, who has at one time or another, provided me with guidance, support, kind words of encourage and just well wishes, I want to thank you from the bottom of my heart for being wonderful human beings. Your reward awaits.

Statement of Author Contributions

The author was the principal researcher for this monograph thesis, and was solely responsible for the concept and design of this project on national sport policy in a developing country. While this was a monograph consisting of eight chapters, a previous version of one chapter (chapter 4), was published prior to the completion of the thesis. The author collected all the data, conducted the data analysis, and wrote the article for publication, along with all the other chapters in this thesis, including an updated chapter 4.

Table of Contents

	Page
Abstract.....	ii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Statement of Author Contributions.....	vi
List of Tables.....	xv
List of Figures.....	xvi
List of Abbreviations.....	xvii
CHAPTER 1: Introduction.....	1
General Context.....	1
A Brief Overview of Jamaica.....	4
Rationale for the Jamaican Case.....	7
Purpose and Research Questions.....	13
Thesis Outline.....	19
CHAPTER 2: Literature Review and Conceptual Framework.....	21
National Sport Policy.....	22
Analysis of National Sport Policy.....	22
Establishing a definition.....	22
Theoretical levels of analysis.....	26
The politics of sport policy.....	27
Small states and sport policy.....	37
National Lottery Funding.....	50
Elite Sport Policy.....	51
Definition and context.....	51

The SPLISS conceptual framework.....	53
A rationale for choosing SPLISS.....	65
Environmental factors and elite sport policy.....	69
The chicken or the egg dilemma.....	71
A critique of SPLISS.....	71
Sport Development.....	73
Definition and Features.....	73
Tensions within sport development.....	75
Precursors to sport development.....	79
Establishing Success.....	82
National Outputs.....	82
National Outcomes.....	83
Coalescing of Factors for the Success of Elite Sport.....	84
Logic Model Approach.....	86
Summary.....	87
CHAPTER 3: Methodology.....	90
Theoretical Perspective and Epistemology.....	90
Case Study Research Design.....	92
Description of the Case.....	93
Defining the case.....	94
Bounding the case.....	95
Linking the Data to the Propositions.....	96
Methods.....	97
Case Study as a Research Method.....	97

Data Collection.....	98
Study 1.....	99
Archival records and documentation.....	100
Study 2.....	101
Archival records and documentation.....	102
Interviews.....	102
Study 3.....	104
Archival records and documentation.....	105
Interviews.....	105
Data Analysis.....	105
Study 1.....	106
Study 2.....	107
Study 3.....	109
Quality of the Research Design.....	111
CHAPTER 4: Results – Political, Administrative and Financial Structures for the	
Development of Elite Sport.....	117
A Brief History of the Political Structure.....	117
Governments Gradual Involvement in Sport Policy.....	119
Administrative Framework.....	121
Government Agencies.....	125
Social development commission.....	125
Institute of sports.....	126
Independence park limited.....	129
Sports development foundation.....	129

Jamaica anti-doping commission..... 130

Funding Sport..... 131

Not-for-profit and Commercial Sport..... 133

Prioritizing Public Policy and Funding for Sport..... 135

Summary and Further Analysis..... 136

CHAPTER 5: Results - Government Contribution to the Development of Elite

Sports..... 143

 Important Milestones in the Development of Elite Sport..... 144

 Prior to 1962..... 144

 The school system, sport and the community..... 146

 Formation of NSOs..... 148

 The root of government agencies for sport..... 149

 1962–1993..... 151

 Infrastructure development for sports..... 152

 Formalizing sport in the government agenda..... 153

 Setting the stage for elite sport development..... 155

 1994–2012..... 160

 Creating a formal policy for sport development..... 160

 Establishment of government agencies..... 163

 Aligning with international standards..... 165

 2013–2017..... 167

 Refining the policy for sport development..... 168

 Generation next..... 169

 Contributions through National Sport Policy: 1994 – 2017..... 171

Overview of the 1994 and 2013 National Sport Policies.....	171
The 1994 sport policy.....	172
The 2013 revised sport policy.....	176
Government Funding for the Development of Elite Sport.....	180
Pillar 1: Financial support.....	185
<i>National level financial support</i>	185
<i>Fluctuations in national level financial support</i>	186
<i>Financial support for the development of sport</i>	186
Pillar 2: Governance, organization and structure.....	186
<i>Levels of coordination within the national sport system</i>	187
<i>Targeted sports for financial support</i>	189
Pillar 3: Opportunities for Sport Participation.....	190
Pillar 4: Talent identification and development.....	193
Pillar 5: Athletic support and post-career support.....	193
Pillar 6: Training facilities.....	195
<i>National facilities for training and competitions</i>	195
<i>Financial support for national facilities</i>	196
Pillar 7: Coaching and coaches support.....	197
Pillar 8: National and international competitions.....	198
<i>National funded events</i>	198
<i>Opportunities for national and international competitions</i>	199
Pillar 9: Scientific research and innovation.....	200
Identifying Levels of Success in the Selected Sports.....	202
Stature of the NSOs.....	202

Structures to Facilitate Success.....	204
Summary and Further Analysis.....	206
CHAPTER 6: Results - Factors Contributing to the Success of Athletics.....	214
A Brief Examination of Athletics Successes.....	215
Environmental Factors Associated with Athletics Success.....	217
Development of an Athletic Fraternity.....	218
Tradition, culture and passion.....	218
Impact of role models.....	221
The role of the national association.....	224
Overseas Influence on the Development of Athletics.....	228
Foundation impact of the local system of training.....	229
Access to scholarships overseas and a route to professionalism.....	231
The Train-At-Home Movement.....	233
Development of the current movement.....	233
Access to local resources and levels of motivation.....	236
The Quiet Role of Government.....	240
No accidental occurrence.....	240
Not easily identifiable financial support.....	243
Coalescing of Factors for Athletics Success.....	248
Public Sector Funding and Resources.....	248
Private Sector Investment and Professionalism.....	249
Combination of Public and Private Sector Support Systems.....	250
Summary and Further Analysis.....	252
CHAPTER 7: Discussion	262

Explaining Elite Sport Development in Jamaica.....	262
Theoretical Proposition: The Influence of the National Sport Policy	263
Rival Proposition: The Contribution of Environmental Factors.....	266
Explanation: An Informal But Working Network.....	268
Connecting the Factors for Elite Sporting Success.....	272
Results Transferability: Linking the Jamaican Case to Other Jurisdictions.....	273
Contributions.....	274
Contributions to Theory.....	275
Contributions to Literature.....	276
Contribution to Practice	278
Implications for Researchers.....	279
Implications for Managers.....	280
Reflections on the Doctoral Research Process.....	281
CHAPTER 8: Conclusions.....	283
Summary of Key Findings.....	283
Study 1: Creating the Systems for Sport Development.....	283
Study 2: Government Contribution to the National Sport Systems.....	285
Study 3: The Most Successful Sport and its National Contribution.....	287
The Fourth Objective: Country-Specific Factors.....	289
Limitations of the Thesis.....	290
Future Research Avenue.....	291
Concluding Remarks.....	292
References.....	293
Appendix A	

Ethics Approval Notice..... 327

Appendix B

 Letter of Information..... 329

Appendix C.....

 Consent Form..... 331

Appendix D.....

 Interview Guide: Selected Sports..... 333

Appendix E.....

 Interview Guide: Sporting Industry..... 335

Appendix F.....

 Breakdown of Jamaican Governments since 1962..... 337

List of Tables

	Page	
Table 2-1	Description of the Key Arguments Guiding SPLISS and its Nine Pillars	55
Table 2-2	Gaps to be addressed in the Literature and Conceptual Framework	89
Table 3-1	Profile of Participants Interviewed	103
Table 3-2	Quality of Research Design	112
Table 4-1	Graphical Representation of Study 1 Contribution to Thesis Purpose	141
Table 5-1	Selected Milestones in the Development of Elite Sport	145
Table 5-2	Sports Development Foundation income and selected expenditures for 1995-2016	181
Table 5-3	Government Funding from the Lottery Tax to selected National Sporting Organizations (NSOs), 1995-2016	183
Table 5-4	Graphical Representation of Study 2 Contribution to Thesis Purpose	211
Table 6-1	Core Environmental Factors Associated with the Success of Athletics in Jamaica	247
Table 6-2	Graphical Representation of Study 3 Contribution to Thesis Purpose	260
Table F-1	Breakdown of Jamaican Governments since 1962	337

List of Figures

	Page
<i>Figure 1-1</i> Thesis purpose, objectives, and research questions	14
<i>Figure 2-1</i> Summary of central topics reviewed for the thesis	21
<i>Figure 3-1</i> Data collection techniques and data analysis procedures	98
<i>Figure 4-1</i> Administrative structure for sport in Jamaica as at March 2016	123
<i>Figure 6-1</i> Jamaica's participation and medal successes at the Olympic Games	215
<i>Figure 7-1</i> Influence of national sport policy on elite sport development	264
<i>Figure 7-2</i> Contribution of environmental factors	267
<i>Figure 7-3</i> An informal but working network for the development of elite: A revised SPLISS model for developing countries	270

List of Abbreviations

BWI	British West Indies
CARICOM	Caribbean Community
CHASE	Culture, Health, Arts, Sports and Education
ESD	Elite Sport Development
GOJ	Government of Jamaica
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HSSIIP	High School Sport Infrastructure Improvement Program
IOC	International Olympic Committee
INSPORTS	Institute of Sports
IPL	Independence Park Limited
ISSA	Inter-Secondary Schools Sports Association
JAAA	Jamaica Athletic Administrative Association
JADCO	Jamaica Anti-Doping Commission
JLP	Jamaica Labour Party
JSP	Jamaican Sport Policy
JW	Jamaica Welfare
MCGES	Ministry of Culture, Gender, Entertainment, and Sports
MEYI	Ministry of Education, Youth and Information
MFPS	Ministry of Finance and the Public Service
MLGCD	Ministry of Local Government and Community Development
MYSC	Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture
MT	Ministry of Tourism
NCAA	National Collegiate Athletic Association

NSC	National Sport Council
NSL	National Sports Limited
NSP	National Sport Policy
NSO	National Sporting Organization
OPM	Office of the Prime Minister
PLCA	Premier League Clubs Association
PNP	People's National Party
SDC	Social Development Commission
SDF	Sports Development Foundation
SPLISS	Sport Policy factors Leading to International Sport Success
WADA	World Anti-Doping Agency

CHAPTER 1: Introduction**General Context**

The primary purpose of a national sport policy is to facilitate opportunities for citizens to be physically active through health and wellness programs, physical education curricula, recreational and competitive sporting activities, or to benefit from wealth creation sporting enterprises (De Bosscher & van Bottenburg, 2011; Houlihan, 2014; Piggitt, Jackson & Lewis, 2009; Sam, 2003; Sam & Jackson, 2006). Moreover, although governments provide opportunities for their citizens, they formulate and implement policies to encourage involvement in sporting activities while supporting the development of sport at various levels, such as, community sports, school sports, and elite sports (Brannan, John & Stoker, 2006; Grindle, 2007; Harvey, 2001; Jenson, 2001; Thibault & Harvey, 2013). It is through public policy that national sport participation can be developed into an elite sport system which can contribute economically, socially, politically, and culturally to a country's overall development (De Bosscher, De Knop, & van Bottenburg, 2009; De Bosscher, De Knop, van Bottenburg, & Shibli, 2006; Girginov & Hills, 2008; Green & Houlihan, 2005b; Green & Oakley, 2001a, Lawson, 2010).

The rise of Usain Bolt and other Jamaican sporting icons have shown, over the past 15 years or so, that for Jamaicans, elite sport can provide a level of financial security for some of the athletes and their support systems (Franklyn, 2010; Gordon, 2009; Jones, 2015; Moore, 2015). Their successes and financial growth have highlighted several sources of worthwhile contributions to the development of the country in terms of tax revenue, national pride, and national identity, which are important factors in displaying the nation's brand (Franklyn, 2010; Johnson, 2014; White, 2015). This level of international brand recognition is important for a developing country like Jamaica that relies on global tourism in order to get its share of a US\$632 billion global sport tourism industry (Johnson, 2014). The travel and tourism industry, in addition to remittances, is the main source of

foreign currency for Jamaica (Parliament of Jamaica, 2018). In 2016, the travel and tourism industry directly contributed 9.3% of total GDP, valued at US\$1.4 billion. When this amount was combined with indirect contributions (e.g., industry investment and suppliers purchases) and induced contributions (e.g., spending by industry employees), this industry accounted for 30.9 % of total GDP, valued at US\$4.5 billion (Turner & Freiermuth, 2017). Therefore, the Jamaican government recognizes the value of sport tourism, and the successes from elite sport seen as a catalyst for growth in this industry (Davis, 2017; Parliament of Jamaica, 2017). Although, it is generally understood that success in elite sport is not constant (Weber, De Bosscher, & Kempf, 2018), Jamaica has shown through its continuous medal-winning achievements in the sport of athletics (track and field) at international events, such as the Olympic Games, that developing countries can compete on the world stage with much larger, better funded, developed, and industrialized countries.

While some recent studies examine the competitive advantage in athletics (e.g., Truyens & De Bosscher, 2012; Truyens, De Bosscher, & Heyndels, 2012; Truyens, De Bosscher, Heyndels, & Westerbeek, 2014), and others examine competitive balance (e.g., Truyens, De Bosscher, & Heyndels, 2016; Zheng, Oh, Kim, Dickson, & De Bosscher, 2017), these studies concentrate on evidence from only developed countries. How a developing country achieves this level of competitive advantage and success in sport, and in athletics in Jamaica's case, remains poorly understood in the literature. By understanding competitive advantage, for example, a developing country could spend its resources wisely, and focus on achieving success in specific sporting disciplines (Brouwers, Sotiriadou, & De Bosscher, 2015a).

Conversely, some studies (Scott et al., 2003, 2009; Yang et al., 2007) have attempted to show that genetic talent could be a possible factor for the continued successes in athletics by athletes of African lineage. Thomis (2011) advised that these results remain inconclusive and could

possibly be contradictory, thereby adding to the debate about the impact of talent inherent to the success of athletics. De Bosscher and colleagues provided a simple explanation in this regard: “people are not born as athletes; they need to invest great time, energy, resources and passion to their sport, surrounded by people who provide a range of support services” (De Bosscher, Shibli, Westerbeek, & van Bottenburg, 2015, p. 37).

This explanation was a result of previous studies (see De Bosscher et al., 2006; De Bosscher, Bingham, Shibli, van Bottenburg, & De Knop, 2008) linked to the development of a conceptual framework – the Sport Policy factors Leading to International Sporting Success (SPLISS). According to the SPLISS framework developed by De Bosscher et al. (2006), which formed the conceptual lens for this thesis and will be outlined in Chapter Two, there are nine pillars or factors which cover the input-throughput-output of a national sport policy in which governments can contribute directly to the development of elite sport.

The SPLISS framework has been used by many researchers since 2006 (e.g., Brouwers, Sotiriadou, & De Bosscher, 2015a, 2015b; De Bosscher et al., 2008; De Bosscher, De Knop, van Bottenburg, Shibli, & Bingham, 2009; De Bosscher, Shibli, van Bottenburg, De Knop, & Truyens, 2010; De Bosscher, Shilbury, Theeboom, van Hoecke, & De Knop, 2011; Dixon, Graham, Hartzell, & Forrest, 2017; Newland & Kellett, 2012; Nolte, Burnett, & Hollander, 2017; Park, Tan, & Park, 2016; Phillips & Newland, 2014). While the framework has created a more effective and efficient sport development system and has become a ‘hot topic’ in research, findings associated with the framework are still ongoing. Several studies (cf. Baker, Horton, Robertson-Wilson, & Wall, 2003; Brouwers, Sotiriadou, & De Bosscher, 2015a; Houlihan & Green, 2008; Park, Lim, & Bretherton, 2012; Sotiriadou, Gowthorp, & De Bosscher, 2014) have identified some environmental factors, such as sport culture, country-specific political context, and the commercialization of sport, as factors to be considered in the discussion on elite sport development. In an era of fiscal restraint and

increased transparency and accountability, understanding the factors leading to countries “sporting success” and the factors’ interrelationships becomes all the more critical. This is even more so the case in a developing country, where resources and capacities are argued to be even smaller in nature.

If De Bosscher and colleagues (2015) are correct in the context of Jamaica’s successes in athletics, then the SPLISS factors could explain why the developing country has amassed 78 Olympic medals since 1948 (Wisdom, 2016). More precisely, the successes experienced during 1948 – 1992, a period of 44 years and the securing of 24 Olympic medals. Also, the current successes experienced between 1996 and 2016, a period of 20 years and the securing of 54 Olympic medals (Wisdom, 2016) could be explained by the introduction of a national sport policy and its ensuing outputs and outcomes. Thus, Jamaica provides a critical case to advance the understanding of the factors underpinning elite sport policies, the development of elite sport, and the achievement of national sport policy outcomes.

As such, the overall purpose of this thesis was to explore the development of elite sport, through national sport policy, within a developing country, here Jamaica. The following section introduces Jamaica as the chosen developing country for this thesis, after which the chapter continues with a presentation of the thesis research questions, before concluding with an outline of the overall monograph thesis.

A Brief Overview of Jamaica

Located in the Caribbean, Jamaica is a small island developing state, which received its independence from the United Kingdom on the 6th of August 1962. Like most former British colonies in the Caribbean, Jamaica is a member of the regional organization – the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) created in 1973, and has been an integral force in the social and economic development of the region (CARICOM Secretariat, 2005). For example, between 1971

and 2001, among CARICOM states, Jamaica has been second only to the oil producing country of Trinidad and Tobago in both exports and imports with international partners and intra-regional trade (CARICOM Secretariat, 2005). With Jamaica having the largest population among the English speaking members of CARICOM, and second only to Haiti, the small island's socio-cultural reach has resulted in its citizens actively living and engaging with many members states throughout the regional community (CARICOM Secretariat, 2005). Another example of Jamaica's influence within the Caribbean was the choice in 1948 to place the first campus of the University of the West Indies in Jamaica (Sherlock & Nettleford, 1990). With that decision, Jamaica was the only country in the region with a university, and students from all the remaining Anglophone countries would have to attend university and live in Jamaica, resulting in exposure to the host country's cultures and practices (Hall, 1998; Sherlock & Nettleford, 1990). It would take until the 1960s for the university to open its second campus at St. Augustine in Trinidad and Tobago in 1960 and its third campus at Cave Hill in Barbados in 1963 (CARICOM Secretariat, 2005). Nevertheless, regionally, Jamaica's integral force continues as the country host a number of regional bodies within its borders.

Internationally, the island known for its sun, sand, and sea, is among the most recognizable international states for its impact on world culture, entertainment, and sport (Franklyn, 2010; Johnson, 2014; White, 2015). With its capital in Kingston, the island state has an approximate population of 2.9 million (CIA World Factbook, 2017). Its national motto: *Out of Many, One People*, displays a diverse citizenry of mostly descendants from African origin, along with East Indian, European, and Asian, a result of over four centuries' involvement in the slave trade and its eventual abolition (Sherlock & Bennett, 1998). The official language is English, and a dialect called the Jamaican Patois spoken among the natives.

As with other countries with a diverse population, the mix of various cultures has produced several unique features to Jamaica. The musical genres of ska, reggae and dancehall, infused in the international cultural landscape, and the world's gastronomy introduced to the islands' *hot jerk* cuisine (Cook & Harrison, 2003). Although, for decades, these cultural and entertainment features of Jamaica have been world renowned, it is the continuous results in the sport of athletics (track and field), especially in recent World Athletic Championships and Olympic Games, that has captured the attention of the Jamaican government and of the world (Etman, 2017; Moore, 2014; Parliament of Jamaica, 2016).

As a sporting nation, Jamaica has had international success in winter and summer sports. In the winter sports, Jamaica received international acclaim by competing in bobsleigh at the 1988 Calgary Olympic Winter Games (Ferguson, 2012; Stump, 2013), and has competed in ski-cross at the 2010 Vancouver Olympic Winter Games placing ninth overall in that event (Ferguson, 2012). For the summer sports, Jamaica has competed in football (soccer) having been a finalist in the France 1998 World Cup; in Caribbean cricket as a sovereign state and internationally as a member of the West Indies regional team since 1928; and, most consistently, in the sports of netball and athletics. In netball, the island has maintained a top-five ranking since the first World Netball Championship in 1963, and recently came second at the Fast5 Netball World Series (Parchment, 2017). Additionally, the International Netball Federation, headed by a Jamaican, Molly Rhone, demonstrating the international influence Jamaica has in this sport.

In athletics, Jamaica's first significant international exposure came at the 1948 London Olympic Games, where it received one gold and two silver medals. Two gold and three silver medals at the 1952 Helsinki Olympic Games followed that performance. However, it was not until the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games that the island received another noteworthy medal haul, and since then, it has experienced an increase in the number of medals. Only on two prior occasions has the

country not medaled in the Olympic Games – Melbourne 1956 and Tokyo 1964. Interestingly, at the 1960 Rome Games, Jamaica as a country did not compete or receive a medal. However, while attending the Games as a member of the British West Indies Federation regional team, Jamaica can be unofficially credited with two bronze medals, one from a Jamaican in the 800 metres individual race, and the other in the 4 x 400 metres relay with three Jamaicans on the four-member team.

However, since 1996, the results for athletics and other elite sporting disciplines have heralded a new thrust in public sport policy from the Jamaican government. This thrust began with the introduction of the Jamaican Sport Policy (JSP)¹ in June 1994, and continued with two major strategies for national development: (1) an overhaul of the national development plan for all sectors, beginning in 2007 and (2) the revision of the JSP in March 2013, details of which are below. Although, Jamaica introduced its first sport policy in 1994, the revised 2013 sport policy was developed by drawing lessons from the Canadian Sport Policy, which was originally introduced in 2002, and revised in 2012 (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013). Some of the lessons drawn by Jamaica resulted in the introduction of policies for hosting international sport events a clearer description for the policy issues, objectives, and outcomes, in addition to the strategies for monitoring and evaluation.

Rationale for the Jamaican Case

In 2007, the government and people of Jamaica began consultations on a new development plan for the country; the last development plan was for the period 1990-1995. By 2009, the new plan formulated and launched as a National Development Plan called ‘Vision 2030 Jamaica,’ developed with the government’s long-term objective of eventually having a public-private partnership. This development plan, anticipates that Jamaica would “achieve developed country

¹ Throughout this thesis, any reference to the Jamaican Sport Policy (JSP) is in regards to both the 1994 or 2013 actual policy document and decisions by Jamaica; national sport policy (NSP), on the other hand, refers to the general concept of a country’s policy decisions for sport.

status by 2030” and guided by a core principle of placing the people at the centre of development (Government of Jamaica, 2009, p. XXIII).

In 2013, a revised JSP² tabled in the Jamaican parliament, and designed to align with the four core goals of Vision 2030 Jamaica. The core goals of Vision 2030 Jamaica are: (1) all Jamaicans are empowered to achieve their fullest potential; (2) Jamaican society is secure, cohesive, and just; (3) Jamaica’s economy is prosperous; and (4) Jamaica has a healthy natural environment (Government of Jamaica, 2009; Parliament of Jamaica, 2013). By incorporating these core goals within the JSP, the government endeavours to promote an integration of sport within the national economy through the creation of globally competitive products and services, while enhancing the earning capacity² of the national athletes and associated industries (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013). Therefore, the JSP aligned with Vision 2030 Jamaica by focussing on the core goals of the policy as a national plan for the sport sector. The core goals of the JSP are: (i) sport for all; (ii) sport for peace and unity; (iii) sport for economic development; and (iv) sport and the environment (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013)

These core goals underline the vision for the JSP, which is “To create a dynamic and enabling environment in which persons enjoy and excel in sport at all levels while building strong bonds of unity in their communities and benefiting from the economic opportunities to be derived from sport” (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013, p. 10). In addition, this vision is supported by a mission, “To transform Jamaica into one of the most engaged and successful sporting nations in the world” (p. 11). This mission suggests two distinct objectives in attaining the national vision for sport. First, by having ‘one of the most engaged’ – which means that there is a goal of having 75% of all Jamaicans being actively participating in sporting activities for 30 minutes, at least three times per week. Second, by becoming ‘one of the most successful’ – which means that, per capita, Jamaica

² The original Jamaican sport policy was first tabled in the Parliament of Jamaica in June 1994.

will continue to win the most number medals in international events, and will consistently place in the highest order of ranking among nations in international sporting competitions (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013). This represents the main objective for the elite sport policy and focuses on two distinct areas – winning medals, and highest order of ranking within international competitions. However, as the mission recommends, ‘Jamaica will continue to win most medals in international events,’ it should be highlighted that Jamaica has been successful in mostly athletic events.

In examining this situation, it was unclear to the researcher if the successes in athletics were part of a direct strategy for competitive advantage and was one of the successful implementation of elite sport development in Jamaica’s sport policy, or if this success occurred outside of sport policy factors. This thesis addresses these important questions. This thesis provides evidence stemming from the critical analysis of the Jamaican athletic success case of its country-specific factors’ ability to coalesce with known factors from the literature to garner this athletic success.

The two missions of the JSP emphasized the Vision 2030 Jamaica goals for the sport sector of increased participation in health and wellness activities, recreational activities, and competitive sporting activities. The focus of this thesis is on the competitive aspect of the national sport policy, as it takes a comprehensive look at the elite sport development system within the JSP. The study takes the following statements as a point of reference for data analysis in this thesis: “To ensure the consistent production of elite athletes, we will: establish strong research capabilities and advanced sport programs; develop financial support systems; and facilitate the holistic development of our professional athletes” (Government of Jamaica, 2009, p. XXXII).

Since the 1994 JSP, a period of greater re-investment in sport within Jamaica is noticeable and has been influenced by the People’s National Party administration – post 1993 (Toomer, 2015). There are opinionated debates that this intervention by government in sport continues to change the sporting landscape despite the full autonomy of the National Sporting Organizations

(NSOs) in the management and administration of sport. In addition, further opinions that the international successes of some of Jamaica's elite sports have occurred without established policy guidelines from government, and have materialized through private citizens' actions. Such actions, opinion writers (e.g., Lawrence, 2017b; NPR, 2012; Tracey, 2015) argue, have led to the international successes within the sport of athletics, which has been highlighted most significantly through the results at the Olympic Games. The change to the 2013 JSP highlights a new focus in support for sport by the government and expresses the significance of the role to play by government in sport development through formulating and implementing the national sport policy. Sport systems being complex in nature with various stakeholders and their needs and wants, Jamaican industry players, therefore, require a better understanding of the JSP, in general, and the elite sport development policies, in particular, especially with the disparity between athletics and other elite sports, to improve their effectiveness and efficiency towards the delivery of sporting success. While the international community continues to ask about the successes of this small nation and wonders if the dominance in athletics are sustainable (Moore, 2014; Olus, 2018). It is important to explore the country-specific information regarding elite sport development to provide Jamaica, and other developing countries, the empirical evidence to support policy decisions when competing in the global sporting arms race.

In targeting this global sporting arms race, the literature on national sport policies, in general, and the elite sport policies, in particular, provides some understanding in the way sport policy can influence the development of elite sport. The literature highlights factors which, when implemented, can provide a catalyst for a country to achieve its stated national outcomes, through the attainment of international sporting success (e.g., Clumpner, 1994; De Bosscher et al., 2006; Green, 2009; Green & Collins, 2008; Green & Oakley, 2001a; Grix & Carmichael, 2012; Houlihan

& Green, 2008; Houlihan, 2009; Houlihan & Zheng, 2015; Larose & Haggerty, 1996; Sam, 2003, 2012).

In the case of Jamaica's elite sport development, several opinion writers (e.g., Bethea, 2016; Lawrence, 2017a; Levy, 2017; Richards, 2017) have been asking about what has contributed to the international successes of athletics at elite competitions. Specifically, they ask why one elite sport can be more successful than another in Jamaica? Is there a speed gene; or can food such as yams make you fast? The literature has provided answers to the question on 'speed gene' (see Irving & Charlton, 2010; Irving, 2012; Morrison & Cooper, 2010; Taylor, 2015), whereby Jamaican athletes are said to possess a variant of the alpha actinin 3 (ACTN3) gene, which is associated with fast-twitch muscles, and allowing for high velocity and power sprinting. In the other scenario, at least one possible answer to explain the use of 'yams' has been hypothesized (see Asemota, 2010), whereby the phytosterols from 'yams' can stimulate cell growth and produce essential proteins for the ACTN3 gene.

While this debate continues about genetics, which occurs at the micro level, it is at the meso level where government decisions can have an impact on sporting success (De Bosscher et al., 2015). Yet, the literature does not provide adequate contextual understanding on the financial support provided by governments within the developing countries. This thesis has moved to fill that knowledge gap, by exploring how the financial input from government contributes to the development of elite sport, leading to a satisfaction of the stated national outcome at international competitions. Another important gap this thesis fills is the exploration of the environmental factors outside of the financial input from government, and their contribution to the sport-specific successes in a developing country. The environmental factors not examined in the SPLISS conceptual framework become an area of interest in exploring the international sporting success within a developing country. The literature (e.g., Green & Oakley, 2001a; Grix & Carmichael,

2012) indicates that, on a resource support level, a developed country can afford to invest more in sport development. These two gaps within the literature can further explain and add value to the SPLISS conceptual framework.

In summary, while significant contributions have been made in the understanding of elite sport policies. De Bosscher et al., (2010) argued that the SPLISS conceptual model developed to assess elite sport policies will need to be “explored further in several directions to confirm the subscale structure” and “it is inherent with this type of research that a theoretical model will never be totally construct valid” (p. 589). This statement by De Bosscher et al. (2010) highlights the importance in understanding that while this conceptual model continues to be further developed, and more research conducted, the link between input-throughput-output and ultimate sport policy outcomes, are achievable only through a reinforcement of factors working together. Yet, De Bosscher and her colleagues (e.g., Brouwers, Sotiriadou, & De Bosscher, 2015a, 2015b; De Bosscher et al., 2008; De Bosscher et al., 2009; De Bosscher et al., 2015; Sotiriadou, Gowthorp, & De Bosscher, 2014; Truyens & De Bosscher, 2012; Truyens, De Bosscher, & Heyndels, 2012; Truyens, De Bosscher, & Heyndels, 2016; Truyens, De Bosscher, Heyndels, & Westerbeek, 2014; Zheng, Oh, Kim, Dickson, & De Bosscher, 2017) have focussed their work on mostly industrialized developed countries. Therefore, the principles of the framework are in need of application within other nations of a similar type and function, because in the global sporting arms race, all nations, developed and developing, are now competing in one overall sport development system, whereby nations mimic each other, even among developed nations, while developing nations tend to learn from developed nations (Houlihan, 2009; Sotiriadou & Shilbury, 2009). These types and functions highlighted by De Bosscher and colleagues can be found in: (i) countries with an acceptance of democratic principles and philosophy; (ii) countries with a socioeconomic condition where there are investments in sport; (iii) countries with sporting performances at elite competitions; and (iv)

countries with a cultural background and social development, where sport is celebrated and can be included as a profession (see De Bosscher et al., 2010; De Bosscher & van Bottenburg, 2011).

While several studies have shown homogeneity within sport policy (e.g., Bergsgard, Houlihan, Mangset, Nødland, & Rommetvedt, 2007; De Bosscher et al., 2006; De Bosscher, De Knop, & van Bottenburg, 2009; Green & Houlihan, 2005b; Houlihan, 1994; Houlihan & Green, 2008; Oakley & Green, 2001a), these studies have been conducted on developed countries. The types and functions highlighted above reflects those found in some large industrialized countries, and in some developing countries. Further, while the homogeneity studies suggest that policy transfer and lesson drawing of sport policy are moving from the developed world to the developing, there is still a gap in the literature to explain the successes within developing countries prior to the global push in homogenization of sport policy. One example to highlight this point, are the Jamaican successes at the Olympic Games prior to the introduction of national sport policy in 1994. The first Olympic medal success for Jamaica occurred in 1948, some 46 years prior to a formal sport policy. Yet, success increased with the introduction of national sport policies. National success in international competition, such as in the case of Jamaica, arguably requires the creation of elite sport policies, and a support system to implement and deliver the desired sport policy outcomes. This thesis will therefore examine this issue. As seen above, there are political (i.e., government), administrative (i.e., implementing agencies), and financial issues to consider in how the Jamaican sport system evolved to where it is today, but questions remain in terms of how the national sport policy contributed to Jamaica's sporting outcomes and how athletics, compared to other sports, obtained such international success.

Purpose and Research Questions

Figure 1-1 provides a graphical summary of the purpose, objectives and research questions that guides this exploratory study. As noted earlier, the purpose of this thesis was to explore the

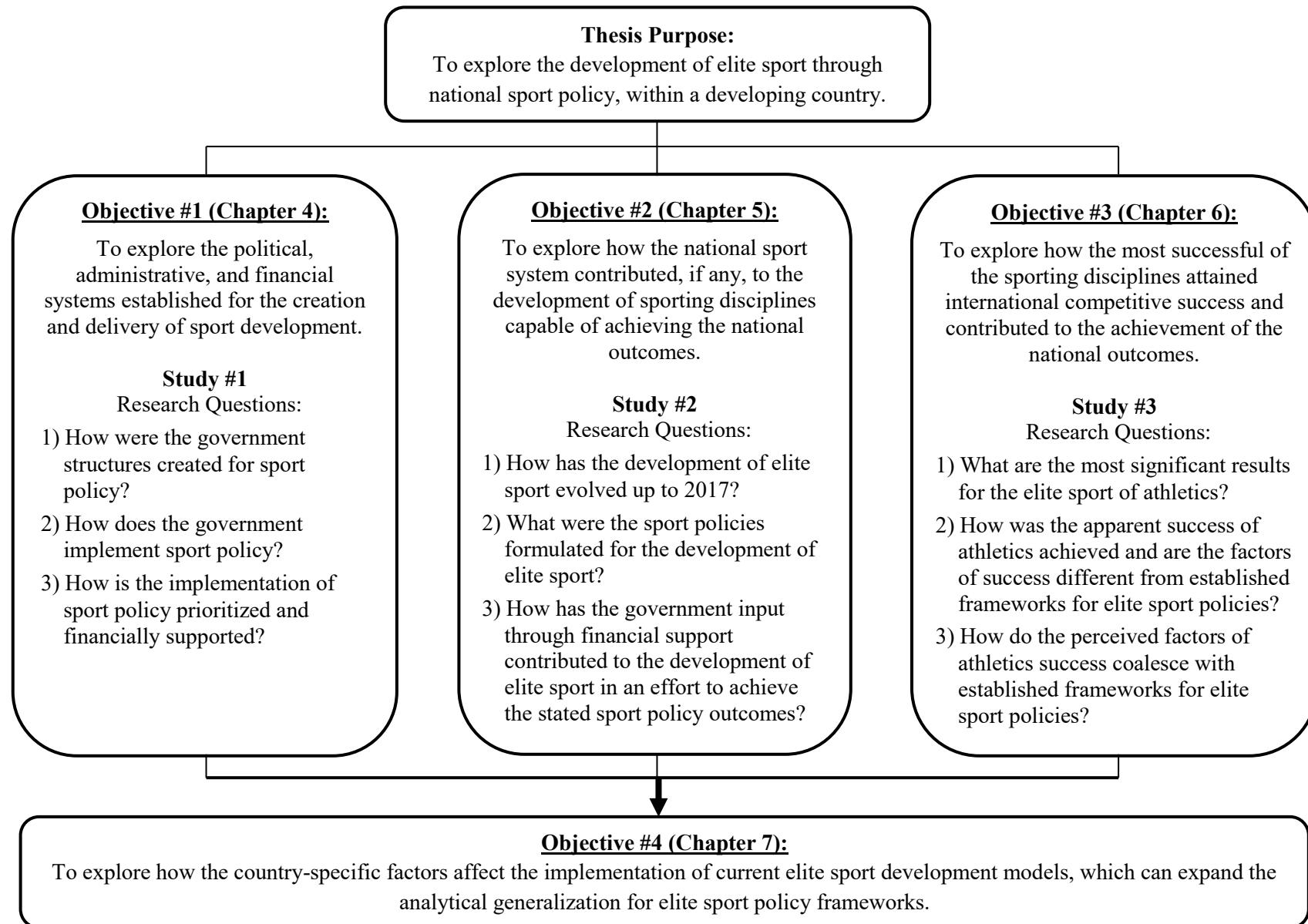


Figure 1-1. Thesis purpose, objectives, and research questions.

development of elite sport, through national sport policy, within a developing country, here Jamaica. Four objectives were formulated to address the thesis purpose, with the first three objectives comprising three separate studies, each with its own specific research questions. The fourth objective, attained from the results of the three separate studies, explored the analytic generalizability of the findings in order to answer the thesis purpose.

In order to address the purpose and research objectives, the thesis was divided into three studies. The objective of the first study was to explore the political, administrative, and financial systems established for the creation and delivery of sport development. This achieved through an historical account of the development of the political structures established by the people of Jamaica towards self-government. Study 1 explored how this political structure established an administrative and financial system of government ministries and agencies for the development of sport; and works with the autonomous NSOs in the preparation and delivery of elite sport. The government does not deliver sport to its citizens, and for elite sport, this done through sporting organizations. Therefore, this first study incorporated the following research questions to help the researcher meet the first objective of the thesis:

- (1) How were the government structures created for sport policy?
- (2) How does the government implement sport policy?
- (3) How is the implementation of sport policy prioritized and financially supported?

In terms of the contribution to the thesis purpose, study 1 found that the roots of Jamaica's sport development began with the planned or unplanned introduction of school sport and community sport by the former colonial British government. With the right to vote, the Jamaican people established a democratic government, which allowed for the creation of ministries and agencies to formulate and implement public policy priorities, and to evaluate inherited policies. In the Jamaican case, the government maintained the inherited school and community sport policies,

and made provisions for enhancement, funding, and collaboration with sport industry partners for continued delivery.

For the second study, the objective was to explore how the national sport system contributed, if any, to the development of sporting disciplines capable of achieving the national outcomes. This done by exploring the evolution of important government milestones created for the development of elite sport, and examined the contribution, if any, made by policy decisions and associated funding support to the selected elite sports. For this second study, the following research questions examined to help meet the second objective of the thesis:

- (1) How has the development of elite sport evolved up to 2017?
- (2) What were the sport policies formulated for the development of elite sport?
- (3) How has the government input through financial support contributed to the development of elite sport in an effort to achieve the stated sport policy outcomes?

In terms of the contribution to the thesis purpose, Study 2 found that the role of private actors, some transitioning into government with the authority and power to effect change, improved on the opportunities provided in the school and community sport systems by the former colonial British government. By establishing the roots of sport development early, decisions and actions for self-government formulated objectives and strategies towards a national development of sport. Facilities, institutions, regulations, policy frameworks, and eventually a source of funding would follow. Therefore, through reforming policy objectives and strategies, and allocating financial support towards sporting disciplines capable of achieving international sporting successes, stated national policy output such as (a) increased global participation and competitiveness in several sporting discipline, and (b) winning of medals and highest order ranking, was attainable. Additionally, the ultimate national outcome of strong bonds of unity and economic benefits derived from sport became achievable.

The objective of the third study was to explore how the most successful of the sporting disciplines, athletics, attained international competitive success. Study 3 took an in-depth look at the perceived success of the elite sport of athletics, in an effort to establish the factors for this sports international competitive success. To do this, the following research questions addressed to meet Objective 3:

- (1) What are the most significant results for the elite sport of athletics?
- (2) How was the apparent success of athletics achieved and are the factors of success different from established frameworks for elite sport policies?
- (3) How do the perceived factors of athletics success coalesce with established frameworks for elite sport policies?

In terms of the contribution to the thesis purpose, Study 3 found that while athletes from the early 1900s showed an interest in competing in the Olympic Games, the sport of athletics only received membership to the IOC in 1936. The first Games were immediately successful in 1948, and successes at the Games, continued, with a total medal count over the past 68 years at 76. A system of training and competition developed over time through the local and overseas experiences of athletes that later became coaches and role models, and assisted in creating a fraternity in the sport through tradition, culture and passion. The environmental factors associated with the success of athletics are representative of established frameworks, and this success involved the role of past and present government supporting the educational institutions that collaborate with private actors and the investments made in a professional local club system. The system of training that existed prior to the first sport policy was modified to include the train-at-home movement, allowing for a coalescing of factors that benefitted from public and private funding that lead to the attainment of national outputs, such as medals, and the achievement of national outcomes, such as pride, bonds of unity, and increase economic

benefits. As subsequent chapters in this thesis will show, the first study revealed the administrative structures established for the creation and implementation of elite sport policy. The second study provided an understanding of the evolution of significant government structures and how they implemented the core, decisions of elite sport policy, especially through the allocation of financial resources. The third study gave an understanding of the factors contributing to the elite sporting success of athletics, and how environmental factors, not necessarily tested by established frameworks, are integral to athletics elite successes. When the three studies' findings are combined, they showed an elite sport development model designed from the experiences of a developing country with resource constraint. Thus, the combination of the three studies allowed for the attainment of the fourth objective, which was to explore how the country specific factors affected the implementation of current elite sport development models, that expanded the analytic generalization for elite sport policy frameworks within the literature. The findings indicated that, while the established elite sport policy factors influenced by government decisions and contribute to the successful achievement of stated national outcomes, these established factors require a coalescing with environmental factors, in order to contribute to the development of elite sport, and are inherently important in attaining international competitive success. This finding was central to the broader discussion on the chicken-or-the-egg debate, and provided examples from the Jamaican context on the question: Does national funding influence international sporting success, or does international sporting success influence national funding? While this chicken-or-the-egg debate remains an unresolved point of discussion in the literature, this study provided evidence to support the influence of international sporting success on the national funding decisions of government.

As such, this thesis contributes to the growing knowledge on national sport policy and elite sport development. It provides a better understanding of the factors influenced by sport

policy and contributing to elite sporting success from the perspective of a developing country with outstanding international elite competitive results, despite its very limited financial input. These findings also allow for better formulation of policies and designing of sport systems by countries with lesser financial means. Moreover, this thesis can benefit the governments of both developed and developing countries, where developed countries now have a source for comparability, and developing countries have evidence to aid in their policymaking process. It should also help NSOs in their strategic planning and sporting goal achievement, through a specific analysis on the impact of the contributions made to the development of elite sport, from the policy decisions of government.

Thesis Outline

The thesis takes the form of a monograph and is composed of eight chapters. This chapter, Chapter One, outlined the context and reasoning behind the thesis, provided a description of the purpose and objectives, and discussed the general contributions of the thesis to theory, literature, and the practice of elite sport policy.

In Chapter Two, the literature pertaining to national sport policy, elite sport policy, and elite sport development reviewed; and a conceptual framework is introduced and discussed as a guiding template to understand factors that influenced by sport policy in an effort to achieve a country's stated desired outcomes.

Chapter Three outlines the methodology, including a discussion on the guiding philosophy for the chosen methodology, a description of the case study research design, a description of the case, and links the case back to the thesis purpose and guiding framework. Additionally, the methods are outlined for data collection, data analysis, and an approach to ensuring research quality.

The thesis results are presented in Chapters Four to Six. Chapter Four offers an historical account of the development of the political, administrative, and financial structures established for the development of elite sport (Study 1). Chapter Five explores the evolution of important government milestones, and examines the contribution, if any, made by policy decisions and associated funding support (Study 2). Chapter Six takes an in-depth look at the successful sport of athletics, in an effort to establish the factors for this success (Study 3).

Chapter Seven, the discussion, provides a summary of the results, a discussion on elite sport development in Jamaica and how this system of development makes a contribution to theory, literature, and the practice of elite sport policy, while describing the implications for researchers and managers. It also offers a reflection on the doctoral research process. Finally, Chapter Eight concludes the thesis by providing a summary of the key findings, the limitations, and avenues for future research.

CHAPTER 2: Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

The objective of this chapter is to present the concepts grounding this thesis and associated theoretical and rival propositions. Three central components – national sport policy, sport development, and establishing success – make up the core literature reviewed. They are further broken down into six sections (see Figure 2-1). The first three sections provide a description of the components in formulating a strategy for national sport policy intervention, and present a conceptual framework as a means of operationalizing the factors involved in the exploration of successful elite sport policies. The next section present the immediate outcome of national sport policy, sport development. The final two sections provide an overview of the expected outputs (e.g., medals won) and outcomes (e.g., national identity) from the success of national sport policy interventions. The chapter concludes by reviewing the coalescing of factors for the success of elite sport, and the use of logic models within the thesis.

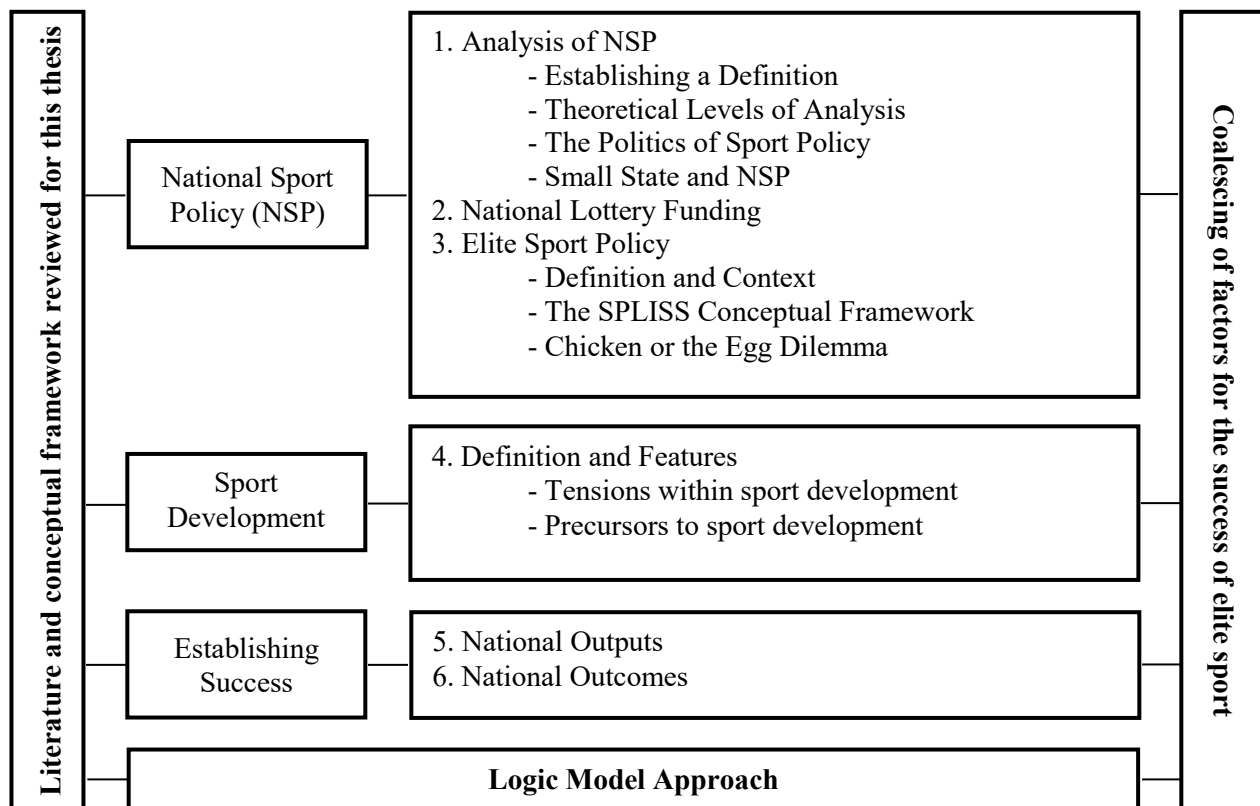


Figure 2-1. Summary of the literature and conceptual framework reviewed for the thesis.

National Sport Policy

A review of the literature in any field of study is a critical component in understanding and familiarizing with a relevant topic (Hart, 2001). This section covers the major topic of national sport policy. It first provides a description for the analysis of policy, by defining and theorizing its purpose for formulation and implementation by the political systems establishing sport policy. The second area of review in this section provides an understanding of the national lottery as a source for funding national sport policy. The third area in this section outlines the most critical aspect of national sport policy, in terms of international exposure, a nation's policies developed for the elite sport system. Also included in this section is a discussion of a conceptual framework for elite sport policy – the SPLISS Model, which guides this thesis and represents the current model for advocating factors relating to the international competitive sporting success of nations.

Analysis of National Sport Policy

In this section, national sport policy is defined. This is followed by an overview of the theoretical levels for the analysis of sport policy, the politics of sport policy, and sport policy in small states.

Establishing a definition. The word 'national' in the 'national sport policy' designation is an important distinction in the discussion of sport public policies. A simple definition for the word national suggests a sense of belonging, and Merriam Webster (2010) provides several meanings for the term; however, most crucial to this study is the meaning "of or relating to a nation" (p. 771). Whereas a nation is defined as a "community of people composed of one or more nationalities and possessing a more or less defined territory and government" (Merriam Webster, 2010, p. 771). Therefore, the word 'national' establishes a context in which to define public policy, as it highlights a sense of belonging to a community with territorial borders, and a

role for government, and possibly indicates an acceptance that decisions taken may affect those within the nation.

Next, the activities by governments and the vagueness of the concept of ‘policy’ have long been a point of discussion in defining public policy (Fischer, Miller, & Sidney, 2007; Houlihan, 1997; 2014). From the initial classification by Lasswell (1965, 1970), foundational research on the policy sciences established the structures of modern-day policy analysis and outlined the importance of policy as a purveyor of ‘knowledge-of’ and of ‘knowledge-in’ the policy process. Several scholars (e.g., Heclo, 1972; Jenkins, 1978; Pal, 2010) have sought to establish a definition of public policy, whereby policy can take the form of distinct responses by government to an underlining issue to be resolved. Heclo (1972), for example, suggested that policy does not appear to be self-defining and is more an analytic category for the activities of government, which can also include decisions of inactions. Similarly, Pal (2010) argued that public policy is “a course of action or inaction chosen by public authorities to address a given problem or interrelated set of problems” (p. 2). Both Heclo (1972) and Pal (2010) addressed the action of government and suggested that policy can be defined by a clear decision or by the interpretation of situations when no clear decision has been taken on an issue.

While Heclo’s (1972) and Pal’s (2010) definitions are very useful to this study, another noteworthy definition comes from Jenkins (1978), which describes public policy as:

a set of interrelated decisions taken by a political actor or group of actors concerning the selection of goals and the means of achieving them within a specified situation where these decisions should, in principle, be within the power of these actors to achieve. (p. 15)

Hill and Bramley (1986) examined this definition and indicated that it includes important features of public policy. First, the author’s view on the interrelatedness of decisions proposes

that a single decision by itself does not establish a policy, but requires a pattern or sequence of decisions. Second, political actors, not be formally recognized as politicians, make these decisions but are actors capable of exerting influence over the policy process. Third, the definition provides a clear indication that the policy should include its stated objectives and a direction for its implementation and assessment of success. The final component of the definition is that, in principle, the policy should be achievable. On this element, Hill and Bramley (1986) have some reservation, as, occasionally, policies could merely have a symbolic meaning and may have a direct intent to be unsuccessful. While Jenkins' (1978) definition for public policy was found to be very useful for this study, the additional understanding from Hecló (1972) and Pal (2010) allowed for a more comprehensive meaning of public policy and the decisions taken by governments. Therefore, national sport policy was defined in this thesis as a form of public policy attributable to the sport sector within a nation. The definition also follows the core meaning of public policy as actions or decisions, taken or not, for situations in which objectives are clearly stated, and means to achieve these objectives are also outlined.

The relationship between Lasswell's (1965, 1970) concepts of 'knowledge-of' and 'knowledge-in' in the policy process, and the formal field of study of policy analysis, have evolved into 'analysis for policy' and 'analysis of policy' (see Dunn, 2004; Fischer, Miller, & Sidney, 2007; Henry & Ko, 2014). These two foci of policy analysis are described by Henry and Ko (2014) as: 1) analysis for policy, which is a process whereby the analysis can impact the policy process directly and outline information that can influence decision-making; and 2) analysis of policy, which is a study of the policy process and how the stated objectives are being achieved.

More precisely, in developing policies, governments need to know if the choice of policy was the most suitable, or if there were better alternatives (Dunn, 2004; Pal, 2010). Policy

analysis is, therefore, “A process of multidisciplinary inquiry designed to create, critically assess, and communicate information that is useful in understanding and improving policies” (Dunn, 2004, p. 2). As a problem-solving discipline, it draws on theories, methods, and substantive findings from several academic disciplines (Dunn, 2004). In the context of sport policy, Henry and Ko (2014) opined that both foci of analysis are important in expanding the knowledge of government intervention in sport. For this thesis, an exploration of national sport policy was conducted in the context of an analysis of policy, whereby, the relationship between government and the sport are considered, in terms of providing an understanding of the established objectives and the means to implement and assess its successes.

The literature on sport policy, led by the body of work from Barrie Houlihan (e.g., Houlihan, 1994, 1997a, 1997b, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2009, 2012, 2014a, 2014b; Houlihan & Chapman, 2017; Houlihan & Green, 2006, 2008, 2011; Houlihan & White, 2002; Houlihan & Zheng, 2013, 2015; Kristiansen, Parent, & Houlihan, 2017; Tan & Houlihan, 2013), Mick Green (e.g., Green, 2004a, 2004b, 2005, 2006, 2007a, 2007b, 2007c, 2009; Green & Collins, 2008; Green & Houlihan, 2004, 2005a, 2005b, 2005c, 2005d, 2006; Green & Oakley, 2001a, 2001b; Oakley & Green, 2001a, 2001b) and Mike Collins (e.g., Collins 2004, 2009, 2010a, 2010b, 2012, 2013, 2014; Collins & Kay, 2003; Harris, Mori, & Collins, 2009; May, Harris, & Collins, 2013; Viallon, Camy, & Collins, 2003), has pioneered academic understanding in the theorising of sport policy and other aspects of sport. While the academic community has lost both Mick Green in 2009 and Mike Collins in 2014, their works continue to inspire young researchers, especially this researcher. Additionally, while Barrie Houlihan has now retired, the works of these three pioneers and several others, such as, Daniel Bloyce, Andy Smith and Ian Henry established the *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics* as a peer-reviewed journal (Houlihan, Bloyce & Smith, 2009). The objective of the journal is to allow an avenue for researchers to expand the

knowledge area in political science, the theories and concepts of policy analysis, the examination of the role of politics in sport policy, and to analyse the policy process and the impact of policy (Houlihan et al., 2009).

In summary, in order to better explore the Jamaican case and help answer the thesis purpose, this study can be categorized as an ‘analysis of policy.’ With that in mind, the next section will discuss the theoretical levels for the analysis of sport policy, followed by a discussion on the systems for developing sport policy.

Theoretical levels of analysis. This section is linked to the analysis of policy, from the perspective of a policy system, which incorporates decisions and actions from the government. It allows potential input variables (e.g., financial support) to be associated with output variables (e.g., sporting success), and the eventual attainment of ultimate policy outcome (e.g., national pride). In order to analyse such movements in policy changes, Henry and Ko (2014) and Houlihan (2005, 2014) suggest that it is impractical to explore the sport policy process without theorising. However, defining theory can be a challenging process, as any attempts towards a definition would be broad and of little use (Abend, 2008). Notwithstanding, Houlihan (2014b) provided a broad definition, whereby theories are “general statements that describe and explain the relationship between variables: such statements are often concerned to identify causes and effects arising from the relationship” (p. 11). This definition appears quantitative in nature; however, Alexander (1982) suggested that, while the term ‘theory’ may have quantitative distinctions along the scientific continuum, it can be equated with qualitative positions and have analytical distinctions to facilitate communication. Therefore, the definition of theory provided by Houlihan (2014b), while broad, allows for a foundational establishment of theory in the analysis of sport policy.

Thus, the use of theory in this study explored the direct contribution of meso-level variables, specific to the relationship between government organizations and their decisions to implement an elite sport development strategy in partnership with national association and federations for sport. The exploration done through the lens of a conceptual framework, allows for the creation of theoretical propositions. Conversely, the study also incorporated the creation of rival propositions to explore if any other variables, outside of meso-level variables have contributed to the successes experienced by the unit of inquiry. Theory use within this study, therefore, followed Abend's (2008) explanation for meanings of theory, and incorporated theory #1 – use of theory as “a general proposition, or logically-connected system of general propositions, which establishes a relationship between two or more variables” (p. 177). Houlihan (2014b) also considered this meaning of theory relevant to the analysis of sport policy.

The politics of sport policy. The politics involved in constructing national sport policy have been widely researched to date. Lijphart (1968) suggested that politics within nations are driven by party systems, such as one-party, two-party, and multi-party systems. These party systems establish a typology for the classification of what makes a democratic system, and Lijphart (1968) highlighted that ideology within party systems inherently contributes to the type of democracy within a state. For sport policy formulation and implementation, ideology becomes important. States with one-party system may indicate an ideology of centralization, while two-party and multi-party systems may indicate an ideology of de-centralization (Green & Oakley, 2001a; Houlihan, 1997; Houlihan & Green, 2005). Several studies (e.g., Bergsgard et al., 2007; Green & Oakley, 2001a; Houlihan, 2002; Riordan, 1981, 2007; Riordan & Kruger, 1999; Petry, Steinbach, & Burk, 2008) have looked at sport policy within centralized states, such as former (e.g., the Soviet Union and East Germany) and current (e.g., Albania, Cambodia, China, Cuba, North Korea, and Vietnam) communist countries. Riordan (2007) found, for example, that during

the heights of the reign of the former communist countries, sport was seen as a tool for nation-building, integration, defence, health and hygiene, social policies, and international recognition and prestige, and these communist countries were considered examples for other states. While the sport policy example from the former communist countries has been recognized by the current communist countries, only the most wealthy among them (e.g., China) and to a lesser extent resource constrained Cuba and North Korea have adopted and reformed the communist model (Riordan, 2007).

The examples of centralized sport policy have also influenced the formulation and implementation of sport policy within countries that espouses a de-centralized ideology. Several studies (e.g., Green, 2007a, 2007b; Green & Collins, 2008; Green & Houlihan, 2005a, 2005b; Green & Oakley, 2001a; Oakley & Green, 2001b; Houlihan, 1997, 2005; Houlihan & Green, 2008) have looked at the influences of communist sport policy on westernized countries. More specifically, sport policies within countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom, have been influenced in part by this model (De Bosscher et al., 2016; Green & Houlihan, 2005b; Green & Oakley, 2001a; Houlihan & Green, 2008; Piggin, Jackson, & Lewis, 2009; Sam, 2005, 2009; Sam & Jackson, 2004, 2006; Sotiriadou, 2009). Additionally, these countries have also influenced each other (Bergsgard et al., 2007; Green & Collins, 2008; Green & Oakley, 2001a; Houlihan & Green, 2008) and have established a level of convergence and homogeneity in sport policy development among de-centralized nations, reinforcing the practices demonstrated from the former centralized (communist) nations.

Therefore, among all nations, there are consistencies in the development of sport, especially within the elite sport policy system, and several studies (e.g., Bergsgard et al., 2007; De Bosscher et al., 2008, 2016; De Bosscher, De Knop, & van Bottenburg, 2009; Houlihan, 1997; Houlihan & Green, 2008; Oakley & Green 2001b) have highlighted a homogenization of

this level of development. Homogenization in the context of sport policy occurs when nations are searching for the best path to achieving sporting success and the policies formulated and implemented within these countries constructed around a closely identical model (De Bosscher et al., 2008, 2016; Houlihan & Green, 2008). This homogenization has been credited to the internationalization, globalization, commercialization, governmentalization, and politicization of sport policy (see Bergsgard et al., 2007; De Bosscher, De Knop, & van Bottenburg, 2009; Houlihan, 2012; Houlihan & Green, 2008). These processes have allowed a level of convergence among nations, but also, to a lesser extent, levels of divergence.

For example, Houlihan and Green (2008) discussed the impact of globalization, commercialization and governmentalization in terms of the parallels and differences between nations, and the forces leading to convergence of sport policies. Globalization, while a difficult concept to operationalize (Houlihan & Green, 2008), has been found to include the following four meanings:

- (1) It should not be conceptualized as a comprehensible and one-directional process
- (2) Investigators of cultural change must recognize the varying levels of social embeddedness and should be mindful about shifts in the attractiveness of certain sports or events
- (3) The bearing on policy within individual countries will differ due to distinctions of global influences and the unpredictability in reaction from different countries; and
- (4) While politics and culture are not impacted by economic processes, it is the commercial interests from private actors, and not the state funding, that have become more prominent since the 1980s among major sports and sports events.

In the context of commercialization, Houlihan and Green (2008) identified three dimensional forces leading to convergence. For the first dimensional force, Houlihan and Green

(2008) found that “the transformation of many sports events, clubs and athlete into valuable brands and commodities” (pp. 10-11), occurs whenever governments accept that sport can be a valuable sector for enhancing the economic benefits within the country. This has been evident from the number of countries bidding to host sport events. In the second dimension, the authors found that “the growth of sport as a source of profit for non-sports businesses through, for example, sponsorship and broadcasting” (p. 11) has allowed for entities to seek regular association with sporting events, sporting clubs and their athletes to maximize branding and the promotion and marketing of their commodities and services. The third dimension highlights “the growth of sports-related businesses such as sportswear and equipment manufacturers” (p. 11), which has allowed countries, sporting clubs and athletes to benefit from the push in brand expansion from sports-related businesses. Countries can benefit financially by having these businesses establish shop locally, and will receive tax revenue; these businesses will also provide additional revenue from the sale of commodities. Sporting clubs, and especially their athletes, sees commercialization as a means to enhance their ability for earning an income from sports; therefore, more countries are incentivising the successes from international competitions as a means of motivating sporting clubs and their athletes (Houlihan & Green, 2008).

While commercialization has had a significant impact on the development of sport throughout homogenized nations, it has also influenced the governmentalization of sporting organizations and contributed to a better organization with these entities. For example, Houlihan and Green (2008) identified that, among developed countries, NSOs have undergone a shift from heavy dependence on volunteers to the practice of employing professional staffing at all levels. This, they suggest, was a result of government encouragement and pressures to modernize, due to funding support provided by government. Additionally, with the increased access to commercial sponsorship, NSOs were forced to adopt a business-like structure, incorporating

general management techniques and a corporate model. Through governmentalization, the involvement of the state has become more conventional in the development of sport policies, especially for elite sports, as governments are working more closely with national associations and federations for sport in the delivery of sport (Bergsgard et al., 2007; Houlihan & Green, 2008). Furthermore, governments have also been able to influence the elite sport systems by establishing and mandating administrative departments and agencies, and enhancing the portfolio responsibilities of ministers of sport (Houlihan & Green, 2008).

Another aspect in the discussion on convergence surrounds the identification of seven dimensions by Houlihan (2012) as analytically distinct features in understanding the policy-making process and as essential components, which should be viewed in relation to each other and the process as a whole. These dimensions should not, however, be considered as a linear approach in the policy process (Houlihan, 2012). The first of the seven dimensions is ‘motives,’ which is described by Houlihan (2012) as “factors that prompted the aspirations and the factors, which influenced the extent (amount and duration) of resource commitment” (p. 113). Motives are an important dimension in that different countries could possibly display commonalities in their public ambitions for sport development, which may include common patterns in the allocation of government resources, as well as commonalities in the selection of policy instruments from a different set of motivating factors. Houlihan (2012), however, cautioned that it may be a difficult exercise to identify and measure motives, as, while some may be overtly stated, others occurs covertly in a possible attempt to achieve non-sports ends. Additionally, he advised that exploring motives may require a qualitative approach over a long timeframe (i.e., 10 years or more) to include a review of policy documents, the perspectives of policy actors, and an analysis of the pattern of resource allocation.

The second dimension, ‘agenda and aspirations’ are described as an “acknowledgement of an issue and the vision or ambitions for the impact of potential or actual policy outputs” (p. 113). Within this dimension, ‘agenda’ refers to the existence of problems related to sport requiring the decisions of government and an obligation on its part to respond, or not. The government agenda could be measured by exploring the appointment of ministers with or without portfolio responsibility for sport. Also, the decision to place the sport portfolio in a stand-alone ministry or place it within a ministry with other sector portfolios; the decision to establish departments, institutes and agencies for sport; and the budgetary priority given to the allocation of resources to sport (Houlihan, 2012). In responding to the existence of problems related to sport, the government may decide to make a statement (orally or written) on the aspirations of the chosen responses. For example, a country may aspire to have several sporting disciplines competing on the international stage, therefore, allowing for the exposure of more athletes in the pursuit of either increase rankings, or the winning of medals at sporting events (Houlihan, 2012). Through this aspiration, those outputs could lead to the attainment of stated national outcomes, such as increased revenue and economic development, or bonds of unity (Ha & Jang, 2015; Hilvoorde, Elling, & Stokvis, 2010; Houlihan, 1997b, 2012). Although these aspirational statements may suggest a sense of response from governments, it may be difficult to measure the sincerity of the statements and the feasibility of achieving jurisdictional outputs and outcomes, which may have local constraints from institutional and cultural structures (Goldfinch & Wallis, 2010; Houlihan, 2012; March & Olsen, 1996). One way to highlight the legitimacy of the aspirations’ sincerity and feasibility is an analysis of the committed resources and how fast the policies are implemented (Houlihan, 2012).

The third dimension, ‘contextualizing discourse/ideology/values,’ “ranges from the deeper structural values” of both policy aspirations and the choice of policy instruments and

delivery apparatuses, “to the more transient policy fashions which can significantly affect policy, but tend to be short lived” (Houlihan, 2012, p. 113). Houlihan (2012) advised that a simple way to understand the meaning of contextualizing discourse and the ideology and values they reflect is to think in terms of embeddedness. For example, a researcher could examine the deeply rooted values and beliefs, which are long lasting and somewhat enduring, such as the government contextualizing the discourse around the autonomy of national associations and federations for sport, from a cultural standpoint and a clearly worded statement in policy documents. By also using clearly worded slogans to direct the interest of government, these slogans can dominate the discourse to unify industry partners around the government’s agenda (Goldfinch & Wallis, 2010). Measuring this dimension may require qualitative thematic analysis from a range of sources, such as the actual policy documents, the perspective of industry partners, and a review of the actual implementation mechanisms established by government to achieve policy outcomes (Houlihan, 2012).

The fourth dimension, ‘inputs,’ “ranges from the tangible to the intangible” (Houlihan, 2012, p. 113), and refers to a “mix of resources (finance, expertise, administrative capacity, [expertise, evidence and ideas], etc.) and the source of resources (whether from the public, commercial and not-for-profit sector) which enable policy responses by the government to be formulated (p. 117). This dimension highlights the influence governments have over the policy process, and more importantly, the policy implementation strategies to be undertaken. For example, governments tend to look at the national lottery as a source of funding for sport policies, and more significantly, elite sport development. However, while governments may implement strong controls over the administration of lottery funds, some even establishing agencies supported by legislative acts (see Houlihan & White, 2002; Lindsey, 2010; Oakley & Green, 2001a), it is quite possible for governments to have some discretionary powers over the

allocation of the lottery funds and its responsible board. While finances are generally associated with inputs, there are other resources (e.g., administrative capacity and expertise) that may be mixed into the policy design to which governments may not have any control, or just a mere limited oversight (Houlihan, 2012). The measurement of the financial inputs are easily conducted from an analysis of financial records, but the level of influence a government may have will require qualitative methods for data collection and analysis, representing information from industry partners (Houlihan, 2012). Furthermore, Houlihan (2012) cautioned that funding sources from countries might fluctuate, especially with changes in government priorities; and, it will require analysis of 10 years or more to examine trends in national budgetary allocations.

The fifth dimension, 'implementation,' "refers to the selection of instruments and delivery mechanisms for a particular policy" (Houlihan, 2012, p. 118). It is within this dimension that most countries find a level of convergence through policy learning and transfer (see Bennett & Howlett, 1992; Green, 2007b; Rose, 1991; Sabatier, 1988) and mimetic isomorphism (see DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Governments tend to rely on a mix of instruments during the policy implementation process, such as penalties (e.g., NSOs losing funding for not attaining stated outcomes), inducements (e.g., the awarding of national honours and the provision of salaries or stipend for full-time athletes), and information (e.g., active promotion of the health benefits from sporting activities) (Houlihan, 2012). In selecting the delivery mechanisms, governments may choose to implement policies through departments or agencies, sub-contract the services to not-for-profit or commercial interest, or they may prefer to deliver sport development through the auspices of national associations and federation for sport, and their network of members (Houlihan, 2012). Government tends to allow this level of implementation to exist as these national associations and federations are the direct developers of specific sporting disciplines, and are mandated by their international governing body. While this is an implementation tool,

the intended policy may become heavily mediated, reinterpreted and adapted at the local level, which may fall outside of the original aspirations of the government (Houlihan, 2012).

The sixth dimension, ‘momentum,’ “refers to the intensity of commitment by powerful policy actors to the expressed aspirations and their continued commitment of resources beyond the initial phase of the policy process” (Houlihan, 2012, p. 120). Within this dimension, the concept of ‘issue attention cycle’ (see Downs, 1972) becomes applicable, as issues are placed on the government’s agenda which generates strong interest from a wide grouping of industry partners, and actions are taken through policy; however, the realization of the cost may lead to a decline in enthusiasm and possible abandonment of the policy. This recognition from government usually leads to a loss in momentum, which may return whenever a new crisis arise. One example of such a situation would be a government deciding to increase physical activity programs following the publication of a report on obesity rates in children.

The seventh and final dimension in Houlihan’s (2012) discussion on convergence surrounds ‘impact,’ which is “defined in terms of intended effects, that is, the extent to which change has been achieved in line with policy objectives, and also in terms of unintended effects (p. 120). The issue of impact among identifiable policies within converging countries is not simple to demonstrate, as the intended effect of local situations may allow movement along the same policy; however, the pace may be different between some countries (Houlihan, 2012). Conversely, the issue of unintended impact refers to situations in which a policy’s original aspiration may not be effectively achieved, in light of circumstances resulting from the implementation of the policy, and establishing a precise timeframe for judging the impact of a policy is very important in order to conduct an analysis (Houlihan, 2012).

Houlihan’s (2012) discussion on the dimensions of convergence provides an important framework to analyse the levels of convergence experienced by sporting nations. As mentioned

earlier, the literature on homogeneity and convergence suggests that sport policy formulation and implementation may have similarities; however, no two nations are identical, and divergence may occur during the policy process (De Bosscher et al., 2015). For example, De Bosscher, Shibli, Westerbeek and van Bottenburg (2016) argued “the fact that elite sport is part of a broader system that is embedded in a nation’s culture and prevailing value system also prompts a debate about the ambiguity of one size fits all approaches to elite sport policy” (p. 71). This argument supports Andersen and Ronglan’s (2012) point of view that the characteristics at the local level and the context in which elite sport policy is made are guided by the interpretations and modifications of general ideas, cognitive models and norms. Therefore, while these characteristics may be exploited internationally, their adaptation within a nation’s sport policy requires local interpretation, based off the lived experiences of policy actors and the broader environmental factors.

De Bosscher, De Knop and van Bottenburg (2009) explained that, among countries wishing to implement similar elite sport policy systems, there is an increasing attempt to incorporate country-specific variations. The authors found four explanation in which countries may vary their approach to elite sport policy. First, the recognition of the values presented by the local environment, such as weather conditions for training and the size of the population, may dictate a systematic approach to talent identification and development. Second, a country may look to learn from the successes of elite sport systems within other countries and may want to duplicate aspects from that country’s success; however, it might be restricted due to local characteristics not being similar. Third, while countries may see the value in implementing a working example from another country, the cost to implement may be expensive and the country drawing lessons may choose to take a cheaper route towards achieving international success. Fourth and final, while countries are looking for a ready-made system towards achieving

international sporting success, the literature remains inconclusive on such a model (De Bosscher, De Knop &, van Bottenburg, 2009), and the cultural and political context within countries may cause policy-makers to continue to focus on the local context and constraints.

In summary, the politics of sport policy was important for this thesis, as it provided a basis for exploring commonalities among nations. The discussion drawn from the perspectives of studies undertaken within developed countries has allowed for a better understanding of converging and diverging sport policies, which allowed for an analysis of the results from the perspective of a developing country. Furthermore, by conducting the exploration at the meso-level, this study allowed for the analysis of inputs and their resulting impacts (outcomes) from the initial intervention of government policy. This was done by drawing on a conceptual framework to guide the study and provide a basis for establishing the connection between inputs (financial or otherwise) and the resulting outputs (medal won, etc.) and ultimate outcomes (national pride, etc.). While the previous discussions have shown that similarities exist among nations, especially developed countries, the following section will discuss small states and their approach to sport policy development.

Small states and sport policy. While there have been significant studies in the area of government policies for sport (e.g., the works of Barrie Houlihan and Mick Green, as listed above). The research and interest in small states and their sport policy has increased significantly within the last fifteen years or so (e.g., Andreff, 2006; Darko & Mackintosh, 2015; Houlihan & Zheng, 2015; Koski & Lamsa, 2015; McCree, 2009; Reiche, 2015; Sam, 2003, 2005, 2015; Sam & Jackson, 2004, 2006, 2015; Storm, Nielsen, & Thomsen, 2016; Toomer, 2015). Further, the context of expressing interactions between small states in relation to larger states have been described as ‘Lilliputians in Gulliver’s World’ (Neumann & Gstohl, 2004) within the field of international relations. More specific to sport policy, it has been described through the biblical

story of 'David and Goliath' (Sam & Jackson, 2015). While both Neumann and Gstohl (2004) and Sam and Jackson (2015) described stories of an individual whose stature is smaller than its giant counterpart, the context in reference to sport policy is of profound importance to this thesis. For example, the story of David and Goliath concludes in the death of the much larger warrior; however, Sam and Jackson (2015) provide two possible explanations for this victory. First, citing the work of Gladwell (2013), the authors suggested that:

In reality, it was Goliath's massive size, his specialist position as a heavy infantryman, which demanded the use of heavy armour, and his apparent medical condition, which blurred his vision that not only hindered his movement but put him at a significant disadvantage. (Sam & Jackson, 2015, p. 319)

Secondly, the authors also added that "David's mobility (aided by his small stature), choice of weapon and strategic assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of his opposition actually gave him an enormous advantage" (Sam & Jackson, 2015, p. 319). While this story may reflect that physical size is never a contributing factor in battle, Sam and Jackson (2015), again citing Gladwell (2013), argued that two important distinctions can be made from this story, "First, giants are not always what we think and often not as strong as we imagine, and, second, being a small underdog may enable or force people to think, adapt and act in innovative ways, allowing them to succeed despite what appear to be overwhelming odds" (p. 319). This story and the general context of small states having successful interactions with much larger states is very important in the overall exploration of this thesis, as the Jamaican case, through its successes in the sporting discipline of athletics, epitomizes the achievements of a small state against much larger and resource-rich states like the United States of America.

The literature (e.g., Bernal, 2015; Sutton, 2011) on small states indicates that, although the central concept involves the word 'small,' there are huge differences in its meaning and

implication within the academic community when it comes to states within the international system. Further, establishing a definition for small states has been found to be an extremely challenging expedition (Maass, 2009; Neumann & Gstohl, 2004; Sutton, 2011; Thorhallsson & Wivel, 2006). Within the field of international relations, the concept of small state is classified in terms of its international political economy, whereby its status in the world is judged on its size and strength in relations to its international economic value compared to other states.

Additionally, it is classified in terms of its international politics, which establishes a status of either a weak or a strong small state (Bernal, 2015; Neumann & Gstohl, 2004; Sutton, 2011).

Therefore, while the concept is difficult to define, a small state has been classified in terms of its size, and its abilities to be resilient throughout varying levels of vulnerabilities (Houlihan & Zheng, 2015; Sam & Jackson, 2015; Sutton, 2011), such as economic turmoil and natural disasters. For a discussion on the concept of small states in international relations, see Neumann and Gstohl (2004) and Sutton (2011); for a discussion on small states within the European Union, see Thorhallsson (2006) and Thorhallsson and Wivel (2006); and for a discussion specific to the small state of Jamaica see Bernal (2015). Nevertheless, while the academic community has been unable to provide an adequate definition for the concept, it has provided three general dimensions in which small states can be classified in terms of size, such as population, geographical area, and GDP; and within international relations, military capacity and power are additional factors for small states classifications (Thorhallsson, 2006).

The classification of small states in terms of its population has different ranges, depending on the context. Within Europe, a small state can have a population of 16 million (Thorhallsson, 2006), and within the former British colonies, these figure may be much less. For example, Sutton (2011) argued that in 1985, the Commonwealth Secretariat considered a small state as having a population of 1 million or below; however, by 1997, this figure was increased

to 1.5 million. With such a classification, states like Jamaica would not have been included based on population; however, Sutton (2011) indicated that the Commonwealth Secretariat report from 1985, included Jamaica as a small state, as it was located within a geographical area that shares similar characteristics and regional links. This distinction and classification of Jamaica as a small state was still applicable in 2017, and no evidence was found of any changes (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2017). Within the sport policy literature (e.g., Sam & Jackson, 2015), a small state has been classified as having a population of under 10 million, due mainly to a lack of research on states with populations lower than 5 million.

The second classification of small state is its geographical size, whereby small states are considered in terms of their land mass. Some of these small states are land-locked, while several others are island states (Bernal, 2015). Although it may be advantageous to use geographical size as a quantifier, in terms of measurements in square kilometres (sq. km) (Maass, 2009), Sutton (2011), however, advised that this consideration should be observed on a continuum, as there are states with large land mass and low population density. If Sutton's consideration is viewed from the perspective of the Caribbean, Jamaica with the second largest population of approximately 2.9 million, and a land mass of 10,991 sq. km, would not adequately compare with other states. For example, with Guyana with a population of 738,000 and a landmass of 214,970 sq. km, or Suriname with a population of 592,000 and a land mass of 163,820 sq. km (CIA World Factbook, 2017). If classified by population only, Jamaica would be considered much larger, but if geographical size is considered without taking account of population size, then both Guyana and Suriname would be considered larger states. Therefore, from this example, geographical size would fit best as descriptor in terms of land mass proportions.

The third classification of small states is of its economic size. This classification is generally used in the context of small states when the size of its economy is considered, and it is

operationalized in terms of its GDP (Maass, 2009; Sam & Jackson, 2015; Sutton, 2011). Within a state, GDP is associated with international or regional trade (e.g., foreign direct investments, tourism); it also takes into account the domestic markets and expenditures. For a small state, economic scale can be a contributor to its national development and sustainability; and within the sport sector, it may be a reason for some states' low investment in national sporting developments (Sam & Jackson, 2015). Moreover, Sam and Jackson (2015) advised that small states collect less revenue than larger states, and as such, may be selective in their investment in sport and infrastructure development. For example, McCree (2009) highlighted that the government in Trinidad and Tobago, which formulated the 1988 White Paper on reforming sport in that small state, was not able to implement its policy, as the oil producing state was experiencing low revenue from slumps in international oil pricing, which resulted in a 22 percent unemployment rate. However, by 1998, the government of the day was able to formulate a national sport policy, due mainly to changing economic circumstances locally and internationally, and a decline in the unemployment rate to 14 percent (McCree, 2009). A small state GDP also affects its ability to develop domestic competitions for athletes, and as such, athletes will look towards the larger economies to ply their trade and obtain earnings from sport (Agergaard & Ronglan, 2015; Bullough, Moore, Goldsmith, & Edmondson, 2016). Coaches may also look to larger economies to expand their earning potentials (Borges, Rosado, de Oliveira, & Freitas, 2015; Wicker, Orłowski, & Breuer, 2018); and, both athletes and coaches will migrate from small state economies, resulting in a depletion of talent and leaving the national sport systems vulnerable (Wicker, Orłowski, & Breuer, 2018).

The two examples of economic size outlined above indicated aspects in which small state vulnerabilities exist in the context of sport. Houlihan and Zheng (2015) provided another example, in which a small state can be extremely vulnerable to external shocks. The authors

argued that states such as Azerbaijan and Georgia potentially risk Olympic medal shock if wrestling is removed from the list of Olympic sporting disciplines. Hence, in relation to Jamaica's Olympic medal hopes, while it may not be realistic that the International Olympic Committee would remove athletics as a sporting discipline, the approval of the Olympic Agenda 2020 (International Olympic Committee, 2014) and its recommendation #9 and #10 could be construed as possible changes within athletics and other sporting disciplines. For example, recommendation #9, which called for the reduction in athletes, coaches and support personnel, and events, could result in the elimination of events, such as the 10,000m, 200m, shot put, triple jump and the 20k race walk (Shryack, 2014). While Jamaica has never sent representatives in the 10,000m and 20k race-walk to major international competitions, the small state has consistently medalled in the 200m and has produced strong Olympic medal hopefuls in shot put and triple jump (Bailey, 2018; Lawrence, 2012; Richards, 2018; Walker, 2017). It has also had several medalist at the Commonwealth Games, the most recent being gold medals in women's triple jump and shot put (Richards, 2018). This example of vulnerability is essential to how small states examine their sport policy needs, and becomes critical in the analysis of sport policy within the global sporting arms race.

It is these vulnerabilities and others (e.g., natural disasters) that have established the capacity for small states to endure and be resilient from these experiences (Katzenstein, 1985). The effects of being small has resulted in states becoming adaptive in establishing public-private partnerships and other relationships with the wider society; formulating specific policies for social integration; and developing and implementing coordinated responses to societal problems (Sam & Jackson, 2015). Revisiting his earlier work on small states, Katzenstein (2003) observed that:

Small size was a code for something more important. I learned from my interviews, readings and reflection that it was concealing an underlying and politically consequential causal connection. What really mattered politically was the perception of vulnerability, economic and otherwise. Perceived vulnerability generated an ideology of social partnership that had acted like a glue for the corporatist politics of the small European states. (p. 11)

This observation further highlights the importance of small states to develop ties and trust relationships with different actors locally, regionally, and internationally. Katzenstein's (2003) remarks can be contrasted to what Lowenthal (1987) called 'managed intimacy':

Small-states inhabitants learn to get along, like it or not, with folk they will know in myriad contexts over their whole lives. To enable the social mechanism to function without undue stress, they minimise or mitigate overt conflict. They become expert at muting hostility, deferring their own views, containing disagreement, avoiding dispute, in the interest of stability and compromise. (p. 39)

In application of this perspective, Sam and Jackson (2015) opined that, while small states may have detractors of their sports policy approaches, they tend to develop ways in accommodating others, and allow for social integration and national unity. When viewed from the context of Jamaica, the modern society and the decisions it undertakes cannot be understood without tracing its origins (Payne, 1991). Hence, the democratic and social values required for Jamaica's 'managed intimacy' were instilled from British colonial rule; and the various governments since the 1962 independence "took responsibility for its preservation and continued the process of education and dissemination into the next generation" (Payne, 1991, p. 44). Therefore, the ability to establish and maintain relationships are enshrined in the values, norms, beliefs, and education

systems within the Jamaican society; it is only left to the various actors to adequately apply techniques for ensuring this small state's resilience.

While states pursue their various strategies to support resilience, and in terms of sport, may institute social cohesion policies, small states, in particular, have to exercise sound governance and prudent management of their economy and scarce resources (Sam, 2015). For example, McCree (2009) examined the national sport policy within Trinidad and Tobago, and found that, while policies were formulated during a time of economic slump, it was not until a period of boom, some 16 years later. Further, in 2004, that the government established the Sport Company of Trinidad and Tobago to focus on the development of high performance sports within the small state. Darko and Mackintosh (2015) provided another example of governments' resource scarcity in their investigation of sport policy implementation in Antigua and Barbuda. The authors found that there were challenges in the development of sport at the grassroots level, especially for coaching development and facility development, and a lack of resources to fund these dimensions have resulted in NSOs and other voluntary institutions filling the gap in sport policy implementation. From a Caribbean sport policy perspective, these two examples highlight the challenges faced by economical constraints, which force the small state to exercise prudence in its investments in sport policy.

Lack of resources has also been associated with a small state's inability to be successful in multiple sports at international events, like the Olympic Games (Houlihan & Zheng, 2015). This resource constraint has led to small states establishing sport policies in which priority is given to one or more sporting disciplines (Sam, 2015; Sam & Jackson, 2015; Houlihan & Zheng, 2015). Although this specialization is not unique to small states, it has been more pronounced among small states who look to consolidate their resources (Bergsgard et al., 2007; Fahlen, Eliasson, & Wickman, 2015; Sam, 2015; Sam & Jackson, 2015; Storm, Nielsen, & Thomsen,

2016). For example, Sam (2015) advised that “scale invites consolidation, targeting and rationing, central sport agencies in small states may have to paradoxically invoke strategies to break the very communal bonds that provide them with the fertile conditions for growth and competitive advantage” (p. 407). By invoking strategies for growth and competitive advantage, small states may identify relevant and critical resources to develop specific aspects of their elite sport development system (Andersen & Ronglan, 2012; Truyens, De Bosscher, Heyndels, & Westerbeek, 2014).

Although the lack of resources is an important theme in the discussion on vulnerability among small states, several other themes have also confronted the small state, such as the portrayal of sport in the national psyche; the migration of young athletes to overseas universities and colleges; the shift from amateurism to professionalism; the absence of serious concentration of athletes within a particular sport to provide high level competitions; and the coordination between education and sport sectors. Each is described below.

In terms of how sport is portrayed nationally, Stewart, Nicholson, Smith and Westerbeek (2004) provided an example of the impact of sport on the national psyche with their discussion on the evolution of Australian sport policy. Stewart and colleagues (2004) explained that Australia has a strong culture of participating and watching sport, and when combined with the successes from international sporting competitions, collective pride, self-respect and national identity are felt by a large cross section of the society. This national psyche can also be severely impacted when the attempts at international sporting competitions are unsuccessful and even more impactful when there are scandals. For example, the recent scandal surrounding the Australian national cricket team and the admission of cheating and subsequent resignation of the widely adored captain, Steve Smith, has been expressed as a national shame that will take long to recover from to rebuild the national psyche (Swanton, 2018).

Although sport is a very important aspect of the national psyche for most sporting enthusiasts, those who may possess talent, but lack the local opportunities to expand their training and competitive exposure, may look to migrate to overseas colleges and universities (Bale & Sang, 1994). They are contributors to what Bale (1991) considered the 'brawn drain.' In investigating the foreign student-athletes in American universities, Bale (1991) highlighted that talent migration has been occurring globally for many centuries, and added that:

The international recruitment and migration of sports talent is but part of the widespread interaction among members of different nations in what is an increasingly interdependent and shrinking world. Such movements, and the resulting 'culture shock' and problems of adjustment, is the outcome of a world of shared values and aspirations. (p. 4)

Bale's (1991) observation of high concentrations of foreign student-athletes competing in the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) championships are examples of this talent migration. Included among the foreign student-athletes are several Jamaicans, who have been migrating to the British and American universities and colleges since the 1940s (Davidson & Wynter, 1987). Bale (1991) found that within the period of 1973-1985, there were 43 Jamaican male track and field student-athletes competing at a high level in the NCAA championships, and 37 of the 43 were sprinters. Although this access to overseas scholarships and Jamaican student-athletes continuing their athletic pursuits in the American higher education system in the 1990s, several talented athletes began to remain in Jamaica to train locally and receive scholarships from universities within Jamaica (Franklyn, 2010, 2011; Williams, 2011). Additionally, while the correlation is yet to be determined academically, the majority of international successes at the Olympic Games over the past 20 years is attributed to locally trained athletes (Franklyn, 2011).

For those athletes looking to train locally in their countries, the global shift from amateurism to professionalism has provided prospects to receive increased earnings from the

sport and more opportunities for competition (Morgan, 1993; Peterson, 2007; Polley, 2000). For sport organizations, this shift to professionalism has also heralded a move from strong reliance on voluntary support to the inclusion of trained and qualified professional staff (Shilbury & Ferkins, 2011; Skinner, Stewart, & Edwards, 1999). The move from amateurism to professionalism have benefitted both athletes and sport organizations (Peterson, 2007; Storm, Nielsen, & Thomsen, 2016), as the financial resources needed to support professionalism has not only provided salaries and wealth for athletes, but well needed budgetary support for the sport organizations. For example, Peterson (2007) opined that the professionalization of sport has allowed for steadiness and consistency in the development of sport, which has resulted in better equipment, and improved technical and organizational conditions. With these advancements, athletes are able to:

run, jump, and swim faster for every year...due to better training facilities, training methods and an improved knowledge of nutrition – but also of the medical development that has made it possible to increase physical performance in both legal and illegal ways. (Peterson, 2007, p. 3)

Additionally, sport organizations have adopted a more professional and structured approach, driven in some instances from external pressures, such as government policies regarding financial support (Harvey & Proulx, 1988; Kikulis, Slack, & Hinings, 1992, Macintosh, 1988). For example, Macintosh (1988) highlighted that:

Recent federal government intervention in the promotion of high performance sport has had a dramatic impact on voluntary national sports associations. As a result of this intervention, which began some fifteen years ago, associations have enjoyed expanded technical and administrative capacities and enlarged financial resources, provided mainly

by the federal government. As well, they have adopted a rationalized approach to program goals and outcomes. (p. 121)

Although sport organizations in some small states may still have autonomy over their internal affairs (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013), Macintosh (1988) provided a contrasting example from the Canadian perspective, whereby:

...national associations have experienced a diminution of autonomy and have been unable to develop any united strategy to counterbalance the growing federal government presence in high performance sport. This transformation can best be understood in the framework of two themes: the changing motives for government involvement in sport, and the political and administrative structure put in place by government to achieve its goals. (p. 121)

Understanding the instrumental change from amateurism to professionalism and the various levels of intervention into elite sport by government is critical in any study of national sport policy. The Canadian example illustrates how government links financial support to administrative and management changes in NSOs, and therefore, reduces the level of autonomy for those organizations. However, not all countries link administrative and management transformational change to the financial resources provided to NSOs (e.g., Jamaica).

With funding support in place for sport organizations, and several opportunities for athletes to earn money from their sport, another important theme in the small state sports research is that of the absence of a serious concentration of athletes within a particular sport to provide high-level competitions. Small states already have a disadvantage in the population size and the numbers of citizens available to participate in sport; as De Bosscher, Shibli, Westerbeek, and van Bottenburg (2015) observed, of the “many talented athletes entering elite sport systems only a few will reach the international top and achieve medal-winning success” (p. 43). In order

to display their talents, athletes within various sporting disciplines require periodic competition in order to assess their levels of preparation and better understand the training to competition ratio (Balyi, Way, & Higgs, 2013). Not having levels of competition for athletes within a similar age groups or talent/skillsets can lead to disparities in the stages of preparation and development (Balyi, Way, & Higgs, 2013). The long-term athlete development (LTAD) model currently used in Canada is one example where athletes are developed over several stages (see Balyi, 2001; Balyi, Way, & Higgs, 2013). However, the LTAD model has been criticised as one-dimensional and lacking empirical evidence to support the development of athletes (Ford et al., 2011). For example, Ford and colleagues (2011) acknowledged that the LTAD model is useful to coaches and practitioners in understanding some of the physiological and biological aspects in developing athletes; but it lacks a critical path to understanding development challenges of children and adolescents. More importantly, the authors highlighted that the model does not adequately indicate mechanisms for varying maturation levels among children, which could lead to issues in early specialization for young athletes that can hinder long-term development.

In other countries, such as Jamaica, where there are no LTAD model, physical education curricula are administered throughout the early-childhood, primary, and secondary school sport system as a means “to meet the development needs of the children of Jamaica” (Charlton, 2010, p. 97). The physical education system in schools provides opportunities for talent identification and development, and these talented athletes receive organized training and access to competitions at various levels (Charlton, 2010). The physical education system in schools highlights a link between the education and the sport sectors, and provides for the early development of Jamaica’s talented athletes (Bolt & Custis, 2010; Charlton, 2010). Additionally, athletes transition from the early-childhood, primary, and secondary school sport system and

some even move on to university and colleges through athletic scholarships (Franklyn, 2010; Robinson, 2009).

In summary, the discussion on small states and sport policy was important for this thesis, as it established the parameters exploring the differences in size for both developed and developing countries. The story about ‘David and Goliath’ and the explanation put forward by the authors helped establish the general context of small states having successful interactions with much larger states. This is very important in the overall exploration of this thesis, as the Jamaican case, through its successes in the sporting discipline of athletics, epitomizes the achievements of a small state against much larger and resource-rich states like the United States of America. This section highlighted the important steps in which a small state can influence elite sporting success through sport development, and contribute to the stated national outputs and outcomes of sport policy.

National Lottery Funding

In order to tackle resource constraints and provide funding support for the national sport sector and other government sectors (i.e., arts, heritage, education, environment, health, etc.), several governments globally have enacted legislation for the establishment of national lotteries to fund projects (Borrmann et al., 2015; Evans, 1995; Lindsey, 2010; Oakley & Green, 2001a). Lottery funding is taxes foregone on the sale of tickets and other betting and gaming products. The government establishes Commissions to manage the funds collected and disbursed by boards. These boards are created within government departments or agencies under the ultimate control of the same politicians (Bailey & Connolly, 1997; Considine, Crowley, Foley, & O’Connor, 2008; Evan, 1995; McKinney & Kahn, 2004), and provides an opportunity for political interference. For example, Bailey and Connolly (1997) in analyzing the Irish and United Kingdom national lotteries, found that, in the United Kingdom, the creation of boards within

separate bodies, with one having responsibility to receive the lottery funding and the other to disburse the funds, allowed for better transparency and accountability, although government ministers still provided direction. Within the Irish system, however, allocations are through government departments, which handles exchequer funds and lottery funds, a situation, which allows for temptations towards political ends (Bailey & Connolly, 1997). Although the United Kingdom example indicates a separation of institutions to receive and disburse lottery funds, it still allowed for some possible political interference, similar to the Irish example, as the government retained oversight and influence in both entities.

These two examples allow for comparison of the national lottery of Jamaica. Within Jamaica, a system similar to the United Kingdom exist for receiving and disbursing lottery funds. An agency established in the Office of the Prime Minister to receive the lottery funds, and an agency established under the oversight and control of the Minister of Sport. This researcher has first-hand knowledge of government influence in the disbursement of lottery funds, and can attest to the reservation highlighted by several authors (see Bailey & Connolly, 1997; Considine, Crowley, Foley, & O'Connor, 2008; Evan, 1995; McKinney & Kahn, 2004), to the possible opportunity for political interference.

Elite Sport Policy

In this section, elite sport policy is defined and contextualized before the main conceptual framework for this thesis, SPLISS, is presented and critiqued.

Definition and context. From a general perspective, national sport policy advances the agenda of the government in formulating a strategy to comprehensively develop the sporting industry for national and international activities (Green & Houlihan, 2005; Grix & Carmichael, 2012; Henry & Ko, 2014). Taken more specifically, national sport policy considers the development of sport from two main areas: 1) sport for all; and 2) elite sport (Green, 2004a,

2006, 2007a; Grix & Carmichael, 2012). Although these two areas have been the focus of debate in terms of where a country should invest its financial support for sport development (see Green 2006; Grix & Carmichael, 2012). The two context are where the citizens can be engaged in sport and physical activity programs from the grassroots level that will help to identify and develop elite athletes for national representation and international exposure (De Bosscher et al., 2006; Green, 2007a; Shilbury, Sotiriadou, & Green, 2008). However, understanding and recognizing the national context is an important dimension in public policy making. Houlihan (2005) advised that:

Sport policies, like other public policies, are not debated, shaped and delivered by an abstract entity, 'the state', but by particular states with distinctive administrative structures, coalition, codes, values and histories, all of which affect the behaviour of particular public officials when faced with specific issues. (p. 175)

As Houlihan (2005) suggested, sport policies are not made in a vacuum, and researchers (e.g., Andersen & Ronglan, 2012; Bergsgard et al., 2007; De Bosscher et al., 2009, 2016; Houlihan, 2012; Houlihan & Green, 2008) have shown that elite sport policy converges among nations and are copied, creating a nations elite sport system. Therefore, elite sport policy is national policy which formulates and implements the structures, systems and processes necessary for the development of sport to engage athletes that represents the nation (Bergsgard et al., 2007; De Bosscher et al., 2015; Houlihan & Green, 2008; Shilbury, Sotiriadou, & Green, 2008).

Research on elite sport policy can be divided into two categories: 1) research that provides understanding from a political or historical position; and 2) research that looks to draw conclusions through the analysis of crucial success factors for elite sport policies at the national policy level (De Bosscher et al.,2015). In the first category, several studies (e.g., Andersen & Ronglan, 2012; Bergsgard et al., 2007; Houlihan, 2005; Green & Houlihan, 2005; Houlihan &

Green, 2008) have provided a description of the contextual and historical underpinnings of elite sport policy from the examples of developed countries. For the second category, several studies (e.g., Broom, 1986, 1991; Riordan, 1981, 2007; Clumpner, 1994; De Bosscher et al., 2006, 2008, 2015; Larose & Haggerty, 1996; Oakley & Green, 2001b) have analyzed the characteristics of elite sport systems, which have been found to be common among nations, and provide a definition of crucial success factors for international sporting success. Of all the studies, only one to date (De Bosscher et al., 2006) has suggested a model, which considers the elite sport policy decisions by governments as a contributor to the international sporting success of nations: SPLISS (Sports Policy factors Leading to International Sporting Success).

The SPLISS conceptual framework. SPLISS is a conceptual framework developed by De Bosscher, De Knop, van Bottenburg, and Shibli (2006) with the goal to model the relationship between elite sport policy formulated and implemented at the meso-level towards international sporting success (De Bosscher et al., 2015). The framework incorporated a comprehensive literature review (see De Bosscher et al., 2006) in addition to contextual understanding earlier gained through an examination of international tennis experts on factors determining that sport's successes (see De Bosscher, De Knop, & Heyndels, 2003a, 2003b). Later, the conceptual framework received testing through a pilot study in six nations, Belgium (Flanders & Wallonia), Canada, Italy, Norway, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom, and resulted in a published doctoral thesis (see De Bosscher, 2007). The pilot study led to the development of the SPLISS Consortium of researchers, and the project has resulted in the SPLISS 1.0 study (De Bosscher et al., 2008) and the SPLISS 2.0 study (De Bosscher et al., 2015). Additionally, the methodology behind SPLISS has been reviewed in several studies (e.g., De Bosscher, 2016, 2018; De Bosscher, De Knop, van Bottenburg, Shibli, & Bingham, 2009; De Bosscher, Shibli, van Bottenburg, De Knop, & Truyens, 2010; De Bosscher, van Bottenburg, &

Shibli, 2014). The model and methodology for SPLISS centers on nine pillars or components of policy influenced by the decisions of policy-makers and politicians, and reflected as inputs and throughputs, which can account for success measured or assessed as outputs and outcomes of the elite sport system (De Bosscher et al., 2006). See Table 2-1 for key arguments guiding the pillars of the SPLISS conceptual framework.

Table 2-1

Description of the Key Arguments Guiding SPLISS and its Nine Pillars

The SPLISS Model		Key Arguments guiding each Pillar	Original Source of Reference	SPLISS 2.0 Reference Page
Inputs:	Pillar 1 – Financial Support	SPLISS 1.0 found that in terms of money spent and the resulting output, the best predictor of output appears to be the absolute amount of funding allocated to elite sports.	De Bosscher et al. (2008)	43
		With more countries investing in elite sport, there are diminishing returns on (base) investments, and it seems that successful countries need to continue investing in elite sport simply to maintain existing performance levels.	De Bosscher et al. (2008)	43
Throughputs:	Pillar 2 – Governance, Organization and Structure of (Elite) Sport policies: An Integrated Approach to Policy Development	No consensus or preference regarding the necessity for centralization or high level of government intervention.	Houlihan (2009)	44
		Important to have a good national communication system, clear distribution and description of roles in the system, and simple (efficient) administration.	Clumpner (1994); Oakley & Green (2001)	44
		Importance of involving stakeholders in elite sport development.	Thibault, Kihl, and Babiak (2010)	44
		Important variables – the organizational, historical and cultural context that differ per country	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	44
		Important to observe how policymakers and policy systems respond and adapt to change through commercialization and professionalization	Houlihan and Green (2008)	44
Pillar 3 – Sport Participation	Pillar 3 – Sport Participation	Most top athletes originate from grassroots participation.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	44
		Research found a significant correlation between mass participation and medals won during the Barcelona and Sydney Olympic Games, especially when grassroots sport was ‘intensive and competitive.’	Van Bottenburg (2002)	44
		High correlation found between the number of tennis players and success	De Bosscher and De Knop (2002)	44
		Low participation sports (cycling and diving) can also deliver high levels of success in Australia.	Elphinson (2004); Green (2005)	44

		Broad base sport participation is not always a condition for success, but it may deliver a foundation for potential success because it provides a supply of young talent and various training and competition opportunities for this talent to hone their skills.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	44
Pillar 4 – Talent Identification and Development System		A well-developed talent identification and development system (talent pools) is particularly important in countries with small populations.	Harre (1982); Regnier, Salmela, and Russel (1993)	44
		Policymakers need to focus their attention on creating monitoring systems to identify talent characteristics, robust talent detection systems that minimize dropout, and well-organized scouting systems.	Rowe (1994)	44
		In most nations, talented athletes are recruited in single sports by the national governing bodies. Therefore, much data related to this pillar needs to be studied on a sport-specific basis.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	44-45
		Young talents follow a period of intensive training during which they develop a mastery of their sport.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	45
		Many countries have developed nationally co-ordinated initiatives to support governing bodies in setting up high-level training and competition programs to support athletes to combine academic and sport careers.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	45
Pillar 5 – Athletic and Post-Career Support		Many athletes who have the potential to reach the top, dropout of the system before they achieve true success.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	45
		National sport governing bodies play an important role in supporting athletes during and after their career.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	45
		Factors important to this pillar also need analysis at a sport-specific level.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	45
		In only a few sports can athletes make a living from their sporting earnings and pay for all the costs they incur.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	45
		This pillar looks at different ways governments provide financial support for athletes to meet their living costs and have support programs to provide access to the services required to realize their potential.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	45
		Athletes also need assistance in preparing for life after sport.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	45
Pillar 6 – Training		Training facilities are an important success factor in the process of enabling athletes to train in a relevant and high-quality sporting		

	Facilities	environment.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	45
		The extent of facility provision also provides a link between participation and excellence. Number of tennis courts were highly correlated with success.	De Bosscher and De Knop (2002)	45
		At the top-level, this pillar is concerned with a network of high-quality national and regional facilities, specifically for elite sport purposes, including: a) Administrative headquarters b) Overnight accommodation c) A close link with sport medics d) A close link with sport scientists e) Co-operation with universities f) A close link with the education institutes of younger athletes.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	45
Pillar 7 – Coaching and Coach Development		The quality and quantity of coaches is important at each level of the sport development continuum.	De Bosscher et al., (2015)	45
		At the high performance level, two criteria provide comparison: a) The quality and organization of training certification systems (e.g., France and Australia, certification required for sport clubs) b) The level of time and resource commitment that (elite) coaches can give to achieving excellence with their athletes (e.g., in some nations professional coaches are the standard, in others, coaching is largely an undervalued and underpaid or even voluntary activity.	D’Amico (2000); De Bosscher et al. (2015) De Bosscher et al. (2015)	45 45
Pillar 8 – (Inter)national Competition		Several studies on the Olympic Games show that the organization of international events in the home country has a positive effect on international success.	Clarke (2002); Johnson and Ali (2002); Kuper and Sterken (2003)	46
		Athletes performing at home benefit from low travel costs, familiar weather conditions and facilities.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	46
		A well-developed and high-level national competition structure is a significant criterion as frequent exposure to sporting competition is a necessary factor in athlete development.	Crespo, Miley, and Couraud (2001)	46
		National competition structures mainly needs analysis at a sport-specific level.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	46

	Pillar 9 – Scientific Research and Innovation in Elite Sport	This pillar seeks to examine the extent to which nations take a coordinated approach to the development, organization and dissemination of scientific research and knowledge.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	46
		This pillar is also concerned with the extent that (technological) innovation plays a role in elite sport success.	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	46
		At the core of the pillar are the ways nations systematically gather and disseminate scientific information in areas such as: a) Talent identification and development b) Medicine c) Nutrition d) Psychology e) Physiology f) Biomechanics g) Sport coaching	De Bosscher et al. (2015)	46

Source: De Bosscher, Shibli, Westerbeek, and van Bottenburg (2015).

As De Bosscher and colleagues (2015) highlighted, “the SPLISS model provides a multidimensional approach to effectiveness evaluation of elite sport policies at the levels of input, throughput, output and feedback” (p.47). Inputs (Pillar 1) are the financial support invested by nations for sport and elite sport and provide opportunities for athletes to prepare and compete towards the achievement of sporting success (De Bosscher et al., 2015). Throughputs (Pillars 2-9) are the processes to effect the actions of policy and accounts for the resources invested and used to manage the progression from input to output (De Bosscher et al., 2015). Output and feedback are the other dimensions of the model, and to a lesser extent, outcome. In terms of output, SPLISS takes the actual results from international competitions as an indicator of success. Therefore, the model uses the financial allocation of government investment as the source of evidence for input, and the actual performance as an indicator of successful attainment of policy output (De Bosscher et al., 2015). Outcome is a dimension in which SPLISS actually do not include in its evaluation of sporting success, but it highlights the connection within elite sport policy, whereby outcomes can be the government’s stated reasons to justify the financial investment and support (De Bosscher et al., 2015). Feedback is the final dimension in the SPLISS model and indicates two components: 1) consultation with industry stakeholders in the formulation stage of sport policy, and 2) regular interactions with industry stakeholders to assess the ability of the policy in achieving its stated goals (De Bosscher et al., 2006, 2015; De Bosscher, De Knop, van Bottenburg, Shibli, & Bingham, 2009).

The initial core research underpinning the SPLISS conceptual framework was conducted as comparative studies of nations’ elite sport policy and the systems they establish to be competitive and successful at international sporting events. De Bosscher, Bingham, Shibli, van Bottenburg, and De Knop (2008) conducted a comparative study on six nations, Belgium (Flanders & Wallonia), Canada, Italy, Norway, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom,

incorporating the methodology of SPLISS, which used a mixed methods approach. Another study, De Bosscher, Shibli, Westerbeek, and van Bottenburg (2015), expanded the initial comparative study to fifteen nations: Belgium (Flanders & Wallonia), Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, the Netherlands, Northern Ireland (United Kingdom), Portugal, Spain, Switzerland, South Korea, Japan, Australia, Canada, and Brazil. Another study has drawn on the SPLISS model in its investigation (e.g., De Bosscher, De Knop, & van Bottenburg, 2008) with a comparison of the Netherlands and Belgium. These comparative studies added to the understanding of elite sport policies among nations. De Bosscher and colleagues (2015) have called for the continued expansion of the SPLISS model in investigating other aspects of elite sports.

Scholars have answered the call. Using the SPLISS model in several studies, scholars have evaluated and investigated the elite sport policy of nations from different perspectives, such as measuring and forecasting elite sport success, policy effectiveness, the relationship between elite sport and mass participation, and a number of other topical application to sport policy analysis. In terms of measuring and forecasting studies using SPLISS (e.g., De Bosscher, Heyndels, De Knop, van Bottenburg, & Shibli, 2008; Shibli, De Bosscher, & van Bottenburg, 2014; Shibli, De Bosscher, van Bottenburg, & Bingham, 2012; Shibli, De Bosscher, van Bottenburg, & Westerbeek, 2013), these studies incorporate the model as part of a performance management process. The studies looked at the effectiveness of the resources invested by nations through different techniques in the development of athletes, in order to prepare for future performances. For example, the measuring studies found that countries invest in sport in order to improve their sporting results at international competitions, and outside of the IOC, the medals table is widely accepted as an order of merit. By using the medals table, measuring a country's absolute success (e.g., gold, silver, bronze, or top-eight in finals) or relative success (e.g.,

controlling for socio-economic/socio-political determinants) has been possible. While the forecasting studies found that it was difficult to apply models mechanistically to sporting events, forecasting for Olympic Games provided consistency with the programming of events. However, modelling difficulties were observed when applied to other sporting events, such as the Commonwealth Games and Paralympic Games, due to the differences in event programming.

The policy effectiveness studies using SPLISS (e.g., De Bosscher, 2018; De Bosscher, De Knop, & Vertonghen, 2016; De Bosscher, Shilbury, Theeboom, van Hoecke, & De Knop, 2011) investigate the elite sport policies of nations in terms of identifying relationships between policy and success, and how effective are the input-throughput-output dimensions of a nation's elite sport policy. For example, De Bosscher (2018) found that the mixed methods approach underlying some SPLISS studies were useful in illustrating large complex data, which allowed for the identification of possible relationships (through quantitative composite indicators) between elite sport policy and success. This study, however, highlighted that in order to understand elite sport policy, the social, cultural and political contexts need to be widely incorporated through qualitative interpretations of a nation's elite sport policy. In another study, De Bosscher, Shilbury, Theeboom, van Hoecke, and De Knop (2011) found, over a four-year examination of increased input in the Flanders region of Belgium, that although development within the throughputs occurred, no acceptable outputs from international competition was achieved. In a later study, also within the Flanders region, the input-throughput-output model from SPLISS were used to evaluate the effectiveness of policy within elite sport schools. De Bosscher, De Knop, and Vertonghen (2016) found no clear evidence of effective output, and such evaluation required a sport-specific approach. Additionally, the authors found that elite sport schools is just one aspect among several which influence the athletes career and long-term sporting success.

The relationship between elite sport and other aspects of the sport development process (e.g., sport-for-all, mass participation sport) has also received attention from SPLISS researchers (e.g., De Bosscher & van Bottenburg, 2011; De Bosscher, Sotiriadou, & van Bottenburg, 2013). These studies investigate the justification by policymakers in investing in elite sports as against sport-for-all or mass participation sport. For example, De Bosscher and van Bottenburg (2011) investigated the benefits for high-performance sport, derived from a broad sport participation base, and concluded that policymakers should not underestimate the value of sport participation. They should however, encourage quality programs at the grassroots level towards the development of competitive advantage. Additionally, De Bosscher, Sotiriadou and van Bottenburg (2013) took a country-specific look on the relationship between mass participation and international sporting success, and if participation levels are increased due to sporting successes. The findings found no consistent relationship that elite sporting success and mass participation provide a benefit to each other.

Several other studies have looked at incorporating SPLISS in the investigation of topical issues within the analysis of sport policy. For example, on the subject of convergence or divergence, De Bosscher, Shibli, Westerbeek, and van Bottenburg (2016) investigated if it is possible to have a one-size-fits-all model for the development of elite sport. The study found that there is no generic blueprint for the attainment of international sporting success, and while nations possess strengths and weaknesses pertaining to SPLISS factors, with convergence in some areas of sport development, divergences were observed in social, cultural and political factors. In the area of homogeneity and heterogeneity, De Bosscher, De Knop, and van Bottenburg (2009) looked at the internationalization of elite sport and found that elite sport policies are resulting in increased homogeneity among nations; however, there are notable variations in terms of nations' application of sport policy factors within the SPLISS Pillars.

Another example is the prioritization of funding by Weber, De Bosscher, and Kempf (2018), whereby this study investigated funding of Olympic Winter Sports, and found that all nations prioritized, but they differ in terms of the type of sport receiving funding priority. Weber et al. therefore provided empirical evidence to further the discussion on targeted sports.

While research, incorporating SPLISS has covered several areas as mentioned above, one notable and significant underlining argument of SPLISS is the investigation into the country-specific and sport-specific use of elite sport policy for international sporting success drawing on qualitative methods (see De Bosscher et al., 2008, 2015). De Bosscher and colleagues (2008) advises that:

The SPLISS study does not just identify ‘what’ characterises successful elite sport policies, but also ‘how’ these different dimensions can be developed. The unique feature of this research is that in addition to measuring easily quantifiable variables, such as inputs (e.g., money) and outputs (e.g., medals), it also delves into understanding the ‘black box’ of throughput both in terms of the existence of various system components and also the rating that athletes, coaches and Performance Directors gave to these system components. (p. 35)

De Bosscher and colleagues (2008) recognized the issue of lacking qualitative understanding of the ‘black box’ of throughput. Moreover, while this issue has been criticized (see Henry & Ko, 2015), especially within the comparative studies of several nations, more researchers have answered the call by De Bosscher and colleagues for country-specific and sport-specific research using qualitative approaches.

Among these studies are sport-specific research that involves one or more countries receiving varying levels of attention. Those receiving low attention have included archery in South Korea (e.g., Park, Tan, & Park, 2016); basketball in China (e.g., Houlihan, Tan, & Green,

2010); and cycling (e.g., Dixon, Graham, Hartzell, & Forrest, 2017) and soccer (e.g., Smolianov, Murphy, McMahon, & Naylor, 2015) in the United States of America. Other country-specific research included sprint canoe in Australia (e.g., Sotiriadou, Gowthorp, & De Bosscher, 2014); and, globally, table tennis at the Olympic Games and World Championships (e.g., Zheng, Oh, Kim, Dickson, & De Bosscher, 2017). Some studies investigated several countries at the same time, such as triathlon in the United States of America and Australia (e.g., Newland & Kellett, 2012; Phillips & Newland, 2014); and judo in South Africa, the Netherlands, and England (e.g., Nolte, Burnett, & Hollander, 2017).

The main theme from these studies involves the globalization of sport policy, and how the country-specific approach to the development of elite sport compares with other nations. For example, Park, Tan and Park (2016) investigation into archery found that the South Korean government encouraged the development of the sport and applied policy factors similar to other nations towards the success of the sport. Additionally, Houlihan, Tan, and Green (2010) investigated the Chinese approach to the development of basketball, and found that the government was heavily involved in ensuring lesson drawing opportunities and policy transfer processes.

The sport-specific disciplines receiving most research emphasis have been tennis and athletics. Within the sport of tennis, studies have focused on the role of stakeholders in the elite sport development process (e.g., Brouwers, Sotiriadou, & De Bosscher, 2015b); the role of talent identification systems (e.g., Brouwers, De Bosscher, & Sotiriadou, 2012). Also, the role of inter-organizational relations in the development of elite athletes (e.g., Sotiriadou, Brouwers, De Bosscher, & Cuskelly, 2017); and an analysis of the sport-specific policies and factors influencing the international success and establishing the competitive advantage possible within the sport of tennis (e.g., Brouwers, Sotiriadou, & De Bosscher, 2015a). For the sporting

discipline of athletics, a SPLISS Athletics Project has produced several studies, including a resource-based evaluation of elite sport policies (e.g., Truyens, De Bosscher, & Heyndels, 2012), and national success and efficiency in athletics at the 2012 Olympic Games (e.g., Truyens & De Bosscher, 2012). The Project also examined the resource-based perspective on a country's competitive advantage in athletics (e.g., Truyens, De Bosscher, Heyndels, & Westerbeek, 2014); the competitive balance in athletics (e.g., Truyens, De Bosscher, & Heyndels, 2016) at the Olympic Games and World Championships between 2000 and 2015. Another study from the Project (e.g., Truyens, De Bosscher, Sotiriadou, Heyndels, & Westerbeek, 2016) conducted a four-country comparison, Belgium (Flanders & Wallonia), Canada, Finland, and the Netherlands, to examine governance and organization in athletics. These studies and those mentioned above, have advanced the knowledge on elite sport policy in comparative, country-specific, and sport-specific studies, providing information relevant to the understanding as to why governments invest in elite sport, and what are the SPLISS related factors underlining the international success of nations, or other factors not typically analyzed by this model. Additionally, the finding highlights a convergence among the factors necessary for the development of elite sport; however, divergence is evident in the elite sport policies of different sporting disciplines and among different nations that may indicate a competitive advantage in respective elite sports. It is also important to highlight that Canada has been an active partner in the SPLISS Consortium, through the work of David Legg (see Legg, De Bosscher, Bingham, Shibli, van Bottenburg, & De Knop, 2008; Legg, De Bosscher, Shibli, & van Bottenburg, 2011; Hutzler, Higgs, & Legg, 2016) especially surrounding disability sports and more specifically the Paralympic sport system.

A rationale for choosing SPLISS. In the analysis of policy, one goal is to identify levels of intervention that can influence the processing of inputs, leading to the attainment of stated

national outputs and outcomes. For public policy, and especially at the meso-level that categorises government intervention, only a few notable theories, frameworks, or models (e.g., advocacy coalition theory, multiple streams) have been found to provide direction in policy-making and policy analysis. While the SPLISS conceptual framework have been widely discussed above, this section will review five public policy theories. These are the advocacy coalition framework, multiple streams model, path dependency, policy learning and policy transfer.

Three levels for the analysis of sport policy (i.e., micro-, macro- and meso-level theories) were discussed earlier in this chapter. These levels of theory are used to address particular problems or features of the policy process, and three of the stated public policy theories identified above will now be discussed. First, these theories focus attention on aspects of path dependency (see Kay, 2005; Peters, Pierre, & King, 2005) within policy making, or the importance of policy learning (see Bennett & Howlett, 1992; May, 1992) and policy transfer (see Dolowitz & Marsh, 1996, 2012). Path dependency stipulates that any new policy decision will be impacted by past experiences and events, even though these past circumstances may not be relevant anymore (Kay, 2005). Therefore, while past knowledge is important, there may not be a clear connection between past policy and current policy, which makes path dependence theory an ineffective guide in the analysis of policy. On the other hand, policy learning and policy transfer theories facilitates understanding about policy problems and solutions from other jurisdictions. These theories allows for the both the analysis of policy from external contexts, and an analysis for policy, from a context of policy adoption and implementation locally. The theories discussed in this section, provides understanding in the policy-making process, and allows the researcher to identify circumstances that clarify policy decisions in the analysis of intended or implemented policy; in addition, they highlight past failures and successes.

Second, and more specific to the rationale for choosing the SPLISS model, are meso-level theories, such as the multiple streams model (see Kingdon, 1984) and the advocacy coalition framework (see Sabatier, 1988; Sabatier & Jenkins-Smith, 1993). These theories, Houlihan (2014b) advised, allow for an explanation in the policy making process, in addition to those relating to the individual's role. For example, the multiple streams model that focuses on the process of agenda setting incorporates three distinct streams – the problem, policy and political streams. The problem stream includes issues identified that requires action, such as social changes impacted by crises and national emergencies, and policy feedback that needs urgent attention. The policy stream comprises the approach in which ideas developed by the wider society, end up reaching the top of government agenda. This happens through policy communities that may have elements of a policy already prepared for government action, and policy entrepreneurs that may have ear of government officials capable of influencing policy change (Kingdon, 1984). The political stream is independent of the other streams and includes the mood of the country, the political parties and their forces, and government as a whole. The application of the multiple stream model requires the launching of a policy window, which occurs when a problem is identified, a solution is either developed or provided, and a change in government may facilitate policy change that may not appear too severe (Kingdon, 1984). While this model is useful, there are limitations in terms of Jamaica, in that, a core component, the policy stream, is not readily available in the small state, as the research capacity for sport-based and evidence-based studies are almost non-existent, given no real policy communities. Conversely, there exist a number of policy entrepreneurs who may influence policy; however, this influence is not always driven by evidence and empirical research. Without evidence or empirical support, the foundation for the policy-making process will not be grounded in knowledge, which can impact the success or failure of policy (Houlihan, 2014b).

For the advocacy coalition framework (ACF), Sabatier (1988) and Sabatier and Jenkins-Smith (1993) proposed that policy sub-systems comprising two to four coalitions compete to influence policy, with one coalition being the dominant force, driven by a core belief system. While the ACF does not specify the membership within these coalitions, and how the power they have over policy change actually occurs (Houlihan, 2005), it proposes a number of useful assumptions for policy analysis. First, it indicates that a timeframe of at least 10 years is needed before a policy can be analysed. Second, it assumes that there are already established policy sub-systems and policy communities. Third, the actors of the policy sub-systems or communities will include various levels of government and individuals and organizations from outside of the country. Fourth, it assumes that technical information will be available. Fifth and last, it assumes that value priorities are implicit and an approach to achieving them established. For the analysis of sport policy in Jamaica, several assumptions of the ACF are rendered not applicable. For example, the purpose of this research is to explore the development of elite sport, and formal policy had only been in place since 1994. Additionally, information regarding the 1994 policy was not easily available, and while at least 10 years has past, the wider society was not aware of the policy existence until 13 years after parliamentary approval. Furthermore, the revised 2013 policy would fall outside of the 10-year requirement. Lastly, the policy sub-systems and policy communities are almost non-existent in Jamaica in terms of sport policy, and therefore government may rely on external actors who may not hold the core beliefs of the local society.

Therefore, while the theories mentioned in this section are useful in parts, as a complete guide, it would not fit the purpose of this study. On the other hand, the SPLISS conceptual framework allows for a more fulsome analysis of government actions or inactions, through policy and financial input. The SPLISS framework also indicates a logical flow from input through to outputs and eventual outcomes. This allows for the analysis of policy at all levels, not

only the meso-level through government intervention, but also the macro- and micro-levels through interventions of the environment of sport.

Environmental factors and elite sport policy. The SPLISS conceptual framework acknowledges the importance of environmental factors, a possible Pillar 10, which De Bosscher and colleagues (2015) called ‘the environment of elite sport, such as culture, politics, sponsorship, and media’ (p. 50). These macro-level environmental factors have not been analysed in SPLISS studies for methodological reasons, as these factors are uncontrollable and not readily influenced (De Bosscher et al., 2015). However, the authors recommend that future research should look at these factors from a sport-specific level. While the focus of SPLISS is at the meso-level, through the influence of government policies on elite sport development, some micro-level environmental factors can be controlled. Micro-level factors such as training techniques (see Sotiriadou, Gowthorp, & De Bosscher, 2014), training environment (see Baker, Horton, Robertson-Wilson, & Wall, 2003), and access to family and familiarity (see Bale, 1991) have been found as important factors influencing an athlete’s success, and should be recognized and nurtured (Sotiriadou, Gowthorp, & De Bosscher, 2014).

Digel (2000, as cited in De Bosscher et al., 2015) highlighted several other environmental factors as important to excellent sport performances, such as: the role of the national education system; the influence of the private sector in collaborating in sport development; the media as a supporter, detractor or promoter; and wider society’s attitudes to the sporting performances. Truyens, De Bosscher, Heyndels, and Westerbeek (2014), in their analysis of competitive advantage in the sport of athletics, concluded that:

From a theoretical perspective, the inclusion of environmental factors as important resources to the development of competitive advantage confirms the idea that strategy content and implementation (i.e., resources and capabilities) cannot be understood

independently of the competitive environment within which an organization operates. (p. 483)

This finding highlights the importance environmental factors have on the SPLISS pillars, and in particular, Pillar 2, which highlights the governance, organization and structure of specific sporting disciplines. Additionally, similar sport-specific studies have found that tradition of sporting success, culture and the commercial environment, are factors capable of influencing international success. For example, Sotiriadou, Gowthorp, and De Bosscher's (2014) investigation in the success of sprint canoe in Australia concluded that the culture of the sport helped to shape policy linkages and interrelationships, including a connection between culture and the identification of talent. Additionally, Brouwers, Sotiriadou, and De Bosscher (2015a) concluded that the success within the sport of tennis is a result of the culture (school culture, general sporting culture, and sport-specific culture). The findings on the general sporting culture and school culture suggest that while the school system, with its inflexible curriculum, does not allow for adequate training during and after school hours, the commercial environment provides for clubs and academies where talented athletes can train and develop their skills. In terms of the sport-specific (tennis) culture, the findings indicated the importance of the performances of elite athletes, the importance of role models in the sport, the history of success within the sport, and the importance culturally of the sport when compared with others.

From the examples provided above, it is clear that the environmental factors are important to the international success of sport, or more critically, specific sporting disciplines, and therefore, require consideration in connection with other factors such as those examined within the SPLISS model (Brouwers, Sotiriadou, & De Bosscher, 2015a). While considering this connection, it is also critical to establish an understanding as to the successes within a specific

sport, and if these successes occurred with or without the involvement of government funding through elite sport policy.

The chicken or the egg dilemma. The environmental factors also carries another distinction. Drawing on an example from environmental studies, an ecological environment, such as the mangrove system, will remain vibrant and productive, and only be degraded by human activities over time (Orchard, Stringer, & Quinn, 2015). Placed in the context of policy and international sporting success, the environment for elite sport (micro or macro-levels) would remain at a constant, unless acted upon by the decisions at the meso-level, which may result in positive or negative change. Establishing an understanding of what comes first in the international sporting success of athletes and nations creates the ‘chicken or the egg’ dilemma in regards to government investment and support for elite sport. For example, Weber, De Bosscher, and Kempf (2018) wisely asked, “Does national funding influence international success, or does international success influence national funding” (p. 21). Again, applying the ecological environment example, was international sporting success occurring within an environment for elite sport without the investment of government, or is it the investment by government contributing to international sporting success with or without the environment for elite sport (see Taro & Hanni, 2015 for a similar discussion)? The results from this thesis provide examples to advance the discussion surrounding this very important aspect of elite sport policy and elite sport success.

A critique of SPLISS. The SPLISS conceptual framework has been critiqued by the academic community (Henry & Ko, 2015). From an earlier analysis of the framework, Henry and Ko (2014) acknowledged its sophistication, which is more rigorous than any model before. However, the authors found difficulties in the explanation of the framework around the ‘how’ and ‘why’, inputs are able to achieve outputs of elite sporting success without incorporating

detailed qualitative accounts through an analysis of the policy system. Henry and Ko (2015) provided further critique of this issue, which they classified as a ‘the black box problem,’ emphasizing the challenges of the framework in adequately accounting for the throughput, within the input-throughput-output model. The authors highlighted that, by using quantitative measures, the actions within the policy black box remains hidden and any relationship to input and output are only subjective. De Bosscher (2018) responded through an evaluation of the mixed methods approach used by SPLISS, and concluded that:

...by evaluating the existence of various system components as well as the rating given by athletes, coaches and performance directors, the methods can give a more comprehensive understanding in assessing the ‘black box’ of throughput elements in elite sport policies that are difficult to evaluate. These data (collected with inventories and surveys) are seen as complementary and help improve the content and construct validities of the theoretical model. By including perceptual measures alongside objective ones, scholars may examine the degree to which structures, processes and outcomes align with the perceptions of those participating in the organization on a day-to-day basis. (p. 350)

This response from De Bosscher indicates that there are aspects of qualitative interpretation with SPLISS, and in order to adequately allow for comparability, the qualitative data would have to be subject to quantitative analysis; hence, the use of a scoring system. It should be understood, that both Henry and Ko (2014) and De Bosscher (2018) are addressing the comparative nature of a nation’s elite sporting success, and the use of mixed methods in the assessment of throughput processes. Additionally, De Bosscher (2018) advises that in order to overcome some of the drawbacks from the mixed methods approach, it would be important to integrate additional qualitative information to better understand the ‘how’ and the ‘why’, instead of an attempt to understand ‘whether’ or ‘to what extent’ throughput processes contributes to elite success. This

this thesis takes more of a qualitative exploration of the ‘black box’ of SPLISS, and looks directly on a country-specific level from inputs-throughputs-outputs.

Sport Development

While national sport policy represents the actions or inactions taken by a nation’s government (Pal, 2010), sport development represents the systems, structures, pathways, and processes undertaken towards the attainment of the sport policy and other development objectives (Hylton & Bramham, 2008). In this section, a definition of sport development is provided, and a distinction made between the development of elite athletes and that of sport development for mass sport participation. The section concludes with a focus on the development of elite sport and the characteristics unique to high performance sport.

Definition and Features

In its simplest form, sport development is “about participation and promoting the opportunities and benefits of participation” (Shilbury, Sotiriadou, & Green, 2008, p. 217), “getting more people to play more sport” (Houlihan, 2011, p. 3), or “facilitating opportunities for people to get involved in sport and physical activity” (Taks, Green, Misener, & Chalip, 2014, p. 214). While these definitions may be simple, Houlihan (2011) advises that such simplicity would allow for an over-emphasis on the role of sport in this form of development, and underemphasises the instrumental attitude of most governments to sport in establishing objectives for sport, that sport may not be able to attain. Further, Houlihan and White (2002) believes that defining sport development may not be a simple exercise. Houlihan and White suggested that sport development was a sub-field of sport policy, which has experienced several changes in objectives, and could be under-appreciated by governments as they focus on other aspects of public policy, such as social services, education, health and foreign policy.

Notwithstanding the ambiguity within defining sport development, Houlihan (2011) reviewed three definitions, which move away from the simple interpretations outlined above. First, Houlihan outlined Collins' (1995, as quoted in Houlihan, 2011) definition, which stated that sport development is:

a process whereby effective opportunities, processes, systems and structures are set up to enable and encourage people in all or particular groups and areas to take part in sport and recreation or to improve their performance to whatever level they desire. (p. 3)

Houlihan indicated that Collins' definition from 1995 represented an aspirational viewpoint taken in the context of a period where participation in sport was on the rise and delivered through voluntary clubs from frameworks provided by government. Further, this definition suggested that people had a choice to take up the sporting opportunities; however, it left out the need for behavioural changes towards the perception of sport, which saw sport as being the core problem.

The second definition Houlihan reviewed was the Sports Council North West's (1991, as quoted in Houlihan, 2011) definition, which stated that "Sport development is a process by which interest and desire to take part may be created in those currently indifferent to the message of sport" (p. 3). It is important to highlight that Houlihan (2011) presented a shortened quotation and Collins (2010a) referred to the Sport Council's wordy attempt to have a comprehensive definition. Nevertheless, for the purpose of comprehensiveness within this literature review, the complete definition was:

Sports development is a process whereby interest and desire to take part may be created in those who are currently indifferent to the message of sport; or by which those not now taking part, but well disposed, may be provided with appropriate opportunities to do so; or by which those currently taking part may be enabled to do so with meaningful

frequency and greater satisfaction, thus enabling participants at all level to achieve their full potential. (Sports Council, NW, 1991, as quoted in Collins, 2010a, p. 4)

Houlihan (2011) indicated that while Collins' definition highlighted the role sport development plays in the creation of outputs, such as opportunities for various activities, the Sports Council's definition speaks directly to outcomes in terms of a rise in sport participation or improvements in performances. The intent of the Sports Council definition was to provide meaning for documentation that assisted policymakers and practitioners in understanding areas of disadvantage in society (Collins, 2010a).

The third definition reviewed by Houlihan (2011) was the work of Hylton and Bramham (2008). Hylton and Bramham argued, "Sports development is more accurately a term used to describe policies, processes and practices that form an integral feature of work involved in providing sporting opportunities and positive sporting experiences" (p. 2). While Houlihan (2011) concluded that Hylton and Bramham's definition aligned with a "utilitarian and instrumental notion of sports development" (p. 4), the definition was not in keeping with previous definitions, such as the one provided by Collins (1991, as cited in Houlihan, 2011). Hence, Houlihan found that there remains some level of ambiguity, uncertainty, and tension in terms of defining sport development, and the surrounding policies and practices may hinder the development of sporting opportunities or the attractiveness for some target groups. These target groups may be participants in what generally considered as features within sport development, namely, elite sport development or the much broader dimension of mass participation.

In the next section, two features of sport development will provide insight on the on-going tensions regarding government implementation of policy.

Tensions within sport development. Governments have been hard-pressed to provide justification for the sometimes large investments in elite sport development, at the otherwise

considered expense of sport development for mass participation (De Bosscher, Sotiriadou, & van Bottenburg, 2013; Houlihan & Green, 2008; Houlihan & White, 2002). For example, Houlihan and Green (2008) indicated that there has been an “extraordinary growth in interest in sport over the course of the past 20 years” (p. 156), and have forecasted for continued growth, especially for elite sport development. While De Bosscher and colleagues (2015) advised that in the global sporting arms race, nations will continue to invest in the attainment of elite sporting success, either with continued search for new success, or as an attempt to sustain earlier success. Therefore, in terms of the actions by governments to formulate and enact national sport policy. Houlihan and White (2002) found that several tensions emerged which facilitated the precursors of sport development in the United Kingdom and eventually led to the actual sport policy process of government, establishing the government’s influence over the implementation of national sport policy for both elite sport development and the broader mass participation or sport for all objectives.

Houlihan and White (2002) highlighted four overlapping tensions, which were also an integral contributor to the current debate about funding for elite success (elite sport development) or funding for social services related to sports (mass participation). First, the value system of equality, where emphasis was placed on providing free access to quality housing, education, and health care, in addition to the implied notion of equality in terms of outcomes and benefits. When viewed from the perspective of sport development, the value system of equality allowed for the targeting of under-participating members of society, along with the employment of sport leaders, as opposed to the making of more facilities, creating a situation whereby participants are the direct beneficiaries. This discussion based on the experiences within the United Kingdom presents an important point of reference for Jamaica’s sport development and, given its past as a former colony, similarities may be experienced, which could have occurred at a similar period or

at a much later stage in the sport development stages within Jamaica. For example, within Jamaica, sporting facilities for training and competitions are widely lacking, and are often concentrated in the larger cities, with some only located in the capital city; and this is occurring within a context of the nation having approximately 783 community organizations involved in sport (MYSC, 2011).

The role of the voluntary sector constitutes the second tension highlighted by Houlihan and White (2002). The authors indicated that while the social and health services relied heavily on the voluntary sector, there were tensions surrounding the perceptions of it being a specialist partner for common causes within society, and as a sector, that provides welfare from untrained and unprofessional support. Placed in the context of sport, the voluntary sector provided representation within sporting bodies and voluntary clubs and have done that since sport organizations were established. Although, this tension did not adversely affect the voluntary sector for sports, some sporting disciplines had different experiences. For example, a comparison between swimming and badminton highlighted that the development of swimming relied on the voluntary clubs and its provision of coaches and opportunities for competition, and the government provided the facility. While, for badminton, opportunities to play the sport established at public facilities was outside of the control of the governing body, which left the sport body feeling undermined. This action could be interpreted as allowing for increased levels of participation for the sport, the actions brewed tensions between the governing body and the government or private actors within society. When applied to the sport development context within Jamaica, the swimming example is similar to that experienced in Jamaica (Franklyn, 2010). Additionally, the establishing of the SDF in 1995 allowed for the increased development of multi-purpose courts, which provided opportunities to play basketball, netball, volleyball, and badminton (MYSC, 2011). However, while this increased mass participation, it was not

adequately maintained and was utilized by schools and community groups, outside of the control of the sporting organizations for its development processes.

The third highlighted tension involves the perceptions of being a professional. Houlihan and White (2002) indicated that it was a long-standing view that a professional was considered a neutral expert with the abilities for diagnosing and offering sophisticated technical solutions to problems. However, while this tension did not emerge until the 1980s, the view of the professional as being self-serving, ideological and ineffective challenged the long-standing perceptions of the professional. For sport, the former school of thought for the professional approach was a model to incorporate within the industry, and it became widely accepted throughout the sport development process and by coaches. For sport development within Jamaica, it was not until the establishment of the SDF, and the availability of financial support to NSOs, that a shift to employ professionals in sports became practice, and this has occurred widely in some sporting disciplines, than in others.

The fourth tension focuses on the role of the community and the shift in the approach of the professionals representing the public service. Houlihan and White (2002) advised that while the professionals identified as experts, their roles shifted from one, which provided service to individuals, to one that advocated and assisted the wider community. Houlihan and White identified this as the community-practice model, which articulated a developmental approach through empowerment. Within the community, sport was identified as a means of development and integration; and fostered relationships between government and the community. The sport development within communities throughout Jamaica plays a significant role in the national sport development process, and the experiences outlined by Houlihan and White provides a critical reference point in understanding the advent of sport development from the grassroots.

Precursors to sport development. The tensions highlighted above created the platform for the establishment of sport development within the United Kingdom and for many Commonwealth nations (Houlihan & White, 2002). However, while these were influential dimensions for sport development, Houlihan and White (2002) identified three precursors to sport development within the United Kingdom that provided lessons for other nations towards the development of sport and ultimately national sport policy. The three precursors identified were: 1) physical education and sport in schools; 2) the role of youth service in sport, and 3) the role of lobby groups and sport commissions.

The first precursor highlighted by Houlihan and White involves the discourse on physical education and sport in schools. Houlihan and White (2002) highlighted that:

Young people are a logical focus for sports development activities whether the primary aim is to promote sport for all or to foster young talent. The influence of school sport and physical education in shaping sports development is indirect, through the recruitment of physical education teachers into the ranks of sports development officers, rather than direct. Indeed the involvement of schools and the education service in defining and contributing towards sports development objectives is poor, as exemplified by the modest level of co-operation between schools and sports clubs despite sustained encouragement from the Sports Council. Part of the explanation for the reluctance of schools and the local education authorities to embrace sports development lies in the history of insecurity of PE and sport in the school curriculum. (p. 15)

While this section outlines some of the conflicting role of physical education and sport in schools, Houlihan and White (2002) concluded that the early 1930s to the late 1960s represented a period of redefinition of physical education and sport in schools. This redefinition resulted in an acceptance of the role of the physical education teacher and the importance of shifting from

mere physical activities to a more organized and competitive role of sport within the school system.

The second precursor involves the role of the youth service in sport. Houlihan and White (2002) advised that “Along with education, the youth service, with its responsibility for the early post-school years of adolescence, is a significant element of the administrative and policy environment that has helped to shape sports development” (p. 16). The youth service presented a mode for sport development through the continuation of involvement in sporting activities in other areas outside of physical education and sport in schools. Additionally, the youth service allowed for other modes of personal development, and sport was a tool towards that developmental process (Houlihan & White, 2002). Some of the youth service organizations identified by Houlihan and White were the Boy’s Brigade, the Boy Scouts Association, the Girl Guides Association, the National Association of Boys Clubs and various church-based youth organizations.

The third and final precursor identified by Houlihan and White involves the role of lobby groups and sport commissions. The 1960s represented a period whereby sport and recreation began to receive recognition from government, and committee reports such as, those from the Albemarle and Wolfenden Committees (see Houlihan & White, 2002) either were acknowledged by the government or saw recommendations accepted and implemented. For example, both committee reports took issue with the role of the government and its interactions with the voluntary sector (Houlihan & White, 2002), and while the early 1960s Conservative government was reluctant, the 1964 Labour government were more accepting of the recommendations. The Wolfenden report also suggested a more direct role of the government in the funding and organizing of sport, which was considered by Houlihan and White (2002) as among the catalyst for the creation of the 1965 Advisory Sports Council and its 1972 successor, the Sports Council,

shifting from an advisory role to an executive role. With the broader acceptance of the role of sport in public policy, the Advisory Sports Council and the Sports Council began the thrust towards sport policy formulation and implementation.

These three precursors are significant dimensions in the establishment of sport development policies and provided valuable lessons for countries such as Jamaica to emulate in its own systems of sport development. Being a former British colony, Jamaica, would have experienced similar aspects towards physical education and sport, and those within the youth service prior to 1962. Although becoming independent from Britain in 1962, several of the practices were retained by the former colony, and lessons learnt and policies transferred from the British system of governance, since 1962.

In summary, the examples outlined above from the discussions regarding the definition and features of sport development, the tensions within sport development, and the precursors to sport development provides an important point of reference in understanding the sport development context for Jamaica. As a former British colony, many, if not all aspects mentioned above, as experienced within the United Kingdom system of sport development, were similarly experienced within the Jamaican system of sport development (Sherlock & Bennett, 1998). Moreover, several aspects of sport development within Jamaica are at the infant stages, such as, some sporting organizations still heavily reliant on the voluntary sector. In addition, while the government may accept the value of sport to national development, the funding support and administrative direction are somewhat lagging (Toomer, 2015), when compared to the examples from the experiences within sport development in the United Kingdom. Further, while Jamaica similarly established an advisory council for sport, the United Kingdom example indicated a shift towards a Sports Council with executive functions. However, Jamaica has not moved from having an advisory body. The work produced by Houlihan and White (2002) provides a

comprehensive understanding of the foundation and development of sport, and is a useful point of reference for this thesis.

Establishing Success

The main tenets of the SPLISS model includes the introduction of sport policies and/or actions and directives of governments to include the most important factor of funding support (Inputs). The inputs will in turn assist with the development of sport to include several sometimes overlapping factors (Throughputs) towards the attainment of stated policy outputs and outcomes as a means of establishing and identifying levels of success for the initial policy intervention. The following section will discuss these two dimensions of establishing success, namely, national outputs and national outcomes.

National Outputs

The criterion for establishing the national outputs as a means of identifying sport policy success are generally outlined and oftentimes clearly stated within policy documents (De Bosscher et al., 2015; Green & Oakley, 2001a). It is from these stated outputs that nations can assess the success of the intended policy. From the perspective of SPLISS, outputs from elite sporting success gathered from the attainment of competition results, and for some nations, simple participation at the event. For example, De Bosscher and colleagues (2015) advises that outputs from sporting events, such as the Olympic Games, can take the form of the number of the medals won, the number of finals achieved among the top eight placings, the medals share determined by population or GDP, and also the qualification to compete or participate in the Games, or similar major events.

In terms of the identification of national outputs within the JSP, the stated outputs were clearly outlined (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013), and indicates the main objective for elite sport as the winning of medals, and achieving the highest order of ranking within international

competitions. More specifically, the winning of medals emphasis can be perceived from a sport-specific point of view, for example, as in the sport of athletics, the expectation and identification of success is the attainment of gold, silver, or bronze medals at international competitive events. For other sporting disciplines, however, this emphasis within the sport policy document may an ultimate achievement, but may not be its expected or immediate objective.

National Outcomes

The national outcomes represents the reasons typically used by a nation to justify its investment in elite sport (De Bosscher et al., 2015). For example, De Bosscher, Sotiriadou and van Bottenburg (2013) concluded that some of the possible outcomes used by governments includes “improved national identity, pride, international prestige and diplomatic recognition, individual development of talented athletes and the capacity to inspire increased mass participation in sport” (p. 319). While these outcomes have been highlighted within the literature, policy documents depicts them as having a positive impact on society, which would increase the social and economic development of the nation (De Bosscher et al., 2015). Such outcomes, recognized as being self-evident, will require no real evidentiary support to justify the investment in elite sport (Grix & Carmichael, 2012).

From the perspective of the JSP, the policy document highlighted the national outcomes resulting from implementation, as able “To create a dynamic and enabling environment in which persons enjoy and excel in sport at all levels while building strong bonds of unity in their communities and benefiting from the economic opportunities to be derived from sport” (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013, p. 10). Therefore, the stated national outcomes for Jamaica indicates that national unity and economic benefit could be possible through the creation of sport development opportunities and the resulting high performances from sporting competitions.

In summary, this section on establishing success provides the basis on which to examine the inputs-throughputs of the JSP. It allows for analytical generalization surrounding the ability of micro-meso-macro factors being able to contribute to elite sporting success. Further, drawing on the perspective of a developing country establishing some levels of success would provide a point of reference, analytically, for nations and the academic community, to understand the factors contributing to the successes of Jamaican athletics. While national outputs are evident from the recorded international sporting results, national outcomes, on the other hand, can be illustrated through the successes of international athletes and the opportunities they receive from such success, and those persons they in-turn support. Additionally, other aspects of national outcomes, illustrated from photography and video, highlights images of jubilant celebrations, the portrayal of sadness, or the lack of support and interest from society. Furthermore, civil society and especially the opinion-writers and journalist provides information, which allows for an illustration of the stated national outcomes.

Coalescing of Factors for the Success of Elite Sport

The success of elite sport includes many factors that are complex, multi-faceted and multi-layered, and the coalescing of these factors at the micro-meso-macro levels provides the best explanation of achieving international sporting success (De Bosscher et al., 2015). While the SPLISS conceptual framework provides a model for the relationship between elite sport policy and international sporting success, the model only allows for investigation at the meso-level. Further, De Bosscher and colleagues (2015) advises that conducting comparative studies of nations that includes micro-macro level variables are complex and difficult, and although they are important to understanding sporting success, these studies should probably be done at a sport-specific/country-specific level. Therefore, this thesis examined the relationship of not only the intermingling of the nine factors recommended by SPLISS, but also the coalescing of these

and other factors which makes up the environment of elite sport. This environment includes an illustration of the role of the national education system, culture and tradition, the role and influence of private actors, family of athletes and coaches, the mass media, and the wider society as a source of positive or negative feedback on the international sporting performances (De Bosscher et al., 2015).

Specific to the thesis is a focus on the coalescing of factors for the success of elite sport in Jamaica, and Robinson (2009) provides useful insight in the sporting success of athletics.

Robinson highlighted that:

Jamaica's success in track and field athletics is not fortuitous; it is the result of a system of athletic instruction, management and administration that has been in place, tried and tested for almost a hundred years, and is now well established. There is no activity or area of endeavour in Jamaica whether in the public or private sector that, operating at a national level, is as well organized and, applying international standards, has been as consistently successful as track and field athletics. (p. 11)

Robinson believes that the system surrounding the development of athletics is the catalyst for success, which includes:

- The value of having role models from every generation
- The competitive, combative and assertive nature of the Jamaican persona and identity
- National pride
- The athletic talent which is nurtured by the system
- Access to qualified coaches and the rigour of the training regimen
- The looseness of the system

From his assessment of the system, Robinson (2009) concluded that there are three levels encompassing the system of athletic development in Jamaica, which occurs at the pre-secondary,

secondary, and senior levels. Additionally, athletes are exposed to qualified coaching within a rigorous training regimen towards the preparation of local, national, and international competition at all these levels. One major competition highlighted by Robinson is the Boys and Girls High School Championship, which he classified as being the best high school championship internationally.

In summary, the best understanding of a nation's ability for international sporting success involves the coalescing of factors. Therefore, the intermingling of the SPLISS factors at the meso-level, in addition to the micro- and macro-level factors occurring in the environment of elite sport, allows for the coalescing of micro-meso-macro level factors, which provides an illustration of elite sporting success at the sport-specific/country-specific level. The work of Robinson (2009) allows for a point of reference specific to Jamaica and the success of the sport of athletics, and further provides a source to explore the coalescing of factors for elite sport success.

Logic Model Approach

The SPLISS conceptual framework mentioned above, utilizes the input-throughput-output model in allowing for illustration of a nation's ability to be successful in international elite sport. The purpose of this study was to explore the development of elite sport, through national sport policy, within a developing country. Therefore, in its formulation of public policy, governments would provide intervention, which includes the inputs required for implementation, with the ultimate objective being the desired output or outcome (Millar, Simeone, & Carnevale, 2001). The SPLISS model does not offer an illustration of the plausible outcomes from the stated national sport policy. Moreover, SPLISS only provides guidance in terms of factors being able to contribute to elite sport development, from inputs to throughputs, with the achievement of recorded outputs.

Hence, with the lack of guidance from SPLISS in illustrating the plausible outcomes resulting from public policy intervention, the logic model approach provides a useful tool in depicting a graphical assumption of real-world activities (Millar, Simeone, & Carnevale, 2001, Wholey, 1979). McLaughlin and Jordan (2015) defines logic models as “a plausible and sensible model of how a program [or policy] will work under certain environmental conditions to solve identified problems” (p. 64). This definition allows an understanding of the stated vision and goals supported by a logical process, which as evidenced through cause and effect, or shown through plausible illustrations. Additionally, Wholey (1979), advises that the logic model allows for the tracing of programs (among other models) that considers an intervention (the input), which produces an immediate outcome (the throughput), resulting in the production of an intermediate outcome (stated national output), which then should produce a final or ultimate outcome (stated national outcome). Therefore, as an analytic technique, the logic model approach provides a way to improve the generalizability of the SPLISS conceptual framework by including a plausible outcome from the inputs-throughputs-outputs identified with the guidance of SPLISS. Moreover, by incorporating a logic model to illustrate the input factors, the ‘black box’ of SPLISS is identified and interpreted during the processing of inputs for those sport development factors, leading to the attainment of outputs and national outcomes. Hence, the logic model is a useful analytical tool to illustrate the influence of government through policy, and also the contribution of other factors outside of government control.

Summary

The literature reviewed in this chapter provides a description of the three central components underlining this thesis – national sport policy, sport development, and establishing success. The three central components were further broken into six sections, which highlighted the topics of the thesis, and the identification of specific aspects linking the wider literature to the

Jamaican case, especially the discussion on the SPLISS conceptual framework, that guides this study. Additionally, two critical sections added to provide clarification (i.e., coalescing of factors) and illustration (i.e., logic models) of what encompasses international success from elite sports, which were both not included in the guidance provided by the SPLISS framework. The literature reviewed, provided four key components as outlined in Table 2-2, and represents a description of gaps within the literature and the SPLISS conceptual framework, in terms of sport-specific/country-specific analysis of sport policy. Critical among these gaps is an understanding of the role of sport policy and if sporting success is achievable without the influence of government through policy. This is important for nations, as it provides a basis to adequately conceptualize, develop and implement policies. Additionally, an understanding of the role of input factors in contributing to the development of sport, and elite sport in particular, is important in the advancement of sporting success among nations.

While the literature reviewed above provided a critical point of reference for the thesis, and guided the research questions, it also provided direction to explore the four objectives of the study. The objectives presented in Chapter 4 (Study 1), Chapter 5 (Study 2), and Chapter 6 (Study 3) are completed with a discussion in Chapter 7 representing the fourth objective of the thesis. For Study 1, the literature provided insight on the policy process most critical in understanding the analysis of a nation's sport policy, especially its formulation and implementation processes. Study 2 highlighted the guiding literature and conceptual framework, which centred the study on the development of elite sport and the implementation strategies to attain national goals and objectives. Finally, the literature and conceptual framework for Study 3 explains the factors highlighted as contributing to elite sporting success, representing a coalescing of factors suggested by the conceptual framework, and environmental factors suggested by sport-specific literature.

Table 2-2

Gaps to be Addressed in the Literature and Conceptual Framework

Key Components	Description of Gaps	Position taken by this Thesis
<i>Sporting success or successful policy</i>	This component discusses the chicken or the egg dilemma, in terms of the gap in the literature that provide understanding as to what actually comes first – elite sport policy or elite sporting success.	The thesis takes the position that elite sport policy is driven by elite sporting success; however, elite sporting success cannot occur in a vacuum, and required earlier intervention through actions or decisions from governments or private actors to contribute to success.
<i>Processing the intervention</i>	There are still gaps in understanding the ‘black box’ of the SPLISS conceptual framework, which occurs in the throughputs process, and its ability to contribute to successful outputs, from the initial intervention of sport policy and its resulting inputs.	While the nine Pillars of SPLISS highlights important factors in the development of elite sport; its ability to lead to international sporting success cannot be supported without the possible contribution of environmental factors.
<i>Coalescing of factors</i>	The literature supports the view that environmental factors at the micro- and macro-levels can contribute to elite sporting success. However, there are gaps in the literature to provide sport-specific/country-specific points of reference.	The environment of elite sport occurring at the micro- and macro-levels, in addition to factors at the meso-level, coalesces to contribute to international sporting success.
<i>Establishing plausibility of national outcomes</i>	Both the literature and conceptual framework highlights the difficulty in measuring or assessing national outcomes. However, it is possible to provide plausible explanations in order to support or refute stated national outcomes, and be able to extend the SPLISS model to include an understanding of national outcomes.	By providing illustrations of the stated national outcomes, it is plausible that the ultimate goals and objectives of the initial intervention be supported or refuted based on interpretation of the national outputs achieved from the development of elite sport.

CHAPTER 3: Methodology

This chapter presents the methodology undertaken by this thesis. It outlines the theoretical perspective and epistemology guiding the researcher's search for knowledge, the research design for the mode of inquiry, the unit of inquiry, and the methods for the inquiry that is, the techniques for data collection and analysis. This thesis draws on the works of Crotty (1998) and Yin (2018), and follows their understanding and approach in undertaking the research process. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the research quality followed throughout the thesis, and emphasized the importance of choosing an appropriate methodology to conduct research.

Theoretical Perspective and Epistemology

A theoretical perspective, according to Crotty (1998) is “our view of the human world and social life within that world” (p. 8). Examples of theoretical perspectives includes, among others, positivism and post-positivism, interpretivism, critical inquiry, feminism and postmodernism (Crotty, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 2017). Within interpretivism, there are three perspectives in which a researcher may further form their philosophical approach – symbolic interactionism, phenomenology, and hermeneutics (Crotty, 1998). Symbolic interactionism is a theoretical perspective, which provides an approach to understanding the world and explaining society, and offers a justification for the use of methodology and methods chosen by researchers (Crotty, 1998). Therefore, a theoretical perspective, such as, symbolic interactionism exists to offer a way to perceive world experiences. Entrenched within this theoretical perspective are epistemologies, which provide context and grounding for the type of knowledge to be identified (Crotty, 1998).

Epistemology has been described by Crotty (1998) as a “theory of knowledge” (p. 3) and is defined in its simplest term as, “how we know what we know” (p. 8). Crotty views

epistemology as including objectivism, subjectivism, and constructionism. An objectivist derives truth and meaning from the objects being viewed, establishing a “meaningful reality”, which when applicable methods are utilized, will bring “accurate and certain knowledge” (Crotty, 1998, p. 42). For subjectivists, meaning is generated by the subjects viewing the objects, and as such, understanding for what is being observed may have been derived subconsciously, or from the viewers mind, establishing their own reality for what is being observed (Crotty, 1998). The third epistemological viewpoint, for which this researcher can be associated, is constructionism.

Constructionism is defined from the perspective that, “all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context” (Crotty, 1998, p. 42). This construction of meaning is derived from an interpretation of the world, whereby, at some point in time, no meaning was attributed to an experience, and as meaning is socially constructed by human interactions, objectivity and subjectivity are brought together (Crotty, 1998). This social construction of meaning refers to the ‘mode of meaning generation’ and may not involve people, but meaning attributable to our pass down understanding of objects, such as, rivers and the ocean, through culture, tradition and beliefs (Crotty, 1998).

Understanding the theoretical perspective and epistemology discussed above allowed for justification in this researchers choice of methodology and an inherent set of methods used to collect and analyse the data for this thesis. More importantly, the researcher’s constructionist epistemology allowed for his interpretation of the results and conclusion drawing from multiple sources of evidence, in order to capture different perspectives and better triangulate the data, allowing for corroboration. The researcher’s own local knowledge was also considered while interpreting meaning from the data. Furthermore, his theoretical perspective is centered by a

constructionist epistemology, and therefore, further interpretation of the results and conclusions drawn required scrutiny of the multiple sources of evidence, as each source of evidence provided its own meaning, and it is the responsibility of the researcher to ensure accuracy and trustworthy results. To address the issue of generalizability in the context of a constructionist epistemology, Jarvensivu and Tornroos (2010) advised that single-case studies allow for the generation of local and historically context-specific understanding. This may then be applicable to other context in a non-positivist and non-probabilistic sense, allowing for analytical generalizability, or transferability, not statistical generalizability. The following sections draw on Yin (2018) in his approach to case study research and its associated components and methods, and qualifies the choice of methodology in terms of this researcher's theoretical perspective and epistemology.

Case Study Research Design

Case study research has been trending upwards since the 1980s (Yin, 2018), and as a mode of inquiry, it has been assessed in second place among cited social science methodology books (Green, 2016, as cited in Yin, 2018). This mode of inquiry was selected as the methodology for this thesis, as it includes procedures, which, when followed, can shield a researcher against threats of trustworthiness, keeps a chain of evidence, and allows for the investigation and exploration of theoretical and rival propositions. Methodology, in general, and research methodology, in particular, is defined as “the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcomes (Crotty, 1998, p. 3). The desired outcome of this thesis was to answer the purpose of exploring the development of elite sport through national sport policy within a developing country.

Therefore, case study research as a methodology aligns the literature to the thesis purpose and the research questions. It includes a research design which indicates five components integral to case study research (Yin, 2018):

(1) the use of ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions, which provides direction for research questions that may need to develop linkages over a particular duration of time;

(2) the use of propositions, which can complement the research questions and help to direct the researcher towards more relevant theoretical understandings of the case being studied;

(3) offers suggestions for defining the case to be studied, and recommendations for bounding the selected case in order to allow for a better opportunity in data collection accuracy, and overall provide for a tighter link between the case and the research questions and propositions;

(4) allows for early consideration for linking the data to propositions, and suggests techniques for the analysis of data which should be considered in planning data collection; and

(5) suggests criteria for interpreting the findings, such as identifying and addressing rival explanation during the design stage in order to include an approach to gathering relevant data during the data collection stage.

These five components, as outlined by Yin (2018), provide a logical approach in conducting case study research (mode of inquiry) and links this methodology to the case (the unit of inquiry), through the research method (the method of inquiry). The case study research design provided a logical order which connected the empirical data to the research questions, and eventually to the conclusions of this thesis. The remaining sections will outline a description of the case, a linking of the data to propositions, the methods, and a discussion on research quality.

Description of the Case

In providing a description of the case, which is the unit of inquiry for the thesis, Yin (2018) advised that two different steps should be considered: (1) a definition for the case; and (2) bounding the selected case.

Defining the case. A core component in defining the case, as Yin (2018) posited is a focus on how the research questions are defined, and how the propositions are stated. These two components were comprehensively reviewed for the case description. The purpose of the thesis was to explore the development of elite sport, through national sport policy, within a developing country. In defining the case, the propositions were found to be helpful as the conceptual framework provided guidance in the selection of what information was required in order to address the research questions. Therefore, this thesis looked at the developing country of Jamaica and how selected elite sports were either: (a) developed through the national policies of the government; (b) developed without any contribution from government policies; or (c) developed through a coalescing of government policies and other factors. The research questions, therefore, allowed for answers to the three objectives that: (1) focused on understanding the political, administrative and financial systems for the creation and delivery of sport development in Jamaica; (2) explored how the national sport system contributed, if any, to the development of sporting disciplines capable of achieving the stated national outcomes of the government policy; and (3) explored how the most successful of the sporting disciplines attained international competitive success and contributed to the achievement of the stated national outcomes. In order to expand the analytical generalization for elite sport policy frameworks, the answers from the research questions also contributed to the literature by through the exploration of how country-specific factors affect the implementation of current elite sport development models, as well as contributing to the current academic understanding of the international successes of elite sporting disciplines.

Bounding the case. Once the case was defined, the next step was to establish boundaries for the case. Two boundaries were required for the case: (1) a selection of sporting disciplines; and (2) a time boundary.

Six sporting disciplines were selected from a listing of over 40 registered national sports. The literature on Jamaica highlighted that, from as early as 1963; these six disciplines were considered as being important to the countries national development (Government of Jamaica, 1963). Football (soccer), athletics, and netball were selected, as they were the most recognized sports, locally and internationally, among all the sporting disciplines in Jamaica. Additionally, they were considered as ‘major sports,’ receiving significant financial support from the government, and having shown through past results, ability for international competitive success. Cycling, swimming, and table tennis were also selected to provide balance. These three sporting disciplines were popular locally, and while they were considered ‘minor sports,’ receiving a much smaller financial support from the government, they have shown, through past results, ability for international competitive success.

The second component in bounding the case was the establishing of time boundaries. Two categories were found to be most useful in the collection of data, and bounded the case to specific periods. First, in order to obtain answers on important milestones in Jamaica’s development of elite sport, boundaries were set around the periods – prior to 1962, and 1962 to 1993 – these periods being the stage of development before Jamaica received independence from the United Kingdom in 1962 and the stage of development before the first official sport policy in 1994. The second category for time bounding the case was the stage from 1994 to 2017, which represented the introduction of the first JSP in 1994, and its subsequent revision in 2013. This period, 1994 to 2017, also highlighted the largest medal haul for Jamaica at the Olympic Games and warranted specific focus on the contribution of government policies and the successes of

elite sport at international competitions. The propositions were found to be useful in helping to define the case, and the next section will discuss the linkages between the data and the propositions.

Linking the Data to the Propositions

Yin (2018) advised that, in order to establish a rock-solid footing for the later analysis of case study data, it is important to understand, during the design stage, how a proposition impacts the planned data collection process. The literature and conceptual framework were useful in establishing both a theoretical proposition and a rival proposition, and also assisted in the initial creation of logic models, which were used in the analysis of results. More specifically, the conceptual framework provided guidance in the formulation of the theoretical proposition, in terms of the ‘inputs’ and ‘throughputs’ aspects of the logic model, while the literature provided insights on the ‘outputs’ and ‘outcomes’. The propositions established for the thesis were:

Theoretical proposition:

National sport policy through elite sport development can contribute to international sporting success and the achievement of stated national outcomes.

The theoretical proposition was linked to data collection questions, which are reported in Chapter 5, and explored how the national sport system contributed, if any, to the development of sporting disciplines capable of achieving the stated national outcomes of the government policy.

Rival proposition:

The achievement of stated national outcomes has occurred without the contribution of national sport policy to the development of elite sport.

The rival proposition was linked to the data collection questions which are in Chapter 6, and explored how the most successful of the sporting disciplines attained international competitive

success and contributed to the achievement of the stated national outcomes. This rival proposition was found to be a critical component for the interpretation of the thesis findings and the ability to provide analytical generalization.

Methods

In this section, the case study is presented as the main research method, followed by the data collection and analysis techniques used to build the case study.

Case Study as a Research Method

The sections above outlined the approach taken by the thesis in establishing the case study research design and a description for the case explored. Yin (2018) emphasized that there is a critical link between case study research and the case, which is the case study. The case study is “the method of inquiry, or research method used in doing case study research” (Yin, 2018, p.xx). It is the foundation linking the mode of inquiry to the unit of inquiry, which then completes the trilogy for the methodological approach (Yin, 2018). The case study as a research method brings into focus an empirical technique that concentrates on contemporary phenomena (the case) within a real-world context that determines answers to ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions which cannot be fully controlled by the researcher (Yin, 2018). In exploring the case presented in this thesis, the case study research allowed for a ‘logic of design’ to be implemented through the case study method that included techniques for data collection and approaches for the analysis of the data. The next section will address the data collection and data analysis techniques used, which is represented in Figure 3-1.

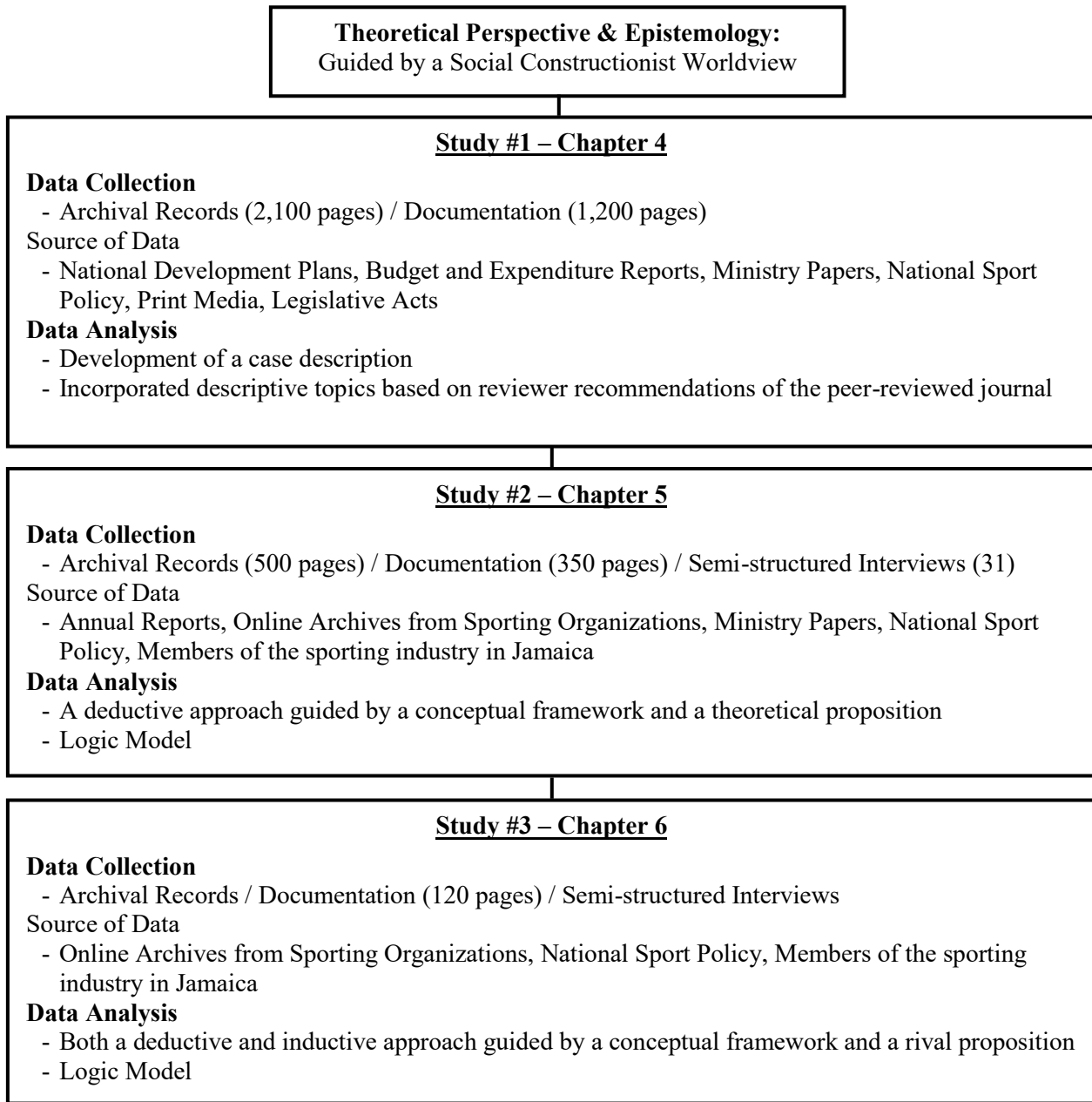


Figure 3-1. Data collection techniques and data analysis approaches.

Data Collection

The thesis explored a critical single-case, whereby the case becomes the critical component in interpreting the findings from the theoretical and rival propositions (Yin, 2018). In this thesis, the critical single-case is used in the context of a developing country with a known and recognizable rate of international sporting success, representing a clear indication of output.

What remain unknown; however, are the levels of inputs and the distribution of those inputs among the throughputs as means of developing elite sport towards the attainment of the ultimate national outcomes. The thesis also benefitted from a case in which it was not difficult to develop a strategy for the unit of inquiry. The case was divided into three separate, but interconnected studies, that explored specific research questions (see Figure 1-1 in Chapter 1) and was brought together to answer the thesis purpose of exploring the development of elite sport, through national sport policy, within a developing country. Of the three studies, only Study 2 and 3 required strict adherence to the protection of human subjects, therefore, the ethics approval notice, as found in Appendix A, conformed to this data collection procedure. The details of the three separate studies will now be discussed.

Study 1. This study looked at the thesis objective of exploring the political, administrative and financial systems established for the creation and delivery of sport development. While conceptualizing the research design for the thesis, it was brought to the researcher's attention that the *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, a prominent journal, was looking into publishing a series specific to this area of research. The journal suggested a descriptive framework of topics relevant in developing a country profile for a nation incorporating national sport policy in its sport development. This framework formed the evidence necessary in this descriptive stage of the case study.

Furthermore, this study was designed to not only provide evidence for the thesis, but also to expand academic knowledge in the area of sport policy and elite sport development. So, the three research questions (see Figure 1-1 in Chapter 1) were designed to provide answers for this study and the results are reported in Chapter 4. A journal article reflecting this study was published online in 2014, and in print in 2015 (see Toomer, 2015), which has been updated to reflect new sources of evidence and additional information up to the period ending December

2017. The study provided the foundation in answering the thesis purpose and established an historical context for the case. Two data collection methods were selected for this study – archival records and documentation. Yin (2018) advises that these sources of evidence can play a useful and significant role in doing case study research, and can also corroborate evidence from other sources. Therefore, the archival records and documents facilitated data from pre- and post-independence, and established a foundation for the thesis. By identifying the political, administrative, and financial systems in study 1, this facilitated the research design for the remaining interconnected studies and highlighted the historical context for the development of elite sport.

Archival records and documentation. These two methods for data collection have similar strengths and weaknesses. According to Yin (2018), documentation includes administrative documents, printed media, national policy documents and legislative acts, among others, while archival records can include public use files, budget and expenditure reports, service records and survey data, among others. Both archival records and documentation possess strengths in data which can be stable, unobtrusive, provide precise details, and also focus on covering a broad scope of activities in exploring the case; more specifically, archival records can provide data which are quantitative in nature and particularly specific (Yin, 2018). The methods, however, may highlight weaknesses, such as reporting biases, difficulty in retrieval, inaccuracies due to incomplete work, and inaccessibility due to reasons of privacy or deliberately being withheld (Yin, 2018). For these weaknesses, Yin advised that the researcher should be aware of the audience and context in which the material was originally created and special focus should be given when interpreting the data accuracy and usefulness. For study 1, the researcher examined approximately 2,100 pages of data, specific to the national development plans for Jamaica, spanning the years 1946 to 2009. Additionally, other documents amounting to approximately

1,200 pages were examined, covering national sport policy, legislative acts, ministry papers, newspaper articles, national budgets and expenditure reports, among other similar documents.

Study 2. The objective of this study was to explore how the national sport system contributed, if any, to the development of sporting disciplines capable of achieving the national outcomes. The data from Study 1 was helpful in the design phase for this study, and was useful as a source of corroborating the new data obtained from Study 2. The Study 1 data also provided direction in formulating the data collection questions for Study 2. Additionally, the literature review also provided direction in preparing the study's design, and offered a conceptual framework, which helped inform the study and offer guidance in formulating the data collection questions. The data collected in this study reflected those required in analysing the theoretical proposition described above. In conducting data collection, Yin (2018) highlighted that the use of multiple sources of evidence was an important strategy, which can enhance the overall quality of the case study. Using this strategy also facilitated data triangulation – a process of developing converging lines of inquiry, which allows for the corroborating of similar findings from multiple sources (Yin, 2018). Three data collection methods were selected for this study – archival records, documentation, and interviews. The lack of a government institution that stores relevant information for the development of sport, and Jamaica not having a dedicated ministry of sport, meant that the source of evidence addressed documentary support for the decisions and actions of government. Additionally, other sources of evidence, such as annual reports, allowed for a better understanding of the financial support provided by the government, triangulated to other documents. While no interviews were necessary for study 1, interviews were a critical source of evidence to corroborate the archival data and document sources. With this study exploring the contribution of the government to the development of elite sport, the three sources of evidence were assessed to be adequate and comprehensive.

Archival records and documentation. The archival records and documentation examined for this study provided specific data on the national sporting system. Approximately 500 pages of data, particularly to the funding of sport development were examined from annual reports. Also, approximately 350 pages of data from online archives, ministry papers, national sport policy, and parliamentary presentations were examined.

Interviews. The use of interviews in this study, provided insight on the national sporting system from the perspective of expert participants, and allowed for the corroboration of other data sources. Yin (2018) explained that the choice of using interviews has both strengths and weaknesses, for which a researcher should strongly be aware. Strengths include allowing for a targeted approach to topics specifically related to the case and providing insightful explanations of phenomena, which may be communicated to the researcher verbally or non-verbally (Yin, 2018). Some weaknesses, however, can develop from biases in the response to poorly articulated questions, along with a lack of accurate recollection of the phenomena, and reflexivity, which occurs when the participant provides information that they believe the researcher, may want to hear (Yin, 2018).

As mentioned above, human subjects were required for this study, and an application made to the University of Ottawa Research Ethics Board included the proposed details for the study, along with a sample letter of information, consent form, and interview guides. The Research Ethics Board approved the study³ (see Appendix A). The letter of information (see Appendix B) was sent by email to each participant prior to the study, and the consent form (see Appendix C) was signed prior to the interview and a copy retained by the researcher and participant. Two interview guides were used in the study, as data collection questions were

³ In September 2017, this researcher experienced a change in thesis supervisor, due to the retirement of his initial supervisor. Therefore, the thesis supervisor mentioned in the Research Ethics Board approval and the letter of information and consent form was that of his former supervisor.

designed to gather responses specific to the funding of selected sporting disciplines over temporal stages (see Appendix D), and also insight on the contribution of the JSP to the successes of the sporting disciplines, with specific focus on the success of athletics (see Appendix E).

Table 3-1 provides a list of participants interviewed for the study. In total, 31 interviews were conducted, with 28 being in-person in Jamaica, and the remaining three via Skype. The participants were selected purposefully, and included several coaches and sport administrators who were former elite athletes, among other practitioners taken from the national sport system. The interviews were semi-structured in design and open-ended in nature. Their structure followed the advice of Yin (2018), who expressed that, in addition to well-designed questions, the researcher should be focussed but also remain flexible throughout the interview in terms of adjusting the questions to fit the discussion. The interviews ran an average of 35 minutes.

Table 3-1

Profile of Participants Interviewed

Participant Code	Description of the Participants
1	Sport Scientist
2	Sport Administrator, National Governing Body
3	Elite Coach, Table Tennis Jamaica ^a
4	Elite Coach, Local Athletics Club
5	Sport Scientist
6	Elite Coach, Amateur Swimming Association of Jamaica
7	Elite Coach, Table Tennis Jamaica
8	Elite Coach, Local Athletics Club
9	Sport Administrator, Jamaica Athletics Administrative Association ^b
10	Sport Administrator, National Governing Body
11	Sport Administrator, Table Tennis Jamaica
12	Sport Administrator, Jamaica Cycling Federation
13	Policymaker, Directly impacting government decisions
14	Sport Administrator, Netball Jamaica ^c
15	Elite Coach, Jamaica Cycling Federation
16	Sport Administrator, Jamaica Football Federation
17	Bureaucrat, National Implementing Agency
18	Sport Journalist
19	Elite Coach, Jamaica Athletics Administrative Association
20	Elite Coach, Netball Jamaica

21	Former Elite Athlete
22	Sport Journalist
23	Elite Athlete, Local Athletics Club
24	Elite Athlete, Local Athletics Club
25	Elite Athlete, Local Athletics Club
26	Sport Administrator, Amateur Swimming Association of Jamaica
27	Former Elite Athlete
28	Elite Coach, Jamaica Football Federation
29	Elite Coach, Local Athletics Club
30	Bureaucrat, National Implementing Agency
31	Policymaker, Directly impacting government decisions

Note: These NSOs have had a name change, originally the names were: ^aJamaica Table Tennis Association; ^bJamaica Amateur Athletic Association; ^cJamaica Netball Association.

Source: Jamaica Olympic Association (n.d.)

To help in the accuracy of the data collected and to improve analysis, the interviews were recorded, after receiving permission from the participants, and later transcribed verbatim. In order to ensure results trustworthiness and to member-check the data, face-to-face follow-up discussions were done with eight key participants in Jamaica, and several Skype and telephone conversations were done with others for further clarification. All participants originally selected were interviewed, with the exception of one, due to scheduling conflicts. However, data saturation (the point where no new information is emerging (cf. Creswell, 2014; Jones, 2015), occurred about midway through the data collection process, but a decision was taken by the researcher to complete all the previously scheduled interviews. In total, 465 pages of transcribed interview data were subsequently analyzed.

Study 3. The objective of this study was to explore how the most successful of the sporting disciplines attained international competitive success and contributed to the achievement of the national outcomes. The focus was to help answer the thesis purpose by exploring the factors contributing to the success of the sporting discipline – athletics. The data collected for this study reflected those required in analysing the rival proposition described above. The data from Study 1 were helpful in the design phase for this study; and the literature and the conceptual framework provided guidance in formulating the data collection questions.

This study followed a similar design to Study 2; however, it relied more on the interview method for the data collection. This was done to corroborate new archival records and documentation data for the present study, combined with prior archival records and documentation data analyzed from Study 2. The data from the previous studies were useful in understanding the contribution of the government to the development of elite sport, allowing for an exploration of the selected six sporting disciplines, and the identification of athletics as the most successful elite sport for Jamaica. While study 2 concentrated on the contribution of the national sport policy, study 3 concentrated on the environment of sport. The documents and interviews were collected with a focus on the rival proposition.

Archival records and documentation. The archival records and documentation examined for this study were taken mostly from the online archives of national federations, as well as international sporting organizations and federations. Several documents from NSOs and local clubs and organizations were examined, in addition to those from government agencies and the JSP, amounting to over 120 pages of data.

Interviews. The interviews for both Study 2 and Study 3 were done with the same participants and interview guides. Therefore, the information outlined above in collecting the data for Study 2 is fully applicable to this study. The point of departure, however, lies in the data analysis phase for each study, which will now be explained.

Data Analysis

The case study analysis undertaken for this thesis followed the guidance of Yin (2018), who provided four general analytic strategies and five analytical techniques useful in the data analysis process. The analytic strategies included: (1) relying on a theoretical proposition; (2) working with the data from the ground up; (3) developing a case description; and (4) examining plausible rival explanations (Yin, 2018). Three of the four analytic strategies were incorporated

in the thesis, the one exception being working with the data from the ground up. This strategy, which is inductive in nature, was not required as all three studies incorporated a deductive approach. Although Study 3 was both deductive and inductive, the analytic strategy of examining plausible rival explanations already allowed for both deductive and inductive approaches. In turn, the five analytical techniques are: (1) pattern matching; (2) explanation building; (3) time-series analysis; (4) logic models; and (5) cross-case synthesis. Only logic models were incorporated in the case study analysis from the five analytical techniques recommended by Yin (2018). The decision to use only the logic model technique was a simple process. Three strategies were eliminated, as this study was a single-case exploratory study, and although the case was bounded over several phases, explanation building, time-series analysis, and cross-case synthesis did not apply to this study. Pattern matching was the next best choice; however, it did not allow for a modelling of the complex chain of evidence. In contrast logic models, as an analytic technique, allow for modelling of the chain of evidence and they incorporate pattern-matching strategies. The strategies and techniques can also be combined, and Yin (2018) emphasized that researchers should be aware of the analytic choices before data collection, in order to ensure data analyzability. The strategies and techniques will now be discussed for each study.

Study 1. The general analytic strategy of developing a case description was used in the analysis of this study. As mentioned in the data collection section for Study 1, a descriptive framework of topics was recommended by the peer-reviewed journal, and was adopted by this study and the data collected accordingly. The coding and analysis process was done manually, and started by placing the archival records and documentation into categories with a specific focus on these six topics: (1) history of the political structure; (2) government involvement in sport policy; (3) administrative framework for implementing sport policy; (4) funding sport

development; (5) a description of not-for-profit and commercial sport; and (6) how the government prioritize public policy for sport. Using the six descriptive topics as a starting point, first-level coding (Bazeley, 2013) was done to further break down the topics into sub-categories, allowing for the development of analytical categories or a process called focused coding by Saldana (2009). The analytical categories, for example, in topic 1: history of the political structure, analytical categories included: formal systems establishing the political process; origins of political parties; and the electoral process establishing government. These analytical categories allowed for a more refine process in analysing the data in terms of the research questions, and drawing final conclusions. The descriptive framework of topics provided a level of organization for the analysis, and the data were collected to match this level of organization. The findings are reported in Chapter 4.

Study 2. The general analytic strategy of relying on theoretical propositions, in addition, to the analytical technique of logic models were incorporated in this case study analysis. A conceptual framework provided guidance in establishing a theoretical proposition. The theoretical propositions provided the contextual situations, which allowed for an effective organization in the analysis of the data.

In the first stage of analysis, the theoretical proposition established from the conceptual framework, that, in order to explore the contribution of national sport policy through elite sport development, a financial input was required to support eight other sport policy factors. These factors could possibly allow for the attainment of stated national output and ultimately the national outcomes. The proposition highlighted the analytic priorities for this study, which provided the contextual situations being ultimately explored, that is, the input-throughput-output and eventual outcome of the initial intervention of the national sport policy.

For the second stage, the archival records, documentation and interviews were analyzed with a focus on four temporal phases: (1) prior to 1962; (2) 1962 to 1993; (3) 1994 to 2012; and (4) 2013 to 2017. These temporal phases bounded the case study and afforded a level of organization for the analyzed data. The archival records, documentation and interviews were analyzed separately to allow for corroboratory findings and triangulation, for two specific areas of focus within this study: (1) a description of important milestones; and (2) any noticeable contribution through national sport policy. The archival records were manually coded in terms of the nine factors suggested by the SPLISS conceptual framework, which allowed for a deductive approach in establishing the contextual situation. For example, the annual reports from the funding agency were analyzed through the lens of the nine factors, whereby funding support for each factor was identified and tables were prepared from the data, using Microsoft Word in order to visualize the findings.

The documentation, also manually coded in terms of the temporal phases and the nine factors, and provided a source of evidence, which corroborated and triangulated the archival records. The interviews were the final step in this stage. The transcribed interviews were coded in terms of the nine factors and the temporal phases, initially for first-level codes and later for focused codes within each factor. While the archival records and documentation were done manually, the transcribed interviews were uploaded to the data management software NVivo to simplify the coding and analysis of the data. Once the focused codes were derived, initially from reading through the transcripts and coding segments, these focused codes were highlighted within NVivo as analytical categories. The analytical categories were then classified as sub-categories of the nine factors derived from the conceptual framework, and represented specific themes within the development of elite sport. For example, first-level coding identified the input factor of funding sources; these were further coded to focus on specific aspects of funding, such

as those from the funding agency through allocations to the other eight factors, representing throughputs directly impacting the development of elite sports. Therefore, the results from the archival records, documentation, and interviews allowed for the development of a logic model.

The final stage in the case study analysis for Study 2 incorporated a logic model. The logic model was prepared from the theoretical proposition and the results. This analytic technique was recommended by Yin (2018) as being useful in studies involving a demonstration of a theory, which can be categorized and identified as inputs, outputs and outcomes. Given the exploratory nature of this study, the logic model presented an overview of the factors of the SPLISS conceptual framework as inputs and throughputs, and allowed for a clear demonstration of the intended output and outcomes of national sport policy. The logic model does not typically identify how the throughputs are expected to produce outcomes, especially without indicators for success. The results for the first two stages of this case study analysis are reported in Chapter 5 of the thesis, and the logic model was used to discuss the key results in Chapter 7 and assist with analytical generalization.

Study 3. First, information representing the successful results in athletics was coded and analyzed, establishing the sporting results as attained outputs. Second, the general analytic strategy of examining plausible rival explanations, in addition to the analytical technique of logic models were incorporated in this case study analysis to explore possible environmental factors contributing to sporting success. This study also took into account the temporal phases bounding the case study, as mentioned in Study 2.

The first stage in this analysis focused on archival records and documentation, which were manually coded in search of information for results indicating the successes in the sport of athletics. The archival records of sporting organization were reviewed and the data were focused coded for successful sporting results as classified by the outcomes listed in the JSP documents.

Additional documentation were reviewed and focused coded in order to corroborate and triangulate the data. Figures and tables were prepared from the data using Microsoft Excel and Word in order to visualize the findings. To further allow for corroboration and triangulation, the transcribed interviews were coded in search of information for results indicating the successes in the sport of athletics, initially for first-level codes and later for focused codes. The transcribed interviews were uploaded to the data management software NVivo and used to simplify the coding and analysis of the data. Once the focused codes were derived, initially from reading through the transcripts and coding segments, these focused codes were highlighted within NVivo as analytical categories. The analytical categories were then classified as sub-categories, representing the successful sporting results listed as outcomes in the JSP documents.

The second stage focused on the creation of plausible rival explanations, which works in combination with the theoretical proposition and establishes a rival proposition for the case study (Yin, 2018). The conceptual framework recognized other forms of inputs, outside of the financial support provided by the government through national sport policy. These other inputs, such as sponsorship and media, were acknowledged as a starting point in establishing the plausible rival explanations, and the data analyzed deductively in search of those inputs. The study further explored the data inductively in search of any other rival explanations which would fit in the micro, meso, or macro categories of plausible factors contributing to the successful results of athletics. The same process as above was used for the rival explanations. The transcribed interviews were focused coded deductively in terms of the environmental factors suggested by the SPLISS conceptual framework and the literature. The interviews were also inductively coded, initially for first-level codes and later for focused codes for any factors contributing to the development and possible success of athletics, outside of the financial support provided through the national lottery. The transcribed interviews were uploaded to the data management software

NVivo and used to simplify the coding and analysis of the data. Once the focused codes were derived, initially from reading through the transcripts and coding segments, these focused codes were highlighted within NVivo as analytical categories. The analytical categories were then classified as themes representing plausible rival explanations contributing to the successful results in athletics.

The third and final stage in the case study analysis of Study 3 incorporated another logic model. Worley (1979) advised that the use of logic models as an analysis method could reduce large data to a form that can be assimilated for quick and effective communication of the relationship between interventions and objectives of policy. Therefore, by using the logic model in charting a plausible rival proposition, the model represented all inputs outside of the financial support provided by the government through the national lottery. The rival inputs should now impact the throughput, which are generally accepted as a combination of factors critical to the development of elite sport, and could possibly result in the attainment of stated national outputs and outcomes. The results for the first two stages of this case study analysis are reported in Chapter 6 of the thesis, and the logic model was used to discuss the key results in Chapter 7, and assist with analytical generalization.

Quality of the Research Design

This thesis was an exploratory study and followed the case study research methodology expounded by Yin (2018). While the research methods for this thesis were similar to those undertaken in qualitative research, this researcher agrees with Yin (2018), when he acknowledged that there are unfinished business to address in the relationship between qualitative research and case study research. The general debate surrounds the use of the case study as a method in terms of qualitative research (cf. Creswell, 2014; Denzin & Lincoln, 2017;

Seale, 1999) and the use of case study research as a methodology, which provides its own procedures. The significant difference is that both qualitative and quantitative studies can draw on case study research as a methodology. Hence, the procedures discussed by Yin (2018) also provide direction for conducting studies involving survey and experimental techniques, among other quantitative approaches, while qualitative research would not include those techniques.

This discussion regarding the relationship between case study research and qualitative research was necessary to avoid any confusion in this researcher's approach to ensuring research quality. Table 3-2 outlines the tactics between Yin's (2018) suggestion and contrast them with those generally incorporated in qualitative research, and provide a description of the actions taken by the researcher for each tactic. The research quality undertaken within this thesis follows the procedures of Yin (2018) in ensuring that four tactics are following throughout the case study research design. The four tactics are: 1) construct validity; 2) internal validity; 3) external validity; and 4) reliability. These tactics are common among empirical social researchers, and can be contrasted to some of the research quality tactics found in qualitative research, such as creditability, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (cf. Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2014). The four tactics suggested by Yin (2018) allows for a level of trustworthiness in the research design, data collection, and data analysis stages within the chosen methodology and methods, as this researchers theoretical perspective and epistemology dictates the construction of meaning. Therefore, in the construction of meaning, the quality and accuracy of the data being interpreted, require explicit forms of controls in ensuring the integrity of the research process.

Table 3-2

Quality of Research Design

Quality of Research Design/ <i>Contrast</i>	Explanation	Actions Taken by the Researcher
---	-------------	---------------------------------

Construct Validity (<i>Confirmability</i>)	Identifying correct operational measures for the concepts being studied.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clear definition of the purpose and objectives of the study. • Selection of a conceptual framework which allows for a standard of measure. • Use of multiple sources of evidence for corroboration and triangulation. • Established a chain of evidence. • Study reports reviewed by key informants. • Researcher's in depth knowledge of the national sport system also assessed that the accounts are true.
Internal Validity (<i>Credibility</i>)	Not recommended for exploratory studies, however, consideration should be given in terms of making inferences, and should be anticipated in the research design.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding that there are problems of making inferences, analytic strategies and techniques were used to address any issues relating to inferences. • Incorporated the analytic strategy of plausible rival explanation to address direct and commingled rivals. • Used a logic model to highlight the chain of occurrence of the rival proposition from input-throughput-output-outcome stages.
External Validity (<i>Transferability</i>)	Knowing whether a study's findings are generalizable beyond the immediate study.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Used a conceptual framework to develop a theoretical proposition. • Developed a logic model to highlight the chain of occurrence of the theoretical proposition from input-throughput-output-outcome stages which allowed for analytic generalization.
Reliability (<i>Dependability</i>)	Demonstrate that the operations of a study can be repeated with the same results, and minimize the errors and biases in a study.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developed a case study protocol to guide the collection of data. • Utilized a case study database to organize, document, and manage the data collection.

Note: Wording in brackets, represents the qualitative research tactics which can be contrasted to Yin (2018) description for research quality.

Source: Adapted from Miles, Huberman and Saldana (2014); Yin (2018).

The four tactics outlined by Yin (2018) for ensuring quality in case study research, were applied from the research design stage and throughout, that is, while conducting data collection, data analysis, and composing the case study report. The four tactics are presented below in terms applicability to this thesis.

In order to address construct validity, Yin (2018) argued that a researcher should first state explicitly the concepts being used in the study and relate them to the initial objectives of the

study. This is done to define the study's purpose and objectives, and highlight, through the development of research questions, effective procedures to address the data collection phase, for example, using multiple sources of evidence, and establishing a chain of evidence (Yin, 2018). Additionally, the researcher should recognize operational measures from published studies which can show how the concepts match the case study. For example, this researcher recognized the SPLISS conceptual framework as an operational measure as it suggests factors which could allow for national sport policy to move from the input stage to the outcome stage, and a possible attainment of stated national outcome. While the framework highlights these operational measures, it also outlines several shortcomings, such as not being able to provide operational measures for factors that cannot be controlled by government policies.

Another tactic Yin (2018) recommends is addressing internal validity. Yin (2018) acknowledged that internal validity should be considered only for explanatory studies and not for exploratory and descriptive studies, given issues with making inferences. Given that this is an exploratory study, Yin (2018) suggested that in order to address the issue of inferences, the researcher should incorporate analytic strategies and techniques, such as, "addressing rival explanations and using logic models" (p. 45). This study integrated plausible rival explanations and developed two logic models to represent the theoretical proposition and the rival proposition. When using the logic models, no inferences were made from the contribution of inputs to the international sporting success demonstrated as outputs, and the ultimate national outcome. Therefore, in order to ensure credibility when using the case study research methodology, the researcher needed to be aware of the data and consider if any suggested inference can actually be correct.

The other two tactics of external validity and reliability were also addressed. For external validity, which indicates that a researcher should understand if the case study can be

generalizable, Yin (2018) suggested the use of a conceptual framework. The SPLISS conceptual framework was used to formulate a theoretical proposition, which later guided the development of logic models for understanding the research findings and allow for analytic generalization.

The final tactic of reliability is used to minimize errors and biases, and allow for the operations of a study to be repeated, resulting in the same findings as the original study. To address reliability, Yin (2018) suggests the use of a case study protocol and a case study database in order to account for explicit procedures and auditability. The case study protocol was completed prior to data collection and outlines four sections: 1) an overview of the case study; 2) the data collection procedures; 3) specific protocol questions; and 4) a tentative outline for the case study report. The protocol was important as it allowed the researcher to focus on specific topics and anticipate and address problems.

The case study database allows for the organizing, managing and documenting of all the data collected for a study. This is done by using computer files, such as, word-processing tools (e.g., Microsoft Word, Excel, and Publisher) and data management software (e.g., NVivo). The objective of maintaining a case study database is to preserve the collected data in an easily retrievable format; and Yin (2018) suggested four source of data to be considered in establishing the database: 1) the researcher's notes from interviews and document analysis; 2) all relevant documents should be indexed in an annotated bibliography; 3) all tabular materials, sourced or created, should be properly cited; and 4) any new narrative materials.

All four recommendations were incorporated at different times throughout the research process. For example, all notes relating to a specific interview were combined to the interview guide used for that particular interview, and attached to the researchers' copies of the letter of information and consent forms, maintaining the participants' database, which also received a study code to identify the anonymous participant within the study. This database was deliberately

stored in a hard copy format to ensure the integrity of the participants' information. These files were subsequently locked away as per the Research Ethics Board regulations. Another example was the storing of archival documents, such as annual reports from the funding agency allocating the national lottery, and the national development plans. Ninety percent of the annual reports were in book format; therefore, each annual report was scanned and a file created in a portable document format (pdf). Conversely, ninety percent of the national development plans were received during the data collection process as a portable document format file, or were converted from microfilm into portable document format file. The remainder of the national development plans, which were in booklet format or photocopies, were scanned and a file created in a portable document format. These are merely some of the many levels in maintaining the case study database for this study.

The remaining chapters within this thesis present the results of the three separate studies (Chapters 4-6), followed by a discussion of key results (Chapter 7), and concluding with a summary of key findings, studies limitations, and an acknowledgment of avenues for future research (Chapter 8).

CHAPTER 4: Results – Political, Administrative and Financial Structures for the Development of Elite Sport

Toomer, R. (2015). Jamaica. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 7(3), 457-471.⁴

The literature (e.g., De Bosscher et al., 2008, 2015) suggests that, in order to effect sport policies, governments would move to establish a national sport system in which it can influence the creation and delivery of sport, especially at the elite level. Included in the national sport systems are the political, administrative, and financial structures representing components of the system in which the government has direct control. Included in the national sport system and outside of government control are NSOs and the many actors involved in the creation and delivery of sport. The objective of Study 1, therefore, was to explore the components in which government has direct control, such as the political, administrative, and financial systems established for its role in the creation and delivery of sport development. The study examines the following research questions in relations to this objective: (1) How were the government structures created for sport policy?; (2) How does the government implement sport policy?; and (3) How is the implementation of sport policy prioritized and financially supported? The following sections will outline the results of this study.

A Brief History of the Political Structure

Jamaica is a constitutional monarchy; its constitution is designed from the Westminster-Whitehall model used within the British parliamentary system. The new unitary state accepted membership among the British Commonwealth of Nations and agreed to keep the Queen as the Head of State, following the 1962 independence. Similar to other commonwealth nations, the Governor General who acts as the Head of State represents the Queen in Jamaica. The

⁴ This chapter was earlier published online in 2014, and in print 2015, as a country profile on Jamaica in the peer-reviewed journal listed. In lieu of an addendum, the chapter was updated for the thesis, where necessary, with a more comprehensive analysis of the political, administrative, and financial structures, reflecting information up to the end of 2017.

government is drawn from members of parliament elected through adult suffrage, with the election of a head of government filling the role of the Prime Minister who chairs a cabinet of responsible ministers. The elected members of parliament govern the legislature from the lower house, while appointed members of the senate govern the legislature from the upper house.

Since the late 1930s, politics in Jamaica have been dominated by the two major political parties: the centre-left People's National Party (PNP) founded in 1938, and the centre-right Jamaica Labour Party (JLP) founded in 1943. Prior to receiving universal adult suffrage in 1944, the island was administered officially from the United Kingdom, and occurred due to the 1655 defeat of Spain by England (Sherlock & Bennett, 1998). With this victory, England took control of the colony by implementing military rule and civil government; and this form of governance evolved into crown colony rule with the Governor having ruling authority. All decisions before 1944 were made without any formal input from the people of Jamaica (Sherlock & Bennett, 1998).

Following parliamentary general elections on December 14, 1944 Jamaica elected its first local legislature to the House of Representatives, but this was still not responsible government. It was not until 1953 with adjustments to the constitution, that Jamaica first received a form of responsible government, with ministers responsible for respective portfolios and the Cabinet being led by a Chief Minister. Complete self-government was not achieved until 1957.

In 1958, Jamaica became a member of the newly formed British West Indies Federation which consisted of ten British colonies. This federal grouping of colonies had negotiated with to receive its independence as a Federation in May 1962 (Government of Jamaica, 1962). This was, however, temporary, due to the 1961 referendum in Jamaica, when the people of Jamaica voted to withdraw from the Federation and move to become an independent state. With an election victory on April 10, 1962, the JLP formed the first independent government in Jamaica.

Consistent interchanges between the two leading political parties in forming the government took place until 1989, when the PNP was elected to form the government. They retained control of government until 2007 – a period covering eighteen years and six months. On September 3, 2007, the JLP was victorious in its first general elections since it last won in 1983, but only kept power for one term (four out of five years), until December 29, 2011, when the PNP returned to power. The PNP took the reigns of power following the 2011 elections; however, that reign was short-lived, as the JLP, on February 25, 2016, provided the PNP with its first taste of one-term government. The JLP won that election with a very slim majority of 32 members of parliament to the PNP's 31 members. A by-election on October 30, 2017 increased the JLP's majority to 33 members. Appendix F provides a breakdown of the changes in governments since 1962, and highlights the ministers and ministries with responsibility for sports.

Government's Gradual Involvement in Sport Policy

Under British Colonial rule, physical activities were emphasized in the school system and formal school competitions began in 1910 (Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture [MYSC], 2011). Additionally, community sport was encouraged and financially supported through youth clubs and social welfare groups. The 1947 National Development Plan for Jamaica highlights the input of the first representative government, which was formed in Jamaica with local politicians having a voice in charting the policies of the country (Government of Jamaica, 1947). This policy framework reflects the involvement of physical training instructors brought to Jamaica from the United Kingdom to improve the standard of physical training in the schools and colleges. They were asked to train teachers within the school system, and to develop training courses in physical recreation for community sports. These community sports organizations relied heavily on the limited infrastructure within the education system and it was not until

gaining self-government in 1957, that new long-term plans for national sporting infrastructures were developed in Jamaica (Government of Jamaica, 1958).

Prior to receiving independence, Jamaica had been selected to host the ninth Central American and Caribbean Games, and in 1960, commissioned the construction of the national stadium for these Games. This was the same venue which was eventually used for the transfer of power from the United Kingdom to Jamaica during an independence flag raising ceremony and the unveiling of the new national symbols. The construction of the national stadium at a cost of approximately £960,000 (Parliament of Jamaica, 1962) heralded the development of Independence Park, a sporting infrastructure which is still the central location for national sports in Jamaica. The development of Independence Park can be associated with the 1963-1968 long-term development programs for Jamaica, and falls within the independence plan for the new state (Parliament of Jamaica, 1967).

This national development plan included for the first time a specific chapter on sports. The chapter outlined “a systematic plan to achieve [this national development]”, and called for broadening the range of existing training and facilities, in addition to providing opportunities for the discovery of talent (Government of Jamaica, 1963, p.201). Having acknowledged the lack of adequate sporting facilities within communities and schools throughout the island, the government placed an emphasis on eight sporting activities (Government of Jamaica, 1963). Cricket and football (soccer) were highlighted as the most popular among the nation, but required a larger playing field, which was not readily available within the communities; these were also expensive to build and to maintain. Netball, basketball, volleyball, table-tennis, field events, and short-distance track events were to be encouraged and promoted concurrently with the national drive in the expansion of village services. It was the plan of the government to collaborate with the private, amateur and professional organizations in its efforts to provide this

range of sporting activities, and these efforts were to be coordinated through the Ministry of Development and Welfare with the Jamaica Social Welfare Commission having administrative responsibility. Three agencies within the social development structure were to organize island wide competitions and provide services in the national development program – these agencies were the Social Development Agency, the Youth Development Agency and the Sports Development Agency. The functions of the social development agency are still being conducted within the Social Development Commission (SDC). While the operations of the youth development agency, at present, are being carried out within the Ministry of Education, Youth and Information (MEYI). Function of the sport development agency was incorporated in the Sports Development Foundation (SDF), an agency within the Ministry responsible for sport, and has the funding for sports development as its overall mandate.

The 1963 roadmap developed as a part of the independence plan, illustrates the government's gradual move towards national sports policy, which included the enactment of legislation within other sectors that would eventually affect the administration of sports. And, although several sporting institutions were developed or reformed since independence, action towards a national sport policy was not approved until the 1990s. The following paragraphs will discuss the roles played by these sporting institutions in the implementation of national sport policy, and outline the government's collective effort in the administration and delivery of sport.

Administrative Framework

Figure 4-1 represents the current administrative structure for sport in Jamaica. This outlines a shift from a unit in the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM), to a full portfolio ministry. Under the PNP government of 2012-2016, a new approach was taken, where the Prime Minister retained portfolio responsibility, however, a Minister without portfolio managed the Sports Unit in the OPM (Toomer, 2015). This approach was seen as innovative among the wider society, as

it allowed for specific focus on the sporting industry by someone at the ranks of a Minister. This moved away from the practice, since receiving independence, of having the Minister overseeing several portfolios. Upon regaining power in 2016, the new JLP government reverted to the old way of having one portfolio Minister with responsibility for sports, among other portfolios, with the Sports Minister also carrying the portfolios of culture, gender, and entertainment.

It should be noted, however, that while also carrying several portfolios in her previous stint as the Minister, between 2007 and 2011, this current Minister began the review of the 1994 JSP, and formulated a green paper circulated in October 2011 for national discussion. The task to review and revise the 1994 JSP was handed to the PNP government when they won the December, 29, 2011 general election. The revised JSP was tabled by the then PNP government on March 25, 2013, as a white paper. This white paper established the government's current development framework for sport, proposed to have an implementation period from 2012 to 2022. The tabling of the white paper represents an enhancement of the previous JSP which was approved by parliament in June 1994 (these two policies will be comprehensively discussed in Chapter 5). In order to execute, monitor and evaluate the revised JSP, an all-encompassing administrative structure for sport was developed in March 2013, to ensure transparency, public accountability, and cost-efficient and effective implementation of the policy (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013). Majority of the 2013 administrative structure remains in place, and the only significant changes in the new and current 2016 structure are the changes in portfolio responsibilities, and an increase in the collaboration with other government ministries and agencies.

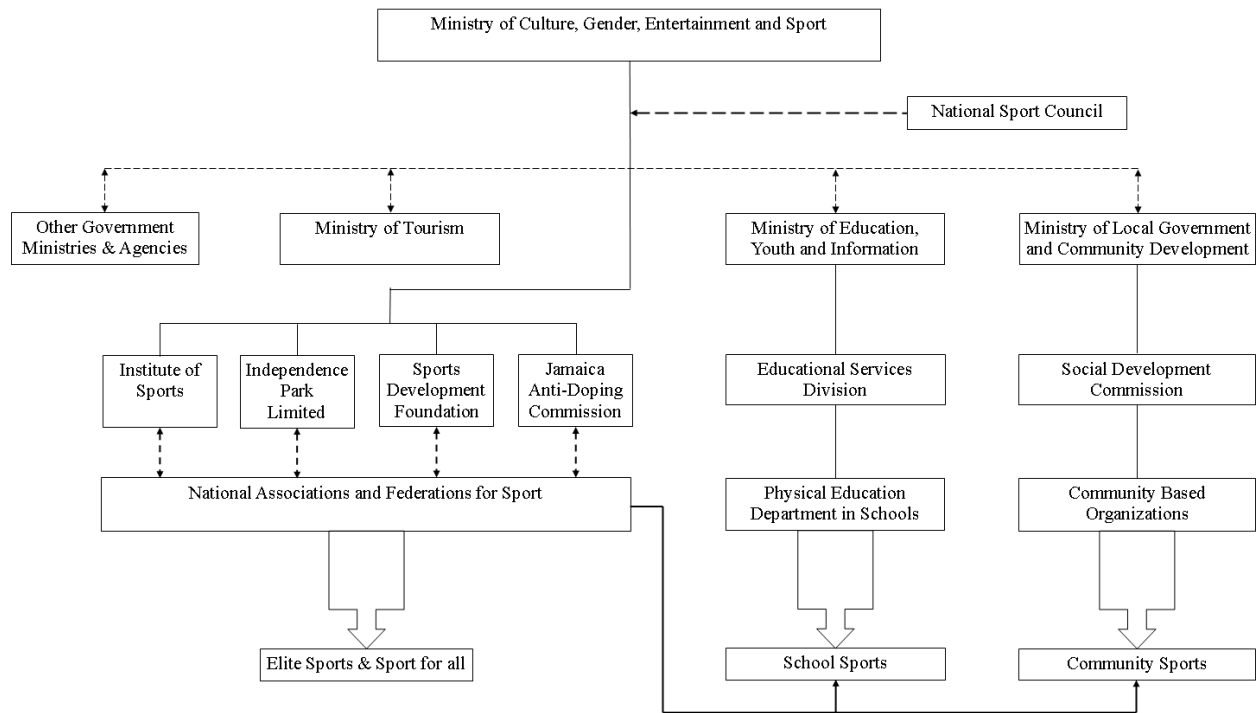


Figure 4-1. Administrative structure for sport in Jamaica as at March 2016.

Source: Adapted from Toomer (2015).

Sport, administered through the Ministry of Culture, Gender, Entertainment, and Sports (MCGES), and advised by an appointed National Sport Council (NSC), consist of members representing government ministries and agencies, and national institutions and organizations with an interest in the planning, directing and administration of sport. The Prime Minister is the chair of the NSC and the deputy chair is the minister with portfolio responsibility for sport. This national advisory council on sports is oftentimes inactive but reactivated when the need arises, and assists the government with the implementation and evaluation of the JSP, and the development of sport.

The MCGES develops policy on behalf of the government and collaborates closely with the Ministry of Education, Youth and Information (MEYI), the Ministry of Local Government and Community Development (MLGCD), and the Ministry of Tourism (MT), in the

administration of sport. This collaboration supports the government's efforts to continue to provide an avenue for sport, recreation and physical activity for the citizens. The MEYI has portfolio responsibility for the school sports system and develops the curricula for physical activities in schools, while training physical education teachers at the degree level for placement within the primary and secondary schools. The MLGCD has portfolio responsibility for the creation and implementation of policies for the community sports system. This ministry works in conjunction with community organizations to accomplish its mandate. The MT is responsible for portfolio matters relating to Sports Tourism, and leads the governments' effort in promoting 'Brand Jamaica'.

The MCGES also provides critical support to other ministries and agencies of government in its efforts to develop and provide policies geared towards better health, wellness and natural environment for physical activities. These other ministries and agencies may consider policies to control how green spaces are regulated and the application of the building codes within the construction of housing projects, in addition to the promotion of healthy lifestyles policies within society.

The government agencies under the direct supervision of the MCGES are the SDF, the Institute of Sports (INSPORTS), the Independence Park Limited (IPL) and the Jamaica Anti-Doping Commission (JADCO). These agencies are mandated to conduct the national implementation of sport policy and collaborate with all stakeholders for the island-wide development and administration of sport. As such, the MCGES and its agencies work with the autonomous national associations and federations to deliver and administer elite sports, and sport for all to the people of Jamaica. Furthermore, the national associations and federations also collaborate with the MEYI and the MLGCD to effectively deliver sports within the school system and the community system respectively.

Government Agencies

The government agencies implementing aspects of sport policy have been dedicated to the development of sport throughout the history of Jamaica, and the following paragraphs highlight their roles and functions in the administration of sport in Jamaica.

Social development commission (SDC). The SDC is an agency within the MLGCD. Throughout the long history of this organization which only became known as the SDC in 1965, due to several name and constitution changes. The SDC has the distinction of being the first organization to be established in Jamaica to provide self-help activities, and social welfare programs – an organization which was called Jamaica Welfare (JW). The core principle of JW, which was launched in 1937, was to provide for the improvement of the conditions for the people of Jamaica, with a specific focus on the peasantry. The success of this organization was noticed by the colonial administration only after a few years in operation and its model adopted by the British government to be introduced in the other West Indian colonies under the supervision of a Secretary for Social Welfare Services and funded from the Colonial Development and Welfare Funds (Government of Jamaica, 1947). The scheme developed by the people of the Jamaican colony was given legislative approval in 1943 under the condition that the organization be reconstituted. This was done and the name was changed to the Jamaica Welfare (1943) Limited. By 1949, the Jamaica Welfare Limited had evolved into a government agency through the Jamaica Social Welfare Commission Law with a mandate to empower the lives of the working peasantry, labourers and small settlers of and in Jamaica (Government of Jamaica, 1947). In 1965, the Jamaica Social Welfare Commission Act created the SDC with its current mandate.

At present the SDC works in 783 communities across the island with a mandate:

to promote, manage and control schemes for, and to do any act or thing which may directly or indirectly serve the advancement of sport; and the general interest and the social, cultural, or economic development of the people of the island and in particular the rural and urban workers. (Jamaica Social Welfare Commission Act, 1965, s7, 1a)

It is guided by the government's policies directed to ensuring economic growth, social development, public sector reform, and poverty reduction. This community development scheme utilizes several vehicles in designing and implementing programs to improve the lives of the citizens, with full involvement from the citizens within each community. The SDC acknowledges that sport can be a unifying force and a catalyst for encouraging, especially among the youth, a sense of community and national pride. Therefore, the SDC annually embark on capacity building training through community and national workshops, in addition to parish and national competitions in athletics and cricket, among other sporting disciplines.

Institute of sports. INSPORTS is currently an agency under the responsibility of the MCGES, and has undergone significant structural reformation since it was originally incorporated. It replaced the National Sports Limited (NSL) and was amalgamated with the division for sports development within the SDC and the sports division within the then Ministry of Youth, Sports and Community Development, as an agency of that ministry on April 1, 1978 (Parliament of Jamaica, 1979). This reform, seen as integral to the national development of Jamaica, occurred at a time when the PNP was practicing a political ideology of democratic socialism and had previously entered into bi-lateral agreements with the Republic of Cuba (Government of Jamaica, 1978). Prior to 1978, the NSL established a few years before independence, was an active agent for the advancement of sport in Jamaica.

With the establishment of INSPORTS, the Government of Jamaica, in its five-year development plan for 1978-1982, recognized that interest in sport had grown significantly across

the country and, as such, a new strategy for sport development nationally was required (Government of Jamaica, 1978). A new mandate was created for the institute, which was to administer and coordinate national sporting activities within two levels – first, the grassroots level where national programs can be implemented with social implications for the nation's health and recreation; and second, sport as a means for talent development at the national and international competitive level. To carry out this mandate, several divisions and sections were established at INSPORTS to support the national thrust in sport: Finance and Accounts, Security Operations, Facilities and Equipment, Sport Promotions, Physical Education and Training, and Sports Development.

Although this was the plan for INSPORTS, it has experienced several adjustments to its initial mandate since 1978, and a number of significant reforms to the structure have occurred. First, the island of Jamaica experienced a change in government on October 30, 1980. This election win for the JLP resulted in an adjustment in the relationship with Cuba and other socialist countries, leading to an alignment with the conservative United States and British governments. Although most of the divisions and sections of INSPORTS were retained by the JLP, funding was significantly reduced under a program of structural adjustment and deregulation. This resulted in the operations within the sport promotions section being significantly reduced from a unit that conducted international negotiations and preparations of bilateral agreements to one with a new focus only on the local promotion of sports.

The second adjustment to the mandate of INSPORTS was the completion of a sports school given as a gift by the People and Government of Cuba. This sports school was opened on September 11, 1980, several weeks before the October general election, and was named the G.C. Foster College for Physical Education and Sport. This new institution was established to train the physical education teachers for the primary and secondary school sports system and, as such, the

functions of the physical education and training section of INSPORTS were reduced.

Additionally, a sports medicine unit was to be located at this school, but its capacity was never fully explored due to budgetary restrictions and the change in political and social philosophy.

The role of the physical education and training section was reduced to only providing training and competitive opportunities for the citizens in schools and communities, while assisting with the mandate of unearthing talents and channelling these talents to the national sport program.

Currently, however, INSPORTS has changed this focus to the development of early childhood and primary students, as the SDC also provides a similar function within the communities.

While not occurring under the JLP government of the 1980s, the final two periods of reform within INSPORTS were of utmost significance to the changes in its original mandate. This period of reform occurred under the PNP government, which took office in 1989. These reforms in sports by the PNP government created the agencies comprising the current structure for the administration of national sport policy in Jamaica. The changes implemented by the PNP allowed for the third adjustment to the administrative structure of INSPORTS occurring in 1995, with the establishment of the SDF and resulted in the removal of some of the national sport development functions from the sports development division. As a result of the formation of the SDF, the functions of developing national short, medium and long term programs were no longer necessary, and the remaining operational services of organizing, developing and supervising competitions were amalgamated with the sport promotions division to create a branch which promotes sports at the grass-roots level through training programs and competitions.

The fourth and final adjustment occurred in October 2001, when the functions of managing the sports and recreational facilities at the Independence Park were removed from the facilities and equipment division and transferred to the IPL, a newly incorporated government company which operates as a proprietary business. Another key function of the facilities and

equipment division was the identification and acquisition of land space to be used as playing fields, and although some of this function remains in terms of grass-roots sports, the national initiative was removed to the SDF. It also still has the administrative responsibility for stimulating the local manufacture of sporting goods; however, the roles are not clearly defined and have been conflicting with the SDF. Following the many reforms within INSPORTS, the organization remains a viable contributor to the administration and implementation of sport policy in Jamaica.

Independence park limited. IPL was incorporated in October 2001 as a government owned company and is currently an agency under the responsibility of the MCGES. It manages the sporting facilities at the Independence Park in Kingston, which includes the national stadium, the national arena, the Olympic standard swimming and diving pools, the national indoor sports centre, and outdoor courts for volleyball, netball and basketball. In 2007, the IPL was given the responsibility to manage the Trelawny multipurpose stadium located in Western Jamaica, which was built to stage the opening ceremony and practice matches for the International Cricket Council World Cup jointly hosted by several islands within the Caribbean. Originally under INSPORTS, the responsibility of the IPL to manage and maintain the national sporting infrastructure was expanded to include a business model which created a proprietary function where the facilities will be operated and promoted as a revenue source. Several NSOs are tenants of the IPL and receive subsidized rental benefits for hosting its national and international competitions. The facilities are also open to the wider public for activities other than hosting sporting events.

Sports development foundation. The SDF is generally perceived as a direct result of the 1994 JSP; however, neither the sport policy nor the 1990-1995 national development plan mentioned anything about its establishment. Notwithstanding, the lack of stated plan for its

establishment, the agency has been supporting the development of sport over the past twenty-one years. It is an agency under the responsibility of the MCGES. It was established in 1995 as an institution to promote and support the following areas of sport development: (i) the advancement and growth of sporting talent and skill; (ii) the provision and enhancement of national physical infrastructure; and (iii) the implementation of social and economic policies and programs through sports. The SDF achieves its mandate with the provision of multi-purpose courts for netball, basketball and volleyball within the school-based and community sport systems. These multi-purpose facilities provide an infrastructure for training of athletes and a venue for hosting competitions. National sporting facilities are also assisted by the SDF with enhancements to these facilities undertaken in collaboration with the IPL and the NSOs. In addition, the NSOs will receive budgetary support from the SDF, such as: (i) assistance with the development of talented athletes; (ii) providing funding for national and international competitions; (iii) and administrative and operational expenses for the development of sport. The SDF also provides a direct support for elite athletes, coaches and administrators through the Athletes Welfare Fund. The SDF is exclusively funded by a lottery tax, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Jamaica anti-doping commission. Following the recognition of the 2003 Copenhagen Declaration on Anti-Doping in Sport and the 2005 International Convention against Doping in Sports, and being a signatory to these agreements, the Government of Jamaica officially created the JADCO with the passing of the Anti-Doping in Sport Act (2008). With this institution, the Jamaican government formally supported the World Anti-Doping Code and recognized the functions of the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA). JADCO's core principles reflect the government's national policies for sport and acknowledge that accountability, fairness and fair play, and general respect and hard work, are among the central principles throughout its educational campaign.

The JADCO is an agency under the responsibility of the MCGES. Its mandate is to advance a doping-free environment while promoting ethical decision-making in sports through education, testing, advocacy, and program creation and delivery. However, the operations at JADCO have experienced local and international scrutiny in the past regarding its drug testing process in and out of competition. Additionally, the levels of education provided to athletes were also being scrutinized. Following a November 2013 meeting with WADA, the government initiated changes to the operations at JADCO (Levy, 2013). These changes included filling vacant management and support personnel, appointing a new board of directors and an increase in budgetary support. While those 2013 changes showed levels of enhancement in public education across the country, a new round of scrutiny was experienced in 2017. The agency's method of collecting out-of-competition samples was questioned by the legal system, resulting in the dismissal of cases against elite athletes, and led to the intervention of the Board and its request for the removal of the Executive Director. Outside of the recent local challenges, the 2013 changes of increased anti-doping workshops are seen as significant improvements in the administration of JADCO mandates.

Funding Sport

Sport is funded in two ways in Jamaica – first, with the Government of Jamaica budgetary allocation from the consolidation fund, and second, with lottery tax disbursements collected by the Culture, Health, Arts, Sports and Education (CHASE) Fund – an agency in the OPM and disbursed through the SDF. Additionally, the government may seek and receive international funding for sport, which is provided to the country either as grants or as loans for special projects.

In the first instance for funding sports, the Government of Jamaica, in organizing its annual estimates, will prepare recurrent and capital budgets for the administration of sports

through its ministries and agencies, and these budgets are managed under the consolidation fund supervised by the Ministry of Finance and the Public Service (MFPS). These expenditures for sport generally cover administrative budgets and operational costs in allowing the government ministries and agencies to carry out the development and implementation of national policy. Strict controls are usually in place for the management of those resources coming from the consolidation fund. As a further structure for accountability, the Jamaican parliament, through its Public Administration and Appropriations Committee can ask any government agency to attend committee hearings to answer questions pertaining to the management of government funds.

Additionally, in the second instance for funding sports, the government enacted the Betting, Gaming and Lotteries Act of 1965, which was established to regulate betting and gaming operations and provide supervision for the licensed lottery providers and the gaming industry. As outlined in the 2002 amendment of the Act, taxes from the lottery are received by the government through the CHASE Fund. This lottery income is received by the government through the concept of taxes foregone, and the proceeds are disbursed to the various organizations created for its distribution (Betting, Gaming and Lotteries Act, 1965). For sport, 40 percent of the total CHASE Fund allocations are disbursed by the SDF. The SDF would then reallocate funds collected for sport as budget income for the foundation and grants to NSOs and some government agencies.

For example, Toomer (2015) showed that the CHASE Fund provided a total of J\$2.524 billion⁵ in lottery tax redistribution to the SDF for the period 2007-2012. With the exception of 2011, in which there was a slight decrease in lottery tax funding, the SDF had received a continuous increase in funding support for sport, with the most significant increase occurring in 2012 by approximately 25%, a move from J\$417.63 million to J\$531.71 million. This indicates a

⁵ The average exchange rate for 2007-2012 was J\$80 = 1CAD.

possible increase in lottery support in Jamaica. The total income for the SDF, as received from the CHASE Fund for the same period was highlighted as grants to NSOs and government agencies for sport. The reallocation to NSOs and government agencies represented approximately half of the funding received by the SDF, with the additional funds being spent on capital and recurrent administrative and operational expenses. Significant among these are the expenditures for infrastructure development in schools and communities. Over the period of review, Toomer (2015) found that financial grant support from the SDF to the NSOs amounted to an average contribution of J\$129.47 million; however, those allocations are not consistent across the board, and as such; the major sports received the bulk of the grants. While this paragraph provided an example, Chapter 5 will present a comprehensive assessment of the contribution of government funding to the development of elite sport, highlighting the funding of sport through the lottery tax from 1995-2017.

Not-for-profit and Commercial Sport

The administration and implementation of sport policy in Jamaica has been shown to take place within a complex and collaborative system (Toomer, 2015). This complex administrative system relies on the not-for-profit organizations to deliver policy objectives, and continues to acknowledge the exclusive responsibility of the NSO to develop and regulate its respective sports (Government of Jamaica, 1963; MYSC, 2011). Funding is provided to the NSOs; however, while this funding is given to the NSOs, the government currently does not have a legal mechanism to control how the funds are spent. In order to secure an annual subsidy, the NSOs should provide a development plan and an audited financial statement. To assist with compliance, the SDF conducts several annual workshops to educate the NSOs and emphasize the importance of the required documentations.

Being the responsible agency for the disbursement of sports funding, the SDF officially recognises 46 NSOs. In order to be acknowledged by the SDF, these NSOs have to be recognized by its international governing body and also the Jamaica Olympic Association. For the financial years 2007 to 2012, the SDF provided grants to 44 NSOs totalling J\$776.82 million (Toomer, 2015). From this, 73% of the total funding was given to ten NSOs. Football, cricket, athletics (track and field), and netball represented the top four leading sports in Jamaica and, between them, received 77% of the total contribution to the top ten listed institutions (Toomer, 2015). These NSOs also contributed to the management and organization of the commercial sporting industry in Jamaica.

This commercial sporting industry is considered semi-professional in nature because most sporting competitions are heavily reliant on amateur athletes. While Jamaica possesses internationally recognized professional athletes in several sporting disciplines, a report conducted by Vanus James (as cited in MYSC, 2011) highlighted that only the sport of horse-racing can be classified as a local commercial sporting industry, and this industry is regulated by the Jamaica Racing Commission Act (1972). Other sporting disciplines occasionally host tournaments with a commercial purpose, but cannot be considered major industry players. Several professional athletes compete in locally organized tournaments, but to generate the most income, they ply their trade in competitions outside of Jamaica. To represent the country, these athletes are either called-up or would return to the island for try-outs and selection to the national teams. For example, in the sports of netball and football (soccer), the top athletes are on professional contracts in other countries, and would be selected for national duties whenever necessary. Additionally, in the sport of athletics (track and field), athletes would compete in local competitions, mostly during the preparation stages, and compete internationally at meets for their income; however, in order to represent the country they will have to attend and compete in

national trials in order to make the team. Over the last 15 years, or so, the top four sporting organizations (football, cricket, athletics, and netball) have been developing their commercial offering through their national leagues and tournaments, with increased corporate sponsorship, and negotiated broadcast rights with local media organizations.

Prioritizing Public Policy and Funding for Sport

The Jamaican government recognizes sport as a powerful force in unifying the people, and could promote goodwill, tolerance, and activities for health and wellness (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013). However, sport is a relatively low budget priority for the government. For example, as demonstrated by Toomer (2015), the government's annual budget estimates from the consolidation fund for the period 2008/2009 to 2013/2014 for the ministries with responsibility for sport was 0.60% of the total recurrent budget. This moved from a high of 0.95% in 2008/2009 to a low 0.46% in 2013/2014; a reduction of approximately 41% and represents a decrease in budget of J\$1.198 billion. A significant change of note in terms of the budget reduction could be attributed to the then newly install PNP government in 2012, and the decision to establish the Sport Unit within the OPM, breaking up the Ministry of Youth, Sport and Culture. While the creation of the Sports Unit was noted as innovative by some members of society, Toomer (2015) highlighted the personal viewpoint of a member of the then Sports Unit. The member of the Sports Unit indicated that, although reducing the administrative budget for sport from the consolidated fund, it also resulted in a major reduction in administrative staff for sports. In fact, that move impacted the ability of the Sports Unit in formulating and implementing sport policy, in addition to effectively maintaining and evaluating the established policies. If sport is to be considered a contributor to gross domestic product, then an appropriate budget is required to fund the development of a national sporting industry (Toomer, 2015), especially through a combination of lottery funding and consolidated budgetary allocations. With

a change in government in 2016, and reverting to sport being included in a full ministry (Ministry of Culture, Gender, Entertainment and Sport), the priority of the government for sport remains unchanged in terms of public policy and funding.

Summary and Further Analysis

The objective of Study 1 was to explore the political, administrative, and financial systems established for the creation and delivery of sport development. The study examined the following research questions in relations to this objective: (1) How were the government structures created for sport policy?; (2) How does the government implement sport policy?; and (3) How is the government implementation of sport policy prioritized and financially supported?

To answer the first research question, two main concepts emerged from the results: 1) an historical account of the political system, and 2) the government's gradual involvement in sport policy. First, the historical account of the political system highlighted how the government structures were established in order to create sport policy. The government is the driver of sport policy, and within Jamaica, two political parties interchanged to form the government, since receiving independence from the United Kingdom in 1962. It was in the late 1930s and early 1940s, while Jamaica was still a British colony, that the two political parties were established, the People's National Party in 1938 and the Jamaica Labour Party in 1943. The political parties were established prior to the granting of universal adult suffrage (the right to vote) by the British government and the holding of the first parliamentary general elections on December 14, 1944. While this election gave the peoples of Jamaica the right to represent their interest in the legislature, it was not until 1957 that they would have self-government, and complete control over the policy decisions of the country. Around that time, in 1958, Jamaica became a member of the short-lived British West Indies Federation; by 1961 and following a national referendum, Jamaica withdrew from the regional grouping and moved instead towards independence. The

Jamaica Labour Party formed the first independent government and was responsible to establish the systems of government, and formulate and implement public policy.

The second concept outlined the government's gradual involvement in sport policy. The independent government inherited control over the school and community sport systems, which were earlier established by the British government to introduce physical activity programs in the schools and communities, and foster competition. So with immediate effect, the government was responsible to oversee these two sport systems, including its administration and funding support. In charting the governance plan for Jamaica, the fairly new government introduced a national development plan in 1963, and for the first time outlined a systematic plan for the sport sector by broadening the range of training facilities within the school and community sport systems. This move allowed for improved opportunities for the discovery of talent in sporting disciplines, such as, cricket, football (soccer), netball, basketball, volleyball, table tennis, field events and short-distance track events. Also included in the sport sector plan was a statement to collaborate with private, amateur, and professional organizations in its effort to provide a range of sporting activities, and this effort was to be coordinated through a government ministry, and dedicated government agencies.

In summary, the short answer to this research question is that, with the establishment of formal political parties to contest elections and form a government, authority was given by its citizens to create public policy. While some policies were inherited from the former colonial master (e.g., school sports and community sports) and required enhancements, other actions and decisions were taken through formal statements towards the development of sport, and required the establishment of government ministries and agencies to implement these government actions and decisions.

The second research question examined the administrative framework for the implementation of sport policy. The results highlighted the current structure for the administration of sport throughout the national system, and outlined that a government ministry is central to the development of sport. Therefore, once the decision to undertake a sport policy is made by government, that decision is tasked to the Ministry of Sport for formulation and implementation. The ministry would then engage its national sport council for guidance, before commencing on a consultative process with government and industry partners. Once a recommended policy is approved by the government, the sport policy is now formally tasked to the Ministry of Sport for management and implementation. In undertaking the implementation process, the Ministry of Sport coordinates with other government ministries and agencies, especially the Ministry of Education, Youth and Information – for school sports, the Ministry of Local Government and Community development – for community sports, and the Ministry of Tourism – for sport tourism efforts.

The results also highlighted the implementation strategy for the government in terms of ‘elite sport’ and ‘sport for all’. These two areas of the sport policy are coordinated by the Ministry of Sport through its mandated government agencies. These agencies would in turn, collaborate with the national associations and federations for sport, whose responsibility it was to deliver the actual development of the specific sporting discipline. These sporting organizations would develop and administer programs directed to the development of elite sport and sport for all efforts.

In summary, the short answer to this research question is that, once the decision to undertake sport policy is made by government, it is tasked to the Ministry of Sport for formulation and implementation. The ministry then engages all partners and recommends a sport policy for approval. Once the sport policy is approved, it is the responsibility of the Ministry of

Sport to coordinate and collaborate with all partners who may have specific mandated roles to undertake in the implementation process. While school sport and community sport are directly controlled by the government, elite sport and sport for all are controlled by the autonomous national associations and federations for sport.

The third research question examined the priorities for the implementation of sport policy, and how they are financially supported. Two main concepts emerged from the results: 1) policy priority, and 2) budgetary priority. In terms of policy priority, the government recognizes the value and impact of sport, whereby it can be a source for national development, and also a powerful force in unifying the society, while promoting goodwill, tolerance, and health and wellness activities. Therefore, from a policy perspective, sport is a high priority industry for national development. To that end, the government formulated and approved the first sport policy in 1994, some 32 years after establishing the government. Following the introduction of the 1994 sport policy, several agencies were established to implement the sport policy, and coordinate and collaborate with sport industry partners for the development of sport. Most significant among those agencies were the SDF, which was established to fund the development of sport. It took the government, another 19 years before the 1994 sport policy was revised, and it should be noted that it took a change of government for the revision process to commence. Although both political parties consider sport a high policy priority industry, the financial support through budgetary priority indicates a total opposite.

For the budgetary priority given to implementation of sport policy, it was found to be relatively low. Sport is funded in two ways in Jamaica. First, the general operational expenses for salaries and employee's emoluments are included in the budgetary allocation within the consolidation fund, and on occasions international funding from grants or loans for major capital projects are managed through the consolidation fund. Evidence indicates the Ministry of Sport,

which has to-date been linked to a super-ministry, and never a stand-alone ministry, receives among the lowest budgetary allocation for portfolio ministries. This low budgetary allocation suggests a low priority for sport, as the staffing in the Ministry of Sport is considered small in terms of its sport policy implementation mandates. The second source of funding comes in the way of lottery taxes collected by the CHASE Fund, through the concept of taxes foregone, and 40% from this fund is disbursed through the SDF towards the development of sport. This method of funding sport is supported by legislation, and is secured as long as the national lottery remains operational. The funding received by the SDF is then disbursed to fund partial budgets for approved national associations and federations for sport, especially the administrative expenses. Additionally, special allocations are made to these associations and federations towards the development needs for its sport, especially periods surrounding major national or international competition or events.

In summary, the short answer to this research question is that, while sport policy is considered a high priority for the government, from a budgetary policy perspective the allocations for sport policy implementation remain a low priority. Two ways of funding sport policy implementation were found, and while the direct funding from the government annual budget was low when compared to other portfolio ministries, the funding from the national lottery was the only real source for funding the national development of sport.

The objective from this study contributes the foundational evidence in answering the thesis purpose. This study found that the roots of Jamaica's sport development began with the planned or unplanned introduction of school sport and community sport by the former colonial British government. With the right to vote, the Jamaican people established a democratic government, which allowed for the creation of ministries and agencies to formulate and implement public policy priorities, and to evaluate inherited policies. In the Jamaican case, the

government maintained the inherited school and community sport policies, and made provisions for enhancement, funding, and collaboration with sport industry partners for continued delivery. Table 4-1, provides a graphical representation of the objective, research questions, and study results as a means of contributing to the overall answering of the thesis purpose.

While this chapter provided a historical account of the political structure, the governments’ gradual involvement in sport policy, the administrative framework for sport, and the policy and funding priorities for sport policy implementation, what is crucial to the continued discussion is a better understanding of the contribution of the JSP. The institutions established to develop and implement the national thrust for sport have been outlined, and while some examples of funding support for sport were mentioned, the next chapter expands on the discussion of funding for sport, and explores the financial support through the SDF from 1995-2017. Additionally, the next chapter draws on the perspective of participants within the sporting industry to provide a first-hand account of the governments’ contribution to the development of selected sporting disciplines, and more specifically, the development of elite sport.

Table 4-1

Graphical Representation of Study 1 Contribution to Thesis Purpose

Thesis Purpose:		
To explore the development of elite sport through national sport policy, within a developing country.		
Objective #1:		
To explore the political, administrative, and financial systems established for the creation and delivery of sport development.		
Research Questions	Results	Contribution to Thesis Purpose
S ₁ RQ ₁ : How were the government structures created for sport policy?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal political parties contested elections to form a government, with authority to create public policy. • Some policies were inherited from the former colonial government (e.g., school sports and community sports) and required enhancements. • Other actions and decisions were taken 	This study found that the roots of Jamaica’s sport development began with the planned or unplanned introduction of school sport and community sport by the former colonial British

	<p>through formal statements towards the development of sport.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government ministries and agencies were established to implement these government actions and decisions. 	<p>government. With the right to vote, the Jamaican people established a democratic government, which allowed for the creation of ministries and agencies to formulate and implement public policy priorities, and to evaluate inherited policies. In the Jamaican case, the government maintained the inherited school and community sport policies, and made provisions for enhancement, funding, and collaboration with sport industry partners for continued delivery.</p>
<p>S₁RQ₂: How does the government implement sport policy?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government decides to formulate and implement sport policy. • The Ministry of Sport engages all partners and recommends a sport policy for approval. • Approved sport policy is mandated to the Ministry of Sport to coordinate and collaborate with all implementation partners. 	
<p>S₁RQ₃: How is the implementation of sport policy prioritized and financially supported?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sport policy is considered a high priority. • Budgetary allocations for sport policy implementation remain a low priority. • Sport policy implementation is funded by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (a) Governments' annual budget, and (b) National lottery as the real source for funding the development of sport. 	

CHAPTER 5: Results – Government Contribution to the Development of Elite Sports

The actions or inactions of governments can facilitate and influence modes of development within a nation (Pal, 2010). These modes, typically through public policy when implemented directly by the bureaucracy or implemented through public-private partnerships can result in a perception of policy success or failure. Additionally, the direct actions by private actors can also influence modes of development within a nation, oftentimes without government direction or support. In the context of the development of elite sport, guidance has been provided through the works of De Bosscher and colleagues (e.g., De Bosscher et al., 2006, 2015; De Bosscher, Bingham et al., 2008), which suggest that elite sport policies can lead to international sporting success. These elite sport policies, made at the meso-level where the actions of government influenced directly through inputs, such as, financial support or decisions taken towards national development, and leading to the attainment of stated national outputs and outcomes. De Bosscher and colleagues (2015), Houlihan and Green (2008), and Houlihan (2014b) also advised that in addition to sport policy factors at the meso-level, macro- and micro-level factors should be acknowledged, in the analysis of sport policy, as the combination makes for increased opportunities for international sporting success.

Therefore, the objective of Study 2 was to explore how the national sport system contributed, if any, to the development of sporting disciplines capable of achieving the national outcomes. The study examines the following research questions in relation to this objective: (1) How has the development of elite sport evolved up to 2017?; (2) What were the sport policies formulated for the development of elite sport?; and (3) How has the government input through financial support contributed to the development of elite sport in an effort to achieve the stated sport policy outcomes? The following sections will outline the results of this study.

Important Milestones in the Development of Elite Sport

For Jamaica, several important national milestones have allowed for the development of sport, and in particular, elite sport, and Table 5-1 highlights four distinct periods indicating important milestones of national development. The four periods: prior to 1962, 1962-1993, 1994-2012, and 2013-2017 represents the colonial and post-colonial connection to the United Kingdom. An analysis on the development of elite sport would not be complete, without first highlighting aspects, which would have facilitated the shift from broad-base participation to high-performance sports. The following sections outlines the development of the national sport system in Jamaica through a discussion on the creation and establishment of NSOs and governing bodies, in addition to several agencies, commissions and acts of legislation.

Prior to 1962

The year 1962 represents a critical shift in the national development of the small Caribbean island. As mentioned previously, Jamaica received its independence from the United Kingdom on August 6, 1962, which epitomizes the conclusion of over two decades of progress, moving from universal adult-suffrage in 1943 and general elections in 1994, to full self-government by 1957 (Toomer, 2015). As a colony, Jamaica benefitted from the introduction of several forms of industries (e.g., agriculture, mining, health, education, sport, etc.) to the island. For the purposes of this study, the education and sport industries will receive special mention in respect to the development of elite sport in Jamaica. The education and sport industries have undergone different levels of development, but the sectors have experienced a symbiotic relationship since the introduction of formal educational institutions in Jamaica (Sherlock & Bennett, 1998; Robinson, 2009). Additionally, it provided the catalyst for the school sport system, the community sport system, and the elite sport system; and with these systems

Table 5-1.

Selected Milestones in the Development of Elite Sport

Year	National Milestone
Before 1962	As a colony, several institutions were created by volunteers and government: NSOs and governing bodies, and national agencies were established during the period of self-government
1962 – 1993	
1962	Independence Park – Home of the National Stadium
1965	Social Development Commission (SDC)
1965	Betting, Gaming & Lotteries Act
1972	Jamaica Racing Commission Act
1975	Betting, Gaming & Lotteries Commission
1978	Institute of Sports (INSPORTS)
1980	G. C. Foster College for Physical Education & Sport
1989	National Council on Sports
1991	Sports Development Agency Limited
1994 – 2012	
1994	Jamaica Lottery Company Limited
1994	National Sport Policy
1995	Sports Development Foundation (SDF)
2001	Independence Park Limited (IPL)
2001	Supreme Ventures Limited
2002	Culture, Health, Arts, Sports & Education (CHASE) Fund
2003	World Anti-Doping Programme and the World Anti-Doping Code
2005	Jamaica Anti-Doping Commission (JADCO)
2008	Anti-Doping in Sports Act
2011	Guideline for the Hosting of International Sporting Events
2011	Green Paper – National Sport Policy
2012	Report on the National Sport Policy Green Paper
2012	White Paper – National Sport Policy approved by Cabinet
2012	Sports Tourism Implementation Committee (STIC)
2013 – 2017	
2013	White Paper – National Sport Policy tabled in Parliament
2013	High School Sport Infrastructure Improvement Programme (HSSIIP)
2014	JAMAICA Sport (JAMSPORT)
2015	Anti-Doping in Sports Act, 2014
2015	National Sport Museum
2015	Stipend for Elite Athletics Athletes
2016	Jamaica Athlete Insurance Programme (JAIP)
2017	Supreme Ventures Racing & Entertainment Limited (SVREL)

established, the systems of government would not be far behind. The combination of all these systems makes up the national sport system; and the following sections will outline its development.

The school system, sport and the community. Since the introduction of the formal school system in Jamaica, the institution of the school became the focal point within the community, it situates (Sherlock & Bennett, 1998). While the main function of the institution of the school is to educate students, the vast lands making-up and surrounding these institutions, provided space to partake in sporting activities introduced to the school system by the colonial master. The British government introduced sports in the schools, such as cricket, football (soccer), and athletics (track and field), to facilitate physical activity exercises, and the school facility became the location for not only the students to be engaged, but also the wider community to be included in the activities within these institutions (Franklyn, 2010; Sherlock & Bennett, 1998). With the introduction of formal sport in schools, competition became the natural occurrence, and as such, internal competition among houses were established. Participant #2 confirmed the “competition among schools were organized externally, with the formation of the Inter-Secondary Schools Championship Sports”. This governing body was renamed the Inter-Secondary Schools Sports Association (ISSA), which was, and is still managed by high school principals (Lawrence, 2010). The first championships for boys in athletics was held in June 1910, and there are some evidence to support an athletic championships for girls in 1914 (Lawrence, 2010). Additionally, the first football competition for the Manning Cup held in 1914.

A policymaker in this study has classified these competitions within, and among educational institutions as the springboard for elite sport, and suggested that:

It is out of these competitions that our elite team develop and this is what now many countries in the world are trying to find out, how is it that a country with so little financial

resource have so much talent. Also, the development of sport goes hand in hand with the development of modern Jamaica because a lot of how the country developed, sport was one of those things that kept our people together that provided opportunities in ways, and in places where those opportunities even for education and for upward mobility did not exist. (Participant #13)

As the same Policymaker opined, the competitions in the school system played a major role in the development of elite sport, as the high school competitions, especially in athletics, has developed for more than a century, and has been tried and tested in the preparation of athletes eventually moving to the ranks of the junior and senior elite levels. It is from the experiences of school sports, that the government in the 1940s established an agency (Jamaica Welfare, later the Social Development Commission) to manage and implement policies for the development of community sports (Toomer, 2015). One such policy resulted in physical education teachers sent to Jamaica, from the United Kingdom for a dual purpose of engaging in physical activities in the school system, and developing physical activities within the communities (Government of Jamaica, 1947). And as a former elite athlete explained, community sports “was built upon a lot of youth clubs and all these youth clubs used to play sports in all sports, not just track and field, so one would say yes, the government organize that” (Participant #21).

Therefore, before 1962, Jamaica had already experienced several decades of sport participation at the grassroots level within communities, and at the school sport level with intense national competitions, which helped to display top talents from different sporting disciplines. Athletics and football, however, were the most organized and well supported across the nation, and unlike other sporting disciplines, those two sports had already put in place a formal NSOs to manage the sport and be Jamaica’s representative internationally for the sport.

Formation of NSOs. As one participant observed above, there was a correlation, which ties the development of sport with the development of modern Jamaica. This observation received support from a sport administrator, who indicated that the leadership within NSOs prior to 1962, had imagination, which allowed for the development of sport, “because of their love for the sport and need to see how sport developed into the future” (Participant #2). Among the early NSOs established prior to 1962, was the Jamaica Football Federation in 1910, the Jamaica Amateur Athletic Association in 1932, the Jamaica Table Tennis Association in 1945, and the Jamaica Netball Association in 1958. While these organizations were not able to officially become affiliated to its respective International Governing Body until after 1962, Jamaica as a British colony attained membership to the International Olympic Committee in 1936, through the Jamaica Olympic Association and the efforts of several notable private actors.

Membership in the International Olympic Committee, provided an opportunity for the small island colony to be able to compete formally on the world stage, and several participants in this study highlighted the role of one significant private actor, Norman Manley, in helping to establish the governance structures of early sporting organizations. Norman Manley, a respected lawyer, founder of the People’s National Party, the second Chief Minister and first Premier of Jamaica, and later to be named a national hero was an avid student-athlete (Bertram, 2010a, 2010b; Robinson, 2009). In discussing Norman Manley’s role, one sport administrator contributed that:

I think we all recognize that Jamaica first participated in the Olympic Games in 1948. However, prior to that, bodies such as the Jamaica Amateur Athletic Association, the Boxing Board, and the Olympic Committee were all formed through the instrumentality of people like Norman Manley, Harry Days, and others. Particularly Norman Manley who was involved in athletics, boxing, and the Olympic Movement and recognized that if

sport was to develop on the international field, you had to have a formal structure. By understanding the formal international structures, Norman Manley was able to draft many of the original constitutions that formed those bodies that give us our current structure.

(Participant # 2)

NSOs such as, the Jamaica Amateur Athletic Association, and governing bodies such as, the Jamaica Olympic Association, both benefitted from the leadership of private actors who recognized and volunteered their efforts for the development of sport. Interestingly, Norman Manley was also instrumental in establishing government agencies for the advancement of sport. Therefore, these NSOs represented the local governance of sport, and provided an affiliation to international governing bodies, that formalized Jamaica participation at elite sporting competitions.

The root of government agencies for sport. In receiving the right to vote in the early 1940s, and the opportunity to elect local politicians to represent the interest of nationals, Jamaicans embarked on a process of self-determination, which arrived with independence. However, prior to becoming an independent nation under the leadership of national heroes such as, Alexander Bustamante and Norman Manley, Jamaica initiated a number of strategies in forwarding national development. Two major decisions had a profound impact on the development of sport in general, and elite sport in particular. First, the establishment of Jamaica Welfare and its subsequent institutional reforms, leading up to the Social Development Commission. Second, the creation of the National Sports Limited and its subsequent institutional reforms, leading up to the establishment of several current government agencies for sport.

For the first decision, Jamaica Welfare, established in 1937 and reconstituted in 1943, and as mentioned in chapter four, focused on the improvement of the Jamaican peasant communities through social welfare activities. Activities, which included adult educational

programs, the development of cooperative societies, a cottage-industry program, the formation of youth clubs, among other activities, provided for several mediums for community improvement. The formation of youth clubs are of particular importance to the development of sport, as it would be through these organizations, that the government would facilitate training courses and activities, such as, “physical culture, hand-work, games, cooking, dramatics, singing, discussion groups, etc.” (Government of Jamaica, 1947, p. 23). These activities, organized by a Club Leaders Council, included a government-funded Supervisor of Physical Training attached to the Education Department of the government, and was responsible for training courses in physical recreation (Government of Jamaica, 1947). From those early beginnings, the government introduced sports competitions within the communities, with the focus of youth clubs to not only take part in inter-parish competitions, but also represent the parish at national finals (Government of Jamaica, 1947). Participant #21 added “it was through youth clubs established by government through the SDC where several Olympians were identified”. These early sport development activities were central to the Independent Governments’ planning. A planning process that resulted in several institutional changes to Jamaica Welfare, and its ultimate reformation into the Social Development Commission in 1965, with specific mandate for its contribution to community development through sports, among other developmental mandates.

The second decision, the creation of the National Sports Limited in the late 1950s, provided the government an institution capable of handling the construction of sports facilities for national sport development. Additionally, this government-owned company would oversee the day-to-day management and maintenance of the newly constructed facilities (Parliament of Jamaica, 1962). With knowledge of hosting the ninth Central American and Caribbean Games in 1962, and the British Empire and Commonwealth Games in 1966, the government through National Sports Limited constructed the sports facilities required to host these international

events. The construction took place between 1960 and 1966, and included the national stadium, the national arena, stadium-east warm-up track, and the national swimming and diving pools – known together as Independence Park. In 1978, after many years of accumulated deficits, the government made the decision to incorporate the National Sports Limited with the newly created Institute of Sports (Parliament of Jamaica, 1979).

The two decisions outlined in this section represents the root of government agencies for sport, highlighting the beginning stage of formal development in sport. Jamaica Welfare and the National Sports Limited provided the foundation for community sport and the development of national facilities for hosting international competitions. The next stage of the important milestones in the development of elite sport outlines government decisions between independence and the introduction of national sport policy.

1962–1993

By receiving independence on August 6, 1962, Jamaica began a path of complete self-government and self-determination, and 1962 represented a critical shift in the national development of the small Caribbean island. The building of the National Stadium for the hosting of the Central American and Caribbean Games was a symbol of pride for the government, as it provided a large venue to celebrate one of, or the most important milestones for Jamaica (Government of Jamaica, 1963). The stadium represented the achievement of a major infrastructure development mandate for the Government of Jamaica, and the completion of the construction of Independence Park in 1966, solidified that mandate. Therefore, the development of elite sport experienced during the period of 1962–1993, can be broken down into three decisional milestones of the new independent government: 1) infrastructure development for sports; 2) formalizing sport in the government agenda; and 3) setting the stage for sport development. The next section discusses these milestones.

Infrastructure development for sports. Prior to 1962, the only major sporting facilities in Jamaica were the Sabina Park built in 1895 for hosting mainly cricket events, and the Kingston Race Course founded in 1783, which was located at the current site of the National Heroes Park, and built for racing horses. In 1905, a new horseracing track constructed at Knutsford Park. Located in Kingston, these facilities represented the main sporting interest of the government of day. By 1962, the now independent nation of Jamaica had built a new National Stadium that carried approximately 35,000 seats, media boxes, private suites and royal box, medical facilities, meeting rooms, and office space for use by NSOs (Parliament of Jamaica, 1969). When the stadium hosted its first sporting event – The ninth Central American and Caribbean Games in 1962, competitions in track and field, and cycling (on the concrete velodrome) took place. Warm up for the track and field events took place at the adjacent facility called Stadium East. In the centre of the track, is a FIFA regulated football pitch. Also built to host the Central American and Caribbean Games was the National Swimming and Diving pool. To host the 1966 British Empire and Commonwealth Games, the swimming pool underwent modification from meters to yards, and satisfied all international standards. In addition to the stadium, the National Arena was completed and opened in 1963, and accommodated 6000 seats. The Arena hosted all the Weightlifting and Wrestling events, among others events. Surrounding the sporting complex of Independence Park, were more than adequate levels of parking spaces, for patrons of the facilities.

The facilities at Independence Park, managed and maintained by the National Sports Limited between 1962 and 1978, transferred in 1978 to the newly established Institute of Sports, a government agency, created for the development of sport. The infrastructure development at Independence Park remains the central facilities for the hosting of elite sporting competitions, including its newest facility, the National Indoor Sports Complex built in 2003 to host the

International Federation of Netball Associations World Championships. It is through these facilities at Independence Park, especially the National Stadium and the National Arena, Jamaica has been able to provide for high level local competition in several sporting disciplines, and the hosting of international elite competitions and tournaments. While the development of the sporting complex, especially the National Stadium, are now identified as instrumental in Jamaica's elite sport development, the initial plan were not readily accepted by the wider society.

As a sport journalist highlighted:

When we started building the national stadium back in 1960, the populous as a whole were not sold on the idea of having the facility. They thought Norman Manley was crazy when he proposed the idea of building a national stadium. Over fifty years later, it remains the only real national stadium in Jamaica, and it tells you where our thinking is, and has always been as a nation. (Participant #22)

Therefore, although the wider society were sceptical about this development, the completion of some of these sporting facilities in 1962 began a formalizing process for sport in Jamaica, and the government supported infrastructure development with efforts for national development.

Formalizing sport in the government agenda. The efforts of the Jamaican government towards the development of sport began with infrastructure development prior to receiving independence. However, the development of facilities also received formal support, with the inclusion of a chapter dedicated to the national development of sport (Government of Jamaica, 1963). The Five Year Independence Plan, which covered the years 1963–1968, emphasised the importance that sport can play in the national development of the new nation. As a former elite athlete stated:

We had a minister with responsibility for sport and culture, and before I left Jamaica, Mr. Seaga was in charge. I think he later became the finance minister, but in those days, he

knew the value of it [sport], he knew the worth and he contributed to its development.

(Participant #21)

Mr. Edward Seaga, then Minister of Development and Welfare and in later years, Prime Minister, had responsibility for authoring the independence plan for Jamaica, but more importantly, became the instrumental government official in the development of elite sport for the newly independent Jamaica (Government of Jamaica, 1963). The inclusion of a chapter for sport in the independence plan meant that for the first time, a sitting government was formally recognizing sport as an industry. The 1963–1968 independence plan provided the following statement:

The major efforts in sports activity are based on the programs of numerous private amateur and professional organizations covering the full range of sporting interests. Many of these organizations are recognized by world ruling associations, and they actively engage in regulation and development of sports and are exclusively responsible for selection of national teams. Government of Jamaica, 1963, p. 201)

Through this statement, the government acknowledged the role of NSOs in the development of sport, and clearly indicating that these organizations has complete autonomy over the administration of its sporting discipline. As a sport administrator concluded:

One of the things we benefit from in Jamaica is this respect for all. You'll have this situation where in other countries the state controls all of these things and their limitations and restrictions, when you have state control. We must acknowledge that we have this wonderful combination of a strong, private, driven set of activities, endorsement from the government, policies that will ensure government support and enhancements and the combination of all these things make us enjoy the success that we do enjoy.

(Participant #2)

The independence plan also stated that, “any development program for sports must extend the range of existing facilities, as well as broaden opportunities for discovery of talent, and provide training” (p. 201). With this policy statement, the government a systematic plan for the achievement of this development strategy. Chief among them was the establishment of a Sports Development Council, which coordinated government efforts with the private sports organizations (Government of Jamaica, 1963). Additionally, the government mandated the Youth Development Agency to lead all efforts in terms of community sport development, and established a Sports Development Agency for the administration of the development of a national sports program. Both these agencies became departments in 1965 with the creation of the Social Development Commission, established to conduct the community development efforts of the government.

In addition to the Social Development Commission, the government introduced several legislations that had an impact on the development of sport. The Betting, Gaming and Lotteries Act in 1965, the Jamaica Racing Commission Act in 1972, and the establishment of the Betting, Gaming and Lotteries Commission in 1975. These legislations and commissions, allowed for the regulation of betting and gaming, principally for the horseracing industry, but were instrumental as they later facilitated the introduction of the national lottery system, formally in 1991. With the legal fundamentals established, the government embarked on the creating institutions for sport development. The next section discusses these institutions.

Setting the stage for elite sport development. Between 1978 and 1993, the Government of Jamaica introduced three critical milestones, later found to be integral in the development of sport in the small island nation. These milestones, first, had an impact on the institutional capacity for the administration of sport nationally; second, enabled training and development of

qualified coaches; and third, re-established an advisory body to support the government objectives.

In the first milestone, the government established the Institute of Sports in 1978, and amalgamated the administration of sport. The National Sports Limited was carrying annual deficits, and it became necessary to establish a single entity to implement all government policies and programs for the development of sport in Jamaica (Parliament of Jamaica, 1979).

Additionally, the division for sport development within the Social Development Commission also shifted to the Institute of Sports, along with the division for sport within the ministry with responsibility for sports (Toomer, 2015). This created an institute modelled from lessons learnt from the Cuban government (Government of Jamaica, 1978). Chief among the institutes mandate was the unearthing of talent, capable of being trained to compete and represent the country; however, this mandate mainly occurred at the grassroots level, as the high school system of talent identification and development had many years of practice, and an organization that provided governance and administration, that is, the Inter-Secondary Schools Sports Association (ISSA). As a policymaker noted:

While the Institute of Sports had the role to identify and unearth talent, it worked primarily at the elementary school level, and in communities. Their responsibility for secondary schools abdicated to ISSA, which is made primarily of Principals of junior and senior high schools. (Participant # 13)

This abdication meant that those talented athletes attending and competing in high school competitions, supported and nurtured by the schools, and when identified for national representation, received guidance and training by the school system and the NSOs. As outlined in chapter four, the government lead by the People's National Party had major objectives for the Institute of Sports; however, with the change of government in 1980, several operational

objectives did not receive funding support, and the institute underwent several periods of reform. The institute still maintains its functions as a government agency for sport development, although majority of its original objectives over-time shifted to other departments and agencies within government. It continues its mandate of identifying and unearthing talent, and credits itself for attracting and displaying the early talents of several elite athletes.

The second milestone, the establishment of the G.C. Foster College for Physical Education and Sport, a gift of the Cuban government in 1980, provided an educational institution for the training and development of coaches, placed in the primary and secondary schools as physical education teachers and coaches. As a sport scientist highlighted:

Coming out of the G.C. Foster College was a major pool of coaches, deployed into high schools all over the island, where they were able to spread information and knowledge, and increased the technical skills and capacity of coaches. These coaches, now located throughout the island, started to produce athletes, so instead of just pockets of schools producing talented athletes, like those located mostly in the urban areas, we started to see athletes coming out of some of the rural schools, some of the lesser-known schools.

(Participant # 1)

The establishment of the G.C. Foster College not only allowed for “the creation of approximately 90% of coaches in the school systems,” as a policymaker (Participant #13) opined, but the educational institution also provided an access to sporting facilities for training and competition. As a bureaucrat indicated, “Thanks to the Cubans, the G.C. Foster College provided for greater competition on quality surfaces, and access to technical training, especially in track and field, that developed a plethora of qualified, highly trained coaches” (Participant # 17). Therefore, while the G.C. Foster graduated physical education teachers and coaches capable of guiding

students in several sporting disciplines, track and field was compulsory for all students. As a former elite athlete indicated:

The local association for track and field played a role in advising the government on the establishment of the G.C. Foster College, and I think we have move leaps and bounds. It was the greatest thing for sports in Jamaica when we got the college, and in its curriculum, emphasize that the college first produced teachers, then coaches, and then administrators. Therefore, I think the college played a great role in terms of our development, which also assisted all associations, because then you were turning out not only track and field specialists, but also graduates knowledgeable about several sports.

(Participant # 21)

The establishment of the G.C. Foster College was an instrumental milestone in the development of sport, in general, and elite sport in particular, as the educational institution trained and developed the coaches that attracted, nurtured, and trained majority of the elite athletes across Jamaica. Most significantly, these are the coaches that identifies the talented athletes from all age groups, and direct them to proper channels to development their talents. Furthermore, the results from these talented athletes provided the catalyst for the policy objectives of the government, leading to the creation of supporting systems to forward a national development of sport.

The third milestone, the establishment of a National Council on Sports in 1989, and its reconstitution in 1992, was the government's attempt to create an advisory body of members responsible for the development of sport within their own organizations. Although, from as early as 1963, the government created a Sports Development Council, this was the first time that such a body was established and chaired by the Prime Minister, and included as the deputy, the minister with responsibility for sport. Also on the National Council were members of government agencies and departments, local sport governing bodies, NSOs, media, and private

sector, among others (Ministry of Youth, Sport & Culture [MYSC], 2011). At the time of its creation, the Council had three purpose: 1) to advise government on sports policy; 2) to assist in developing consensus about policy; and 3) to ensure coordination and monitoring of activities in keeping with national sports policy (Ministry Paper 17/94, as cited in MYSC, 2011, p. 57). As a former elite athlete confirmed:

I was involved in the first draft [1994 JSP] because I was on the National Sports Council at the time when it was formed, 92 - 93 or there about, so we were involved in the first draft, and I remember one of the main aims that we had in it then was to make sure that all schools had a physical education teacher and at the time GC Foster was there so we knew that was possible but one wanted to have it in the sports policy because if you left it up to the principals, you wouldn't have a sports program at all so then we kind of mimic the Cuban policy which was that if you didn't have a physical education teacher to a school whether primary or high school then you could have an itinerant teacher which is, group the school in a cluster and then you have one physical education teacher who is qualified to rove around the schools. (Participant #21)

Although, the establishment of the Council became public among the wider sporting industry in 2011, Jamaica introduced a national sport policy in 1994, and between 1991 and 1994, introduced mechanisms that provided funding support for sport development through the national lottery. Additionally, the government also actively prepared for the establishment of government bodies for the distribution of funds provided by the lottery.

Therefore, the three sections outlined in this stage of the selected milestones highlighted a direct effort on the part of government towards the development of sport. Although, throughout these advancements, the government did not have a formal sport policy document, the decisions and actions indicate an incremental path towards enhancing and advancing the national

development of sport. Developing the infrastructure through the National Sports Limited, formalizing the government agenda in the first national development plan, legislating the regulatory systems, and creating institutions, and agencies and departments for sport development, the government implemented critical milestones towards establishing a sporting industry in Jamaica. The next stage of the selected milestones, 1994–2012, discusses these developments.

1994–2012

With several important milestones in place by the end of 1993, the government began a new thrust in the development of sport for Jamaica, in 1994. After setting the stage for sport development, three distinct categories emerged, which incorporated a number of milestones. First, the creation of a formal policy for sport development; second, the establishment of government agencies for sport development; and third, aligning with international standards. The next section discusses these categories and milestones.

Creating a formal policy for sport development. In this category, two indications toward a policy shift towards sport development were evident. First, the government in its 1990–1995 national development plan affirmed its commitment to enhancing a national plan for the development of sport (Government of Jamaica, 1990). This development plan articulated the role of several public and private institutions in the formulation of a policy framework. Additionally, the development plan indicated the following objectives (Government of Jamaica, 1990, p. 128):

- Providing the widest possible opportunity to achieve mass participation in sports activities for enjoyment, for healthy living and for achievement at the competitive level
- Optimizing the use of sports development as an instrument in the process of nation building

To achieve its objectives the government named the Institute of Sports and the G.C. Foster College as the main catalysts to (Government of Jamaica, 1990, p. 128):

- Revitalize sport and physical education programs in the school system
- Develop sport at the grass-root level
- Support and facilitate the mounting of sports competition at national and international levels

The 1990–1995 national development plan outlined several strategies for implementation through the Institute of Sports and the G.C. Foster College (Government of Jamaica, 1990, p. 128):

- Infrastructure Development by
 - Strengthening the institutional capabilities at the two government agencies
 - Refurbishing and maintaining play fields in the school system and at community centres
 - Establishing urban sports centres island wide
 - Initiating sports development programs at the national and international levels
 - Restoring the stadium complex and parish sports complexes
- Support Services to include
 - A program for the establishment of proper sports medicine facilities for members of Jamaica's national teams
 - Exploring the possibility of introducing sports medicine into the medical training offered at the University of the West Indies
 - Improving the diet of athletes
 - Targeting physical education from the primary to tertiary education levels to support the objectives of the plan and prepare young persons for careers in sports

- Training by
 - G.C. Foster College to offer diploma courses for physical education teachers and coaching for practicing teachers, and certificate/diploma courses in coaching or physical education
 - Beach Control Authority for the certification of lifeguards, and the Institute of Sports and the Amateur Swimming Association will implement an island wide program to teach swimming to targeted young person

These three strategies outlined an operational plan for the government. The development plan also indicated that the Institute of Sports would be responsible for the expansion of sport in Jamaica, and the Ministry of Education was responsible for this expansion through the school system with priority given to the age group of 6-18 years (Government of Jamaica, 1990). The role of the G.C. Foster College, also clearly articulated within the education system, would upgrade the skills of individuals involved in training athletes, sport administrators, and physical education teachers. The plan also outlined a budget for the period 1990-1995. The timing of this development plan and the clear articulation of the government's objectives and strategies represented the first step in formalizing a policy for sport.

The second indication towards formalizing the policy framework for the sports sector was the actual creation of a national sport policy to guide the development of sport for the nation. An overview of the JSP later in this chapter lays out the government objectives for the policy. The sport policy, formally presented to the Parliament of Jamaica in 1994, represented over two years of work by the National Council on Sport and the government, presumptively, by the reconstituted National Council in 1992 and the acknowledgement in the 1990–1995 national development plan towards the establishment of a policy framework and the advising role of this Council, among others (Government of Jamaica, 1990).

Although, the 1994 JSP was formal approval by the government for the development of sport, several participants indicated that it was not a “real” (Participant #22) or a “comprehensive” (Participant #13) policy for sport, but more of a template to guide the efforts of the government. From the objectives and strategies in the 1990–1995 national development plan, and a review of the 1994 JSP, it is evident that the development plan forwarded a more thought-provoking attempt for sport development. While the two policy documents outline the government’s formal thrust in sport development, neither document provided any indication for the funding support for this development. Specifically, neither document mentioned the direct funding of sport by the national lottery or the distribution of these funds through an agency to be established, that is, the SDF. The next section discusses the development of these agencies.

Establishment of government agencies. As previously mentioned, the government in the 1960s and 1970s passed legislations and established commissions for the regulation of betting, gaming, and lotteries. With regulation already in place, the government in 1991 approved the establishment of the Sports Development Agency Limited to implement a lottery system in Jamaica (Supreme Court of Jamaica, 2001). By 1994, the Sports Development Agency Limited changed its name to the Jamaica Lottery Company Limited, and a national lottery was implemented (Supreme Court of Jamaica, 2001). While the taxes from the national lottery, classified as taxes foregone, and forty percent (40%) of those amounts were allocated to the development of sports (Betting, Gaming, & Lotteries Act of 1965, 2002), neither of the previous policy documents from the government made reference to the establishment of government agencies for the management and distribution of funds from the national lottery.

The establishment of the SDF in 1995 and the creation of the Culture, Health, Arts, Sports and Education (CHASE) Fund in 2002, now recognized as instrumental in the process of providing funding, represents two agencies of government for the development of sport. While

the CHASE Fund is easily identified as created through legislation and its origins known, it is not clear as to the origins of the SDF. Chapter 4 provided an overview of this government agency. However, two participants in this study provided their understanding of its origins. First, a former elite athlete posited that:

I was part of a committee formed in the late 1980s or early 1990s, before the SDF came in, and it had to do with the lottery. I think we were working with the Planning Institute of Jamaica, lead by Dr. Christine Cummings from the University of the West Indies, to look into the use of the lottery money towards sports. She outlined what the fund will do and how it will work, and at that time it was just for sports, as sports didn't have a budget, while all the other sectors had a budget from government. Dr. Cummings led the committee, she presented it, and I think the government used it, and from that, the SDF, established. (Participant #21)

This statement by the former elite athlete provides an indication that agents of the state, that is, the Planning Institute of Jamaica actively engaged a strategic process in the use of lottery funds for the development of sport, which led to the formation of this government agency. With lottery introduced in 1991, the SDF formed in 1995, and the CHASE Fund created in 2002, the delay in establishing these organizations indicates, presumptively, a process not guided by strategic planning. For example, the Institute of Sports, highlighted as the lead agency for the development of sport, in both the 1990–1995 national development plan, and the 1994 JSP, by 1995 began having its functions re-aligned, and by 2001, stripped of most its core functions, specifically, with the creation of the Independence Parks Limited to manage all sporting facilities. The other participant, a bureaucrat, provided a possible explanation:

You must give some credit for the establishment of the SDF to P.J. Patterson, because when he became Prime Minister in 1993, he started to look at ways to support the

athletes, and he created the foundation. Others believe that it was also a political ploy, because Portia [Simpson] at the time was threatening his status as Prime Minister, as she had earlier challenged him for the leadership of the party. In addition, she being Minister of Sports was getting too popular because of sports, and she used sports to propel her in a particular way. Therefore, in terms of weakening her, he shipped her off to the labour ministry, brought in John Junor, his confidant, as Minister of Sports. (Participant #30)

This explanation allows for the presumption that reasons unknown to the wider society, may have facilitated the creation of the SDF, and the subsequent re-alignment of the Institute of Sports. Appendix F outlines all the ministers with responsibility for sports since 1962, and shows that Portia Simpson was minister from 1989 to 1993, and John Junor given the portfolio in 1993, when P.J. Patterson became Prime Minister. The bureaucrat further added that:

P.J. Patterson, later decided to dismantle the Institute of Sports, who at the time was in charge of the things the SDF now manages, and the management of sporting facilities, handed over to the Independence Park Limited. The Institute of Sports then focuses its efforts on grass-roots sports, and the SDF now becomes the most powerful agency, because that is where the cash was located. The good side to that was that athletes could now go specifically to one agency for support. (Participant #30)

Notwithstanding, the presumption of political ploy or possible strategy surrounding the introduction of the national lottery as a funding source for the government to develop the sporting sector, the establishment of these government agencies, heralded as instrumental by many participants, provided funding support for the overall development of sport.

Aligning with international standards. With funding support in place, the next stage of the sport development process occurred at a time when all nations began to place strong emphasis on matters relating to doping in sport. In addition to its own acknowledgement of a

better doping control system, the Jamaican government began an assessment of international best practices in the governance of sport, and extended the sport development thrust to include a review of its policy frameworks for sport. Therefore, during the period 2003–2012, the government embarked on a process to align the nation to international standards. This occurred in two ways.

First, the government became a signatory to the World Anti-Doping Program and the World Anti-Doping Code in 2003. Indicating Jamaica's commitment to fair play, and that the nation would in-act relevant legislation to enforce this decision. By 2005, the government created the Jamaica Anti-Doping Commission; and by 2008, it approved the Anti-Doping in Sports Act. Chapter 4 provided an overview of this government agency.

The second alignment began in 2007, with a change of government from the People's National Party (PNP) to the Jamaica Labour Party (JLP). The PNP government had been driving the development of sport since 1989, with the creation of the National Council on Sports, leading to the introduction of the 1994 JSP. Guided by several international sporting successes, the new JLP government began a process of review of the policy framework for sports (MYSC, 2011). As will be shown later in this chapter, in an overview of the 1994 JSP and the 2013 revision, the 1994 sport policy was found "to be inefficient and does not support the international understanding of sport policy objectives and strategies" (Participant #13). In 2011, the government produced two documents to guide the development of sport: 1) a document providing guidelines for hosting international sporting events, and 2) a Green Paper to guide the consultation process for a revised JSP. Both these documents took lessons from the Canadian government's guidelines for hosting international events and the Canadian Sport Policy. The Green Paper circulated nationally in October 2011 to members of the sports sector received an intensive consultative phase, leading to the 2012 report. In December 2012, the PNP government

that regained power following the December 29, 2011 general elections approved a White Paper of the revised JSP.

The three sections outlined in this stage of selected milestones further indicates that an incremental approach to sport development has occurred in Jamaica. While this stage highlights a strategic direction for sport development, some key elements remains ambiguous from a position of strategic sport policy formulation and development, for example, the unclear nature in the establishment of the SDF; the radical shift from the Institute of Sports being the lead agency for government's thrust in sport development, to having majority of its functions removed; and the lack of accountability for the securing of government documents, in terms of the difficulty in locating the 1994 JSP. A number of unanswered questions remains, surrounding the administration of sports in Jamaica during the years, 1992–1995, and leading up to 2002. Notwithstanding these ambiguous occurrences, the years 2003–2012, represented a period of stability in the advancement and enhancement of the sporting industry in Jamaica. Additionally, several participants gave credit to the access of financial support through the SDF, which enabled the national sports organizations to modernize their administration of sport, and better support the development of their respective sporting disciplines in collaboration with the policy efforts of government. The next stage of the selected milestones, 2013–2017, discusses the continued efforts of the government towards the development of elite sports.

2013–2017

The approval of the revised JSP by cabinet in December 2012 set the stage for the next wave in the government's thrust for the development of sport. The two selected milestones for this stage, the refining of policy frameworks for sport development and the preparation for generation next, bring the efforts of the government into focus, and provide a path towards continued international sporting success for 2018 and beyond.

Refining the policy for sport development. In the first category, although not receiving formal approval from the Parliament of Jamaica until March 2013 for the revised JSP, the government increased its efforts early in 2012, by providing assistance to the respective teams preparing for, attending, and competing in the London 2012 Olympic Games. This increase spending, as outlined in the 2013 revised sport policy document, was necessary as the previous years' results from international competitions, especially in track and field, demanded attention and increased support (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013). As an elite coach noted:

There has been since this year [2015] and during the Olympic year, there have been some amendment where that the JAAA are now able to be more responsive to some of the needs of potential team members, responding to their personal needs, in terms of nutrition, housing, preparation for meets, going to meets, so fourth and so on. A couple of my athletes are beneficiaries of that, so I think it is a very positive and overdue maintenance strategy... I hope that it continues beyond the Olympics, because the development of the sport is continuous. (Participant #19)

This move indicated a concerted effort to implement a new strategy for the sports industry. Additionally, guided by the consultation report on the Green Paper, and drawing lessons from other nations, especially Canada, the 2013 revised sport policy provided a more structured and strategic policy framework for the development of sport, with specific focus towards the development of elite athletes for high performance competitions.

Furthermore, recognizing that the high school system plays a critical role in sport development, the government decided in 2013 to improve the sporting facilities in high schools. They introduced the High School Sport Infrastructure Improvement Program (HSSIIP) and mandated this process of development to the SDF. Additionally, in 2014, the government looked to enhance its international image and cash in on what it calls 'Brand Jamaica' with the

introduction of a specialized committee called Jamaica Sport (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013). This committee had the responsibility to market sporting events, among other functions, to not only provide international exposure, but to provide revenue for the country. In addition, included in the revised sport policy was the construction of a national museum for sport, approved in 2015 by cabinet, and the sports ministry is actively seeking funding. Another refining of the government's efforts for sport development occurred with the repeal of the Anti-Doping in Sports Act of 2008. The new act came in effect on January 1, 2015, entitled the Anti-Doping in Sports Act of 2014, improved provisions for the prevention and control of doping in sport, and for any connected matters. By including these changes to the revised sport policy, the government ensured that from a policy perspective, strategies implemented provided for enhancement in the development of sport for the next generation of athletes.

Generation next. The 2013 revised sport policy also included strategies to enhance the support provided for athletes, coaches, and sport administrators. With its most significant international successes coming from the sport of track and field, the government in 2015 introduced a stipend for elite track and field athletes. As a sport scientist stated, "these benefits, like stipend and an insurance system for national performers, which has been in-train since 2013, will help to address the monetary and injury concerns for athletes as they prepare and compete for the nation" (Participant #1). While the stipend only lasted for ten months, it represented a direct effort by the government to address the financial needs of those elite athletes without adequate monetary support. Additionally, by 2016, the government introduced the Jamaica Athlete Insurance Program, which provided life, health and medical coverage for current and former elite athletes, coaches, and sport administrators. These measures, included in the sport policy, highlighted a change in government objectives, which illustrates that in order to continue a level of international sporting successes, more direct support is required to assist the next

generation of elite athletes. One significant outcome of the government's thrust in the development of elite sport is the recognition by the government that more is needed to enhance and support this development. There is a noticeable change in the sporting industry in Jamaica: because of the policy framework, members of the national sporting system are more aware of the objectives and strategies of the government, and have encouraged a consultative, public-private partnership in the development of elite sport.

In summary, the results outlined above, provided an evolution of the governments' contribution to the development of sport, with specific provisions for the enhancement and advancement of elite sport in four stages: prior to 1962; 1962-1993; 1993-2012; and 2012-2017. The school and community sport systems played a critical role in the early stages of development. They established the foundations for active participation and the identification and development of talented athletes, in which some presumption is made to the athletes achieving international success prior to 1962. Furthermore, the creation of NSOs allowed for a public-private collaboration for the development of sport, which began prior to receiving independence in 1962. This collaborated effort continued after 1962, and expanded the objectives and strategies of the government to include facilities, institutions, regulations, policy frameworks, and eventually a source of funding this sport development thrust. In acknowledging the international success of some sporting disciplines, attained prior to 1962, the role of private actors who transitioned into government with the authority and power to effect change needs recognition. In understanding, the role of these private actors and their possible influence in both private and public development of sport, then it may be possible to draw conclusions in terms of the chicken or the egg dilemma, of what came first: successful sport or successful policy. This thesis findings' support a view that international sporting success influences national funding. However, if the historical country-specific context is critically analysed, government decisions

and actions made early in the country's development appeared to have created the foundational support required for international sporting success, and there could have been some related national funding from the government's budget towards that effort, which may not have an intended purpose for elite sport development.

The next section in this chapter provides further results on the contribution of the government, by presenting an overview of the JSP, identifying levels of success in selected elite sports, and a breakdown of the funding support provided by the government for the period 1995–2017 through the SDF.

Contributions through National Sport Policy: 1994 - 2017

The previous section highlighted the important milestones in the development of elite sport in Jamaica, including the formulation of a JSP, and its subsequent revision. This section provides an overview of the 1994 sport policy and the 2013 revision. Second, it identifies levels of success within the selected sports of athletics (track and field), cycling, football (soccer), netball, swimming, and table tennis, which occurred prior to the formal introduction of sport policy or during the implementation stages of the policy. Third, the section examines the funding contributed to the development of elite sport by the government of Jamaica, through its SDF between the 1995 and 2017. The chapter concludes by providing a summary of the main results and outlines areas for further analysis.

Overview of the 1994 and 2013 National Sport Policies

In a presentation to the Parliament of Jamaica in 1994, then Minister with portfolio responsibility for Sport, John Junor, highlighted for the first time, the Government of Jamaica official position on the importance of sport to the country. He pointed out that:

Members of this honourable house are undoubtedly aware of the success, which our sports men and women have achieved in the field of sports, both in the local and

international arenas. These successes have been a source of pride and joy to Jamaica as a whole, and have assisted in putting Jamaica's name in the international sporting arena. Being aware of the positive impact of sports in the attitude and psyche of the nation, the Government sanctioned the establishment of a National Council on Sports in 1989, and this was reconstituted in 1992. (Ministry Paper 17/94, as cited in Ministry of Youth, Sport & Culture [MYSC], 2011, p. 56)

The formation of the National Council on Sports heralded a significant change in sport policy development, and the government considered this body an organization capable of bringing several representatives from public and private sectors together to provide advice on sport policy and to assist in the development of sports. Although no document has indicated an official change in the name of the council, several communiques from the government since 2011 have used the name 'National Sport Council,' including the most recent 2013 revision. Thus, this study will use the name National Sport Council (NSC) in regards to the sport council going forward.

The 1994 sport policy. According to the Government of Jamaica (MYSC, 2011), the 1994 NSP was a result of a collective effort; however, no official document was made public for the creation of the 1994 NSP and the work of the NSC in its formulation. While all participants were familiar with outcomes of the implementation of that policy through the establishment of government agencies for the development of sport, only three of the 31 participants were somewhat aware of the formulation of the 1994 sport policy, and the other participants did not become aware until the circulation of the Green Paper by the MYSC in 2011.

In providing support for a collective effort, President of the Jamaica Olympic Association (JOA), Michael Fennell, indicated that several stakeholders involved in organizing and directing sports were included in the consultative process for the policy, working along with the

government, and formulating the national sporting objectives (personal communication, December 19, 2015). As a former elite athlete earlier highlighted, “I was involved in the first draft, because I was on the National Sports Council at the time when it was formed, 1992 - 1993 or there about, so we were involved in the first draft” (Participant #21). This corroboration is important, as the make-up of the NSC during the drafting of the 1994 NSP remains elusive. Furthermore, while the policy document was tabled in the Parliament of Jamaica as Ministry Paper 17, in June 1994; one policymaker, when asked about recollections on the 1994 NSP, exclaimed:

Nothing. I didn't even know there was a 1994 sport policy. So this is the problem, policies are written, they take them to the house, they pass them and forget it. It isn't a guide post, it isn't something you go by biblically; so that's why I really don't put much value in the policy part of the whole effort, because it's not something that you can put down on a sustainable basis. It changes. (Participant #31)

Therefore, as mentioned above, it was not until the circulation of the 2011 Green Paper on the proposed revision of the 1994 NSP, that many in the sporting industry in Jamaica, for the first time, became aware of the existence of an approved sport policy. The inclusion of the 1994 NSP in the 2011 Green Paper was a result of an extensive search by officers within the sports ministry, as although the existence of the document was stated on its website, the actual document was not in the sports ministry. A policymaker in this study gave attestation in this regard, highlighting that:

It was around 2008 or 2009, when members of the sports ministry began searching for the document, and through personal connections, it was found and shared with the cabinet library, the Jamaica Information Service, and the permanent secretary in the sports ministry. (Participant # 13)

In addition, the policymaker further stated that:

The document was difficult to locate as prior to 2007, there were really no direct officers with responsibility for sports within the ministries that had sport as a sector, and the misplacement of the 1994 sport policy document was due to the inadequate institutionalization of sports. (Participant # 13)

Furthermore, without knowing about the policy document, or having the opportunity to evaluate the government policy for sport between 1994 and 2011, some participants indicated that outside of the funding support from the SDF, and the implementation within other government agencies, it remains unclear as to the effective contribution of the 1994 NSP.

Notwithstanding, the ambiguity in the formulation of the 1994 NSP and the uncertain nature of its contribution, the sport policy had among its main objectives an “aim at excellence at the highest level of competition in the true spirit of sportsmanship and fair play, and with a view towards enhancing national image and goodwill” (Ministry Paper 17/94, as cited in MYSC, 2011, p. 63). The Ministry Paper 17/94 (as cited in MYSC, 2011, p. 64) also outlines that the government had a strategy for the development of elite sport, and indicated the following points:

- Special consideration will be given to those sports which are better developed in terms of participation and facilities, and which are best suited to the Jamaican people and environment,
- Sportsmen and sportswomen who have achieved recognition at the international and regional levels, as well as those who have been recognised as having the potential to achieve at these levels will be given special consideration for assistance in order to assist with their overall development

These strategies, clearly outlined the position of the government, but fell short in indicating the processes for implementation, and the actual sports targeted for special consideration under the

policy. In terms of actual policy directives, Ministry Paper 17/94 (as cited in MYSC, 2011, pp. 66-67) further highlighted the following:

- Teams sanctioned by their national associations for participation in international events will be exempt from travel related taxes.
- There will be a waiver of import duties and GCT (General Consumption Tax) on sporting goods and equipment for sports, which did not previously benefit from this facility.
- Personnel selected as national representatives should be afforded special leave of absence for that purpose. All private sector employers will be encouraged to give similar consideration.
- Athletes who excel in sports or are considered to have the necessary potential should be given special consideration in recruitment for jobs and admission into institutions of higher learning, provided they can satisfy the minimum academic standards. A scholarship scheme for athletes to the G.C. Foster College, the University of the West Indies (UWI) and the College of Arts Science and Technology (now the University of Technology, Jamaica) should be formulated and sponsors invited to participate.

Although no formal evaluation of the 1994 NSP has been published to-date, what is in evidence are the several successes of various elite sporting disciplines internationally between the period of implementing the 1994 sport policy and its revision in 2013. What is also evident is the relationship between the University of Technology, Jamaica and the most successful training institution for the development of international athletes in Jamaica, the Maximizing Velocity and Power (MVP) Track Club, which began in 1999, a relationship classified as “symbiotic” (Participants # 1; 2; 8; 18; & 22), and one that has sparked other relationships between elite track and field clubs and institutions of higher education. For example, the Racers Track Club and the

University of the West Indies, Mona; and the G. C. Foster College for Physical Education and the Sprint-Tec Track Club, among others (Participant # 8).

Therefore, while these track and field clubs have contributed to international sporting successes at major competitions, it remains unclear as to the levels of involvement by the government in supporting elite sport development through these clubs. In addition, as one elite coach opined, “From what they have heard, the government has not contributed directly to the establishment, maintenance, or sustenance of the MVP Track Club, which was established and has been supported by private actors” (Participant # 29). Through an investigation of the specified funding allocations from the government, there were no supporting evidence to confirm or deny this statement. However, as outlined later in this chapter, the funding allocations by the government illustrates the monetary contribution provided for sport through several factors representing a process for elite sport development.

The 2013 revised sport policy. In 2007, the newly installed Jamaica Labour Party government decided to undertake a review of the policy objectives for the sporting sector, in accordance with the preparation of the Vision 2030 Jamaica: National Development Plan (Government of Jamaica, 2009). Despite the challenges in locating the 1994 sport policy, the successes from regional and international competitions from several disciplines necessitated a change in sport development within the country (MYSC, 2011). Upon receiving and reviewing the misplaced 1994 sport policy, the minister responsible for sport took a decision to facilitate a comprehensive revision. A policymaker provided their description of that process, and stated:

The 1994 sport policy was not a modern policy and was quite inadequate; however, it served its purpose of providing a framework for guiding sport at that time. Officers within the sports ministry looked at that policy, primarily to see how it could be revised,

and develop a more modern sport policy that was inclusive of stakeholders and reflected the environment in which sport now operates. (Participant #13)

Therefore, the revised sport policy attempted to modernize the sporting industry, and as the policymaker further added, “While the 1994 sport policy was inadequate in terms of documented policy, there were many practices, undocumented policies, if you want to call it that, which guided sports and were critical in terms of our development” (Participant #13). Hence, the government decided to establish a framework for the revised sport policy, which would enable persons to excel in sports at all levels while building strong bonds of unity, and benefit from the economic opportunities that sport is able to bring to the wider society (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013). For the revised sport policy, it was the intention of the government to forward an inclusive approach, and several consultative sessions held to engage and receive feedback from members of the sport industry.

The main objective of the revised sport policy was “to encourage both participation and global competitiveness in an increasing number of sporting disciplines” (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013, p. 6). In order to achieve this objective, the government believed that an effective implementation of the strategies and activities required collaboration among stakeholders, for “the growth and development of sport to be innovative and creative... [And] investing in sport provides excellent opportunities for the promotion of healthy lifestyles among people, while expanding the reach of Brand Jamaica across the global marketplace” (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013, p. 6). Therefore, stemming from the high levels of international successful performances, the revised sport policy highlighted the vision to enhance the development of elite sport, which was outlined in Ministry Paper 29/13, the White Paper on the JSP (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013, pp. 10-11), and stated that the government:

- Acknowledges that physical education along with recreational, competitive and high performance sport should be developed simultaneously as they complement each other on a continuum;
- Embraces both competitive and recreational sport at all levels;
- Affirms sport as an integral part of our culture and economy deserving the same level of recognition, respect and encouragement as is accorded the other basic social and economic programs

This vision for the development of sport, in particular elite sport, guided several stated objectives and outcomes of the government policy. Ministry Paper 29/13 (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013, p. 13) provided the following objectives:

- Facilitate an environment in which there will be increased participation in sport;
- Promote a coordinated and structured program that supports athletes' development, well-being and progression to high performance;
- Promote opportunities for economic development and prosperity through sports;
- Promote the development of public/private partnerships, to include Diaspora funding support for the financing of sport

The vision also anticipated the following outcomes, as outlined in Ministry paper 29/13 (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013, pp. 13-14):

- Improved programing to ensure that sport is accessible, equitable and inclusive to meet the needs, motivation and interests of all participants, particularly athletes with special needs;
- Increased appreciation for the values of fair play, ethical practices, including a commitment to doping-free sport, and leadership among young people who participate in sport;

- Increased number of athletes participating in more diversified sporting disciplines;
- Enhanced human and institutional capacity, governance and services of the National Sport Council, Ministries and related agencies, educational institutions, sport associations and federations;
- Enhanced research and development related to sport to facilitate innovative training methods and techniques, injury management, nutrition, healthy practices, and advanced equipment designs at all levels of sport participation;
- Development of an internationally competitive and vibrant sport sector with measureable contribution to Gross National Product; and
- Increased collaboration and partnership between public and private sectors for sport development.

Through its vision, and the stated objectives and outcomes, the 2013 revised sport policy displayed an inclusive approach towards the governance and development of elite sport. Indicating a major difference with the 1994 sport policy, and the recognition that sport development required collaboration and partnerships. Another major difference in the two policies are the clearly stated and measureable outcomes, highlighted by directives towards implementation. For example, in order to improve in areas such as, athletes' development and well-being, the government proposed to establish and maintain a sustainable and transparent system for incentives and rewards, to motivate athletes' achievement at the highest level of competition, through monetary means, in addition to the implementation of an insurance scheme. Another example is the focus on enhancing the sporting infrastructure within the school system, and the establishment of a comprehensive plan for proper maintenance and management of all major sport facilities. Unlike the 1994 sport policy, the revised policy highlighted the vision, the strategy, and suggested possible means for implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

Government Funding for the Development of Elite Sport

The development of sport in Jamaica, as highlighted in the overview of the 1994 JSP and its 2013 revision, occurred without a concentrated effort focussing specifically on the development of elite sport. While the government included efforts for the development of elite sports among its strategic objectives, it is difficult to pinpoint direct contributions for elite sport development. The government to support elite sport development created no institutions with specific focus, and while the Institute of Sport initially had some oversight responsibility, that mandate has shifted to only grassroots development of young athletes. Additionally, the SDF, which disburses the government funding for sport, has a mandate to develop and renovate sporting infrastructure, along with allocating support for the administration of sport through NSOs, and a minimal support for the welfare of sporting practitioners. Since 1995, the SDF has disbursed the majority of the government funding for the development of sport, and has made recognizable contributions to the development of elite sport.

Therefore, the following sections discusses the financial allocations of the SDF between the years 1995 and 2017 and, guided by the nine pillars of the SPLISS model (De Bosscher et al., 2006), outlines the contribution of the government to the development of sport, in general, and elite sport in particular. Table 5-2 provides a breakdown of the income and expenditure of the SDF, highlighting specifically, the income form the lottery tax, and grants to government agencies and bodies, and allocations to institutions and organizations for advancing sport development. Additionally, Table 5-3 breaks down the financial input to the NSOs and highlights the direct support provided to the six selected sporting disciplines, which represent three major and three minor sports, classified in respect of national popularity, and strategic focus of the government.

Table 5-2 – Cont'd.

Sports Development Foundation income and selected expenditures for 1995-2017 (J\$'000).

	Sub-Total	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	Total
Average annual exchange rate		1 CAD =J\$82	1 CAD =J\$85	1 CAD =J\$87	1 CAD =J\$89	1 CAD =J\$98	1 CAD =J\$101	1 CAD =J\$92	1 CAD =J\$96	1 CAD =J\$100	
INCOME (Pillar 1):											
CHASE Fund (Lottery Tax ^b)	2,919,869	423,791	431,956	417,627	531,707	566,098	585,035	606,971	580,506	586,358	7,649,918
SELECTED EXPENDITURES:											
SDF grants to NSO's (Pillar 2)	843,998	128,242	119,925	115,885	172,808	247,757	159,148	216,829	233,711	187,294	2,425,597
SDF grants to Government Agencies											
- G.C. Foster College (Pillar 7)	43,114	8,645	8,017	8,983	8,794	8,794	8,794	8,794	9,044	2,398	115,377
- Institute of Sports (Pillar 4)	322,286	64,609	38,486	16,457	16,457	16,457	16,500	16,500	16,500	19,875	544,127
- Independence Park Limited (Pillar 6)	5408	8,537	20,080	5,896	3,414	3,721	6,341	3,315	3,341	13,671	73,724
- Social Development Commission (Pillar 3)	104,058	15,183	17,940	17,936	16,952	16,952	16,952	16,952	16,952	4,238	244,115
Total grants to Government Agencies	474,866	96,974	84,523	49,272	45,617	45,924	48,587	45,561	45,837	40,182	977,343
SDF grant to PLCA (Pillar 2)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,600 ^c	10,800	14,400
SDF grant to Sports Medicine (Pillar 9)	3,721	502	1,200	1,200	1,900	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	13,523
SDF grant to Sports Research (Pillar 9)	3,495	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,495
SDF projects											
- Athlete Welfare, Stipend & Scholarships (Pillar 5)	44,938	6,495	11,894	14,366	22,936	16,130	17,642	23,554	34,307	3,974	196,236
- Infrastructure (Pillar 6)	803,249	130,465	88,732	151,357	44,141	71,690	166,367	252,153	120,917	133,746	1,962,817
- International Competitions (Pillar 8)	237,699	26,100	22,320	19,915	31,985	47,601	51,817	42,124	56,869	64,423	600,853
- Athletes Insurance (Pillar 5)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20,000 ^c	20,000	40,000
- Tickets – Sporting Events (Pillar 2)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14,616	20,232	16,854	51,702 ^d
- Summer Camps (Pillar 4)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9,500 ^e	8,948	18,448

Note: PLCA is the acronym for the Premier League Clubs Association

^aNo annual report was presented for 1995-1998; combined figures were reported in the 1999-2001 SDF Biennial Report.

^bForty percent of the lottery tax is allocated to the sports development foundation.

^cThe grants to PLCA, athletes insurance, and summer camps were introduced in 2016.

^dThe grants for Tickets – Sporting Events were introduced in 2015, in prior years this was included as special allocations.

^eThe amount from the CHASE Fund included \$40 million allocated directly for the 2007 Cricket World Cup.

^fIn 2002, the distribution of Lottery Tax were moved from the Jamaica Lottery Commission to the CHASE Fund.

^gIn 2006 the CHASE Fund provided an additional amount of \$99,144 million.

^hCricket World Cup and Jamaica Invitational allocations

Source: Adapted from the Sports Development Foundation (1999-2017).

Table 5-3.

Government Funding from the Lottery Tax^a to selected^b NSOs, 1995-2017 (J\$ '000).

	1995-1999 ^c	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	Sub-Total
Average annual exchange rate	1 CAD =J\$26	1 CAD =J\$29	1 CAD =J\$30	1 CAD =J\$31	1 CAD =J\$41	1 CAD =J\$47	1 CAD =J\$52	1 CAD =J\$58	1 CAD =J\$65	1 CAD =J\$69	
SDF grants to all NSOs	232,200	58,918	62,045	27,980	45,459	54,916	56,618	65,720	115,431	124,711	843,998
<u>Selected NSOs</u>											
Football ^d	92,904 ^f	25,054	26,644	9,600	17,500	19,085	15,360	17,919	51,360	44,000	319,426
Athletics ^d	27,146	3,181	4,120	2,400	3,000	5,007	3,240	3,756	11,128	8,090	71,068
Netball ^d	15,896	6,171	5,000	3,400	3,780	4,794	6,302	5,011	10,746	8,590	69,690
Swimming ^e	2,855	1,000	1,200	720	1,020	3,520	1,920	2,579	3,567	4,239	22,620
Table Tennis ^e	4,841	800	799	320	720	720	1,278	1,094	1,374	3,611	15,557
Cycling ^e	1,045	1,434	972	440	540	540	600	831	1,082	2,580	10,064
Grant total to all six NSOs	144,687	37,640	38,735	16,880	26,560	33,666	28,700	31,190	79,257	71,110	508,425
Grant in terms of percentage to the six NSOs (%) ^g	62	64	62	60	58	61	51	48	69	57	60
Grant total to the three 'major sport' NSOs	135,946	34,406	35,764	15,400	24,280	28,886	24,902	26,686	73,234	60,680	460,184
Grant in terms of percentage to the three NSOs (%) ^h	58	58	57	55	53	52	44	41	64	49	55
Grant total to the three 'minor sport' NSOs	8,741	3,234	2,971	1,480	2,280	4,780	3,798	4,504	6,023	10,430	48,241
Grant in terms of percentage to the three NSOs (%) ⁱ	4	6	5	5	5	9	7	7	5	8	6

Table 5-3 – Cont'd.

Government Funding from the Lottery Tax^a to selected^b NSOs, 1995-2017 (J\$'000).

	Sub-Total	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	Total
Average annual exchange rate		1 CAD =J\$82	1 CAD =J\$85	1 CAD =J\$87	1 CAD =J\$89	1 CAD =J\$98	1 CAD =J\$101	1 CAD =J\$92	1 CAD =J\$96	1 CAD =J\$100	
SDF grants to all NSOs	843,998	128,242	119,925	115,885	172,808	247,758	159,148	216,829	233,711	187,294	2,425,597
Selected NSOs											
Football ^d	319,426	31,860	24,121	21,072	59,637	137,499	45,000	70,600	67,000	42,000	818,215
Athletics ^d	71,068	16,191	8,641	11,395	10,960	18,666	19,735	26,652	29,000	28,000	240,308
Netball ^d	69,690	9,590	8,238	10,238	12,568	11,182	11,231	18,681	18,681	17,692	187,791
Swimming ^e	22,620	2,374	3,256	3,270	4,256	2,394	1,800	2,800	2,800	2,300	47,870
Table Tennis ^e	15,557	5,691	2,334	1,800	2,875	4,652	3,135	2,779	2,526	3,735	45,084
Cycling ^e	10,064	1,190	1,680	1,705	1,680	2,675	1,806	2,206	2,206	1,806	27,018
Grant total to all six NSOs	508,425	66,896	48,270	49,480	91,976	177,068	82,707	123,718	122,213	95,533	1,366,286
Grant in terms of percentage to the six NSOs (%) ^g	60	52	40	43	53	72	52	57	52	51	56
Grant total to the three 'major sport' NSOs	460,184	57,641	41,000	42,705	83,165	167,347	75,966	115,933	114,681	87,692	1,246,314
Grant in terms of percentage to the three NSOs (%) ^h	55	45	34	37	48	68	48	53	49	47	51
Grant total to the three 'minor sport' NSOs	48,241	9,255	7,270	6,775	8,811	9,721	6,741	7,785	7,532	7,841	119,972
Grant in terms of percentage to the three NSOs (%) ⁱ	6	7	6	6	5	4	4	4	3	4	5

Note: As at December 2017, there were forty-one NSOs registered, with thirty-eight receiving grants.

^aForty percent of the lottery tax is allocated to the sports development foundation.

^bThe selected six sport represents the sporting disciplines under review for this paper.

^cNo annual report was presented for 1995-1998; combined figures were reported in the 1999-2001 SDF Biennial Report.

^dThese three NSOs have been characterized as 'major sports' by the participants.

^eThese three NSOs have been characterized as 'minor sports' by the participants.

^fThis includes an amount of J\$1,703,249 for Women's Football allocated during 1995-1998.

^gThis represents the percentage received by the six NSOs when compared with the total grants to NSOs for each year under review

^hThis represents the percentage received by the three 'major sport' NSOs when compared with the total grants to NSOs for each year under review.

ⁱThis represents the percentage received by the three 'minor sport' NSOs when compared with the total grants to NSOs for each year under review.

Source: Adapted from the Bank of Jamaica (n.d.); Sports Development Foundation (1999-2017).

Pillar 1: Financial support. Considered a key component of the national sport policy process (De Bosscher et al., 2006, 2015), financial support represents the input of government monetary resources in the development of sport. Three categories provides the core description of the financial input from the Government of Jamaica in its efforts to contribute to the development of sport: 1) national-level financial support; 2) fluctuations in national-level financial support; and 3) support for institutions and organizations in advancing sports.

National-level financial support. As shown in chapter four, sport is funded both by direct budgetary support through the consolidation fund, and from the national lottery allocated to the SDF by the CHASE Fund. While this remains the same source of national resources for sport development, a major shift occurred on April 1, 2017, which resulted in the collected lottery taxes, included in the consolidation fund. This shift is significant, as it now required that both the CHASE fund and the SDF would prepare annual budgets, and each institution allocated resources from the consolidation fund. Previously, the CHASE Fund would allocate forty percent of the lottery taxes to sport, and if the intake from the taxes were greater than expected, the additional amounts apportioned accordingly, increasing the resources for sport development. With the change, the SDF began to receive allocations from the CHASE Fund pre-approved budget. The forty percent which is stipulated in the Betting Gaming and Lotteries Act of 1965 (2002), becomes a matter of concern, as it was found to be a challenge in ascertaining the full forty percent entitlement (SDF, 2017). Furthermore, it is unclear as to the government entity or agency that has responsibility in accounting for the full allocation of the forty percent, and, if there were windfalls, which institution would account for assessing and allocating that surplus. This therefore, means that the SDF may possibly be restrained in carrying out its mandate, and the government now has full discretionary control over the amounts allocated to the development of sports.

Fluctuations in national level financial support. In examining the financial input of the government to the development of sport for 1995–2017, the annual reports of the SDF, as outlined in Table 5-2, indicates a total income of J\$7.649 billion. The first annual report of the Foundation combined the years 1995-1999, and indicated a four-year income of J\$745 million. While the income fluctuated over the years, a noticeable rise occurred, for example, the income rose from J\$169 million in the year 2000, to J\$251 million by 2005, J\$431 million by 2010, and a high of J\$606 million in 2015. The fluctuation in income is attributable to the amount of taxes collected from the national lottery, and has reflected a decline in the income for sports in 2016, to J\$580 million, and J\$586 million for 2017. Therefore, these fluctuations in the income of the SDF had a ripple effect, as the financial input of the government also fluctuated, in terms of the allocation of funding support.

Financial support for the development of sport. With the introduction of government input through the national lottery, several government agencies and institutions, NSOs, and other mandatory projects towards sport development have benefitted from this financial support. For the period 1995–2017, total grants to government agencies and institutions amounted to J\$977 million; while grants to NSOs amounted to J\$2.425 billion over the same period. Mandatory projects, such as infrastructure development, J\$1.962 billion, and contributions to international competitions, J\$600 million, have also been allocated over the period 1995–2017. The financial input outlined in this section, represents the monetary resources available and allocated for the development of sport. The next sections will highlight how this financial input by the government has contributed to the development of sport towards the attainment of its stated national outcome.

Pillar 2: Governance, organization and structure. As of December 2017, there were thirty-one NSOs representing the development of a specific sporting discipline, receiving

financial support from the SDF. An additional six national associations representing governing bodies and member foundations, which focused on multiple sporting disciplines, also received financial support. To establish a process for the development of sport, the government relies on a national sport system, consisting of several members, public and private, that make up the local sporting industry and contribute to national sport policy development and implementation. This section highlights two distinct categories that outline this process in the development of sport: 1) levels of coordination between the ministry, agencies, and NSOs, and 2) targeted sports for financial support.

Levels of coordination within the national sport system. As shown in Figure 4-1 in Chapter 4, the national sport system, led by the government through the ministry with responsibility for sport, receives advice and guidance from the National Sport Council. The national sport system is a multifaceted one involving many stakeholders. The government highlights this in its Green Paper on the revision of the 1994 JSP:

The coordination and administration of sports in Jamaica is decentralized and fairly complex. It involves a mix of government and non-government, national and international structures. The collaboration and coordination is challenging and this is an area to be highlighted in stakeholders' consultations and requires their input. (MYSC, 2011, p. 21)

As this chapter outlined, the National Sport Council consist of several members from both the public and private sectors that influences the development of sport. One major criticism of the 1994 JSP was the lack of adequate consultation from a wide cross section of the sports industry, and for the 2013-revised sport policy, the government undertook a consultative exercise that resulted in a comprehensive report, with clear indication of the participants from each consultation session. Several participants highlighted this inclusive change as making for better

governance and more buy-in for the national agenda for sport development. For example, a sport administrator stated “One of the things I love with the administrators of the 2013 policy is that it seems to be more open, more dialogue, with a broader cross-section of people establishing a network of partnership” (Participant #11). Additionally, another sport administrator emphasized a similar point of view:

I think the government has to create an environment that both encourages different stakeholders in sports, as well as facilitate the growth of the individual sport by allowing input from different sporting organizations to ensure that we maximise our potential.

Obviously, that started with the consultative process, but I am not so convinced that it has continued beyond that initial stage. I think there could be much more achieved if there was a structure, a genuine and sustainable structure that drew on the input and the experiences of these entities, on a more regular basis. (Participant #16)

While these sport administrators agree that the consultative process allowed for better communication with the government on sport development, one in particular added that the JSP and the financial support provided has allowed for improved administration of the sporting organization, but hoped that all sporting disciplines received equal consideration from the government, in terms of the consultation process. Specifically, the sport administrator stated:

The monthly stipend has assisted immensely, and at this time, the policy has to be driven in a way that the minor sports can be at the table. Most of the times, it is the traditional sports that are called first, when it comes to policy discussions. (Participant # 11)

This concern of the sport administrator can be associated with the membership of the National Sport Council, for example, the sporting disciplines having representation as members, are, football, cricket, netball, and track and field (MYSC, 2011), and are listed as the sporting disciplines receiving the largest allocation from the SDF (SDF, 2017). These comments are

significant, as minor sports are not only feeling under-funded, but also under-appreciated, and this concern requires attention in a collaborative governance environment.

Targeted sports for financial support. Three of the four sporting disciplines mentioned above (football, track and field, & netball) received 51% of the total funding provided by the SDF for the period 1995–2017. As Table 5-3 outlines, of the total J\$2.425 billion allocated to all NSOs, these three major sports received J\$1.246 billion, in comparison to J\$119 million for the three minor sports (swimming, table tennis & cycling), which represented only a 5% total funding over the same period of 1995–2017. While no official documentation or communication were found or observed to indicate a decision by government to target sports for financial support, it can be concluded that the sporting disciplines of football, track and field, and netball, by continuously receiving the largest allocation over a twenty-two year period, represents evidence of targeting. For example, from 1995–2017, football received a total of J\$818 million, track and field received a total of J\$240 million, and netball received a total of J\$188 million. Therefore, while track and field may be the most recognizable from its international sporting successes, the sport of football, which is the most popular and commonly played throughout the island, receives the lion share.

The two sections discussed above, considering the governance, organization and structure of the processes involved in implementing the JSP, provided a brief overview of the collaborative approach by the government. They suggested that policy implementation for the 2013-revised sport policy had the buy-in from a wide cross-section of members of the sport industry. Further, it outlined the average allocation to sporting disciplines considered major and minor sports, and construed that the government in providing financial support targeted the three major sports. The next section outlines the financial support for sport participation.

Pillar 3: Opportunities for Sport participation. The role of the school and community in creating opportunities for participation in sport was earlier outlined in this chapter as an important milestone in the development of elite sport. The focus of this section is the contribution of the government through financial input, funded by the national lottery. Therefore, funding of the school system, which is budgeted in the consolidated fund under the Ministry of Education, represents administrative expenses for physical education in schools, needs recognition for its importance in the acquisition and nurturing of talented athletes.

The school and community sport systems provide for the bulk of sport participation opportunities for citizens of Jamaica. In the school sport system, students from the age of three to 18 years receive various levels of exposure to sporting activities at both the curricula (i.e., physical education) and competitive (i.e., intramural or extramural events) levels. Having a formal and structured school sport system allows students to participate in multiple activities that not only keeps them active, but also exposes them to various sporting disciplines. Physical education teachers generally trained at the G. C. Foster College provides guidance to students, and eventually coaching to those students with sporting interest and talent.

Also outlined in this chapter, in the early days, the school sport system provided access to sporting facilities for training and competitions for the community. While this remains the same in some rural communities, most communities has centres and facilities, established for physical activities for the wider society. Further, within these communities, the members of parliament and local government officials provides opportunities for citizens to participate in sporting activities. The Social Development Commission coordinates and administers majority of the community sport system, opportunities to participate in sports, and this government agency receives funding support for the development of sport from the SDF. For the period 1995–2017, a total of J\$244 million was spent on community sport development. The amounts allocated has

varied over the years, for example, in 1995–1999, the total spend was J\$37.9 million, an average of J\$9.48 million; however, in 2002, that amount was reduced to J\$1.98 million, possibly due to Jamaica hosting of the 2002 World Junior Athletics Championships. In 2003, the amount rose again to J\$9 million, remained somewhat constant, and changed again to J\$5 million in 2007, and J\$10.5 million in 2008. In 2009, the allocation rose to J\$15 million and remained around J\$17 million from 2010 to 2016. For 2017, the allocation was reduced to J\$4.2 million as a decision was made by the government to stop the monthly subvention from the lottery funds to the Social Development Commission by March 31, 2017 (SDF, 2017). The government provided no clarification for this decision; however, the move is construed as an association with the shift to include the lottery funds in the consolidated fund, and the budget for community sport now directed through the Ministry of Local Government that has portfolio responsibility for community sport development. Overall, the financial support for community sport development allowed for sport participation in approximately 783 communities island-wide, and facilitated local and national training and competitive events (MYSC, 2011).

Acknowledged as a critical aspect in the development of elite athletes, the opportunity to participate in community sport and school sport allowed stepping-stones for talented prospects. For example, a former elite athlete stated, “the Social development Commission was built upon a lot of youth clubs and all these youth clubs used to play sports, in all sporting disciplines” (Participant #21). Therefore, community sports established and administered in the early days of self-government provided opportunities for sport participation. The former elite athlete further added, “Qualified coaches during the 1960s and 1970s would go into different sugar factory areas to find talent, because in those days athletes came from the rural parishes” (Participant #21). On the other hand, somewhat untrained teachers coordinated sport participation in the

school system prior to the coaches trained by the G. C. Foster College beginning in 1980. For example, another former elite athlete stated:

The system of a sports master went on until just recently [prior to 1985], at every school you had a sports master, and information regarding physical activity was never a directed program. The sports master may very well be a history or a math teacher, and the country did not accept that sport was very important until fairly recently. (Participant # 27)

Therefore, while sport participation, established in the school system and actively encouraged through some form of physical education curriculum provided opportunities for participation, the government had no system of developing elite athletes. For example, the former elite athlete added, “There was never an organized program by the government that made any significant progress in terms of producing international people [athletes]; a lot of them came out of the school system” (Participant #27). It should be highlighted, however, that this former elite athlete acknowledged, “Nowadays, because of information [from G.C. Foster trained coaches], we see quite a few high schools kids moving up to international standards and began to do well in large numbers” (Participant #27). This acknowledgement of access to increased knowledge through qualified and trained coaches, allows for possible attribution to the government establishment of the sports training institution, which trained coaches to better identify and guide talented athletes.

Notwithstanding the lack of direct observation of government involvement in the development of athletes from within the school system, and not being able to quantify a financial support to the school sport system, the role of the government in creating the institution of the school, and providing school administration budgets, requires recognition. Sport participation is an important step in identifying and developing talented athletes, and the next section outlines the governments’ contribution to this process.

Pillar 4: Talent identification and development. The Institute of Sports with its mandate of unearthing talent from the grassroots levels is the only clear policy directive for the identification and development of talented athletes. Although the school sport system provides the most recognizable opportunities to identify and develop young talents in a structured way, athletes guided by coaches in the schools, and administered by the NSOs receives training towards international elite participation, without policy direction. For the period 1995–2017, the Institute of Sports received a total allocation of J\$544 million. This figure includes allocation up to 2007 that provided funding support towards the functions previously undertaken to manage the sporting facilities. In 2008, the Independence Parks Limited began receiving subventions directly from the SDF. The role of the Institute of Sports, previously discussed (see earlier in this Chapter, and in Chapter 4), remains an important institution in the development of sport, and the government has embraced and undertaken discussion towards the amalgamation of its sports agencies. Therefore, the financial support to the Institute of Sports represents the governments' contribution to talent identification and development, and while the institute may identify some elite athletes, the school sport system is the major source in developing athletes for international competitions.

Pillar 5: Athletic career and post-career support. Throughout the 22 years of financial support through the SDF, the government has allocated a total J\$196 million for athlete welfare, stipend and scholarships. These amounts has never been consistent, and increases during years when athletes are preparing for or competing in international events. For example, in 2007 the allocation was increased to J\$13.3 million, moving from J\$4.4 million in 2006, and reduced again to J\$7.2 million in 2008. This period represented a time when Jamaica's track and field teams were preparing to compete in the 2007 World Championships and the 2008 Olympic Games. Following the noticeable results at international competitions, the allocation for this

financial support shifted from J\$11.9 million in 2010, to J\$22.9 million in 2012, and reach its highest point of J\$34.3 million in 2016. However, with 2017 not being a major year for international competitions for Jamaican teams, the allocation for that year saw a major reduction to J\$3.9 million.

Noteworthy among the allocations for athletes support was a decision in 2015 to provide a stipend of J\$60,000 to some elite athletes. This stipend, provided between October 2015 and July 2016, allowed the Jamaica Athletic Administrative Association to offer grants to some track and field athletes preparing for the 2016 Rio Olympic Games (SDF, 2015). Additionally, in 2016, the government introduced the Jamaica Athlete Insurance Program, with an allocation of J\$20 million in the first year, and another J\$20 million for 2017. The objective of the insurance program is to provide “sustainable health and life insurance, pension/annuity and retirement plan for all eligible national athletes” (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013). The program, which launched in 2016, included offerings to current and past elite athletes. While the stipend was short-lived, and the insurance program appears to be continuous (as per the 2018 budget), the government proposed the creation of additional support for athletes. For example, the 2013-revised sport policy indicates, “The Government will also pursue the establishment and maintenance of a state-of-the-art facility which will provide a comprehensive set of medical, diagnostic, therapeutic and general wellness services for all national athletes” (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013). If this facility materializes, it will be a major shift in the support for athletes, and represents a first in terms of government funding towards a comprehensive system of caring for athletes’ well-being. Currently, it is up to the athletes, their schools, clubs, and NSOs to provide the financial support for these services. The insurance program also represents one of the only official post-career support of elite athletes. Additionally, included in the athlete welfare fund, are allocations to former elite athletes that may require emergency assistance. For example, in

2017, a former elite athlete's home was renovated at a cost of J\$4.1 million. Neither the 1994 JSP, nor the 2013-revised sport policy, has indicated a clear post-career plan for elite athletes.

Pillar 6: Training facilities. The financial input provided by the government through the SDF towards sporting facilities falls into two main categories: 1) national facilities for training and competition, and 2) financial support for construction, renovation and maintenance of national facilities.

National facilities for training and competitions. The national stadium complex, Independence Park, earlier discussed as an important milestone, remains the main sporting facilities for training and competition in Jamaica for elite athletes. In terms of training, sporting disciplines, such as, swimming, netball, track and field, table tennis, and cycling, uses the facilities for the preparation of athletes. Swimming and track and field have its own facilities for training; however, for swimming, this is the same facility for both training and competition, while track and field utilizes the facilities built as the warm-up track during competitions for training. However, it important to highlight that training for track and field athletes varies throughout the season, and athletes begin training at their home base, and move to these facilities at a specific time, usually decided by the coach. Netball and table tennis, often trains in the National Arena, with the respective NSO receiving subsidized rates for the use of the facility. This facility seats 6,000 and built in 1963. The National Arena will also host international competitions, but since 2002, a larger facility, built adjacent for the hosting of the 2003 Netball World Cup, provides a modern facility that also seats 6,000. Inside the main stadium is a velodrome for cycling, built in 1962. It does not currently meet international standard, and the government has alluded to incorporating the velodrome in its expansion plans for the National Stadium, and will attempt to find lands within Independence Park for the construction of a modern velodrome.

Although the facilities at Independence Park represent the central location for national training and competition, NSOs may establish partnerships with educational institutions for the training of national athletes, when the facilities at the national stadium complex are either too costly to secure, or rented. Therefore, other facilities developed for local and national competitions, which often meets the internationally approved standards, become available for the preparation of national athletes. Unlike the five sporting disciplines mentioned above, football generally uses the national stadium for competition, and has its own training facilities for the preparation of its national athletes.

Financial support for national facilities. As mentioned previously, the expenditures for national facilities went through the Institute of Sports until 2007. Therefore, for the period 2008–2017, the Independence Parks Limited received a total of J\$73.7 million for the management of the national facilities. This amount included facilities at the national stadium complex, and other facilities located throughout the island, such as, facilities built specifically for the sport of cricket. In 2017, the SDF spent a total of J\$ 133.7 million on infrastructure projects, which included J\$62.4 million spent on upgrading the National Aquatic Centre, outdoor basketball, offices for the Institute of Sports, and field and courts at the G. C. Foster College. These infrastructure projects were outside of the amounts allocated for maintaining the national facilities.

In addition to allocating financial support for the national facilities, the SDF with its mandate to improve sporting infrastructure island-wide, spent a total of J\$1.963 billion from 1995–2017. This infrastructure work included facilities in both communities and schools. Specific to the infrastructure work in the schools, and as part of the 2013-revised sport policy, the government implemented the High School Sports Infrastructure Improvement Program (HSSIIP) in 2014, and at the end of 2017, thirteen schools had received infrastructure

improvements (SDF, 2017). For the year 2017, the government improved seven schools for J\$8.4 million, with works done on fields, clubhouse, courts, and long-jump pits, as part of the HSSIIP (SDF, 2017).

Pillar 7: Coach provision and coach development. The G. C. Foster College for Physical Education and Sport represents the only attempt to-date, by the government, to provide training and certification for coaches in Jamaica. Over the twenty-two year period, 1995–2017, the government through the SDF has allocated a total of J\$115.4 million to the sports college. These amounts fall outside of any allocation that would be made for infrastructure development, and would include training seminars and support for the coaching program (SDF, 2004) and amounts for the development and delivery of curriculum to physical education teachers and coaches (SDF, 2017). All participants within this study highlighted the importance of the sports college to the development of sport, especially the growth of qualified coaches throughout the island that has had an impact from grassroots to elite level in identifying and preparing athletes. For example, a sports journalist indicated:

G. C. Foster is critical, if you look back in history; most schools have a playground and physical education taught as a subject in the teachers colleges for a long time. Now with G. C. Foster producing quality coaches, which has a talent scouting function, and with more people having the training to identify and articulate information, age group coaching is much better than before. (Participant # 18)

Prior to the G. C. Foster College, former athletes, some with many years of international experience, and some with international training and certification lead the coaching of elite athletes. An elite coach, added further:

I think my primary role is to identify the athletes with the requisite talents, and then provide opportunities for exploiting and developing this talent, first for the athletes'

benefit, second to their wider community, and third to national development, where they can make a worthwhile civic contribution to the country... the G. C. Foster College contributed to my development. (Participant #19)

Therefore, the governments' contribution to the training and development of coaches nationally is noteworthy, and considered a major aspect in the development of elite sport, especially in the sporting discipline of track and field.

Pillar 8: National and international competitions. The results for this section follows two main categories: 1) nationally-funded events, and 2) opportunities for national and international competitions.

Nationally-funded events. The government has consistently allocated funding for the hosting of national and international sporting events. For the years 1995–1999, the government hosted a national event called the Emancipation Games, which was mainly track and field, and allocated a total of J\$24 million. With the exception of the year 2000, every year since 2001, the government had funded in part, either a national or an international event. Starting in 2001, with a preliminary amount of J\$790,000 for the preparatory work for hosting the 2002 World Junior Athletics Championships (SDF, 2004). For 2002, the government provided an additional J\$10 million for the athletic championship (SDF, 2004). In 2003, for the hosting of the World Netball Championships, the government allocated J\$4.7 million towards infrastructure development, and another J\$2.2 million to assist with team preparation (SDF, 2004). Starting in 2004, the government made a major shift in its contribution to the hosting of events, especially those for international competitions. Although not a selected sport for this study, the sporting discipline of cricket received a major boost when the Caribbean as a region hosted the 2007 Cricket World Cup. Therefore, beginning in 2004, the government allocated J\$21 million, and in 2005 and 2006, J\$7.7 million and J\$4.3 million respectively, to the Cricket World Cup. Also in 2004, the

government commenced financial support for the Jamaica Invitational Track Meet, and allocated J\$42.9 million towards that years hosting. Since that time, 2005–2017, the Jamaica Invitational on average has received J\$33.7 million towards the hosting of that track and field event.

Additionally, beginning in 2016, the government commenced funding support for the Racers Grand Prix, an IAAF sanctioned track meet, and allocated J\$18.8 million for 2016, and J\$25.8 million for 2017. It is noteworthy to mention that both track and field events were to receive major reductions in their allocations from the government through the SDF for 2018 (SDF, 2017).

While not considered a direct funding support of nationally organized events, the government began in 2015 to purchase tickets for sporting events, planned and hosted by NSOs. For example, in 2015, the government allocated J\$14.6 million, for 2016 J\$20.3 million, and in 2017 J\$16.8 million. A bureaucrat opined that, “the purchase of tickets for local events is the governments’ way of providing additional support to the NSOs, especially those outside of track and field, and to increase local support for the development of the respective sporting discipline” (Participant #17).

Opportunities for national and international competitions. Through its consistent funding of national and international events, the government has contributed to the creation of opportunities for athletes to have exposure to high-level competitions across several disciplines. Although track and field receives its largest funding support, and will host several opportunities for its athletes, other elite athletes benefits when their NSOs host national and international events. Hence, occasionally, the SDF may provide special allocations to NSOs to offset the cost for national teams to participate in events. For example, in 2016 the government allocated J\$59.6 million as special allocations to assist sporting organizations in funding sport related activities, and in 2017, the allocation was J\$18.1 million. Furthermore, for elite athletes participating in

international competitions, the national governing bodies generally fund their participation (e.g., Jamaica Olympic Association). All the sporting disciplines within this study, facilitates opportunities for national and international competitions for elite athletes at all age group.

Pillar 9: Scientific research and innovation. The national sports policy advocates the role of scientific research and innovation in the development of sport within Jamaica. However, only two aspects of government funding through the national lottery are visible. First, in 2006, the government allocated J\$3.5 million towards an empirical research investigating the contribution of sport to GDP and employment with a framework for sport policy formulation. The following was its findings, indicating that development of sport requires two foundational approaches (MYSC, 2011, p.47):

- 1) The high performance of elite sport and the potential for high rates of return to investment in sport
- 2) The existence of large pools of employment potential and tacit knowledge that can be used to facilitate competitive growth of the sport industry.

From a policy perspective, the research concluded that sport, ranked high among the national sectors for its contribution to GDP, provides investment opportunities focussed on commercial elite sport, which allows for adequate attention to commercial non-sport activities, such as, the manufacturing of footwear and apparel. Further, the research added that private sector leadership is required.

The second aspect of government funding occurred with the annual allocation to the Association of Sports Medicine for the period 1995–2017, amounting to J\$13.5 million. From 1995–2009, the annual average to the association was J\$302,000; however, beginning in 2010 the allocation increased to J\$1.2 million, and remained at that amount until 2012, when it rose to J\$1.9 million. Since 2013, the monthly allocation has been constant at J\$1 million. The

allocation represents funding support for administrative purposes. However, a major point of note is the establishment of the Sport Medicine Unit at the University of the West Indies, Mona, created by members of the association in collaboration with other supporters. Noteworthy to mention, the Sports Medicine Unit, which was originally under the Faculty of Medical Sciences at the University of the West Indies, Mona, shifted to the newly established Faculty of Sport in 2017. Furthermore, it is necessary to highlight that the University of the West Indies, Mona receives financial support as part of Jamaica contribution to a regional supplemental budget for the university. Therefore, possibility exist for institutional support to the Sports Medicine Unit from the government. Notwithstanding no clear indication of direct financial support for scientific research and innovation, the Sports Medicine Unit and other private facilities provides medical support for elite athletes, training locally.

The two categories outlined above, recognized as significant aspects in the development of sport, and which received mention in the JSP, are still lacking in areas of implementation. Additionally, the government has not yet outlined its strategy to enhance scientific research and innovation. The funded research on the contribution of sport alludes to the possible benefits of scientific research and innovation, but it also indicated private sector investment.

Overall, the contribution of the government, through financial input, covered all nine pillars as indicated by the SPLISS model. The model facilitated a connection between input and throughput in highlighting the Government of Jamaica financial support to the development of sport from the national lottery funds. While the results represent a level of contribution to the development of sport, only some sporting disciplines (e.g., track and field, netball, swimming, and football) received clear financial support indicating high performance funding towards elite sport development. Furthermore, although football receives the largest allocation from the government, track and field support for the development of elite sport is superior in terms of the

financial input provided in several pillars of the throughput process. This support for track and field is a result of the influence of its NSO, and the international successes attained since 1948. Therefore, it is from the results of international competitions, and the attainment of international sporting successes, which facilitates the achievement of the stated sport policy outcomes.

Identifying Levels of Success in the Selected Sports

The national sports policy identifies success as “Jamaica will continue to win most medals in any international event in which she participates and will consistently place in the highest order of ranking among nations in the world in the sport in which she competes” (Parliament of Jamaica, 2013, p. 11). Therefore, through this interpretation, the financial input expended by the government towards the development of sport, and ultimately elite sport, leading to international sporting successes represents the mission of the JSP, and the national outputs and ultimate national outcomes. The financial support received by the NSOs from the SDF, since 1995, allowed for changes in sport administration and improvements in the capacity of the sporting discipline to increase its opportunities for success at international competitions. To identify levels of success in the selected sports of table tennis, cycling, swimming, netball, football, and track and field, this study found two categories to be instrumental in assessing this success: 1) stature of the NSOs, and 2) structures to facilitate success.

Stature of the NSOs

In considering, the stature of the sporting organization, emphasis on the perception of the sport by society and how revered the organization is that administers the sport by the industry, allows for levels of support from both public and private benefactors. For example, the sporting disciplines of table tennis, cycling, and swimming considers participation and medalling in its respective World Championships as means of identifying success, given the associated financial rewards for athletes. However, the Olympic Games is the pinnacle for these organizations, and

with almost all sporting organizations attempting to target both the government and private sector for financial support, stature then becomes the deciding factor as to which organization receives the usually scarce resources. In this context, sporting successes dictates the stature of the organization. Of the three minor sports mentioned above, cycling is the only one to medal at the Olympic Games in 1980; however, cycling, table tennis, and swimming have not received comparative financial support as the major sports of netball, football, and track and field. Swimming receives more support than the other three minor sports, due in part to the infrastructure requirements for the sport, and recent uptick in the international results from some of its elite athletes, most recent, a birth in 100m breaststroke final at the 2016 Rio Olympics, and several Swimming World Cup medals.

The sporting disciplines of netball, football, and track and field have had various levels of international sporting success. Although netball is not an Olympic sport, Jamaica has consistently ranked in the top five among playing nations, since the 1960s. Therefore, that organization has received significant public support, including a residential property from the government for housing athletes during training and competitions, for which none of the other sports had similarly received. Additionally, the netball administrators, revered as very strong administrators for exercising efficient management practices, have taken that leadership to the international level, with Molly Rhone, a Jamaican and Past-President for netball in Jamaica, the current President of the International Netball Federation. For the other major sport of football, Jamaica achieved its highest national output when the senior team qualified and competed in the 1998 Football World Cup in France. Between 1994 and 1998, both the government and private sector invested heavily in football, and that sport has been attempting to achieve that level of success ever since. Although football is the most popular sport in Jamaica, and receives the

largest contribution from the government, it also receives the most negative comments from the wider society, for its inability to qualify for the Olympic Games or for another World Cup.

On the other hand, track and field, which received its first Olympic success in 1948, and has had consistent levels of participation and medals at subsequent Olympic Games, is both revered and successful: revered because many of the early successful elite athletes remained in the sport and contributed as administrators and coaches, and successful because its international results are incomparable to other sporting disciplines within Jamaica. The involvement of the early successful elite athletes provided role models for not only the sport, but also the country. Additionally, investors often want to be associated with the most success, and the sport of track and field has benefitted from local, national, and international support, due mainly to its sporting successes. Furthermore, the early successful elite athletes added stature to the sport and the national organization, which facilitated access to decision makers for national policy that allowed opportunities to grow the sport for national and international successes.

Structures to Facilitate Success

Stature is an important factor in assessing success, but without the effective and efficient structures in place to allow for success, then international sporting results are not possibly attainable. Structures such as, recruitment opportunities and access to facilities are two main categories considered. Of the three major sports selected, football and netball are team sports, while track and field has mostly individual events, with opportunities for team relay. For the other minor sports, table tennis, cycling and swimming, are all considered individual sports, with opportunities for team events, or events with two athletes in terms of table tennis.

Therefore, recruitment opportunities in the minor sports of table tennis, cycling and swimming, occurs through clubs or schools. For example, opportunities for cycling only occurs through involvement in a local club, and requires large investment in equipment and other

resources to compete. Table tennis and swimming recruitment, on the other hand, occurs at both the club and school levels. Nevertheless, while these sports experience participation and competition organized at each level, the expenses to provide equipment is a costly endeavour. For example, more schools will compete in table tennis, as the equipment is easier to secure; however, for swimming, schools nationally have a swimming pool on campus, or even close enough access to one for training. In regards to competitive events, while it is easier to host table tennis matches on most campuses, competitive swimming, done only in the capital city of Kingston, requires access to several resources to attend. Furthermore, the number of participants partaking in the recruitment opportunities through sport development efforts tends to be very low, as prospective athletes are attracted to the more popular sports.

Recruitment opportunities and access to facilities are much easier for the major sports of netball, football, and track and field, as these are included in the physical education curricula in all schools. From a very young age, in some cases from the age of three, children and students in particular, get exposure to these sporting disciplines, thereby allowing early opportunities to receive foundational knowledge regarding the sport. Furthermore, participation in these sports is rampant, and provides opportunities for the identification and development of more talented athletes. Additionally, the equipment and facilities in the initial stages do not require large investments, and often involve access to a ball for football, access to both a ball and a hoop for netball, and for track and field, almost anywhere with space to run about.

Overall, the six sporting disciplines provide opportunities for recruitment from national competitions, and athletes identified for national duties. However, unlike the other sports, track and field hosts annual trials to select the best among the participants. This is possible due to a much larger population of competitive athletes that has gone through various levels of age group competitions. Noteworthy to mention, are the different levels of recruitment opportunities for

track and field that start at a very early age. For example, international inter-house/intramural competitions begins in the basic and preparatory schools for students, ages three and above, and the most talented are selected to represent the institution in national competition. This practice continues at all levels of the school system, and athletes recruited to attend and compete for other better resource schools. Furthermore, the NSO for track and field facilitates many development meets for high school athletes, which runs from January to March, with one occurring every weekend. Therefore, of all the sporting disciplines, track and field has a larger grouping of prospective athletes, allows more opportunities for exposure and national recruitment, and provides access to more facilities for training and internationally approved competitions.

Summary and Further Analysis

The objective of Study 2 was to explore how the national sport system contributed, if at all, to the development of sporting disciplines capable of achieving the national outcomes. The study examined the following research questions in relations to this objective: (1) How has the development of elite sport evolved up to 2017?; (2) What were the sport policies formulated for the development of elite sport?; and (3) How has the government input through financial support contributed to the development of elite sport in an effort to achieve the stated sport policy outcomes?

In answering the first research question, the evolution of the development of elite sport emerged over two phases of Jamaica's history – 1) under colonial rule, and 2) after independence. These two phases, further categorized into four periods – prior to 1962, 1962-1993, 1994-2012, and 2013-2017 represents the colonial and post-colonial connection to the United Kingdom. First, under colonial rule, prior to 1962, Jamaica had already experienced several decades of sport participation at the grassroots level within communities, and at the school sport level with intense national competitions, which helped display top talents from

different sporting disciplines. Athletics and football, however, were the most organized and well supported across the nation, and unlike other sporting disciplines, those two sports had already put in place a formal NSO to manage the sport and be Jamaica's representative internationally for the sport. Therefore, these NSOs represented the local governance of sport, and provided an affiliation to international governing bodies, that formalized Jamaica participation at elite sporting competitions. NSOs such as the Jamaica Amateur Athletic Association, and governing bodies such as the Jamaica Olympic Association, benefitted from the leadership of private actors, such as Norman Manley, who recognized and volunteered their efforts for the development of sport. Interestingly, Norman Manley was also instrumental in establishing government agencies, as Chief Minister and Premier, for the advancement of sport. The role of private actors who transitioned into government with the authority and power to effect change began the creation of objectives and strategies of government to establish facilities and institutions.

Following postcolonial rule, and with independence in 1962, the government continued the development of sport, between 1962 and 1993, by expanding the construction of sporting facilities, establishing institutions, implementing legislative regulations, formulating policy frameworks, and eventually creating a system to funding for sport development. Infrastructure development that began prior to 1962, expanded to include other facilities for the hosting of international events in 1962 and 1966. The next major step led to the formalization of sport in the government agenda, with inclusion in the first national development plan for independent Jamaica. This plan acknowledged the role of sporting organizations and private actors, and outlined a direction towards sport development. Between 1978 and 1993, the government introduced three critical milestones, later found to be integral in the development of sport. First, the creation of institutional capacity for the administration of sport nationally; second, the

establishment of a sports college for training and development of qualified coaches; and third, the re-establishment of an advisory body for sport to support the government objectives.

By the end of 1993, and with several important milestones in place, the government began a new thrust in the development of sport for Jamaica, between 1994 and 2012. After setting the stage for sport development, three distinct categories emerged, which incorporated a number of milestones: first, the creation of a formal policy for sport development with the 1994 JSP, and the reformation process completed in 2012; second, the establishment of government agencies for sport development, such as the SDF as the agency responsible for distributing the national lottery funds to the sports industry; and third, the aligning with international standards that facilitated the creation of Anti-Doping legislation and agencies.

While this stage highlights a strategic direction for sport development, some key elements remain ambiguous from a position of strategic sport policy formulation and development, for example, unclear nature in the establishment of the SDF; the radical shift from the Institute of Sports being the lead agency for government's thrust in sport development, to having majority of its functions removed; and the lack of accountability for the securing of government documents, in terms of the difficulty in locating the 1994 JSP. A number of unanswered questions remains surrounding the administration of sports in Jamaica during the years, 1992–1995, and leading up to 2002. Notwithstanding these ambiguous occurrences, the years 2003–2012 represented a period of stability in the advancement and enhancement of the sporting industry in Jamaica. Additionally, several participants gave credit to the access of financial support through the SDF, which enabled the national sports organizations to modernize its administration of sport, and better support the development of its respective sporting discipline, in collaboration with the policy efforts of government. For the final period 2013–2017, the government directed its efforts in refining the JSP, by drawing lessons from the

international community, and ensuring that a national consultative process undertaken. In addition, through the revised sport policy, the government suggested strategies for the development of sport to prepare for the next generation of elite athletes.

In summary, the short answer to this research question is that the school and community sport systems played a critical role in the early stages of sport development, and established the foundations for active participation, identification and development of talented athletes. The role of private actors, with some transitioning into government with the authority and power to effect change, facilitated the creation of NSOs. Additionally, these private actors established early government structures, expanded by an independent Jamaican government to include facilities, institutions, regulations, policy frameworks, and an eventual source of funding the national development of sport.

The second research question investigated the national sport policies formulated for the development of elite sport. The results highlighted that a national sport policy, formulated and approved in 1994, had not been widely publicized and, as such, remained outside of the realm of the local sporting industry. With international sporting success, the 1994 JSP needed revision, and a consultative process was undertaken leading to the 2013-revised sport policy. The main findings in this thesis indicated that no clear plan for the specific development of elite sport had been included in the sport policy documents. While strategies and objectives alluded to the development of elite sport, the 1994-sport policy highlighted no implementation plans to this end; however, the 2013-revised document, which provided strategies and objectives, went further to indicate various implementation plans that facilitated the development of elite sport. Unfortunately, the JSP has no clear indication of an organization with responsibility for elite sport, and this remains the responsibility of the NSOs, and the local and international private clubs to identify, nurture, train, and develop elite athletes. An important distinction for this study

is the clearly-stated national outputs and national outcomes for the sport policy, which allow for some level of evaluation.

In summary, the short answer to this research question is that the first sport policy of 1994 provided a guideline for national development, while identifying strategies for elite sport development; however, no clear plan for implementation was outlined. The 2013-revised sport policy received more sport industry consultation and buy-in than the 1994 sport policy, and strategies for the development of elite sport were identified, with possible funding support for implementation. The sport policy allows for some strategies towards the development of elite sport, and no specific government agency has responsibility for elite sport. Therefore, it remains the responsibility of the NSOs, and private actors through local and international clubs to develop athletes for elite sporting successes. The sport policy has a number of stated national outputs and outcomes.

The third research question examined the contribution of the government through funding for the development of elite sport in an effort to establish sporting disciplines capable of achieving the stated national outcomes. Overall, the contribution of the government, through financial input, covered all nine pillars as indicated by the SPLISS model, which was the conceptual framework that guided the present study. The model facilitated a connection between input and throughput in highlighting the government's financial support to the development of sport from the national lottery funds. While the results represent a level of contribution to the development of sport, only some sporting disciplines (e.g., track and field, netball, swimming, and football) received clear financial support indicating high performance funding towards elite sport development. Furthermore, although football receives the largest allocation from the government, track and field support for the development of elite sport is superior, in terms of the financial input provided in several pillars of the throughput process. This support for track and

field is a result of the influence of its NSO, and the international successes attained since 1948. Therefore, the results of international competitions and the attainment of international sporting successes facilitate the achievement of the stated sport policy outcomes.

In summary, the short answer to this research question is that the financial input contributed to the development of sport, in general. The allocation and funding support provided to the sporting disciplines of track and field, football, netball, and swimming, advanced the development of elite sport in each discipline, and not a creation of a national system for elite sport. Support for track and field is a result of the influence of its national sporting association, and the international results attained since 1948. The results of international competitions and the attainment of international sporting successes facilitate the possible achievement of the stated sport policy outcomes.

Table 5-4

Graphical Representation of Study 2 Contribution to Thesis Purpose

Thesis Purpose:		
To explore the development of elite sport through national sport policy, within a developing country.		
Objective #2:		
To explore how the national sport system contributed, if any, to the development of sporting disciplines capable of achieving the national outcomes.		
Research Questions	Results	Contribution to Thesis Purpose
S ₂ RQ ₁ : How has the development of elite sport evolved up to 2017?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The school and community sport systems, played a critical role in the early stages of development, and established the foundations for active participation, identification and development of talented athletes • The creation of NSOs allowed for a public-private collaboration for the development of sport, which began prior to receiving independence in 1962 • This collaborated effort continued after 1962, and expanded the objectives and strategies of the government to include, facilities, institutions, regulations, policy 	The role of private actors, some transitioning into government with the authority and power to effect change, improved on the opportunities provided in the school and community sport systems by the former colonial British government. By establishing the roots of sport development early, decisions and actions for self-government

	<p>frameworks, and eventually a source of funding</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The role of private actors, some transitioning into government with the authority and power to effect change needs recognition • The role of these private actors and their influence in both private and public development of sport, allows for possible conclusions in terms of the chicken or the egg dilemma, of what came first, successful sport or successful policy. 	<p>formulated objectives and strategies towards a national development of sport. Facilities, institutions, regulations, policy frameworks, and eventually a source of funding would follow. Therefore, through reforming policy objectives and strategies, and allocating financial support towards sporting disciplines capable of achieving international sporting successes, stated national policy output such as: (a) increased global participation and competitiveness in several sporting discipline, and (b) winning of medals and highest order ranking, is attainable. Additionally, the ultimate national outcome of strong bonds of unity and economic benefits derived from sport is achievable.</p>
<p>S₂RQ₂: What were the sport policies formulated for the development of elite sport?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The first sport policy of 1994 provided a guideline for national development, and while identifying strategies for elite sport development, no clear plan for implementation had been outlined • The 2013-revised sport policy received more sport industry consultation and buy-in than the 1994 sport policy, and strategies for the development of elite sport identified, with possible funding support for implementation • The sport policy allows for some strategies towards the development of elite sport, and no specific government agency has responsibility for elite sport, therefore, it remains the responsibility of the NSOs, and private actors through local and international clubs to develop athletes for elite sporting successes • The sport policy has a number of stated national outputs and outcomes. 	
<p>S₂RQ₃: How has the government input through financial support contributed to the development of elite sport in an effort to achieve the stated policy outcomes?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The financial input contributed to the development of sport, in general • The funding support for the sporting disciplines of track and field, football, netball, and swimming, advanced the development of elite sport in each discipline, and not a creation of a national system for elite sport • Support for track and field is a result of the influence of its national sporting association, and the international results attained since 1948 • The results of international competitions, and the attainment of international sporting successes, facilitates the possible achievement of the stated sport policy outcomes 	

This chapter outlined important milestones in the development of elite sport over four periods in the history of Jamaica. It identified the contributions through national sport policy, providing an overview of the 1994 policy and the 2013-revised policy, and the government's financial input to the selected sports towards the attainment of stated national outcomes. The next chapter provides results of factors contributing to the success of the sport of athletics.

CHAPTER 6: Results – Factors Contributing to the Success of Athletics

From an international competitive level, the sporting discipline of athletics or track and field has been the most decorated for the small nation state of Jamaica, especially within the last two decades. While the previous chapter showed that from a sport policy perspective, the government did not formulate an official strategy for the development of sport until 1994, and no institution established with a specific on the development of elite sport. The elite sporting success at international competitions, such as, the Olympic Games, first occurred in 1948, while a colony of the United Kingdom, some forty-six years before the first JSP. The SPLISS model provides a framework for understanding the role and influence of the government towards international sporting successes by controlling the sport policy process; however, the model also acknowledges other factors outside of government financial input that are important in elite sport development. De Bosscher and colleagues (2015) have recognized these factors as the environment of elite sport.

The objective of Study 3, therefore, was to explore how the most successful of the sporting disciplines attained international competitive success and contributed to the achievement of the national outcomes. The study examines the following research questions in relation to this objective: (1) What are the most significant results for the elite sport of athletics?; (2) How was the apparent success of athletics achieved and are the factors of success different from established frameworks for elite sport policies?; and (3) How do the perceived factors of athletics success coalesce with established frameworks for elite sport policies? The following sections will outline the results of this study, beginning with a brief examination of athletics success, followed-by a description of environmental factors associated with athletics success, and a review of how various factors coalesced in achieving this success. The chapter concludes with a summary and further analysis of the results.

A Brief Examination of Athletics Successes

Since 1948, Jamaica has consistently sent elite athletes to compete in the Olympic Games, either as a colony, a member of a regional federation, or an independent nation. Figure 6-1 outlines this participation at the Olympic Games, and reflects the winning of 77 medals over a period of sixty-eight years. The athletes, who represented Jamaica in 1948, could not have competed at the elite level on their own, without the support and sanctioning of the Jamaica Olympic Association (JOA) and the Jamaica Athletic Administrative Association (JAAA), formerly the Jamaica Amateur Athletic Association. As a former elite athlete contributed:

The thing is, we didn't have that much meets, because for a long time we only had about four female athletes at the national level, and in Dr. Cynthia Thompson days, who competed in the 1948 Olympics, participation was almost automatic as we had only one meet, one big meet each year, which was the national championships. Today, we call it the national trials, and from back then, that was one of the criteria of the JAAA to select athletes for national teams. (Participant #21)

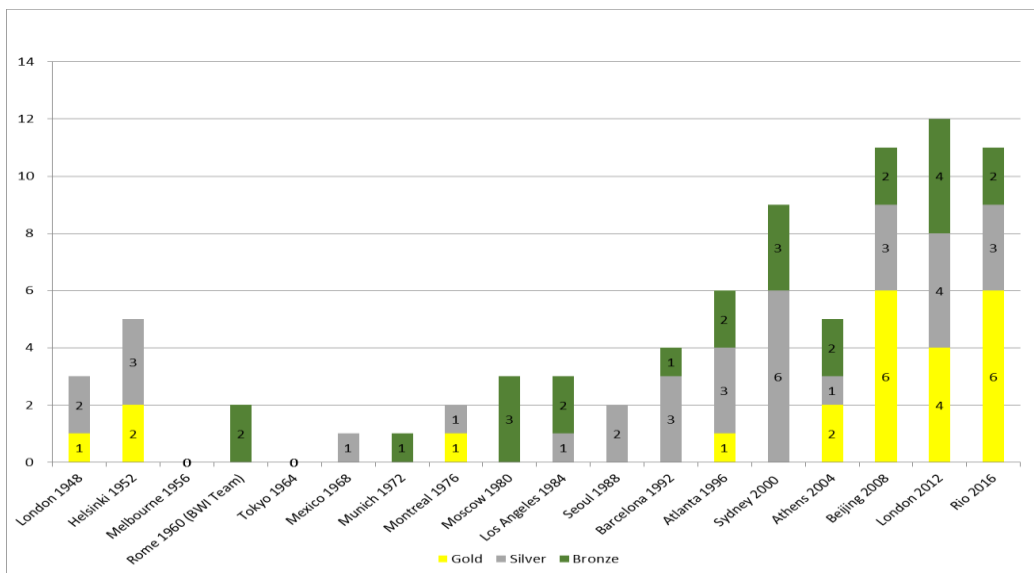


Figure 6-1. Jamaica's participation and medal successes at the Olympic Games. The two bronze medals won as BWI Team are not counted.

Therefore, athletes selected to represent the country through national championships or trials, were the best in the land, based on those athletes that lined-up in competition. Hence, the results outlined in Figure 6-1 indicate a system that has produced Olympic medals for Jamaica in all Games, with the exception of 1956 and 1964.

It is important to reiterate that, between 1948 and 1992, a period of 44 years, Jamaica Olympic medals in athletics totalled 23 with four gold medals, and between 1996 and 2016, a period of 20 years, athletics brought in 53 medals with 18 gold medals. Only the sport of cycling medalled for Jamaica, outside of athletics. What explains this major shift? In attempting to provide a basis for this explanation, two participants offered their conclusions. First, a policymaker stated:

If we look at the level of performance and the kinds of international competitions that they have entered, then we would talk about elite sports from 1936. As our first entry was the Central American Games back then, and we won a bronze medal, and we had other athletes who wanted to participate in the Olympics, and became advocates for an Olympic Association. (Participant #13)

This statement enforces the point that athletes were not able to compete internationally on their own, and a national organization required to be buffer between the athlete and international competition. Additionally, a sport administrator concluded that:

...the success of athletics goes back to pre-1948, when we were very successful in the region, in the then Pan-American Games, Central American and Caribbean Games, and other individual tournaments. You must remember people like Herb McKenley, Arthur Wint, Les Laing, the Rhodens, Cynthia Thompson, Una Morris, and others, were all champions in their own right, even prior to the enactment of any [sport] policy. The huge successes of 1948 and 1952 that blazed a trail for Jamaica, provided a prestigious entry to

this elite level competition, and we have had continued Olympic successes... Therefore, all of these took place, I know 1996 was after 1994, but all of these took place before the 1994 policy, and because of that huge success and success in other sports regionally, Jamaica urgently needed a policy. (Participant # 2)

This brief examination of the success of athletics is a glaring reminder that long before the actual implementation of the JSP, the sporting discipline of athletics, experienced international competitive success at the elite level. This therefore, indicates that without a formal policy for elite sport, the development of the systems behind the sport of athletics facilitated the elite sporting success between 1948 and 1992. Furthermore, the systems behind the earlier successes of athletics are perceived to have received support that facilitated the elite sporting success between 1996 and 2016. Chapter 5 examined the contribution of the government to the development of sports, including athletics; therefore, the next sections within this chapter will examine other factors associated with the successes of athletics, outside of the financial support provided by the government. These environmental factors include the development of an athletic fraternity, overseas influence on the development of athletics, the train-at-home movement, and the quiet role of government.

Environmental Factors Associated with Athletics Successes

The international sporting success of a nation requires a focus on the local circumstances, which may lead to several nations achieving related levels of success (De Bosscher, 2007). However, the local culture and the systems created over time, through various aspects of the sport development process, facilitate different outcomes across nations (De Bosscher et al., 2015). In the context of Jamaica's successes in the sport of athletics, this study found that success occurred prior to the introduction of official JSP in 1994, and the financial support through the SDF and national lottery, beginning in 1995. Digel (2000 as cited in De Bosscher et

al., 2015) acknowledged the importance of the environment of elite sport. This environment has been identified as “the role that a national education system can play, the influence of the private sector as a partner of sport, the role of the mass media as a promoter (or detractor) of performance” (De Bosscher et al., 2015, p. 50). Therefore, considering the environment of elite sport and getting clarification of the local circumstances underpinning a nation’s success are a major step towards understanding international sporting success across nations. In that regard, four groupings outlined in this section provide understanding of the Jamaican elite sport environment: 1) the development of an athletic fraternity; 2) the impact of overseas influence; 3) the train-at-home movement; and 4) the quiet role of government.

Development of an Athletic Fraternity

As previously noted, athletics began competitively for the school sport system in 1910 with the Interscholastic Championships, and its NSO, the JAAA in 1932, and the Jamaica Olympic Association in 1936. The establishment of those institutions facilitated the development of and eventual participation within international competition for athletes. The results as outlined above are in the history books. This section provides an overview of the findings associated with the development of an athletic fraternity, which falls into three categories: 1) tradition, culture and passion; 2) impact of role models; and 3) the role of the national association.

Tradition, culture and passion. The tradition, culture and passion for athletics has its roots in the high school system. The early exposure to the sport, and the competitive rivalry it established between the traditional high schools, contributed to a national passion for the sport. As a sport scientist explained “Tradition led to a particular national culture, the culture in turn, led to the passion of the people [general public, fans, spectators] for the sport, and it became part of our DNA from very early” (Participant #1). Therefore, for over a century, athletics, as a sport,

has evolved from a physical activity to outright competition. Another participant, a sport administrator, added:

The high school system has been obviously one of the most important elements in the development. Starting with boy's championships, which then became boys and girls championships, undoubtedly the major contributors to athletics, the attraction of athletics, and the popularity of athletics. It is now a huge industry, and is one of the positive legacies of the English school system that we inherited because they had that emphasis on participation in the schools. (Participant #2)

Although, from the early years (i.e., 1910), the number of competing schools were low, citizens with the means to exploit opportunities in education attended these high schools, which consisted of children of the wealthy class in Jamaica (Sherlock & Bennett, 1998). The black majority within the society received colonial government education only to the primary level (Sherlock & Bennett, 1998). Therefore, within the school system, beginning with the primary schools, and in the high schools for national competitions, participation in physical activity was mandatory. The sport administrator further contributed that:

Schools in the old days had houses and everyone had to compete whether you are an athlete or not. It attracted many people, and we had house championships, school championships, and then the national championships, which has become a major event in Jamaica. In addition, there is no question at all that this school system is the nursery from which we derived many of our top stars, and while not every athlete, who participated makes it to the international level. The attractiveness of the sport, and the support it gets from those former athletes and past students, is what makes it into an institution that plays a vital role in the development of athletics. (Participant #2)

The houses for sport competitions within the school system are generally colour-coded (e.g., red house/blue house) or named for a former school figure (e.g., founders or principals). This tradition continues within the schools, and as the sport administrator highlighted, provided an opportunity for all students to either participate as a competitor or become a supporter for the house. This house championship creates an internal rivalry within the school, which builds a sense of bond to the house that extends to a bond to the school for national competitions.

The school bond is a critical success factor in the development of athletics, as the sport administrator stated. The support from the former athletes and past students of these high schools provides major financial support annually, and some, continuous support over the duration of the athletic season. As a sport scientist indicated:

For track and field, the support system is much greater than other sports. When I speak of support, I am speaking of things such as the established high schools have strong alumni bodies, which provides a lot of funding to perform over the training period into competition. These old boys and old girls have clusters and groups overseas that actually support the schools in those endeavours. It provides a bit of bragging rights, when their schools are viewed in a particular way. Therefore, that support system, in addition to volunteer coaches and managers, and even volunteer staff from the schools, would support track and field instead of other sports, because it generates more passion and hype. (Participant #1)

The funding support from the alumni may facilitate travel, housing, nutrition, and medical care for athletes from the beginning of training, through to competition and beyond for some athletes continuing the season up to August. Therefore, for an athletic season, which generally begins in September, some support will last for an entire year.

Impact of role models. While the tradition, culture and passion for athletics created through the high school system was a catalyst in the development of the athletic fraternity, the athletes developed through this system who became elite sporting successes are also elevated to a level of role model. The successful results from the 1948 London Olympic Games elevated several role models that have contributed to the development of athletics. Not only have early elite athletes like Herb McKenley, Arthur Wint, Leslie Laing, George Rhoden, Cynthia Thompson and others competed on the global stage and made Jamaica proud, they returned to the country and supported the growth of the sport as coaches and administrators. A former elite athlete provided this evidence:

We did so well at the 1948 Olympics, they gave us a holiday, and when the athletes came back, the 1948 team made a difference in our track and field life. Some athletes like Herb McKenley, would go out in the 1960s and 1970s to search for athletes; the coaches then were not qualified, but they had experience through their development in competition. In addition, Herb McKenley, George Walker and the likes would bring qualified coaches to Jamaica for seminars with local prospective coaches. By the time G. C. Foster was established, coaches like Dennis Johnson, who was qualified as coach from his time in the United States, along with Herb McKenley and others, would lecture to the new coaching students. These new coaches would now go out to the schools and communities and have made the difference we now experience in athletics. (Participant #21)

In addition to helping in the development of the coaching fraternity, the early role models developed local clubs for athletics; however, those clubs did not have the professional management and operation as the new clubs established in the late 1990s and 2000s. For example, the former elite athlete added that:

Herb McKenley had the Olympic Club. Hester and Lamont were with Unity. Mr. White was in charge of Hotspurs. The three clubs would often compete against each other.

Sometime later in the 1960s, Dennis Johnson had his club at the College of Arts Science and Technology [CAST], and by 1999 the MVP Track Club started at CAST, which was renamed the University of Technology, Jamaica in 1995. This was a professionally run club that trained and managed athletes. (Participant #21)

Another former elite athlete, who offered this evidence in support of the impact of early role models, corroborated this information on the early club system:

Herb had his club, Unity was Ted Lamont, Hotspur was a person name Noel White, and those clubs had no funding. They were just somewhat there, it was not well organized and they died. Then Dennis Johnson started his CAST club and a program at the college for its students, which were organized and had some funding. This CAST club and student team competed against institutions like the Police, Army, the University of the West Indies and some of the smaller colleges, because there were no other adult movement or training programs that existed at that time. (Participant # 27)

These early clubs and coaches expanded the development of the sport of athletics, and they were very noticeable and approachable within the athletic fraternity. As one former elite athlete concluded, “The Olympians supported the sport as coaches, administrators and officials at meets; often you would see Herb McKenley, Arthur Wint, and Cynthia Thompson having roles in national championships. Cynthia Thompson was a finish judge for many years” (Participant #21).

The successes from the 1948 Olympic Games was the beginning of having role models for the sport, and this continued through the years, and made much larger with the recent international successes of several elite athletes. As an elite athlete outlined:

Athletes such as Herb McKenley and Arthur Wint was before my time. I did not see much of them and the little that I saw was in some old footage, but I used to look up to athletes like Usain Bolt. He played an integral role in my interest into the sport, also athletes like Asafa Powell, Veronica Campbell, and I saw a little bit of Merlene Ottey, she was running until late, so I saw her. Those athletes played an integral role in my interest in the sport. (Participant #24)

The elite athlete highlighted the impact of the early role models, and while only getting to watch them on film, acknowledged several stories about their exploits and contribution to the sport.

Another elite athlete provided a perspective as a current role model, and stated:

My role in elite sports is pretty much competing for the country, as well as giving back to the up and coming persons who do not have a focus. I tend to help them to focus on what they want to achieve, not only sprinting, but as they try to see their way forward in life. So it comes with a lot of discipline, self-worth, achieving your goals, dedication, and even going back to talk to youngsters from high schools, communities and try and educate them, especially the younger boys. I am trying to have them refocus on what they need to achieve to become somebody in society who will be a role model to others.

(Participant #23)

These elite athletes echoes the sentiments of others throughout the athletic fraternity that possesses a sense of appreciation for athletes before them, and believes it is critical in giving back to the sport. Furthermore, with athletics having early role models, unlike other sporting disciplines in Jamaica, that early impact contributed to the development of the sport. As a sports journalist comparing athletics and swimming, outlined:

Maybe there is no swimming hero so early, so by the time, you already have the McKenley and those people, the Arthur Wint, who were around, and so you keep going

with what you are good at already. In swimming, we have one champion now.

(Participant # 18).

The idea behind the sports journalist's position is that, with a current role model for the sport of swimming, the possibility exists for that sporting discipline to one day have role models, which can provide a similar impact to the one occurring in athletics.

The role of the national association. The national association for athletics, the Jamaica Athletic Administrative Association (JAAA) was among the first sporting organizations formed in Jamaica. Established in 1932, this NSO has had over eighty-five years in providing administration to local and international members, and sport industry practitioners. Having started out as an amateur organization, the JAAA removed the amateur from its name in 2011, changing it from the Jamaica Amateur Athletic Association, to the name above. This was in response to changes on the international scene, where the focus had shifted from amateur athletes to allow professional athletes to compete in the Olympics Games, beginning as early as 1988 with new rules from the IOC.

Outside of its regular function like any other NSO having autonomy in Jamaica, and reporting only to the international governing body, the JAAA from quite early, established development meets for local athletes that incorporated a practice unlike other IAAF member countries. As a former elite athlete contributed:

The only policy we have outside of IAAF policies, which they would love to incorporate when [Lamine] Diack was President, was the many track and field meets we have on Saturdays, and it does not say to do this in an IAAF manual. However, our business is the development of track and field, so we would go around the countryside and have meets. The JAAA has virtually led many of the successes even before government was able to assist financially. These meets had regular support and attendance by many former

Olympians and influential members of society, like former Principals and Vice Chancellor of the University of the West Indies. (Participant #21)

With access to various means of financial support, the development meets sanctioned and sometimes coordinated by the JAAA, has increased over the last fifteen years, or so. For example, a sport scientist concluded, “There has been an explosion of development meets in Jamaica, and now there’s virtually a meet every weekend right through until March. That I think has been helped, and contributed to the development of the sport from the grassroots” (Participant #22).

The government provided some of the financial support the development meets and other areas related to athletics, and the JAAA maintains close contact with the political directorate in Jamaica, beginning from the early days with Norman Manley, and are usually the first called for advisement on sport development (Lawrence, 2017a). Therefore, several members of this association are often on government appointed boards, commissions, and advisory committees. Notwithstanding the close association to the government, the JAAA over the years and especially within the last twenty years, have been able to supplement the shortfalls in its budget through local and international sponsorship. Funding this shortfall is much better in recent times, but as one elite coach recalled, this was not always the case. The elite coach stated:

The Olympic Games in Australia [Sydney 2000] was quite a challenge for the athletes to prepare themselves, and although we have had many successes, we had little support from the local sporting organization and the local industries that could support, and that in itself has dampened the spirits of the athletes during that period. There were not as many sponsorship of athletes from the various international shoe and garment companies... the athletes were struggling to make ends meet. So the success rate of the JAAA was highly tempered on being below average, or average. (Participant #19)

The results from international competitions, such as, the 2000 and 2004 Olympic Games improved the fortunes of many elite athletes within athletics, and the local clubs began receiving more financial resources to provide direct support for top athletes and many aspirants.

Therefore, by not having to focus much on the well-being of top elite athletes, the JAAA with the financial backing of the government held the 2002 World Junior Athletics Championships, hosted in the Caribbean for the first time. This focus on junior athletes provided additional benefits for the development of the sport. A sport administrator offered some evidence, and stated, “We have benefitted, because we staged the 2002 Championships, where we upgraded the facilities, improved on equipment, training of human capital, especially the coaches and officials who received international recognition and status from being certified” (Participant #9). The hosting of the 2002 Championships was “very successful for the country, the JAAA, and the development of athletics”, as the sport administrator further added, which contributed to increase international recognition and funding. For example, the sport administrator also stated:

Previously, about 20 years or so, we didn't have an official national gear sponsor, and how we outfit our teams were done in various ways, I don't want to say adhoc ways, but was funded out of our pockets, now we have the benefit of an international gear sponsor in Puma. Puma has been very helpful to our development, as well as our development programs, and they ensure that our national athletes and officials are outfitted at local, regional and international competitions. (Participant #9)

With international sporting success, the sport of athletics has increased its efforts in the development of the sport, and the JAAA is recognized and financially supported for this success.

This sporting success has also increased the media attention and scrutiny of the JAAA, the affiliated members, and elite athletes. For example, Cowan (2015) reported on the JAAA's

decision to take 19 officials to the 2015 IAAF World Championships in Athletics in Beijing, which included a team leader, a manager and two assistants, six coaches, five massage therapists, a three-member medical team, and a media officer. The number of athletes attending the championships totalled 53. This decision by the JAAA to carry these officials, considered excessive and too large by many critics, required immediate attention by several members of the JAAA executive, including the President in the media. Another example highlighted the concerns of a known sports journalist regarding the development of junior athletes, who stated:

At the last World Championships [London 2017], we saw a number of emerging talents falling just short of medals and everybody was up in arms. What people fail to realise is that for the first time in about 10 years our main stars with the exception of Usain Bolt, were not there. Now we are exposed because Bolt finished third, because he was not at his best and that trigger that used to bring our athletes to the fore was not there anymore, they had to rely on the themselves. I need the administrators of this sport to start thinking about the possibility of employing a full-time sports psychologist to help these kids make the transition because it is not easy at all. (Richards, 2017)

These examples are just a few of the regular scrutiny meted-out to the athletic fraternity by the media, which provides a level of check and balance on the JAAA as it develops the sport of athletics.

In summary, this section on the development of an athletic fraternity identified a number of important environmental factors contributing to the international success of athletics.

First, competition within the high school system contributed to the development of tradition, culture and passion for the high schools that began internally with school competitions, and expanded externally to the national championships. This bond to the schools facilitated

opportunities for financial and voluntary support for the athletic program within each school, and replicated across the school sport system.

Second, the impact of having early international successes for the sport created role models and nationally recognized stars that gave back to the development of the sport as coaches, administrators, meet officials, and more. These role models mentored and guided the next generation of athletes and many in the athletic fraternity, and each generation has continued the trend as role models.

Third, the contribution of the NSO for athletics to the development of the sport, especially through the sanctioning and organizing of development meets to facilitate different phases of competition throughout the season, allowed coaches to assess the preparation levels of athletes. Additionally, the close relationship with the government puts the organizations in a position of high regard, and its members can directly influence decision-making. Furthermore, the successes within the sport allows for prospective positive returns for sponsors; therefore, sponsorship dollars have increased the funding support of the national association. Another environmental factor associated with the NSO and the wider athletic fraternity is the relationship with the media, which is positive throughout successes, but also scrutinized for actions and inactions, typically in response to pressing issues within the public domain.

Overseas Influence on the Development of Athletics

Throughout the history of Jamaican athletics, overseas influence has had its role in the development of the sport from the introduction by the former colonial master as a means of physical activity, to the many opportunities for Jamaican athletes to train and compete locally and overseas. The talent emerging from Jamaicans has been evident from the late 1800s and early 1900s, with some recording times similar to athletes competing at international events, such as the Olympic Games (Bertram, 2010a). Furthermore, the talent of Jamaicans observed

quite early by the international community and imported into other countries as a way to enhance the athletic product of some scholastic institutions, began a system of overseas scholarships. This section provides an overview of the findings associated with the overseas influence on the development of athletics, and falls into two categories: 1) foundational impact of the local system of training, and 2) access to scholarships overseas and a route to professionalism.

Foundational impact of the local system of training. The sport of athletics, introduced to the Jamaican colony by the British as a form of physical activity, began competitions within the sport in 1904 among some schools (Bertram, 2010a). This competition was not properly structured and organized, and ended by 1909. By 1910, the current national championships was established. The cultural orientation at that time, conceived around the elite class, allowed only a select group of schools to compete in national championships (Bertram, 2010a). Bertram (2010b) opines that during the early years of the national championships, Jamaican students consistently turned out times comparable to international standards in sprints, high jump, long jump, hurdles and pole vault. For example, Bertram (2010b) wrote:

With the benefit of hindsight, we can now see that Norman Manley should have gone to the 1912 Olympic with G. C. Foster as his coach. In both the 100 yards and the 120 yards hurdles, his times could have earned him a place among the finalists in both events.

Although the talents of the student-athletes were renowned, the mention of Gerald Claude (G. C.) Foster as the coach is an important contribution in terms of his knowledge and abilities to enhance the quality of coaching in Jamaica. Improving the abilities of the athletes represents a major step in the development of local athletes. The sporting college built in 1980 by the Cuban government got its name from this outstanding coach.

G. C. Foster was also an outstanding athlete who competed at athletic meets on the international circuit, and returned to Jamaica following his successful stints in the post-1908

Olympics in Britain (Bertram, 2010a). He was also a cricketer, who competed at the highest level in both cricket and athletics; however, it was his coaching in the inter-school competitions, which left his mark on the country. As Bertram (2010b) wrote:

After he stopped running in 1915, G. C. Foster began his career as a coach. His early efforts produced a line of national champions, including A. W. Jones and H. McDonald. In 1929, he played his last cricket match for Jamaica, and the following year, extended his coaching mission to Calabar High School. By then, he had developed a unique coaching style, which integrated his own creative ideas with what he had learnt from the English coach, Harry Andrews. The medicine board was standard equipment for all his athletes, and his favourite exercises included 'hundred-ups' and 'running in a straight line'. Honey was the staple of his nutritional formula, and he used the time devoted to regular massages to prepare his athletes for competition.

Under the guidance of G. C. Foster, Calabar High School, which has been competing since 1913 and had never won the national championships, won in 1930 and had similar successes for four consecutive years. His system of training helped to develop athletes, such as Arthur Wint and years later Herb McKenley. From a coaching perspective the system of training has been passed from coach to athlete, with the athlete later enhancing the knowledge and developing their own style of coaching. For example, Herb McKenley later became a renowned coach leading not only Jamaican teams to international events, but also several international teams, such as the American team to the inaugural World Cup Track and Field Championships in 1969, the Western Hemisphere team against Russia, and the Rest of the World team against Russia and the United States in 1971 (Davidson & Wynter, 1987). The coaching trend also continued with McKenley, as he also developed athletes who became coaches, one noted among them was Dennis Johnson, who competed for, and learnt from the international renowned coach, Lloyd

'Bud' Wynter. The contribution of G. C. Foster, Herb McKenley, and Dennis Johnson as former athletes moving on to the level of coach is major in the development of the local system of training, and represents the early foundations of quality coaching in Jamaica, with athletes stepping up by integrating the overseas influences of their own experiences.

Access to scholarships overseas and a route to professionalism. The talent of the Jamaican students provided opportunities that extended outside of Jamaica, and this system of access to overseas scholarships began in the early 1940s. As a sports journalist concluded:

The athletes have gone on and made money all on their own, some receiving scholarships to universities abroad, and afford themselves careers not necessarily in sports, but sport became a vehicle through which they actually could educate themselves. Remember, Herb McKenley was the first Jamaican school boy to actually get a sports scholarship back in 1943. That opened doors for many people to get to schools in the United States.
(Participant #22)

As the sports journalist highlighted, Herb McKenley was the first student-athlete to receive an overseas scholarship, where he attended Boston College and later moved to the University of Illinois that provided greater opportunities to develop and display his abilities (Davidson & Wynter, 1987). On the international stage, Herb McKenley dominated several United States collegiate championships, and later became a professional athlete in 1953 (Davidson & Wynter, 1987).

Herb McKenley's experience is one of many for Jamaican student-athletes taking-up scholarships overseas. From the early 1950s to the present, student-athletes with talent continues are recruited for overseas scholarships, and some has taken the step to the next level of becoming professional athletes. Until the advent of the train-at-home movement, the majority of

professional athletes from the sport of athletics transitioned out of the university system outside of Jamaica. As a former elite athlete contributed:

Well in those days [1950s and 1960s], every athlete, every runner, would go to the United States on a scholarship and develop there talents. Athletes from the high schools and even those from the junior college [CAST]. The CAST athletes were not allowed to compete for more than two years, so you they either blossom when they go overseas, or they come with some vicious running and you have to clean them up, let them compete, and then they go away to college or university overseas. (Participant #27)

Therefore, each year a large number of student-athletes received scholarships, while only a small number of the athletes made the transition to the professional ranks; however, the majority who persevered through the scholarship experience received a university education for their efforts. The former elite athlete earlier mentioned the CAST athletes. It is important to highlight that Dennis Johnson, himself an overseas scholarship recipient, established the athletic program at CAST, which began the train-at-home movement outlined in the next section.

In summary, this section on the overseas influence on the development of athletics highlighted a number of important environmental factors contributing to the international success of athletics.

First, talented athletes who travelled and competed internationally, received training and guidance from overseas coaches, either directly in Jamaica, or those encountered abroad. These athletes transitioned into coaching and developed the craft by enhancing on their own experiences as an athlete, and adjusted the coaching methods taught to them by their former coaches. These former athletes, turned coaches were catalyst in the foundational impact of the local system of training.

Second, the system of training enhanced the talents of the student-athletes and afforded them the opportunity for recruitment to overseas colleges and universities. The overseas scholarship allowed the athletes to develop their abilities, with some transitioning to the professional ranks and competed in international events for whatever earning opportunities were available at the time. The overseas scholarships, beginning with Herb McKenley, who returned to Jamaica to become a high school coach and an elite coach, remains today, and are still a major part of the local system of training. However, the train-at-home movement, developed from the local system of training has emerged as an alternative route to becoming a professional athlete in the sport of athletics, and this system has its roots from Dennis Johnson and the CAST athletic program.

The Train-At-Home Movement

The train-at-home movement is a component of the local system of training that facilitates the development of athletes in Jamaica. This movement, opined by many in the sporting industry (see Irving & Charlton, 2010; Robinson, 2009; Taylor, 2015), as the main contributor of the most recent international sporting successes in athletics, provides scholarships to high school athletes to train, compete, and be educated in the local system. Additionally, this movement provides opportunities for adult athletes to receive training in Jamaica, and compete both locally and internationally. This section provides an overview of the findings associated with the train-at-home movement and its contribution to the development of athletics, and the international sporting successes in the sport over the past twenty years. The section falls into two categories: 1) the development of the current movement; and 2) access to local resources and levels of motivation.

Development of the current movement. As previously mentioned in this chapter, there was an early club system developed in Jamaica (i.e., Olympic, Hotspurs and Unity), which was

“poorly organized and lasted until about 1958” (Participant #27). It was not until the 1960s and the training of adults and college-aged students resumed in Jamaica, when Dennis Johnson returned from his overseas scholarship in the United States. As a sport journalist stated:

The national sports policy really had nothing to do with the success of the athletes. Yeah, there are things like the CHASE Fund that were setup to help develop sports in Jamaica. But in real terms, when you look at what happened for example, Jamaica’s significant success during this golden era started pretty much with the likes of the MVP Track and Field Club, where they took the coaching to a whole other level. Stephen Francis... Let me go back a little bit, when Dennis Johnson came back from San Jose and became director of sports at CAST, he started what we now know as the homegrown talent program where we had people like, Anthony Davis right. And then there came people like Wayne Watson and Michael Nevers and others who formed the CAST Club that became the ‘Bolts of Lighting’, the first Club to go under 40 seconds in Jamaica.

(Participant #22)

Around 1966, Dennis Johnson began the program at CAST. Describing the early development of the program, a former elite athlete concluded:

Dennis believed he could make international runners right here in Jamaica, and starting that program was his proudest moment. It took a while to develop, but it was progressive where you had three, four, five athletes running 10.1, 10.2, which is good. (Participant #27)

The program still continues today at the University of Technology, Jamaica (UTech), which was the name given to CAST when it attained university status in 1995. The sport journalist earlier mentioned Coach Stephen Francis and the MVP Track and Field Club. The mentioning of this coach is significant, as Coach Francis who was a mentee of Dennis Johnson at the CAST

program, started the MVP Track and Field Club in 1999 at UTech, and has been credited with enhancing the train-at-home movement developed by Dennis Johnson. The CAST program which evolved into the UTech program, and the program at the MVP Track and Field Club are all coached by Stephen Francis and his brother Paul. The Francis brothers through the MVP Club, have built a reputation of international sporting success, as the sport journalist earlier concluded. Speaking about the contribution of MVP, a sport scientist also added:

The establishment of the local sports clubs or track and field clubs has contributed in a very great way. I would say certainly that private actors created these clubs, independent of any other system, independent of government, independent of the local national association. Clearly, if you look at the success at the turn of the century, the success has been phenomenal; the amount of medals they have won at global games has probably quadrupled. Prior to the two elite clubs in Jamaica, MVP and Racers Track Club, prior to 2000, I think MVP was established in 1999 and subsequent about five or six years later, Racers were established. Prior to that, all the athletes of a certain quality were absorbed into the NCAA system in North America. (Participant #1)

An important point highlighted by the sport scientist is the independent nature of the clubs; however, the independence are more accurate in terms of the financial support and investments, and the autonomous management of the clubs.

Furthermore, the two clubs, MVP and Racers have been successful in mixing their resources with established institutional systems. As one sport journalist opined, “MVP which is private sector, worked in sort of a coalition with a government educational institution to create champions. A few years later, Racers started a relationship with the UWI, in a way similar to how MVP operates” (Participant #18). The comments from the sport journalist highlights the

link where the professional track and field club calls the educational institution, home, and also provides coaching to the school's track and field teams.

Access to local resources and levels of motivation. The local based professional clubs provided access to resources that prior clubs in Jamaica and even the former CAST program had not possessed. For example, an elite coach opined:

I think the model taken on by the MVP Track and Field Club was a pioneering one. Post 1994, people started recognizing that they were earning opportunities with particular levels of organization, even though the opportunities were not necessarily here [in Jamaica], but it required you to organize yourselves proper from here to seek those opportunities overseas, such as having proper coaching in place and a system for the development of athletes. (Participant # 8)

Following on the lead of the MVP Club and their successful collaboration with an educational institution, several other professional clubs have begun similar programs at colleges and high schools. With the successes from international competitions, these clubs have not only attracted local athletes, but have added several overseas athletes to their camps. As a policymaker indicated:

We did a very cursory look, and in 2014 and 2015, we had athletes coming from over 19 countries at different points in time throughout the year that are training with various clubs, not just the three brand name clubs. (Participant #13)

The third club highlighted by the policymaker is the Sprintec Track Club that collaborates with the G. C. Foster College. Through these clubs, local athletes deciding to remain in Jamaica, not only train in a known environment, but it is the opportunity to test their levels of preparation against other elite athletes that they may face-off with at international events. As one bureaucrat stated:

The fact that they got to a stage where they could develop a club, coach these athletes because they always had the potential to coach, because they were doing it for so long, and they are trained and studied, and they have qualifications and then these athletes could still get the competition, because one time we felt that they had to go to the American University because that expose them to higher level competition. Now athletes train in Jamaica and goes off to Zurich and wherever else to run against the best in the world. (Participant #17)

Therefore, this new system of training facilitated the development of a professional track and field athlete, with an organized structure to prepare for competition, and to receive and manage the resources derived from the profession.

With this access to local resources, more athletes remained in Jamaica. In the past, some of the athletes who were not extremely talented, either settled for undesirable opportunities overseas or gave up on the sport. For example, a sport scientist concluded that for some athletes going overseas:

Not enough were coming through the system and being successful, and persons attribute this to the heavy collegiate work load...the lack of familiar support system representative of what they received in the high school system, where they were pampered, they were housed, fed, got their massages, got their nutritional needs taken care off. When they transitioned to the collegiate system, you have to live on basically what is provided for you; so a lot of them were not able to perform at the levels that were expected of them. (Participant #1)

Hence, a review of the Olympic medals won up to 1992, reflects a steady progress whereby Jamaican athletes further developed overseas, provided a consistent level of high competitive

performances on the world stage, but the number of elite athletes competing for Jamaica at that high level was small in comparison to levels participating from the train-at-home movement.

Additionally, the sport scientist further stated:

When the clubs were established in Jamaica, athletes were able to stay in Jamaica, and some of them actually went back to the days of being pampered. They were also close to family and friends... and the advent of those track and field clubs actually helped.

(Participant #1)

Notwithstanding the benefits highlighted for the train-at-home movement, not every athlete can get a local scholarship, or may decide to go professional after high school. Therefore, some athletes still take-up overseas scholarships. Further, some actually have taken the scholarship, received their education and overseas experience, and returned to the club system in Jamaica to train with the local coaches.

Athletes now possess a higher level of motivation within the sport of athletics, as they have seen over the past 15 years that Jamaica can develop world record holders and world beaters in the sport, and be highly compensated for their tireless efforts. As one elite athlete concluded, "Because of what we have done since 2006, 2007 coming up, more persons seem to be focusing on track and field because from Asafa [Powell] started to break world records, people said okay, this is the way to go" (Participant #23). Hence, athletes like Asafa Powell, Usain Bolt, Shelly-Ann Fraser-Pryce, Veronica Campbell-Brown, and others have shown the younger athletes that they can become a professional athletes, similar to many they would see competing internationally. As another elite stated:

I have to perform to a standard where I can obtain a contract, and I make that my goal for the entire season. I have to run a particular time to keep that contract, so for me, that is what I do for a living, this is my job. (Participant #25)

Therefore, the levels of motivation and the access to local resources have fostered a change in how sport is perceived in the wider society. Gone are the days, as a bureaucrat posited, when parents used to say, “Where you going with that? That’s not going to put the kind of money on the table that I want to see, I wouldn’t send you to school for seven years to go and do track. What is that?” (Participant #30). Now athletes are motivated to both remain home and access the local resources, or to go overseas and take-up those opportunities with the knowledge that they can return to Jamaica and expand their careers.

Nevertheless, the local system of training, especially the advent of the train-at-home movement, cannot be said to function directly on its own, that is, outside of some arrangement with an educational institution. Therefore, it needs to be acknowledged that, notwithstanding the investments of the private actors within the local clubs, each government-sanctioned and funded educational institution provides some connection to the Government of Jamaica, even if the financial support cannot easily be identified, and represents a quiet role of government. The next section will outline the findings associated with this quiet role of government.

In summary, this section on the train-at-home movement provided evidence to support some major aspects in the development of the local system of training and indicated a number of important environmental factors contributing to the international success of athletics.

First, the train-at-home movement provided another way for athletes to take-up scholarships in Jamaica either after high school, or for those adults who wished to train locally, to have an organized system to prepare and compete. This movement started by Dennis Johnson and expanded by Stephen Francis and the MVP Track and Field Club have been instrumental in the development of athletics in Jamaica. The radical shift that started with MVP in 1999, and the many others that followed, made the difference in the increased medals won at the Olympic Games and other international athletic events. The shift that occurred involved the development

of a professionally organized and managed club system, situated within an educational institution. This model taken-up by the MVP Club expanded nationally and led to the development of similar clubs in collaboration with educational institutions.

Second, the train-at-home movement provided access to local resources that facilitated athletes who typically would transition to universities overseas, to prepare, train, and compete on the local and international stage. Furthermore, athletes from other countries would travel to Jamaica and prepare, train and compete as part of these clubs. Local athletes leaving the high school system, received motivation to remain in Jamaica, or go abroad and eventually return, as it had become evident by observing athletes like Asafa Powell, Usain Bolt, and others, that the sport could afford opportunities to become a professional athlete and provide monetary benefits.

The Quiet Role of Government

Chapter 5 provided support for the development of sport in Jamaica through the financial input of the government, especially from national lottery taxes collected by the CHASE Fund and disbursed by the SDF. The SPLISS conceptual framework, which guides this study, only provides guidance on the input-throughput-output process that takes into account the financial support allocated through JSP. Further, the framework acknowledges the role of environment factors, and indicates that these may have an equal possibility of contributing to international sporting success. This section provides an overview of the findings associated with the role of government and its contribution to the international sporting successes of athletics outside of the financial input invested in the development of sport. The section falls into two categories: 1) no accidental occurrence; and 2) not easily identifiable financial support.

No accidental occurrence. As a reminder, the successes of the sport of athletics started from 1948, in respect to success at the Olympic Games, while the formal sport policy was not introduced until 1994. In terms of the role of government in contributing to this success, the

results shows a mixed perspective, with some participants indicating the successes of athletics being accidental and not guided by government policies and structure. Other participants did not attribute the success of athletics to the government, but to the presence of some structural system. Some participants outright offered a perspective of the contribution of private actors to the recent Olympic successes without any involvement of the government. For example, a sport scientist concluded:

I wouldn't say it's an accidental occurrence, there is a clear structured system. Where it is being led from, that's another question. I wouldn't say that the JAAA is the driving force at this point in time, but the rules and regulations are there and has to be followed.

However, initially there wasn't this umbrella that covered everything, and allowed things to feed from bottom-up to elitism, but there is clearly a structure. Who owns the structure and how it is connected, that we have to decipher a little bit more? (Participant #1)

The main point of this statement is the fact that there is a structure in place. Although it is not clear as to the main driver of the structure, the national organization is perceived to be the main institution behind the system, even if it's only through its governing mechanisms. Similarly, a policymaker highlighted:

I don't think it's accidental, because, in whatever form whether through just practice or tradition. The fact that sport was always in the school system and it is the basis for our recruiting and unearthing of talent, and while sports was always there, track and field was one of those sport that started competition early, when you have boys championship, which is over 100 years old. So, it is definitely not accidental. (Participant #13)

The mentioning of the school system and the early competition within the high schools, for over a century, provides some evidence to support the sport scientist conclusion of a structured system that facilitates the development of talent within the sport.

On the other hand, a sport administrator provides an opposite perspective on the role of the government and the NSO, positing:

It's more an accident... I have never seen a plan whether by the government or whoever, to say, Okay, here is what we plan to do. We need to get to the Olympic Games, we are going to develop 100 track and field athletes and hopefully we are seriously going to concentrate on 10 or the 100. Hopefully, by the time the Olympics comes around we will have six people who are at this level. That clearly tells me, ok, there is no plan strategically. Maybe people themselves, personally, individuals, have that strategy. I want to get to Olympic Games. I need to make sure I can eat right, my nutrition, I train five days a week, and rest two days, and do all of these necessary things. So, an individual would do that, or even a coach. There is no connection between the coach and the JAAA in terms of saying, ok feed me with your plan, and as a coach I will see how best I can put, or lend some assistance to that strategy you have. (Participant #10)

Therefore, the sport administrator's perspective takes the position that not only has there been no direct strategy by the government, but since the JAAA is recognized as an autonomous organization, it in itself have not forwarded a strategy to its members, especially coaches for the development of elite athletes to compete at the Olympic Games. The mention of individuals or coaches provides a significant source of evidence, as this indicates a possible scenario of athletes and coaches undertaking the task to prepare for international events on their own. As a sport journalist added, "Our successes in track and field has to be more, the results of individual coaches taking on a professional approach" (Participant # 22). Hence, the professional approach that the sport journalist highlights is the contribution of the clubs in forwarding the train-at-home movement. As an elite coach indicates, it is the real reason for the successes in the sport since the 2000s. For example, the elite coach stated:

The success of Jamaican athletics to-date, and over the last decade, is due wholly and solely to a club structure, which is not necessarily even recognized much less administered by government or the national association, but which are private decisions by individuals and groups to push in this direction, and that essentially is where all our success have come from unfortunately. (Participant #8)

With that clear articulation of the role of the clubs and the contributions made through private investment, organization and management, the elite coach further concluded:

It has absolutely nothing to do with a body, whether governmental or organizational, saying, hey let us see if we can develop this through, let us ask these five coaches or these 10 coaches to create a structure of training their athletes, let us provide them with X amount of support in the initial stages while they develop these groups and let's see if it will have a success impact on our society, on our results. It did not involve no structure of any sorts, it was based on peoples own ambitions. (Participant #8)

Therefore, beginning with the efforts of Coach Stephen Francis and the other private actors within the MVP Track and Field Club, other coaches followed this lead, and as previously shown, several clubs have aligned their professional clubs with educational institutions.

Not easily identifiable financial support. The results indicates that the main catalyst behind the successes of athletics is its connection to the educational institutions, beginning with the early high schools and much later the involvement of the tertiary level institutions (i.e., local universities and colleges). Outside of funding support to the G. C. Foster College through the SDF, other governmental support to educational institutions, channelled through the Ministry of Education, are not easily identifiable. These funds include administrative and operational expenses for staff that may play a role in the development of sport, and not directly employed and compensated for that purpose. For example, the sport master system, earlier mentioned by

Participant #27, which indicates the role of the teacher who may have a main job of engaging students in a subject area like History, but will also be the track and field coach. Additionally, each school has an athletic facility, which requires maintenance, and these individuals, employed as ancillary workers, has several job functions, and those sports related may be a small component. In the context of the high schools contribution to the successes of athletics, and the government's not so easily identifiable support, a bureaucrat offered the following conclusion:

When I talk of financial support, I go beyond the specific things because you have to see governance from the perspective of literally the support given to the schools. So when you have championships with 80-100 schools competing vigorously, there's government hand in that. Grant it, people will say, we didn't get enough. The field isn't good and all of that, but the fact is there is that basic support, and I'm not talking now government purely from the ministry, but from the perspective of your tax payer dollars. These schools are put there, and the stage is set, and we have a stadium, and yes there was a time when maybe the facilities weren't so good, and we still have a long way to go, but it was being provided. When G. C. Foster was built, thanks to the assistance of the Cubans, that level of support allowed for greater competition, on quality surfaces, with technical training because in my view, what separates athletics from other sports is the plethora of trained, highly trained coaches that began to be distributed across the length and breadth of Jamaica. (Participant #17)

This conclusion by the bureaucrat puts one major contribution into perspective. For example, the decision to seek or accept the sport college provided by the Cuban government is monumental, and a former elite athlete (Participant #21) earlier opined that the JAAA through its close association with the government, played a role in those decisions. As the bureaucrat further added:

Success of athletics is by no means accidental. But I don't think that I could attribute it to the strategic approach of government as such. I think that is still in the making, to be blunt. When we say government in Jamaica, everybody tends to think of the current. Remember, let's just talk from independence. Government has been around from 1962, independent of the English and whatever, and so we're talking about governments through the decades and so I could not attribute it to a strategic approach. It's just that it wasn't being lead necessarily from a government perspective. (Participant #17)

Therefore, the role of the government cannot be viewed only from a financial standpoint. Consideration should be given as to the decisions made over-time, and the incremental steps taken to advance the development of sport. As Chapter 5 showed, following the 1994 JSP, the government implemented several strategies towards the development of sport, including decisions and strategies specific to elite athletes in the sport of athletics.

Furthermore, as highlighted in Figure 4-1 in Chapter 4, the sport ministry works in collaboration with other government ministries and agencies, and each institution contributes some aspect of sport, physical activity or wellness to the wider society, with some having a role in the development of elite sport. As a policymaker indicated:

We looked at all the ministries and agencies, and found that almost every ministry is involved in a sport activity. You have the SDC mobilizing communities through sports, the Ministry of National Security and Justice through their 'citizen's security and justice initiative', and every Member of Parliament uses their constituency development fund to do sporting activities. (Participant #13)

The funding for these sporting activities are included in the broad budgetary allocations for each ministry and agency, and while some serves a direct sport-related purpose, others may indirectly benefit the development of sport.

In summary, this section on the quiet role of government offered mixed perspectives on the contribution of the government to the success of athletics. It provided evidence to support the role of the government, outside of its financial support through the national lottery funds, and indicated a number of important environmental factors contributing to the international success of athletics.

First, some results indicate the successes in athletics were not attributable to any government, but to the presence of some structural system. Although this structure is not easily identifiable, the national organization for athletics through its governing mechanisms gets some recognition. Another result concluded that the school system and the early competitions within the high schools developed a system, which has lasted for over a century, and facilitates the development of talent. The results indicate these were by no means an accidental occurrence, but through practice and tradition, while others offer a perspective on the role of private actor in contributing to the recent Olympic successes without any involvement of the government. The results indicate the role of individuals and coaches, classified as private actors within the club system undertaking the task to prepare for international competitions on their own. It further indicated a link between the club system and educational institutions.

Second, the results identified the catalyst behind the successes of sport, as athletics having a connection to educational institutions, beginning early with the high schools and much later in the universities and colleges. The funding provided for these educational institutions, outside of those allocated by the SDF, are not easily identifiable. These include the administrative and operational expenses provided through the Ministry of Education, which benefits sport development, but were not necessarily budgeted for sport. There was a similar occurrence in other ministries and agencies that support and fund some aspect of sporting activity, even contributions to elite sport development. Therefore, the role of the government

cannot be viewed only from a financial standpoint; consideration should be given as to the decisions made over time and the incremental steps taken to advance the development of sport.

Overall, this section highlighted several environmental factors contributing to the successes in athletics. Table 6-1 outlines the core environmental factors representing the development of the sport that has created a fraternity. This fraternity is rich in tradition, culture and passion, intertwined in a system developed over time through the local and overseas experiences of individuals that went through the process and had the ability to effect modifications at various stages of the development. The success of athletics has two components, first, the role of governments past and present in establishing and supporting the educational institutions, and second, the role of private actors and the investments made in a professional local club system. The next section outlines its combination for the total success of athletics.

Table 6-1.

Core Environmental Factors Associated with the Success of Athletics in Jamaica

Core Environmental Factors	Activation of the Core Environmental Factors
Development of an Athletic Fraternity	Tradition, culture and passion
	Impact of role models
	The role of the national association
Overseas Influence	Foundational impact of the local system of training
	Access to scholarships overseas
	Experiences developed from athlete/coach interactions
Train-At-Home Movement	Modifications to the local system of training
	Private actors impact
	Increased levels of motivation
Quiet Role of Government	Educational institution role
	Not easily identifiable financial support

Coalescing of Factors for Athletics Success

Funding in some way or form underscores the main factors behind the development of athletics in Jamaica, and contributing to its international sporting successes. The results indicate that a coalescing of several factors facilitated this success and represented a combination of public sector funding and resources, and private sector investment, organization and professional management. The following sections will outline these categories.

Public Sector Funding and Resources

The contribution of the government to the successes of athletics involves the allocation of public sector funding and resources, which may be directly budgeted for sport or have an indirect impact on the development of sport. The funding allocated by past governments – colonial or Jamaican contributed to the creation and development of an educational system that facilitated the growth of tradition and culture within the high schools. The majority of the early educational institutions had a link to the churches, and over time, government took responsibility for these schools, with the churches maintaining some interest and connection. Also included in the realm of educational institutions funded by the government are the colleges and universities. Teacher's colleges, introduced by the churches and colonial government, facilitated the development of sport before the formal introduction of a university/college tertiary level institution. One major aspect in common for these educational institutions is the access to land established early in their development and assigned specifically for sport and physical activity.

Since the early establishment of the educational institutions, the role of funding from either the churches, governments, or a mix of both, did not stop unless the institution closed. In addition, the national lottery-funding source in the early 1990s enhanced the contributions to the educational institutions, and increased with the 2013-revised JSP. Furthermore, the budgetary

support for these institutions, again, did not stop, and the respective public sector ministry controls the allocation of these resources as a direct or in-direct support for sport.

Private Sector Investment and Professionalism

The church played an integral role in the establishment of several educational institutions, and represented an early involvement of private actors in the development of the education sector. Sport, introduced into this sector very early, facilitated a competitive school-sport system that allowed for the building of tradition, culture and passion for not only the sport of athletics, but also most critically, the pride and bond to the respective high schools. This feeling of pride and bond provided support through monetary and human capacity that contributed to the development of athletics in the schools, and also to the overall health and well-being of athletes. In terms of monetary support, for example, alumni contributes to the past-students association, which in turns, allocate funding in various ways to the schools. In regards to human capacity, alumni and sometimes well-wishers, volunteer time, experience, and personal resources to the athletic programs in the schools, as coaches, managers, and other functionaries.

Additionally, the educational institutions also provides access to the wider community that utilizes its resources and facilities. This practice, highlighted in this study, was encouraged by the colonial government in the early formation of the schools, and enhanced with the creation of government institutions to advance sport at the community level. This government support established community organizations and youth clubs that took advantage of the resources within the school system. Therefore, results indicates the formation of an early club system by private actors in the 1950s for the advancement of sport that also utilized the school and community facilities. However, these early clubs were poorly funded, not effectively organized and managed, and did not last for long. The results also show that in 1966, the establishment of a formal system at CAST to prepare athletes to represent the college in athletic competition had

better funding, institutional support, and administrative leadership.

The program at CAST had both a club system and a school-sport system in existence, and this approach facilitated the involvement of individual actors in various capacities. One such individual actor, Stephen Francis, along with his partners, introduced a professional athletic club in 1999, at the educational institution that only a few years earlier, received university status and changed its name to the University of Technology, Jamaica. The MVP Track and Field Club was established and represented an organization that prepared local and foreign athletes in Jamaica, with the intended purpose to compete at local and international events. Some of the local and international events provides monetary compensation, and the clubs and its members would benefit. The MVP Club was the first of many clubs, established with the intention to prepare professional athletes, and the increased number of clubs allowed for an increased number of athletes to remain in Jamaica, and train with local elite coaches. Therefore, the professional clubs, with its alignment to an educational institution, not only improved the development of sport within that institution, but it facilitated an increase in the number of athletes having the ability to attain the necessary international standards to compete in events, such as the Olympic Games.

Combination of Public and Private Sector Support Systems

The mixture of public and private sector resources facilitated the required financial inputs necessary in the overall development of the sport of athletics. Prior to the formal introduction of national sport policy, the international successes occurred at a much smaller level, as the numbers representing Jamaica at international events were also lower. However, the systems that supported and facilitated the smaller numbers remained consistent until the establishment of the professional club system. Therefore, prior to the modification of the train-at-home movement, the majority of the Olympic medals attained, occurred from mostly athletes with connections to

overseas training, and to lesser extent, a small pocket of athletes training locally with high school coaches. When the national lottery funding introduced through the SDF in 1995, commenced allocations, the majority of the funding support for sport development went directly to the football (soccer) program. This was intentional by the government and represented its support for the team's preparations to qualify for the 1998 World Cup in France. While the introduction of the JSP provided more financial support to NSOs, in the early years, this support represented only an allocation to administrative expenses, and minimal operational support. The financial input required to develop the sport was not readily available from the government.

For athletics, this financial input came through the investments of private actors in the professional clubs willing to provide the resources to support the development of the athletic career of athletes. This support system included an effective management structure for both athletes and the club, access to international sport agents and sponsors, access to health and medical services locally and overseas, proper nutritional programs, and consistent access to local and international competitive events. The train-at-home movement facilitated the development of areas in which the government may not necessarily would have undertaken, and as such, filled a void with a worthwhile investment.

All the results indicates that the success of athletics from 1996 onwards, was the consequence of a coalescing of several factors, and neither the government, nor the private actors should conclude that one contribution was more significant. The results further indicate that the factors contributing to the success of athletics in Jamaica are representative of established frameworks for elite sport policies, such as the SPLISS model; however, the country-specific and sport-specific context are critical factors in the successful attainment of JSP outputs and outcomes. Therefore, a meso-level application of the conceptual framework can contribute to the development of the sport, but the Jamaican case indicates that micro- and macro-level factors

coalesced with meso-level factors, and not only lead to the attainment of national output, such as medals, but the achievement of national outcomes, such as pride, bonds of unity, and increase economic benefits.

Summary and Further Analysis

The objective of Study 3 was to explore how the most successful of the Jamaican sporting disciplines attained international competitive success and contributed to the achievement of the national outcomes. The study examined the following research questions in relations to this objective: (1) What are the most significant results for the elite sport of athletics?; (2) How was the apparent success of athletics achieved and are the factors of success different from established frameworks for elite sport policies?; and (3) How do the perceived factors of athletics success coalesce with established frameworks for elite sport policies?

In answering the first research question, the athletes, who represented Jamaica in 1948, could not have competed at the elite level on their own, without the support and sanctioning of the JOA and the JAAA. The most significant results shows that between 1948 and 1992, a period of 44 years, Jamaican Olympic medals in athletics totalled 23 with four gold, and between 1996 and 2016, a period of 20 years, athletics brought in 53 medals with 18 gold. Only the sport of cycling medalled for Jamaica, outside of athletics. This indicates that long before the actual implementation of national sport policy, the sporting discipline of athletics, experienced international competitive success at the elite level. Furthermore, without a formal policy for elite sport, the development of the systems behind the sport of athletics facilitated the elite sporting success between 1948 and 1992. Additionally, the systems behind the earlier successes of athletics are perceived to have received support that facilitated the elite sporting success between 1996 and 2016.

In summary, the short answer to this research question is that athletes cannot compete for the country without first getting approval by the national governing body. Between 1948 and 1992, a period of 44 years, Jamaica Olympic medals in athletics totalled 23 with four gold medals, and between 1996 and 2016, a period of 20 years, athletics brought in 53 medals with 18 gold medals. This indicates a system of development that facilitated the elite sporting success between 1948 and 1992, and the successes between 1996 and 2016 received support that enhanced the previous system.

The second research question explored the environmental factors associated with the successes of athletics and considered the levels of success through the lens of established frameworks for elite sport policies. The results highlighted four core environmental factors associated with the Jamaican environment of elite sport: 1) the development of an athletic fraternity; 2) the impact of overseas influence; 3) the train-at-home movement; and 4) the quiet role of government.

For the development of an athletic fraternity identified three levels in which activation of the core environmental factors took place. First, competition within the high school system contributed to the development of tradition, culture and passion for the high schools that began internally with school competitions, and expanded externally to the national championships. This bond to the schools facilitated opportunities for financial and voluntary support for the athletic program within each school, and replicated across the school-sport system. Second, the impact of having early international successes for the sport created role models and nationally recognized stars that gave back to the development of the sport as coaches, administrators, meet officials, and more. These role models mentored and guided the next generation of athletes and many in the athletic fraternity, and each generation has continued the trend as role models.

Third, the contribution of the NSO for athletics to the development of the sport, especially through the sanctioning and organizing of development meets to facilitate different phases of competition throughout the season, allowed coaches to assess the preparation levels of athletes. Additionally, the close relationship with the government puts the organizations in a position of high regard, and its members can directly influence decision-making. Furthermore, the successes within the sport allows for prospective positive returns for sponsors; therefore, sponsorship dollars have increased the funding support of the national association. Another environmental factor associated with the NSO and the wider athletic fraternity is the relationship with the media, which is positive throughout successes, but also scrutinized for actions and inactions, typically in response to pressing issues within the public domain.

The next factor, the overseas influence on the development of athletics, identified two levels in which activation of the core environmental factors took place. First, talented athletes who travelled and competed internationally, received training and guidance from overseas coaches, either directly in Jamaica, or those encountered abroad. These athletes transitioned into coaching and developed the craft by enhancing on their own experiences as an athlete, and adjusted the coaching methods taught to them by their former coaches. Second, the system of training enhanced the talents of the student-athletes and afforded them the opportunity for recruitment to overseas colleges and universities. The overseas scholarship allowed the athletes to develop their abilities, with some transitioning to the professional ranks and competed in international events for whatever earning opportunities were available at the time.

Another factor, the train-at-home movement, provided evidence to support some major aspects in the development of the local system of training and identified three levels in which activation of the core environmental factors took place. First, the train-at-home movement provided another way for athletes to take-up scholarships in Jamaica, either after high school or

for those adults who wished to train locally, to have an organized system to prepare and compete. This movement started by Dennis Johnson and expanded by Stephen Francis and the MVP Track and Field Club have been instrumental in the development of athletics in Jamaica. The radical shift that started with MVP in 1999, and the many others that followed, made the difference in the increased medals won at the Olympic Games and other international athletic events. The shift involved the development of a professionally organized and managed club system, situated within an educational institution. This model taken-up by the MVP Club expanded nationally and led to the development of similar clubs in collaboration with educational institutions.

Second, the train-at-home movement provided access to local resources that helped athletes who typically would transition to universities overseas, to prepare, train, and compete on the local and international stage. Furthermore, athletes from other countries would travel to Jamaica and prepare, train and compete as part of these clubs. Local athletes leaving the high school system received motivation to remain in Jamaica or go abroad and eventually return, as it had become evident by observing successful elite athletes that the sport could afford opportunities to become a professional and provide monetary benefits.

The final factor, the quiet role of government offered mixed perspectives on the contribution of the government to the success of athletics. It provided evidence to support the role of the government, outside of its financial input through the national lottery funds, and identified two levels in which activation of the core environmental factors took place. First, some results indicated the successes in athletics were not attributable to any government, but to the presence of a structural system. Although this structure is not easily identifiable, the national organization for athletics through its governing mechanisms gets some recognition. Another result concluded that the school system and the early competitions within the high schools developed a system, which has lasted for over a century and which as facilitated the development

of talent. This, the results indicate, is by no means an accidental occurrence, but is due to practice and tradition. Other participants offered a perspective on the role of private actor in contributing to the recent Olympic successes without any involvement of the government. The results indicate the role of individuals and coaches, classified as private actors within the club system, as undertaking the task to prepare for international competitions on their own. It further indicated a link between the club system and educational institutions.

Second, the results identified the catalyst behind the successes of sport, as athletics having a connection to educational institutions, beginning early with the high schools and much later in the universities and colleges. The funding provided for these educational institutions outside of those allocated by the SDF, are not easily identifiable. These include the administrative and operational expenses provided through the Ministry of Education, which benefited sport development, but were not necessarily budgeted for sport. There was a similar occurrence in other ministries and agencies that support and fund some aspect of sporting activity, even contributions to elite sport development. Therefore, the role of the government cannot be viewed only from a financial standpoint; consideration should be given as to the decisions made over time and the incremental steps taken to advance the development of sport.

In summary, the short answer to this research question is that the core environmental factors represented the development of the sport that has created a fraternity. This fraternity is rich in tradition, culture and passion, intertwined in a system developed over time through the local and overseas experiences of individuals who went through the process and had the ability to effect modifications at various stages of the development. The success of athletics has two components: first, the role of governments past and present in establishing and supporting the educational institutions; and second, the role of private actors and the investments made in a professional local club system. The results indicate that the environmental factors are

representative of established frameworks for elite sport policies, such as the SPLISS model; however, the country-specific and sport-specific context are critical factors in the successful attainment of national sport policy outputs and outcomes.

The third research question examined the coalescing of several factors contributing to the development of a system that facilitated the success of athletics. These factors represented a combination of public sector funding and resources, as well as private sector investment, organization and professional management.

In the first instance, the contribution of the government to the successes of athletics, involves the allocation of public sector funding and resources, which may be directly budgeted for sport or have an indirect impact on the development of sport. The funding allocated by past governments – colonial or Jamaican – contributed to the creation and development of an educational system that facilitated the growth of tradition and culture within the high schools. Majority of the early educational institutions had a link to the churches, and they had access to lands, established early in their development and assigned specifically for sport and physical activity. The national lottery-funding source in the early 1990s enhanced the contributions to the educational institutions, and increased with the 2013-revised JSP. Furthermore, the educational institutions receives a consistent level of budgetary support from the respective public sector ministries, a process started under the colonial government, and still continues with the allocation of these resources as a direct or indirect support for sport.

Secondly, the educational institutions provide access to the wider community that utilizes their resources and facilities. The results indicate the formation of an early club system by private actors in the 1950s; however, these early clubs were poorly funded, not effectively organized and managed, and did not last for long. The results also show that, in 1966, a formal program at CAST was established to prepare athletes to represent the college in athletic

competition and had better funding, institutional support, and administrative leadership. The CAST program had both a club system and a school-sport system. Stephen Francis, along with his partners, introduced a professional athletic club in 1999 at the educational institution that, only a few years earlier, received university status and changed its name to the University of Technology, Jamaica. The MVP Track and Field Club was established and represented an organization that prepared local and foreign athletes in Jamaica, with the intended purpose to compete at local and international events. Some of the local and international events provides monetary compensation, and the clubs and its members would benefit. The MVP Club was the first of many clubs established with the intention to prepare professional athletes, and the increased number of clubs allowed for an increased number of athletes to remain in Jamaica, and train with local elite coaches. Therefore, the professional clubs, with their alignment to an educational institution, not only improved the development of sport within that institution, but also facilitated an increase in the number of athletes having the ability to attain the necessary international standards to compete in events such as the Olympic Games.

The combination of public and private sector resources facilitated the required financial inputs necessary in the overall development of the sport of athletics. Prior to 1994, the international successes occurred at a much smaller level, as the numbers representing Jamaica at international events were also lower. The systems that supported and facilitated the smaller numbers remained consistent until the establishment of the professional club system. Therefore, prior to the modification of the train-at-home movement, the majority of the Olympic medals attained occurred mostly from athletes with connections to overseas training and, to lesser extent, a small pocket of athletes training locally with high school coaches. When the national lottery funding, introduced through the SDF in 1995, commenced allocations, the majority of the

funding support for sport development went directly to the football (soccer) program. The financial input required to develop athletics was not readily available from the government.

The financial input for athletics came through the investments of private actors in the professional clubs, willing to provide the resources to support the development of the athletic career of athletes. This support system included an effective management structure for both athletes and the club, access to international sport agents and sponsors, access to health and medical services locally and overseas, proper nutritional programs, and consistent access to local and international competitive events. The train-at-home movement facilitated the development of areas in which the government would not necessarily have undertaken, and as such, filled a void with a worthwhile investment.

In summary, the short answer to this research question is that the success of athletics from 1996 onwards was the consequence of a coalescing of several factors, and neither the government nor the private actors should conclude that one contribution was more significant. The factors contributing to the success of athletics in Jamaica are representative of established frameworks for elite sport policies, such as the SPLISS model; however, the country-specific and sport-specific context are critical factors in the successful attainment of national sport policy outputs and outcomes.

Therefore, a meso-level application of the conceptual framework can contribute to the development of a sport, but the Jamaican case indicates that micro- and macro-level factors coalesced with meso-level factors, which not only led to the attainment of national outputs, such as medals, but the achievement of national outcomes, such as pride, bonds of unity, and increase economic benefits.

Table 6-2

Graphical Representation of Study 3 Contribution to Thesis Purpose

Thesis Purpose:		
To explore the development of elite sport through national sport policy, within a developing country.		
Objective #3:		
To explore how the most successful of the sporting disciplines attained international competitive success and contributed to the achievement of national outcomes.		
Research Questions	Results	Contribution to Thesis Purpose
<p>S₃RQ₁:</p> <p>What are the most significant results for the elite sport of athletics?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Athletes cannot compete for the country without first getting approval by the national governing body. • Between 1948 and 1992, a period of 44 years, Jamaica Olympic medals in athletics totalled 23 with four golds, and between 1996 and 2016, a period of 20 years, athletics brought in 53 medals with 18 golds. • Some system of development facilitated the elite sporting success between 1948 and 1992. • The successes between 1996 and 2016 received support that enhanced the previous system. 	<p>While athletes from the early 1900s showed an interest in competing in the Olympic Games, the sport of athletics only received membership to the IOC in 1936. The first Games were immediately successful in 1948, and successes at the Games, continued, with a total medal count over the past 68 years at 76. A system of training and competition developed over time through the local and overseas experiences of athletes that later became coaches and role models, and assisted in creating a fraternity in the sport through tradition, culture and passion. The environmental factors associated with the success of athletics are representative of established frameworks, and this success involved the role of past and present government supporting the educational institutions that collaborate with private actors and the investments made in a professional local club system. The system of training that</p>
<p>S₃RQ₂:</p> <p>How was the apparent success of athletics achieved and are the factors of success different from established frameworks for elite sport policies?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The core environmental factors represented the development of the sport that created a fraternity. • This fraternity is rich in tradition, culture and passion, intertwined in a system developed over time through the local and overseas experiences of individuals that went through the process and became role models, had the ability to effect modifications at various stages of the development. • The success of athletics has two components: first, the role of governments past and present in establishing and supporting the educational institutions; and second, the role of private actors and the investments made in a professional local club system. • The environmental factors are representative of established frameworks for elite sport policies, such as the SPLISS model. 	<p>While athletes from the early 1900s showed an interest in competing in the Olympic Games, the sport of athletics only received membership to the IOC in 1936. The first Games were immediately successful in 1948, and successes at the Games, continued, with a total medal count over the past 68 years at 76. A system of training and competition developed over time through the local and overseas experiences of athletes that later became coaches and role models, and assisted in creating a fraternity in the sport through tradition, culture and passion. The environmental factors associated with the success of athletics are representative of established frameworks, and this success involved the role of past and present government supporting the educational institutions that collaborate with private actors and the investments made in a professional local club system. The system of training that</p>
<p>S₃RQ₃:</p> <p>How do the perceived factors of athletics</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The success of athletics from 1996 onwards, was the consequence of a coalescing of several factors, and neither the government, 	<p>While athletes from the early 1900s showed an interest in competing in the Olympic Games, the sport of athletics only received membership to the IOC in 1936. The first Games were immediately successful in 1948, and successes at the Games, continued, with a total medal count over the past 68 years at 76. A system of training and competition developed over time through the local and overseas experiences of athletes that later became coaches and role models, and assisted in creating a fraternity in the sport through tradition, culture and passion. The environmental factors associated with the success of athletics are representative of established frameworks, and this success involved the role of past and present government supporting the educational institutions that collaborate with private actors and the investments made in a professional local club system. The system of training that</p>

<p>success coalesce with established frameworks for elite sport policies?</p>	<p>nor the private actors should conclude that one contribution was more significant.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The country-specific and sport-specific context are critical factors in the successful attainment of national sport policy outputs and outcomes. • A meso-level application of the conceptual framework can contribute to the development of sport, but the Jamaican case indicates that micro- and macro-level factors coalesced with meso-level factors, and not only led to the attainment of national outputs, such as medals, but also to the achievement of national outcomes, such as pride, bonds of unity, and increase economic benefits. 	<p>existed prior to the first sport policy was modified to include the train-at-home movement, allowing for a coalescing of factors that benefitted from public and private funding that lead to the attainment of national outputs, such as medals, and the achievement of national outcomes, such as pride, bonds of unity, and increase economic benefits.</p>
---	--	---

This chapter outlined the factors contributing to the success of athletics in Jamaica. It identified that the elite sporting success at international competitions, such as the Olympic Games, first occurred in 1948, while Jamaica was a colony of the United Kingdom, some 46 years before the first JSP in 1994. Between 1948 and 1992, a period of 44 years, Jamaican Olympic medals in athletics totalled 23, and between 1996 and 2016, a period of 20 years, athletics brought in 53 medals, thereby amassing 76 medals over 68 years. The success prior to 1994 involved a developed system of training, while the period following 1994 reflects a coalescing of factors, including those funded by the public and private sector. The next chapter discusses the overall findings for the thesis, answers its purpose, and outline its contributions and implications.

CHAPTER 7: Discussion

The purpose of this thesis was to explore the development of elite sport through national sport policy within a developing country. This purpose, accomplished in part by exploring the most successful elite sport in Jamaica, athletics (track and field), identified two ways to develop elite sport. First, the SPLISS conceptual framework (De Bosscher et al., 2006, 2008, 2015) lens provided guidance in understanding the contribution of governments in influencing the development of elite sport by introducing national sport policy. Additionally, the decisions, actions, and inactions taken over time by respective governments reflect a planned or unplanned path dependence, or incremental phase of development. This was examined from the perspective of past governments, the colonial government up to the granting of universal adult suffrage and the right to vote in Jamaica in 1943, to the self-determined governments between 1944 and 1962, and to independent governments since 1962. Second, an examination of the environment of elite sport (Digel, 2000, as cited in De Bosscher et al., 2015; De Bosscher et al., 2015) allowed the researcher to understand the factors outside of government influence (through national sport policy) that contribute to the development of elite sport. In order to achieve this purpose, this thesis conducted three interconnected studies, the results of which are outlined next before addressing the fourth objective of this thesis.

Explaining Elite Sport Development in Jamaica

The findings from the three interconnected studies highlight that the development of elite sport in Jamaica occurred from a coalescing of factors that not only includes the support from government, but the consistent support of other factors within the environment of elite sports. Within elite sport development, the output of increasing participation and winning medals are common among nations (De Bosscher et al., 2015), and the outcomes tends to underpin a national focus, such as building bonds of unity and increasing the economic benefits that will add

value to the national economy. These findings are described through a graphical representation of: 1) a theoretical proposition of the influence of the national sport policy; 2) a rival proposition of the contribution of environmental factors; and 3) an explanation of the existence of a loose but working network.

Theoretical Proposition: The Influence of the National Sport Policy

The SPLISS conceptual framework developed by De Bosscher and colleagues (2006) suggested that international sporting success is possible when governments introduce national sport policy to influence the processes relevant to the development of sport capable of competition on the global stage. The SPLISS framework explains that a source of financial input is required to allow for the creation and development of processes, considered as throughputs that will lead to outputs and outcomes. The model also acknowledges the contribution of inputs from the sport environment that facilitate elite success at the global level, indicating that the environment is difficult to quantify but is equally able to facilitate elite success. Consequently, the three studies' interconnectivity in this thesis facilitated a separate examination of the contribution of inputs from national sport policy (Study 2), and the contribution of environmental factors (Study 3). By first establishing the foundational development of government structures in Jamaica (Study 1), Figure 4-1 in Chapter 4 provided a representation of the administration in place to formulate and implement national sport policy, including the national lottery as funding source. Establishing this source of evidence provided clarity and direction to further understand the financial support and environmental factors contributing to Pillar 1 of the SPLISS framework.

Furthermore, the conceptual framework provided guidance in the formulation of the theoretical proposition in terms of the 'inputs' and 'throughputs' aspects in the development of a logic model suggested by Wholey (1979), while Millar, Simeone, and Carnevale (2001) provided

insights on the ‘outputs’ and ‘outcomes’. The theoretical proposition established for the thesis purpose was:

National sport policy through elite sport development can contribute to international sporting success and the achievement of stated national outcomes.

The inclusion of the stated national outcomes in the proposition represents De Bosscher, Sotiriadou and van Bottenburg’s (2013) conclusion that governments typically use outcomes, such as national identity and national pride, as justification for financial investment in national sport policy. With that in mind, the study accepted Wholey’s (1979) position that logic models trace inputs, throughputs, outputs, and outcomes. Therefore, Figure 7-1 outlines the influence of national sport policy on the development of sport following the above-stated theoretical proposition.

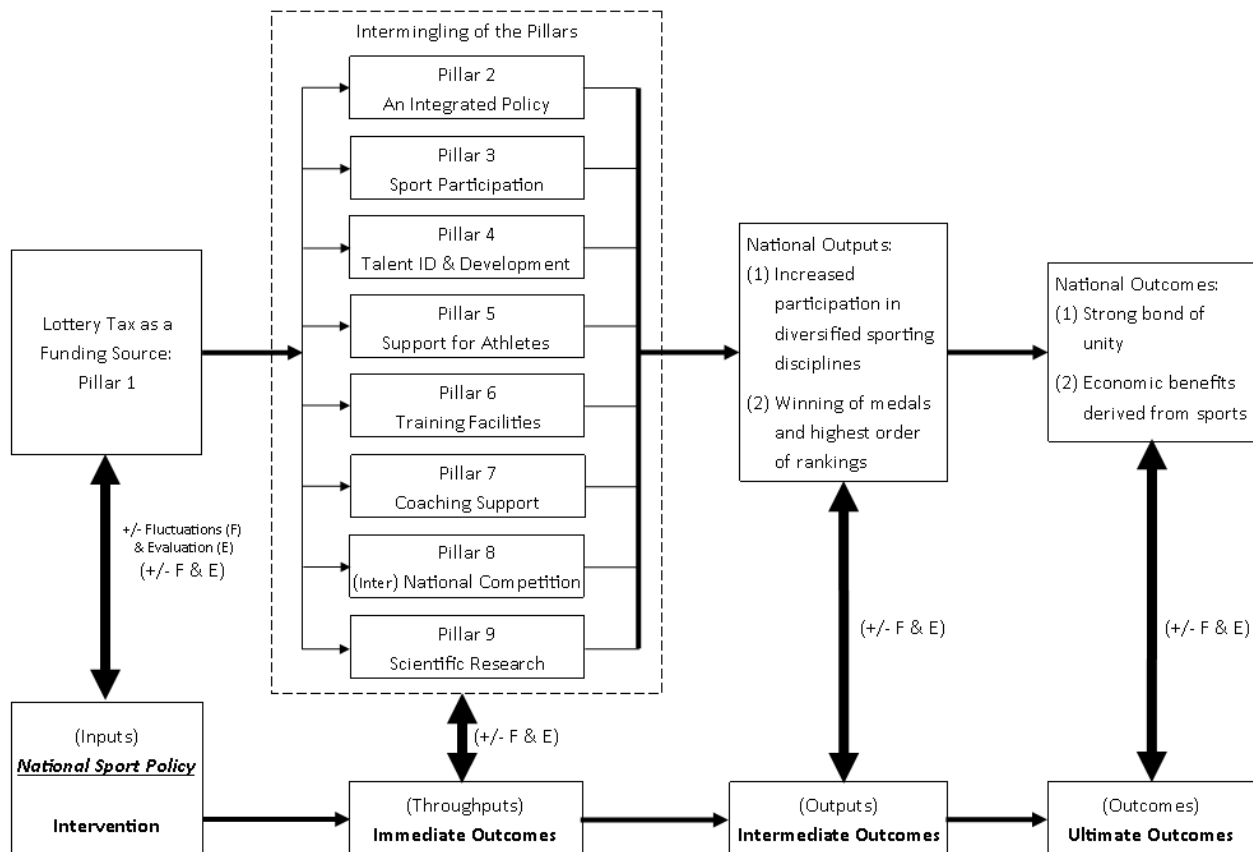


Figure 7-1. Influence of national sport policy on elite sport development.

With a foundational understanding of the political organization and government structures in the formulation and development of national sport policy from Study 1, Study 2 provided the core results in addressing the theoretical proposition represented in Figure 7-1. Using the quantifiable source of national lottery tax funding from 1995 to 2017 as the financial input recommended by De Bosscher and colleagues (2006), the results indicated that all the throughput factors received some financial support. This financial support contributed to improvements in sporting facilities on the local level in schools and communities, in addition to administrative services within the NSOs, which enhanced the development of sport but did not significantly contribute to the development of elite sport. In Jamaica, there are no institutions for elite sport development; the autonomous NSOs are responsible for this development.

For athletics, some of the key factors developed for the sport to compete internationally within the throughputs, represented as Pillars 2-9 in Figure 7-1, were established prior to 1994 and the introduction of the JSP. Therefore, the international successes in the sport had an established system of training that allowed for the acquisition, preparation, nurturing and retention of the elite athletes recording the national outputs by winning medals at the Olympic Games. For example, as Robinson (2009) found and the findings from this study supported, athletes identified within the school system at a young age received financial support from private actors, either past students of the athlete's educational institution or an athlete benefactor. This financial support provided nutrition, medical, gear, and general wellbeing for the athlete, leaving that athlete's family, who may not have been in a position to support in a similar way, to focus on providing emotional support to the athlete. Hence, the 23 medals won at the Olympic Games from 1948 to 1992, are attributed to the system of development and training, and not formal national sport policy, although the medal outputs attained contributed to the national bond of unity. Conversely, Study 3 suggested that the influence of the JSP also did not contribute

directly to the winning of the 53 medals at the Olympic Games from 1996 to 2016 during the period when formal policy and its subsequent revision was in place. However, Study 3 found that the decisions, actions and inactions by past governments, over time, created the situation, which contributed to elite sporting success, in collaboration with environmental factors outside of government input and control.

Rival Proposition: The Contribution of Environmental Factors

The central thesis of the SPLISS conceptual framework is that financial input will lead to the processing of throughputs contributing to desired outputs and outcomes. While focusing on all input factors, financial and otherwise, outside of the allocations made through the national lottery tax, a rival proposition was developed to explore and acknowledge the potential contribution of environmental factors for elite sport development. The rival proposition established was:

The achievement of stated national outcomes has occurred without the contribution of national sport policy to the development of elite sport.

Additionally, while keeping De Bosscher, Sotiriadou and van Bottenburg's (2013) conclusion that governments typically use outcomes, such as national identity and national pride as justification for financial investment in national sport policy. The rival proposition, as represented in Figure 7-2, maintains that the outputs and outcomes hold similar justifications for any other inputs, as the source of funding required in processing the throughputs, leading to some desired result.

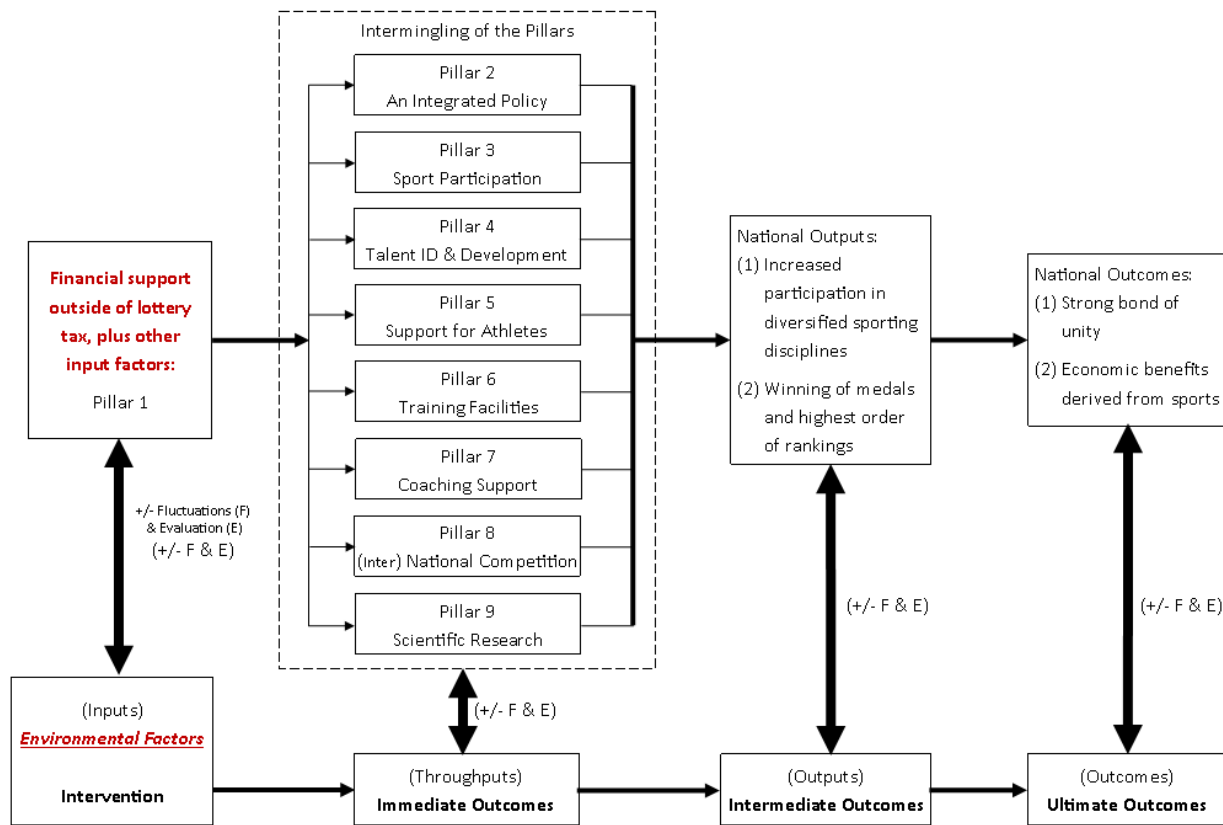


Figure 7-2. Contribution of environmental factors. Differences with Figure 7-1 are noted in red.

The core results from Study 3 outlined that a system of training and competition developed over many years with the high school sport system was central to the identification and development of athletes. In addition to the impact of the high school sport system that established tradition, culture and passion for the sport, modifications of the system of training through the local and overseas experiences of athletes that later became coaches and role models assisted in creating a fraternity in the sport. This also establish a bond that started through the high schools-2 tradition and facilitated a national bond of unity for the successful exploits from athletics. The environmental factors associated with the success of athletics are representative of established frameworks, indicated by De Bosscher and colleagues (2015), which included a role for the national education system, and the influence of private actors as partners within the development of sport process. Hence, the environmental factors associated with athletics success

involved the decisions and actions of past and present governments supporting the educational institutions that later collaborated with private actors, who invested in a professional local club system. Furthermore, the system of training that existed prior to the first sport policy was modified to include the train-at-home movement. As figure 7-2 depicts, the inputs from environmental factors enhanced throughputs which were already established or created. What resulted was a system of training that created professional athletes within the facilities located at educational institutions, and the financial input from private actors supported the development of individual elite athletes, allowing for the attainment of national outputs, such as medals, and the achievement of national outcomes, such as pride, bonds of unity and increase economic benefits through revenue for government, and especially for elite athletes and the professional club systems.

Explanation: An Informal But Working Network

Based on the results noted in Chapter 6, the development of elite sport in Jamaica appears to represent an informal but working network of public and private sector resources that facilitated the required financial and other inputs necessary in the overall development of the sport of athletics. Prior to the formal introduction of a national sport policy, the international successes occurred at a much smaller level, as the numbers representing Jamaica at international events were also lower. However, the systems that supported and facilitated the smaller numbers remained consistent until the establishment of the professional club system. Therefore, prior to the modification of the train-at-home movement, the majority of the Olympic medals attained occurred from mostly athletes with connections to overseas training, and to lesser extent, a small pocket of athletes training locally with high school coaches. While the introduction of the JSP provided more financial support to NSOs, in the early years, this support represented only an allocation to administrative expenses and minimal operational support. The financial input

required to develop the sport was not readily available from the government. As depicted in Figure 7-3, the combination of the JSP and environmental factors contributed to the enhancement of a local system of training developed over more than a century. This is represented as the intermingling of existing factors and the creation of new factors.

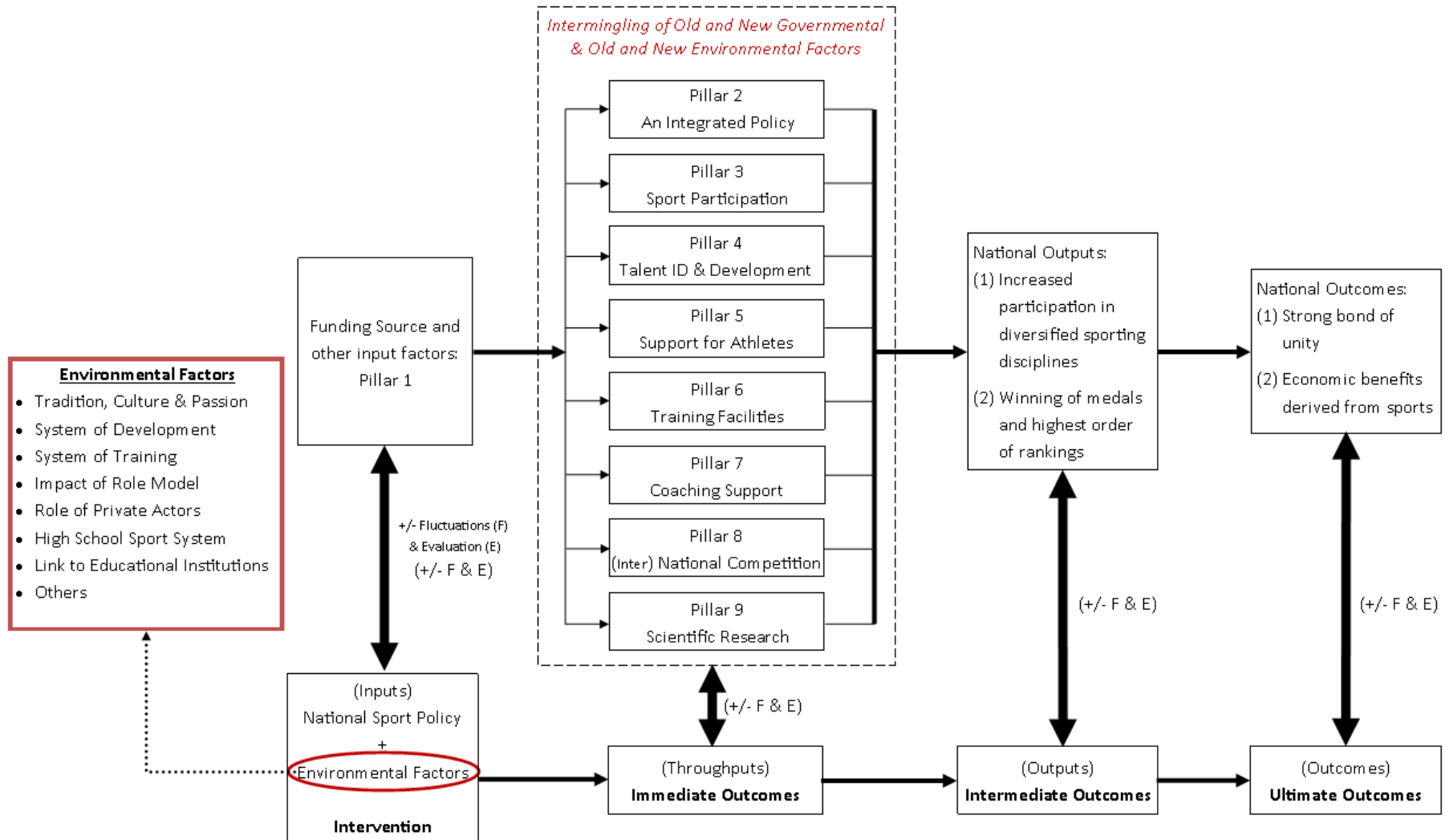


Figure 7-3. An informal but working network for the development of elite sport: a revised SPLISS model for developing countries (revisions are noted in red).

For athletics, this new financial input came through the investments of private actors in the professional clubs willing to provide the resources to support the development of the athletic career of athletes. This support system included an effective management structure for both athletes and the club, access to international sport agents and sponsors, access to health and medical services locally and overseas, proper nutritional programs, and consistent access to local and international competitive events. The train-at-home movement facilitated the development of areas in which the government may not necessarily would have undertaken, and as such, filled a void with a worthwhile investment.

The results indicated that the success of athletics from 1996 onwards was the consequence of a coalescing of several factors, and neither the government, nor the private actors should conclude that one contribution was more significant. The results further indicated that the factors contributing to the success of athletics in Jamaica are representative of established frameworks for elite sport policies, such as the SPLISS model; however, the country-specific and sport-specific context are critical factors in the successful attainment of national sport policy outputs and outcomes. Furthermore, while the SPLISS model recognizes the role of environmental factors, the model depicts a line of contribution to outputs and outcomes, but does not reflect a line of contribution rooted through Pillar 2 and throughout the other Pillars. The loose but working network for the development of elite sport in Jamaica supports the role of the environment in elite sport development but also identifies that it is equally important to have a JSP. Therefore, a meso-level application of the conceptual framework can contribute to the development of the sport, but the Jamaican case indicates that micro- and macro-level factors coalesced with meso-level factors, and not only lead to the attainment of national output, such as medals, but the achievement of national outcomes, such as pride, bonds of unity, and increase economic benefits.

Connecting the Factors for Elite Sporting Success

As outlined in Figure 1-1 of Chapter 1, this thesis included a fourth objective, which was to explore how the country-specific factors affect the implementation of current elite sport development models and expand the analytical generalization for sport policy frameworks. The Jamaica example explored in this thesis highlights a coalescing of factors implemented through past and present government actions, decisions and policies, and the contribution of environmental factors developed over more than a century and modified in recent years to increase elite sporting successes. While the SPLISS model recognizes the importance of the local context to elite sporting success, it does not advance a direction in which that local context is capable of leading to international sporting success outside of the contribution of an elite sport policy. For example, and as seen in this thesis, within the sport of athletics, athletes can prepare for international competition without the contribution of government resources, and would represent the country by becoming members of the autonomous national governing bodies. If the professional clubs in Jamaica removed themselves from the government funded educational institutions and created a facility to train, then these athletes would still be capable of international sporting success. They would continue to win medals and contribute to the national image, bond of unity and identity, thereby providing economic benefits associated with achieving the ultimate outcome of financial investment in elite sport.

The country-specific factors suggest that the local system of training is capable of producing athletes on its own, developed through the school system, and if engaged in a professional system that care, protect and nurture the athletes, can represent the country and win medals. Funding support is a core factor in this success, and the country-specific example from Jamaica highlights that the environment for elite sport can function outside of sport policy to

attain international sporting success – elite sport policy is not necessarily the key contributing factor, at least in developing countries like Jamaica.

Results Transferability: Linking the Jamaican Case to Other Jurisdictions

The development of the elite sport of athletics in Jamaica highlights a system of sport development that is loose and unstructured. In countries like the United States of America (USA), Canada and the United Kingdom, sport development follows a path that reflects a long-term athlete development (LTAD) model as described by Bayli, Way and Higgs (2013). The major difference between the USA and the other countries is a national sport policy, whereby the USA does not have a Federal office directing the development of sport through policy. The LTAD model advances a path to high performance and elite sport development and underpins the development in specific age groups. While the LTAD model is criticised as one-dimensional, it provides a pathway that can be modified in a country-specific way, incorporating the historical context for the development of sport. Hence, in Jamaica, where there is no similar model allowing all sporting disciplines to develop their sport in a structured way, the local system of development creates avenues for advantages in one sport over another, resulting in different levels of development and opportunities for talent identification. Therefore, the development of athletics and football (soccer) has benefitted more than other sporting disciplines, and has had a similar path that involves a link to the educational institutions, and the traditions, culture and passion developed through the high school sport system involving the support of private actors. What may be different, however, are the early successes in athletics in international competitions, and the impact and contribution of representatives of that success in term of role models to build and enhance the system of training and the development of the sport.

The international sporting successes of athletics in Jamaica reflects a form of sport development similar to the USA that involves the role of professional sport. Athletics, unlike

other sporting disciplines in Jamaica can easily adapt to modifications in its system of development, as that sport is capable of generating its own funding support and operate outside of the influence of government and sport policy. The government in developing countries can look to incorporating their country-specific context for sport development with that of the LTAD model, which will facilitate structure in sport development and benefits from the local environment for sport germane to that country and its available resources. Thus, the findings in this thesis may be applicable not only to developing countries, but also to countries without specific national sport policies and LTAD models.

Contributions

A core contention for this thesis surrounded a situation that this researcher indicated in Chapter 1 as requiring clarification. The contention is in regards to the successes in athletics, and whether 1) these successes were part of a direct strategy for competitive advantage and were a successful implementation of elite sport development in Jamaica's sport policy, or 2) if these successes occurred outside of sport policy factors. The thesis addressed those important questions. The next section discusses its contribution to gaps in theory and literature, and identify levels of application to practice. Further, it provided evidence stemming from the critical analysis of the successful Jamaican athletic case of its country-specific factors' ability to coalesce with known factors from the literature to garner this athletic success.

This thesis provided new information and understanding on elite sport development from the perspective of a developing country. It presented a qualitative viewpoint and quantifiable spend for the input-throughput process, the 'black box' of the SPLISS conceptual framework. The thesis also provided understanding of the functionality of the environment of elite sport, and offered a path towards the development of a system of training capable of achieving international

sporting success. These contributions to the theory, literature and practice of elite sport policy are detailed below.

Contributions to Theory

The theoretical foundation incorporated in this thesis involves the SPLISS conceptual framework (De Bosscher et al., 2006, 2008, 2015). The present thesis supports De Bosscher and colleagues' (2016) perspective on divergence in elite sport policy, and the importance in understanding the history of the sport and how it contributes to elite sport development within that country. Beyond this, one contribution of this thesis to theory rests on the way the intervention through funding support (Pillar 1) and other inputs are represented in the model. First, the conceptual framework accepts the contribution of several inputs to the attainment of outputs and outcomes, such as government funding, the role of the NSO, and the environment of elite sport. However, it only depicts the financial input from government as central to the processing of throughputs, represented in Pillars 2-9, and does not specify the input of the environment of sport, which it acknowledges can be difficult to measure. However, as Study 2 and Study 3 have shown, the environment of elite sport can include other forms of inputs, and when coalesced with old and new factors in the throughput stage (Pillars 2-9), can lead to international sporting success. Through a qualitative account of the throughput process, the 'black box' of SPLISS can be identified through a direct support of some sport development factors, or an intermingling of the factors. For example, the findings from this study indicates that financial support does not only come through interventions from the government, but also from private actors, going directly to the development of sport, and athlete development and support in particular. Through the private club system, athletes are funded directly; and as the MVP track and field club has shown, international sporting success can be achieved outside of financial support from the government, as these private clubs generate their own funding support

internationally. Moreover, several other private clubs have incorporated the MVP model and have prepared elite athletes without the direct financial support of the government.

Second, the conceptual framework does not provide clear guidance on the role of past actions and decisions outside of official elite sport policy. As Study 2 highlighted, several important milestones implemented in the development of sport, in general, which affect elite sport in particular, as the level that effect international sporting success, are integral in the development of elite sport. Furthermore, Study 3 contributed that the past actions and decisions of government and the factors attributable to the environment of elite sport can benefit from modification to established practices that increase international sporting success. Additionally, Study 3 found that aspects of the environment of elite sport could function outside of the influence of official national sport policy. More specifically, if the local system of training and development remains constant without government influence, the professional club system could sustain and possibly improve on the outputs (i.e., medals won and increased participation levels) and outcomes (i.e., strong bond of unity and economic benefits). This explains the radical shift from 23 medals at the Olympic Games from 1948–1992, to 53 medals at the Games from 1996–2016, and supports De Bosscher and colleagues' (2015) view of the importance of the country- and sport-specific context.

Contributions to Literature

This thesis makes two specific contributions to literature and answered the call for a better understanding of the processes contributing to elite sport success. First, Henry and Ko (2015) called for a qualitative view of the throughput phase in the SPLISS model. Study 2 provided the perspective of expert participants who suggested ways in which the financial input from government funding contributes to the development of sport in Pillar 2-9 of the SPLISS model. Furthermore, the thesis expanded the qualitative understanding on the environment of

elite sport highlighted in Study 3, and introduced several factors that can contribute to elite sport success. Additionally, it provided an historical context surrounding the country-specific development of sport identified as equally important to elite sport development by De Bosscher and colleagues (2016), and presented a qualitative account of the local system of training.

Second, this thesis makes a significant contribution by addressing the chicken or the egg debate (e.g., Weber, De Bosscher, & Kempf, 2018): does national funding influence international sporting success, or does international sporting success influence national funding? This thesis provided support to highlight two perspectives in advancing the literature. In the first instance and before formal sport policy and funding support, the decisions and actions of past governments implemented strategies that facilitated the development of sport, and the system that developed subsequently was capable of achieving international sporting success without national funding. In this regard, the decisions and actions of government influence international sporting success and contributed to the success of athletics in Jamaica from 1948 to 1992, not dedicated national funding. In the second instance, the success of Jamaican athletics and other elite sport (e.g., netball and soccer) had a direct influence on national funding and the formulation of the 1994 JSP, and the 2013 revision. This thesis describes the contribution of a modified local system of training that expanded to a professional club system within the established educational institutions, and that collaboration contributed to the success of athletics in Jamaica from 1996 to 2016, not national funding. Therefore, the contribution of the thesis to this debate supports a view that international sporting success influences national funding. However, if the historical country-specific context is critically analysed, government decisions and actions made early in the country's development may create the foundational support required for international sporting success, and there could have been some related national

funding from the government's budget towards that effort, which may not have an intended purpose for elite sport development.

Contributions to Practice

The findings from this thesis informs practice by indicating that practitioners in the first instance, should conduct a critical analysis of the historical context for the development of sport, and secondly, associate that historical context with the current national output and outcomes for the country. This would allow practitioners to better understand their competitive advantage and be able to efficiently and effectively allocate resources towards successful elite sport development. This process would be useful for both government policymakers and sport-specific decision makers.

Furthermore, the thesis directly provides developing countries with a roadmap towards enhancing their country-specific focus on the development of sport. For example, developing countries often indicate a level of financial constraints in funding sport, with governments forced to justify that spend. By strategically formulating and implementing a national sport policy incorporating a combined approach, that includes public and private sector financial and other support systems, practitioners would benefit from the best of both sides. In the case of Jamaica as well as other nations with resource constraints, it serves the national interest to have a coordinated system for the development of elite sport, organized through a dedicated institution with that desired focus. Practitioners should understand that without a coordinated strategy that has buy-in from all stakeholders in the national sport system, governments would continuously be reactive in policymaking, which allows other members of the informal network to benefit from their investments and be recognized as contributing factors for international sporting successes.

Finally, some practitioners may place value in the genetic make-up of their nation's athletes, and the debate continues surrounding genetics and natural talent. However, this thesis provides practitioners with key understandings regarding how they can strategically develop elite sport in their countries. Democratic governments, especially in developing countries are better served in investing time to understand the national sport system, before investing money in an attempt to provide support to all sporting disciplines. As this thesis highlighted, the reasoning for this surrounds the system of sport participation and talent identification; a national system may inherently favour one sport over another, which may increase the opportunities for finding talented and trainable athletes leading to the creation of a competitive advantage in a given sporting discipline

Implications for Researchers

De Bosscher and colleagues (2015) highlighted the inability to measure the environment of elite sport, but this thesis showed that a qualitative approach provides information to support the success of a local system of training and development in contributing to international sporting success, and not the JSP. Through the case study strategy (Yin, 2018), a qualitative focus was able to provide meaning and understanding for financial input and allocations to the process of elite sport development. As such, SPLISS researchers and others incorporating the conceptual framework should include a methodology that considers a qualitative approach to understand the processing of interventions outside of a particular financial input. Understanding the historical context of a country and identifying other factors outside of government influence can also contribute to international sporting success. This will provide the country-specific and sport-specific context where SPLISS can be modelled to show the coalescing of factors, occurring at the micro-, macro-, and meso-levels.

Implications for Managers

The findings from this thesis have implications for several members of the national sport system. For the NSOs, the findings inform practice and provide a roadmap towards assessing their sporting discipline in an attempt to understand the historical context surrounding the systems integral to its development. This allows for meaning and understanding in approaches that involve the development of team-sports and individual-sport. Additionally, information on the role of the government and the role of the environment of sport can guide strategic planning efforts.

For policymakers and bureaucrats, the findings relate to empirical implications that provide supports for sport policy formulation, implementation and evaluation. The SPLISS conceptual framework allows for insight into meso-level factors capable of developing a sport system towards the attainment of stated national outputs and outcomes. The findings from this thesis provide understanding of the environment of sport, and equipped with that information, government officials can make effective and efficient policy decisions.

The findings of the thesis also have implication for the wider society, including private actors considering investing in the development of sport, for profit, and looking to implement efficient and effective management practices. As this thesis demonstrated, sport managers within the professional club system, for example, now have empirically-analyzed ways to approach potential collaborations with governments for successful elite sport development. The thesis also provides understanding for what it takes to develop an elite sport capable of winning medals at international competitions and contribute to national bond and identity, while allowing opportunities for economic benefits.

Reflections on the Doctoral Research Process

It is important to highlight from the beginning of this reflection that the system developed to guide a student towards completion of the doctoral studies works. This researcher had a dream for a long time to one-day walk across the stage and collect a university degree. The year before completing undergraduate studies, this researcher attended his university's commencement as student body president, and while seated on the stage, he made a promise to himself that he would walk across the stage once from university. Therefore, the following year, he did not attend the ceremony. Upon completing his master's degree, he sat in the arena, read his name among the list of awarded degrees, and watched his colleagues walk across the stage; being there was painful, but his journey needed to continue. His time at the University of Ottawa has been one filled with challenges caused from personal life and decisions. The many challenges experienced throughout his doctoral studies, made him a better academic, and a better human being.

This reflection was started by attesting to the structural effectiveness of the doctoral system, and that it actually works. Students begin an academic pursuit of knowledge from different levels of preparedness. For this researcher, he needed guidance and direction about the process, and while he had to learn quite a lot through his own efforts, he is extremely thankful for the doctoral system, as it kept him achieving his goals for each step. From the beginning, it was important to choose the right courses to take that will provide a foundation for future work; for me, it was a course on public policy theories, which had to be done outside of my Faculty. The research proposal and comprehensive exam stages provided practical exposure in the preparation of research, and was extremely important aspects of the process. I can now reflect, with hindsight, that the initial guidance and support received over the first four years took me

only one-fourth through my journey, and the remaining time has made me a much better academic.

Finally, my doctoral journey took a village to provide the support I needed to overcome the many personal challenges, and I will hasten to advise future doctoral candidates to have at least one real support from within the corridors of their university and, if possible, the doctoral program. While I had several support sources from within my university corridors, I had one real support, to whom I will be forever grateful. The doctoral journey is indeed a lonely road, but having a thesis topic that you own makes a difference. For me, my topic is one developed from a system of tradition, culture and passion, which I am extremely proud to find is a contributing factor for Jamaica's elite sporting successes.

CHAPTER 8: Conclusions

The overall purpose of this thesis was to explore the development of elite sport through national sport policy within a developing country. This purpose, accomplished in part by exploring the most successful elite sport in Jamaica, athletics (track and field), incorporated three interconnected studies, each focusing on specific objectives. Taking a qualitative research approach, the purpose was achieved by conducting a case study research strategy, supported by three sources of evidence – archival records, documentation, and semi-structured interviews. These sources were important given this researcher's social constructionist theoretical perspective. The SPLISS conceptual framework (De Bosscher et al., 2006) provided guidance in understanding the contribution of governments in influencing the development of elite sport by introducing national sport policy. The SPLISS model was also useful in guiding this thesis with understanding of the contributions of micro-, meso-, and macro-level factors considered integral in elite sport development and international sporting success. The remainder of this chapter takes the following structure: 1) a summary of key findings; 2) limitations of the thesis; avenues for future research; and 4) concluding remarks.

Summary of Key Findings

The findings from the three interconnected studies contributed to the thesis purpose by each having a study objective and three research questions. A summary of the findings from each study follows.

Study 1: Creating the Systems for Sport Development

The objective of Study 1 was to explore the political, administrative, and financial systems established for the creation and delivery of sport development. The three research questions examined and their specific findings are as follows:

(1) How were the government structures created for sport policy?

- Formal political parties contested elections to form a government, with authority to create public policy.
- Some policies were inherited from the former colonial government (e.g., school sports and community sports) and required enhancements.
- Other actions and decisions were taken through formal statements towards the development of sport.
- Government ministries and agencies were established to implement these government actions and decisions.

(2) How does the government implement sport policy?

- Government decides to formulate and implement sport policy.
- The Ministry of Sport engages all partners and recommends a sport policy for approval.
- Approved sport policy is mandated to the Ministry of Sport to coordinate and collaborate with all implementation partners.

(3) How is the government implementation of sport policy prioritized and financially supported?

- Sport policy is considered a high priority.
- Budgetary allocations for sport policy implementation remain a low priority.
- Sport policy implementation is funded by:
 - Governments' annual budget, and
 - National lottery as the real source for funding the development of sport.

Study 1 found that the roots of Jamaica's sport development began with the planned or unplanned introduction of school sport and community sport by the former colonial British government. With the right to vote, the Jamaican people established a democratic government,

which allowed for the creation of ministries and agencies to formulate and implement public policy priorities, and to evaluate inherited policies. In the Jamaican case, the government maintained the inherited school and community sport policies, and made provisions for enhancement, funding, and collaboration with sport industry partners for continued delivery.

Study 2: Government Contribution to the National Sport System

The objective of Study 2 was to explore how the national sport system contributed, if at all, to the development of sporting disciplines capable of achieving the national outcomes. The three research questions examined and their findings are as follows:

(1) How has the development of elite sport evolved up to 2017?

- The school and community sport systems played a critical role in the early stages of development and established the foundations for active participation, identification, and development of talented athletes.
- The creation of NSOs allowed for a public-private collaboration for the development of sport, which began prior to receiving independence in 1962.
- This collaborated effort continued after 1962, and expanded the objectives and strategies of the government to include facilities, institutions, regulations, policy frameworks, and eventually a source of funding.
- The role of private actors, some transitioning into government with the authority and power to effect change needs recognition.
- The role of these private actors and their influence in both private and public development of sport allows for possible conclusions in terms of the chicken or the egg dilemma, of what came first, successful sport or successful policy. The findings indicates that successful sport came first.

(2) What were the sport policies formulated for the development of elite sport?

- The first sport policy of 1994 provided a guideline for national development, and while identifying strategies for elite sport development, no clear plan for implementation was outlined.
- The 2013-revised sport policy received more sport industry consultation and buy-in than the 1994 sport policy, and strategies for the development of elite sport were identified, with possible funding support for implementation.
- The sport policy allows for some strategies for elite sport development. But, no specific government agency has responsibility for elite sport, so it remains the responsibility of the NSOs and private actors through local and international clubs to develop athletes for elite sporting successes.
- The sport policy has a number of stated national outputs and outcomes.

(3) How has the government input through financial support contributed to the development of elite sport in an effort to achieve the stated sport policy outcomes?

- The financial input contributed to the development of sport, in general.
- The funding support for the sporting disciplines of track and field, football, netball, and swimming advanced the development of elite sport in each discipline, but not the creation of a national system for elite sport.
- Support for track and field is a result of the influence of its national sporting association and the international results attained since 1948.
- The results of international competitions and the attainment of international sporting successes facilitated the possible achievement of the stated sport policy outcomes.

Study 2 found that the role of private actors, some transitioning into government with the authority and power to effect change, improved on the opportunities provided in the school and community sport systems by the former colonial British government. By establishing the roots of

sport development early, decisions and actions for self-government formulated objectives and strategies towards a national development of sport. Facilities, institutions, regulations, policy frameworks, and eventually a source of funding would follow. Therefore, through reforming policy objectives and strategies, and allocating financial support towards sporting disciplines capable of achieving international sporting successes, stated national policy output such as (a) increased global participation and competitiveness in several sporting discipline, and (b) winning of medals and highest order ranking, was attainable. Additionally, the ultimate national outcome of strong bonds of unity and economic benefits derived from sport became achievable.

Study 3: The Most Successful Sport and its National Contribution

The objective of Study 3 was to explore how the most successful of the sporting disciplines attained international competitive success and contributed to the achievement of the national outcomes. The three research questions examined and their findings are as follows:

(1) What are the most significant results for the elite sport of athletics?

- Athletes cannot compete for the country without first getting approval by the national governing body.
- Between 1948 and 1992, a period of 44 years, Jamaican Olympic medals in athletics totalled 23 with four gold medals, and between 1996 and 2016, a period of 20 years, athletics brought in 53 medals with 18 gold medals.
- An informal system of development facilitated the elite sporting success between 1948 and 1992.
- The successes between 1996 and 2016 received support that enhanced the previous system.

(2) How was the apparent success of athletics achieved, and are the success factors different from established frameworks for elite sport policies?

- The core environmental factors represented the development of the sport that created a fraternity.
- This fraternity is rich in tradition, culture, and passion. Intertwined in a system developed over time through the local and overseas experiences of individuals that went through the process and became role models, the fraternity had the ability to effect modifications at various stages of the development.
- The success of athletics has two components:
 - The role of governments past and present in establishing and supporting the educational institutions; and
 - The role of private actors and the investments made in a professional local club system.
- The environmental factors are representative of established frameworks for elite sport policies, such as the SPLISS model (De Bosscher et al., 2006). However, the informal model developed from the findings in the present study provide evidence to support the coalescing of financial and environmental factors in the development of elite sport.

(3) How do the perceived factors of athletics' success coalesce with established frameworks for elite sport policies?

- The success of athletics from 1996 onwards was the consequence of a coalescing of several factors, and neither the government, nor the private actors should conclude that one contribution was more significant.
- The country-specific and sport-specific contexts are critical factors in the successful attainment of national sport policy outputs and outcomes.
- A meso-level application of the conceptual framework contributes to the development of sport, but the Jamaican case indicates that micro- and macro-level factors coalesced with

meso-level factors, which not only led to the attainment of national outputs, such as medals, but also to the achievement of national outcomes, such as pride, bonds of unity, and increase economic benefits.

Study 3 found that while athletes from the early 1900s showed an interest in competing in the Olympic Games, the sport of athletics only received membership to the IOC in 1936. The first Games were immediately successful in 1948, and successes at the Games, continued, with a total medal count over the past 68 years at 76. A system of training and competition developed over time through the local and overseas experiences of athletes that later became coaches and role models, and assisted in creating a fraternity in the sport through tradition, culture and passion. The environmental factors associated with the success of athletics are representative of established frameworks, and this success involved the role of past and present government supporting the educational institutions that collaborate with private actors and the investments made in a professional local club system. The system of training that existed prior to the first sport policy was modified to include the train-at-home movement, allowing for a coalescing of factors that benefitted from public and private funding that lead to the attainment of national outputs, such as medals, and the achievement of national outcomes, such as pride, bonds of unity, and increase economic benefits.

The Fourth Objective: Country-Specific Factors

The findings from the three interconnected studies also provided answers for the fourth objective, which was to explore how the country-specific factors affect the implementation of current elite sport development models and expand the analytical generalization for sport policy frameworks. By connecting the findings, the thesis identified that a coalescing of factors implemented through past and present government actions, decisions and policies, and the contribution of environmental factors developed over more than a century and modified in recent

years to increase elite sporting successes are the contributing factors to the development of elite sport in Jamaica, and the success of athletics. In addition, this success has not been due to the JSP.

Limitations of the Thesis

This thesis provided further understanding of theoretical and practical application and made several contributions to academic knowledge. However, some limitations need to be recognized, and are outlined as follows:

- The findings provide analytical generalizations and thus cannot be statistically generalized to all sporting disciplines or all countries. The country-specific/sport-specific factors within a nation's elite sport environment and the historical context of that nation cannot be easily quantified.
- Only the financial input from the national lottery tax were easily accessible. The thesis could have benefitted from a better understanding of government support through the consolidated fund budgetary allocations and expenditures of the ministries and agencies contributing to sport development.
- While this thesis benefitted from this researcher's prior knowledge of the Jamaican national sport system, mitigated by ensuring academic rigor and adherence to research quality, the study had limitations in that the researcher knew most of the participants who are experts in the field. The advantage in knowing the participants and also having prior knowledge allowed for deeper discussions and probing that enhanced the overall findings.
- Finally, while sport was recognized as a sector by the government in 1963, there was no central source for maintaining proper documentation for the actions, decisions, and

policies of the government towards sport. Thus, this thesis was limited to expert's perspective, and accessible documents and archival records.

Future Research Avenues

In light of the findings and limitations of this thesis, a number of recommendations are outlined below for future research that will continue to expand the understanding and analytical generalizability of conceptual frameworks and the wider literature on elite sport policy, as well as the broader development of elite sport.

- There is a need for research that incorporates the environmental factors in the SPLISS (De Bosscher et al., 2006) methodology and its critical success factors. The findings from this thesis have shown that qualitative data can highlight the country-specific and sport-specific processing of throughputs affecting the development of sport.
- A future research is recommended to explore the impact of historical connections to the colonial governments of non-Anglophone nations to assess the degree of homogeneity of former colonial empires in the development of sport. This is needed in order to better understand the impact of past governments on the creation of present systems of tradition and culture that allow a country-specific and sport-specific approach to the development of sport. A qualitative approach is also recommended, such as archival records, documentation, and the personal experiences of local sport industry practitioners.
- Future research should also investigate the historical context behind the development of sport in the United States from the 18th century, to assess a nation with a continuous system of governance and how that unbridled development has been impacted by other nations. This is important for nations that implement the LTAD model. Future research can investigate the success of the LTAD model from the perspective of the local systems of development that are influenced by tradition, culture and passion for sport.

- Finally, future research on the development of sport in other developing countries will be needed to assess how the environment of sport contributes to sport-for-all and elite sport development towards the attainment of national outputs and outcomes. The methodology that underpins this thesis can be drawn on to explore the development of sport in these small nations.

Concluding Remarks

In conclusion, this thesis explored the development of national sport policy in a developing country, and investigated how this strategic approach by a government was capable of contributing to the development of elite sport and the achievement of international sporting success. By incorporating a conceptual framework for elite sport policy, a model has emerged that highlights the importance to recognize the contribution of the environment of elite sport, which requires a coalescing of country-specific and sport-specific factors capable of establishing a competitive advantage for developing countries, and influence decisions that will achieve and attain national outputs and outcomes. This thesis provided qualitative understanding for the critical throughput process, which links financial input with stated national output that constitutes a nations international sporting success.

References

- Abend, G. (2008). The meaning of 'theory'. *Sociological Theory*, 26(2), 173-199.
- Agergaard, S., & Ronglan, L. T. (2015). Player migration and talent development: A comparative analysis of inbound and outbound career trajectories in Danish and Norwegian women's handball. *Scandinavian Sport Studies Forum*, 6, 1-16.
- Alexander, J. C. (1982). *Theoretical logic in sociology: Positivism, presuppositions, and current controversies*. Los Angeles: University of California Press.
- Andersen, S. S., & Ronglan, L. T. (2012). Same ambitions—different tracks: A comparative perspective on Nordic elite sport. *Managing Leisure*, 17(2-3), 155-169.
- Andreff, W. (2006). *Sport in Developing Countries* (Chapters). Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Retrieved from https://econpapers.repec.org/bookchap/elgeechap/3274_5f30.htm
- Anti-Doping in Sport Act. (2008).
- Anti-Doping in Sport Act. (2014).
- Arnold, R., Fletcher, D., & Molyneux, L. (2012). Performance leadership and management in elite sport: Recommendations, advice and suggestions from national performance directors. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 12(4), 317-336.
- Asemota, H. (2010). Jamaican yams, athletic ability and exploitability. In R. Irving & V. Charlton (Eds.), *Jamaican Gold: Jamaican Sprinters* (pp. 36-43). Kingston: UWI Press.
- Ayres, L. (2008). Thematic coding and analysis. In L. M. Given (Ed.) *The Sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods* (pp. 868-869). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Bailey, R. (2018, March 3) – Williams strikes silver in triple jump. Retrieved from <http://jamaica-gleaner.com/article/sports/20180303/williams-strikes-silver-triple-jump>

Bailey, S. J. & Connolly, S. (1997). The National Lottery: A Preliminary Assessment of net additionality. *Scottish Journal of Political Economy*, 44(1), 100–112.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9485.00047>

Bale, J. (1991). *The brawn drain: Foreign student-athletes in American universities*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

Bale, J., & Sang, J. (1994). Out of Africa: The ‘development’ of Kenyan athletics, talent migration and the global sports system. In J. Bale & J. Maquire (Eds.), *The global sports arena: Athletic talent migration in an interdependent world* (pp. 206-225). London: Frank Cass.

Balyi, I. (2001). Sport system building and long-term athlete development in British Columbia. Canada: SportsMed BC.

Balyi, I., Way, R., & Higgs, C. (2013). *Long-Term Athlete Development*. Human Kinetics.

Baker, J., Horton, S., Robertson-Wilson, J., & Wall, M. (2003). Nurturing sport expertise: Factors influencing the development of elite athlete. *Journal of Sports Science & Medicine*, 2(1), 1–9.

Baumgartner, F. R., & Jones, B. D. (1993). *Agendas and Instability in American Politics*. University of Chicago Press.

Bazeley, P. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis: Practical strategies*. Los Angeles: Sage.

Bennett, C. J., & Howlett, M. (1992). The lessons of learning: Reconciling theories of policy learning and policy change. *Policy Sciences*, 25(3), 275–294.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00138786>

Bethea, C. (2016). A surprising theory about Jamaica’s amazing running success. Retrieved March 12, 2018, from

<https://www.npr.org/sections/goatsandsoda/2016/08/18/490346468/a-surprising-theory-about-jamaicas-amazing-running-success>

Betting, Gaming and Lotteries Act. (1965).

Betting, Gaming, & Lotteries Act of 1965, 27 L.N. §59G (2002)

Bergsgard, N. A., Houlihan, B., Mangset, P., Nødland, S. I., & Rommetvedt, H. (2007). *Sport policy: A comparative analysis of stability and change*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Bernal, R. L. (2015). *The influence of small states on superpowers: Jamaica and U.S. foreign policy*. Lexington Books.

Bernard, A. B., & Busse, M. R. (2000). *Who wins the Olympic Games: Economic development and medal totals* (No. w7998). National Bureau of Economic Research.

Bernard, A. B., & Busse, M. R. (2004). Who wins the Olympic Games: Economic resources and medal totals. *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 86(1), 413-417.

Bertram, A. (2010a). The beginning of organised athletics in Jamaica (Part III). Retrieved from <http://Jamaica-gleaner.com/print/270351>

Bertram, A. (2010b). Reflections on Boys' Champs Part I (1910-1932). Retrieved from <http://Jamaica-gleaner.com/print/270706>

Bohlke, N., & Robinson, L. (2009). Benchmarking of elite sport systems. *Management Decision*, 47(1), 67-84.

Bolt, U., & Custis, I. (2010). *Usain Bolt my story: 9.58 being the world's fastest man*. Kingston: Ian Randle.

Borges, M., Rosado, A., de Oliveira, R. & Freitas, F. (2015). Coaches' migration: a qualitative analysis of recruitment, motivations and experiences. *Leisure Studies*, 34(5), 588–602.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/02614367.2014.939988>

- Borrmann, J., Fichtinger, M., Grohall, G., Helmenstein, C., Kleissner, A., Kerschbaum, F., Krabb, P., & Scholtes-Dash, K. (2015). The impact of lotteries as a funding source for European sport. Vienna: SportsEconAustria.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Bullough, S., Moore, R., Goldsmith, S., & Edmondson, L. (2016). Player migration and opportunity: Examining the efficacy of the UEFA home-grown rule in six European football leagues. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, *11*(5), 662–672. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1747954116667104>
- Brannan, T., John, P., & Stoker, G. (2006). Active citizenship and effective public services and programmes: How can we know what really works?. *Urban Studies*, *43*(5-6), 993-1008.
- Broom, E. F. (1986). *Funding the development of the Olympic athletes: A comparison of programs in selected Western and socialist countries*.
- Broom, E. F. (1991). *Lifestyles of aspiring high performance athletes*.
- Brouwers, J., De Bosscher, V., & Sotiriadou, P. (2012). An examination of the importance of performances in youth and junior competition as an indicator of later success in tennis. *Sport Management Review*, *15*(4), 461–475. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2012.05.002>
- Brouwers, J., Sotiriadou, P., & De Bosscher, V. (2015a). Sport-specific policies and factors that influence international success: The case of tennis. *Sport Management Review*, *18*(3), 343–358. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2014.10.003>
- Brouwers, J., Sotiriadou, P., & De Bosscher, V. (2015b). An examination of the stakeholders and elite athlete development pathways in tennis. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, *15*(4), 454–477.

CARICOM Secretariat. (2005). *CARICOM our Caribbean community: An introduction*.

Kingston: Ian Randle.

Chelladurai, P. (1987). Multidimensionality and multiple perspectives of organizational effectiveness. *Journal of Sport Management*, 1, 37-47.

Chelladurai, P. (2001). *Managing organisations for sport and physical activity: A systems perspective*. Scottsdale, AZ: Holcomb Hathaway Publishers.

Chelladurai, P., & Chang, K. (2000). Targets and standards of quality in sport services. *Sport Management Review*, 3(1), 1-22.

Chalip, L. (1995). Policy analysis in sport management. *Journal of Sport Management*, 9(1), 1-13.

Charlton, V. (2010). The challenge of teaching physical education in Jamaica. In R. Irving & V. Charlton (Eds.), *Jamaican Gold: Jamaican Sprinters* (pp. 94-104). Kingston: UWI Press.

Clumpner, R. A. (1994). 21st century success in international competition. In R. Wilcox (Ed.), *Sport in the global village* (pp. 298-303). Morgantown, WV: FIT.

Collins, M. (2004). Sport, physical activity and social exclusion. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 22(8), 727-740. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02640410410001712430>

Collins, M. (2009a). Public policies on sports development: Can mass and elite sport hold together. In V. Girgivnov (Ed.), *Management of Sports Development* (pp. 59-87). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.

Collins, M. (2010a). *Examining sports development*. London: Routledge.

Collins, M. (2010b). From 'sport for good' to 'sport for sport's sake' – not a good move for sports development in England? *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 2(3), 367-379. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940.2010.519342>

- Collins, M. (2012). Other sports providers and the Games. In V. Girginov (Ed.), *Handbook of the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games: Volume One: Making the Games* (pp. 242-263). Routledge.
- Collins, M. (2013). Routledge handbook of sports development. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 13(4), 491–495.
- Collins, M. (2014). *Sport and Social Exclusion: Second Edition*. Routledge.
- Collins, M. F., & Kay, T. (2003). *Sport and Social Exclusion*. Routledge.
- Collins, R. (2016). Micro-sociology of sport: interaction rituals of solidarity, emotional energy, and emotional domination. *European Journal for Sport and Society*, 13(3), 197–207.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/16138171.2016.1226029>
- Commonwealth Secretariat (2017). Small states and the Commonwealth: Supporting sustainable development. The Commonwealth Secretariat.
- Considine, J., Crowley, F., Foley, S., & O'Connor, M. (2008). Irish national lottery sports capital grant allocations, 1999–2007: Natural experiments on political influence. *Economic Affairs*, 28(3), 38–44. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0270.2008.00843.x>
- Conzelmann, A., & Nagel, S. (2003). Professional careers of the German Olympic athletes. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 38(3), 259-280.
- Cook, I., & Harrison, M. (2003). Cross over food: Re-materializing postcolonial geographies. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers, New Series*, 28 (3), 296-317.
- Cowan, S. (2015). 19 Not enough! JAAA says it needs more officials at major championships. Retrieved November 29, 2018, from <http://www.jamaicaobserver.com/sport/19-not-enough-19231478?profile=&template=PrinterVersion>
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Cunningham, G. B., & Sagas, M. (2008). Gender and sex diversity in sport organizations:

Introduction to a special issue. *Sex Roles*, 58(1–2), 3–9. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-007-9360-8>

Custonja, Z., & Skoric, S. (2011). Winning medals at the Olympic Games -- Does Croatia have any chance? *Kinesiology*, 43(1), 107–114.

Darko, N., & Mackintosh, C. (2015). Challenges and constraints in developing and implementing sports policy and provision in Antigua and Barbuda: Which way now for a small island state?. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 7(3), 365-390.

Davis, G. (2017, September 29). Tourism continues to be main catalyst for economic growth.

Retrieved March 14, 2018, from <http://jis.gov.jm/tourism-continues-main-catalyst-economic-growth/>

Davidson, F. & Wynter, H. (1987, November 1). Herb McKenley – the living legend. Retrieved

May 5, 2018, from

http://www.nlj.gov.jm/BN/McKenley_Herb/bn_mckenley_hh_023.pdf

De Bosscher, V. (2007). Sports policy factors leading to international sporting success. Published doctoral thesis. Brussel: VUBPRESS.

De Bosscher, V. (2016). Theory of sport policy factors leading to international sporting success.

In G. B. Cunningham, J. S. Fink, & A. Doherty (Eds.) *Routledge handbook of theory in sport management* (pp. 93-109). London, UK: Routledge.

De Bosscher, V. (2018). A mixed methods approach to compare elite sport policies of nations. A

critical reflection on the use of composite indicators in the SPLISS study. *Sport in*

Society, 21(2), 331–355. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17430437.2016.1179729>

- De Bosscher, V., Bingham, J., Shibli, S., van Bottenburg, M., & De Knop, P. (2008). *The global sporting arms race: An international comparative study on sports policy factors leading to international success*. Oxford, UK: Meyer & Meyer Sport.
- De Bosscher, V., De Knop, P., & Heyndels, B. (2003a). Equal opportunities in sport: Comparing relative sporting success among countries. *International Journal of Physical Education*, 3(3), 109-118.
- De Bosscher, V., De Knop, P., & Heyndels, B. (2003b). Comparing tennis success among countries. *International Sport Studies*, 25(1), 49-68.
- De Bosscher, V., De Knop, P., & van Bottenburg, M. (2008). Sports, culture and society: Why the Netherlands are successful in elite sports and Belgium is not? A Comparison of Elite Sport Policies. *Kinesiologia Slovenica*, 14(2), 21–40.
- De Bosscher, V., De Knop, P., & van Bottenburg, M. (2009). An analysis of homogeneity and heterogeneity of elite sports systems in six nations. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 10(2), 111-131.
- De Bosscher, V., De Knop, P., van Bottenburg, M., & Shibli, S. (2006). A conceptual framework for analysing sports factors leading to international sporting success. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 6, 185-215.
- De Bosscher, V., De Knop, P., van Bottenburg, M., Shibli, S., & Bingham, J. (2009). Explaining international sporting success: An international comparison of elite sport systems and policies in six countries. *Sport Management Review*, 12, 113-136.
- De Bosscher, V., De Knop, P., & Vertonghen, J. (2016). A multidimensional approach to evaluate the policy effectiveness of elite sport schools in Flanders. *Sport in Society*, 19(10), 1596–1621. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17430437.2016.1159196>

De Bosscher, V., Heyndels, B., De Knop, P., van Bottenburg, M., & Shibli, S. (2008). The paradox of measuring success of nations in elite sport. *Belgeo*, 2, 217–234.

<https://doi.org/10.4000/belgeo.10303>

De Bosscher, V., Shibli, S., van Bottenburg, M., De Knop, P., & Truyens, J. (2010). Developing a method for comparing the elite sport systems and policies of nations: A mixed research methods approach. *Journal of Sport Management*, 24, 567-600.

De Bosscher, V., Shibli, S., Westerbeek, H., & Van Bottenburg, M. (2015). *Successful elite sport policies: An international comparison of the Sports Policy factors Leading to International Sporting Success (SPLISS 2.0) in 15 nations*. Maidenhead: Meyer & Meyer Sport.

De Bosscher, V., Shibli, S., Westerbeek, H., & van Bottenburg, M. (2016). Convergence and divergence of elite sport policies: Is there a one-size-fits-all model to develop international sporting success? *Journal of Global Sport Management*, 1(3–4), 70–89.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/24704067.2016.1237203>

De Bosscher, V., Shilbury, D., Theeboom, M., van Hoecke, J., & De Knop, P. (2011). Effectiveness of national elite sport policies: A multidimensional approach applied to the case of Flanders. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 11, 115-141.

De Bosscher, V., Sotiriadou, P., & van Bottenburg, M. (2013). Scrutinizing the sport pyramid metaphor: An examination of the relationship between elite success and mass participation in Flanders. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 5(3), 319–339. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940.2013.806340>

De Bosscher, V., Truyens, J., van Bottenburg, M., & Shibli, S. (2013). Comparing apples with oranges in international elite sport studies: Is it possible?. In S. Söderman & H. Dolles

- (Eds.), *Handbook of research on sport and business* (pp. 94-111). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- De Bosscher, V., & van Bottenburg, M. (2011). Elite for all, all for elite? An assessment of the impact of sport development on elite sport success. In B. Houlihan & M. Green (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of sports development* (pp. 579-598). New York, NY: Routledge.
- De Bosscher, V., van Bottenburg, M., & Shibli, S. (2014). Methodologies for identifying and comparing success factors in elite sport policies. In I. Henry & L. M. Ko (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of sport policy* (pp. 197-211). London, UK: Routledge.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2017). *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research*. SAGE Publications.
- DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. W. (1983). The iron cage revisited: Institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields. *American Sociological Review*, 48(2), 147–160. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2095101>
- Dixon, M. A., Graham, J. A., Hartzell, A. C., & Forrest, K. (2017). Enhancing women's participation and advancement in competitive cycling. *Journal of Applied Sport Management*, 9(4), 10–21.
- Dolowitz, D., & Marsh, D. (1996). Who learns what from whom: A review of the policy transfer literature. *Political Studies*, 44(2), 343–357. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9248.1996.tb00334.x>
- Dolowitz, D. P., & Marsh, D. (2012). The future of policy transfer research. *Political Studies Review*, 10(3), 339–345. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1478-9302.2012.00274.x>
- Downs, A. (1972). Up and down with ecology-the issue-attention cycle. *The Public Interest; New York*, 28, 38–50.

- Dunn, W. N. (2004). *Public policy analysis: An introduction* (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Etman, O. (2017, August 5). Usain Bolt, beloved star of track and field, runs final race. Retrieved March 12, 2018, from <https://www.pbs.org/newshour/world/usain-bolt-runs-last-race>
- Evans, G. (1995). The national lottery: Planning for leisure or pay up and play the game? *Leisure Studies*, 14(4), 225–244. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02614369500390181>
- Fahlén, J., Eliasson, I., & Wickman, K. (2015). Resisting self-regulation: An analysis of sport policy programme making and implementation in Sweden. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 7(3), 391–406. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940.2014.925954>
- Ferguson, E. (2012, December 6). Canadian-born Jamaican sets sight on 2014 Russian winter Olympics. *Jamaica Observer*. Retrieved from <http://www.jamaicaobserver.com>
- Fischer, F., Miller, G. J., & Sidney, M. S. (2007). Introduction. In F. Fischer, G. J. Miller, & M. S. Sidney (Eds.), *Handbook of public policy analysis* (pp. 161-172). Boca Raton: CRC Press.
- Fletcher, D., & Wagstaff, C. R. (2009). Organizational psychology in elite sport: Its emergence, application and future. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 10(4), 427-434.
- Ford, P., De Ste Croix, M., Lloyd, R., Meyers, R., Moosavi, M., Oliver, J., Till, K., & Williams, C. (2011). The long-term athlete development model: Physiological evidence and application. *Journal of sports sciences*, 29(4), 389-402.
- Franklyn, D. (2010). GRACE-Lecture-2010.pdf. Retrieved March 11, 2018, from <http://www.gracekennedy.com/images/lecture/GRACE-Lecture-2010.pdf>
- Franklyn, D. (2011, August 21). Jamaican athletes: Why they do so well. Retrieved from <http://jamaica-gleaner.com/print/303739>

- Girginov, V., & Hills, L. (2008). A sustainable sports legacy: Creating a link between the London Olympics and sports participation. *The International Journal of the History of Sport*, 25(14), 2091-2116.
- Goldfinch, S., & Wallis, J. (2010). Two myths of convergence in public management reform. *Public Administration*, 88(4), 1099–1115. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9299.2010.01848.x>
- Government of Jamaica. (1947). *A ten-year plan of development for Jamaica, 1946/47-1955/56*. Kingston: The Government Printer.
- Government of Jamaica. (1958). *A national plan for Jamaica 1957-1967*. Kingston: Central Planning Unit.
- Government of Jamaica. (1962). *Ten year plan, 1962-1971*. Kingston: Central Planning Unit.
- Government of Jamaica. (1963). *The five-year independence plan for 1963-1968: A long term development programme for Jamaica*. Kingston: Central Planning Unit.
- Government of Jamaica. (1978). *The five-year development plan 1978-1982*. Kingston: National Planning Agency.
- Government of Jamaica. (1990). *Jamaica five year development plan 1990-1995*. Kingston: Planning Institute of Jamaica.
- Government of Jamaica. (2009). *Vision 2030 Jamaica: National development plan*. Kingston: Planning Institute of Jamaica.
- Gordon, H. K. (2009). The King: The ramifications of tournament theory on team sports compensation schemes and athlete representation. *Entertainment and Sports Lawyer*, 27, 11–17.

- Green, M. (2004a). Changing policy priorities for sport in England: the emergence of elite sport development as a key policy concern. *Leisure Studies*, 23(4), 365–385.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/0261436042000231646>
- Green, M. (2004b). Power, policy, and political priorities: Elite sport development in Canada and the United Kingdom. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 21(4), 376.
- Green, M. (2005). Integrating macro-and meso-level approaches: A comparative analysis of elite sport development in Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 5(2), 143-166.
- Green, M. (2006). From ‘sport for all’ to not about ‘sport’ at all?: Interrogating sport policy interventions in the United Kingdom. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 6(3), 217-238.
- Green, M. (2007a). Olympic glory or grassroots development?: Sport policy priorities in Australia, Canada and the UK 1960-2006. *International Journal of the History of Sport*, 24(7), 921-53.
- Green, M. (2007b). Policy transfer, lesson drawing and perspectives on elite sport development systems. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 2(4), 426-441.
- Green, M. (2007c). Governing under advanced liberalism: Sport policy and the social investment state. *Policy Sciences*, 40(1), 55–71. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11077-007-9034-y>
- Green, M. (2009). Podium or participation? Analysing policy priorities under changing modes of sport governance in the United Kingdom. *International Journal of Sport Policy*, 1(2), 121-144.
- Green, M., & Collins, S. (2008). Policy, politics and path dependency: Sport development in Australia and Finland. *Sport Management Review*, 11, 225-251.

- Green, M., & Houlihan, B. (2004). Advocacy coalitions and elite sport policy change in Canada and the United Kingdom. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 39(4), 387–403. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1012690204049066>
- Green, M., & Houlihan, B. (2005a). Development of sport policy in Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom. In M. Green & B. Houlihan (Eds.), *Elite sport development: Policy learning and political priorities* (p. 30-63). London: Routledge.
- Green, M., & Houlihan, B. (2005b). *Elite sport development: Policy learning and political priorities*. London: Routledge.
- Green, M., & Houlihan, B. (2005c). Investigating elite sport policy processes and policy change. In M. Green & B. Houlihan (Eds.), *Elite sport development: Policy learning and political priorities* (p. 1-10). London: Routledge.
- Green, M., & Houlihan, B. (2005d). Theorising sport policy. In M. Green & B. Houlihan (Eds.), *Elite sport development: Policy learning and political priorities* (p. 11-29). London: Routledge.
- Green, M., & Houlihan, B. (2006). Governmentality, Modernization, and the “Disciplining” of National Sporting Organizations: Athletics in Australia and the United Kingdom. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 23(1), 47–71.
- Green, M., & Oakley, B. (2001a). Elite sport development systems and playing to win: Uniformity and diversity in international approaches. *Leisure Studies*, 20(4), 247-267.
- Green, M., & Oakley, B. (2001b). Lesson-drawing: International perspectives on elite sport development system in established nations. *Sociology of Sport Online*, 4(2).
- Grindle, M. S. (2007). Good enough governance revisited. *Development Policy Review*, 25(5), 533-574.

- Grix, J., & Carmichael, F. (2012). Why do governments invest in elite sport? A polemic. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 4(1), 73-90.
- Gubrium, J. F., & Holstein, J. A. (2002). From the individual interview to the interview society. In J. F. Gubrium & J. A. Holstein (Eds.), *Handbook of interview research: Context and method*. (pp. 3-32). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ha, S., & Jang, S.-J. (2015). National Identity, National Pride, and Happiness: The Case of South Korea. *Social Indicators Research*, 121(2), 471–482. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-014-0641-7>
- Hall, D. (1998). *The University of the West Indies: A quinquagenary calendar, 1948-1998*. University of West Indies Press.
- Hart, R. (2001). *Labour Rebellions of the 1930s in the British Caribbean Region Colonies*. Socialist History Society.
- Harris, S., Mori, K., & Collins, M. (2009). Great Expectations: Voluntary Sports Clubs and Their Role in Delivering National Policy for English Sport. *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 20(4), 405. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11266-009-9095-y>
- Harvey, J. (2001). The role of sport and recreation policy in fostering citizenship: The Canadian experience. In *Building citizenship: Governance and service provision in Canada* (pp. 29-50). CPRN Discussion Paper. Ottawa, ON: Canadian Policy Research Networks Inc.
- Harvey, J. & Proulx, (1988). Sport and the state in Canada. In J. Harvey and H. Cantelon (Eds.) *Not just a Game: Essays in Canadian sport sociology* (pp. 93-119). Ottawa, ON: UOP.
- Hecló, H. H. (1972). Review Article: Policy Analysis. *British Journal of Political Science*, 2(1), 83–108. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007123400008449>

- Henry, I., & Ko, L.-M. (2014). Analysing sport policy in a globalising context. In I. Henry and L. M. Ko (Eds.) *Routledge handbook of sport policy* (pp. 3-10). Routledge.
- Henry, I., & Ko, L.-M. (2015). Unpacking the SPLISS case for identifying the critical success factors in elite sports systems: A critique.
- Hill, M., & Bramley, G. (1986). *Analysing social policy*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Hilvoorde, I. van, Elling, A., & Stokvis, R. (2010). How to influence national pride? The Olympic medal index as a unifying narrative. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 45(1), 87–102. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1012690209356989>
- Houlihan, B. (1994). Homogenization, Americanisation, and creolization of sport: Varieties of globalization. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 11(4), 356–375.
- Houlihan, B. (1997a). *Sport, policy and politics: A comparative analysis*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Houlihan, B. (1997b). Sport, national identity and public policy. *Nations and Nationalism*, 3(1), 113–137. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1354-5078.1997.00113.x>
- Houlihan, B. (2002). Dying to win: Doping in Sport and the Development of Anti-doping Policy.
- Houlihan, B. (2003). *Sport and Society: A Student Introduction*. SAGE Publications.
- Houlihan, B. (2004). Civil Rights, Doping Control and the World Anti-doping Code. *Sport in Society*, 7(3), 420–437. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1743042000291712>
- Houlihan, B. (2005). Public sector sport policy: Developing a framework for analysis. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 40(2), 163-185.
- Houlihan, B. (2009). Mechanisms of international influence on domestic elite sport policy. *International Journal of Sport Policy*, 1(1), 51-69.
- Houlihan, B. (2011). Introduction. In B. Houlihan & M. Green (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of sport development* (pp. 1-5). London, UK: Routledge.

- Houlihan, B. (2012). Sport policy convergence: a framework for analysis. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 12(2), 111–135.
- Houlihan, B. (2014a). *The government of politics and sport*. London: Routledge.
- Houlihan, B. (2014b). Theorising the analysis of sport policy. In I. Henry & L.-M. Ko, *Routledge handbook of sport policy* (pp. 11-22). London: Routledge.
- Houlihan, B., Bloyce, D., & Smith, A. (2009). Developing the research agenda in sport policy. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 1(1), 1–12.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940802681186>
- Houlihan, B., & Chapman, P. (2017). Talent identification and development in elite youth disability sport. *Sport in Society*, 20(1), 107–125.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/17430437.2015.1124566>
- Houlihan, B., & Green, M. (2006). The changing status of school sport and physical education: explaining policy change. *Sport, Education and Society*, 11(1), 73–92.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13573320500453495>
- Houlihan, B., & Green, M. (Eds.). (2008). *Comparative elite sport development*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Houlihan, B., & Green, M. (2011). *Routledge handbook of sport development*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Houlihan, B., Tan, T.-C., & Green, M. (2010). Policy transfer and learning from the west: Elite basketball development in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, 34(1), 4–28. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0193723509358971>
- Houlihan, B., & White, A. (2002). *The politics of sports development: Development of sport or development through sport?* London, UK: Routledge.

- Houlihan, B., & Zheng, J. (2013). The Olympics and elite sport policy: Where will it all end?. *The International Journal of the History of Sport*, 30(4), 338-355.
- Houlihan, B., & Zheng, J. (2015). Small states: Sport and politics at the margin. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 7(3), 329-344.
- Hutzler, Y., Higgs, C., & Legg, D. (2016). Improving Paralympic development programs: Athlete and institutional pathways and organizational quality indicators. *Adapted Physical Activity Quarterly*, 33(4), 305–310.
- Hylton, K. (2013). *Sport Development: Policy, Process and Practice, Third Edition*. London, UK: Routledge.
- IOC (2014). Olympic Charter & other Official IOC Documents | Downloads. (2017, September 7). Retrieved April 14, 2018, from <https://www.olympic.org/documents/olympic-agenda-2020>
- Irving, R. (2012). *Olympic DNA: Birth of the fastest humans*. Kingston: Great House Books.
- Irving, R., & Charlton, V. (2010). Why Jamaica rules sprinting: University research explores the reasons. In R. Irving & V. Charlton (Eds.), *Jamaican Gold: Jamaican Sprinters* (pp. 1-4). Kingston: UWI Press.
- Jamaica Social Welfare Commission Act. (1965).
- Jarvensivu, T., & Tornroos, J. A. (2010). Case study research with moderate constructionism: Conceptualization and practical illustration. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 39, 100-108.
- Jenkins, W. I. (1978). *Policy, Analysis: A Political and Organizational Perspective*.
- Jenson, J. (2001). Building citizenship: Governance and service provision in Canada. In *Building citizenship: Governance and service provision in Canada* (pp. 9-28). CPRN Discussion Paper. Ottawa, ON: Canadian Policy Research Networks Inc.

- Johnson, D. K., & Ali, A. (2004). A tale of two seasons: Participation and medal counts at the summer and winter Olympic Games. *Social Science Quarterly*, 85(4), 974-993.
- Jones, I. (2015). *Research methods for sports studies*. (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Jones, R. (2015). Hard work pays big \$\$\$\$ - Jamaican stars earn big cash rewards at IAAF World Championship.pdf. Retrieved from <http://jamaica-gleaner.com/article/lead-stories/20150830/hard-work-pays-big-jamaican-stars-earn-big-cash-rewards-iaaf-world>
- Johnson, H. N. (2014). JAMAICA: A famous, strong but damaged brand. *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, 10(3), 199–217. <https://doi.org/10.1057/pb.2014.15>
- Katzenstein, P. J. (1985). *Small states in world markets: Industrial policy in Europe*. Cornell University Press.
- Katzenstein, P. J. (2003). Small states and small states revisited. *New Political Economy*, 8(1), 9–30. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1356346032000078705>
- Kay, A. (2005). A critique of the use of path dependency in policy studies. *Public Administration*, 83(3), 553–571. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0033-3298.2005.00462.x>
- Kikulis, L. M., Slack, T., & Hinings, B. (1992). Institutionally specific design archetypes: A framework for understanding change in national sport organizations. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 27(4), 343–368. <https://doi.org/10.1177/101269029202700405>
- Kingdon, J. (1984). *Agendas, alternatives, and public policies*. New York, NY: Longman.
- Koski, P., & Lämsä, J. (2015). Finland as a small sports nation: socio-historical perspectives on the development of national sport policy. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 7(3), 421–441. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940.2015.1060714>
- Kristiansen, E., Parent, M. M., & Houlihan, B. (2017). *Elite youth sport policy and management: A comparative analysis*. London, UK: Routledge.

- Lapadat, J. C. (2010). Thematic analysis. In A. J. Mills, G. Durepos, & E. Wiebe (Eds.) *Encyclopedia of case study research* (pp. 926-928). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Larose, K., & Haggerty, T. R. (1996). *Factors associated with national Olympic success: An exploratory study* (Unpublished master's thesis). University of New Brunswick, Canada.
- Lasswell, H. D. (1965). The policy orientation. In D. Lerner & H. D. Lasswell (Eds.), *The policy sciences* (pp. 3-15). Stanford University Press.
- Lasswell, H. D. (1970). The emerging conception of the policy sciences. *Policy Sciences*, 1(1), 3-14.
- Lawrence, H. (2010). "Champs" 100: A century of Jamaican high school athletics, 1910-2010. Great House Books.
- Lawrence, H. (2012, September 20). Field events need some love too. Retrieved April 14, 2018, from <http://www.jamaicaolympics.com/archives/4051>
- Lawrence, H. (2017a, February 16). Protecting the future. Retrieved March 12, 2018, from <http://jamaica-gleaner.com/article/sports/20170216/hubert-lawrence-protecting-future>
- Lawrence, H. (2017b, October 19). Well done, Stephen Francis. Retrieved March 17, 2018, from <http://jamaica-gleaner.com/article/sports/20171019/hubert-lawrence-well-done-stephen-francis>
- Lawson, H. A. (2005). Empowering people, facilitating community development, and contributing to sustainable development: The social work of sport, exercise, and physical education programs. *Sport, Education and Society*, 10(1), 135-160.
- Legg, De Bosscher, Bingham, Shibli, van Bottenburg, & De Knop, (2008). How does Canada stack up: Comparing Canada's sport policies to five other nations. *Coaches Plan/Plan Du Coach*, 15(4), 22-26.

- Legg, D., Bosscher, V. D., Shibli, S., & van Bottenburg, M. (2011). What is the ideal Paralympic sport system? Future research directions. *ICSSPE Bulletin (17285909)*, (61), 2–2.
- Levy, L. (2013, November 23). Major JADCO overhaul to commence. *Jamaica Gleaner*. Retrieved from <http://www.jamaica-gleaner.com>
- Levy, L. (2015, September 22). Blake: Williams' success fast-tracked hurdles progress. Retrieved March 12, 2018, from <http://jamaica-gleaner.com/article/sports/20150922/blake-williams-success-fast-tracked-hurdles-progress>
- Lijphart, A. (1968) – Typologies of democratic systems. *Comparative Political Studies*.
- Lindsey, I. (2010). Governance of lottery sport programmes: National direction of local partnerships in the new opportunities for PE and Sport programme. *Managing Leisure*, 15(3), 198–213.
- Liston, K., Gregg, R., & Lowther, J. (2013). Elite sports policy and coaching at the coalface. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 5(3), 341-362.
- Lowenthal, A. (1987). Social features. In C. Clarke & T. Payne, (Eds.) *Politics, Security, and Development in Small States*. Allen & Unwin.
- Maass, M. (2009). The elusive definition of the small state. *International Politics*, 46, 65–83. <https://doi.org/10.1057/ip.2008.37>
- Macintosh, (1988). The federal government and voluntary sports associations. In J. Harvey & H. Cantelon (Eds.) *Not just a Game: Essays in Canadian sport sociology* (pp. 121-139). Ottawa, ON: UOP.
- March, J. G., & Olsen, J. P. (1996). Institutional perspectives on political institutions. *Governance*, 9(3), 247–264. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0491.1996.tb00242.x>

- Martindale, C. A. (1980). *The role of sport in nation-building: A comparative analysis of four newly developing nations in the Commonwealth Caribbean* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). City University of New York, USA.
- May, P. J. (1992). Policy Learning and Failure. *Journal of Public Policy*, 12(4), 331–354.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0143814X00005602>
- May, T., Harris, S., & Collins, M. (2013). Implementing community sport policy: understanding the variety of voluntary club types and their attitudes to policy. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 5(3), 397–419. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940.2012.735688>
- McLaughlin, J. A., & Jordan, G. B. (2015). Using logic models. In K. E. Newcomer, H. P. Hatry, & J. S. Wholey (Eds.) *Handbook of Practical Program Evaluation*. (4th Ed.).
- McCree, R. (2009). Sport policy and the new public management in the Caribbean: Convergence or resurgence?. *Public Management Review*, 11(4), 461-476.
- McKinney, R., & Kahn, H. (2004). Lottery funding and changing organizational identity in the UK voluntary sector. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary & Nonprofit Organizations*, 15(1), 1–19.
- Merriam-Webster's collegiate dictionary (10th ed.). (2010). Springfield, MA: Merriam-Webster.
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook*, (Edition 3). London, UK: Sage.
- Millar, A., Simeone, R. S., & Carnevale, J. T. (2001). Logic models: a systems tool for performance management. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, 24(1), 73–81.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-7189\(00\)00048-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-7189(00)00048-3)
- Ministry of Finance and Planning. (2012). *Jamaica budget 2012-2013*. Kingston: MFP.
- Ministry of Finance and Planning. (2013). *Jamaica budget 2013-2014*. Kingston: MFP.

Ministry of Finance and the Public Service. (2008). *Jamaica budget 2008-2009*. Kingston: MFPS.

Ministry of Finance and the Public Service. (2009). *Jamaica budget 2009-2010*. Kingston: MFPS.

Ministry of Finance and the Public Service. (2010). *Jamaica budget 2010-2011*. Kingston: MFPS.

Ministry of Finance and the Public Service. (2011). *Jamaica budget 2011-2012*. Kingston: MFPS.

Ministry of Youth, Sports, and Culture. (2011). National sport policy for Jamaica. Ministerial Green Paper. *Ministry of Youth, Sports, and Culture*. Kingston: MYSC.

Moore, R. (2014, July 26). Jamaica's running war with banned performance enhancers. Retrieved March 12, 2018, from <http://www.esquire.co.uk/culture/features/6540/jamaica-athletes-banned-substances-rumours/>

Moore, R. (2015). *The Bolt Supremacy: Inside Jamaica's Sprint Factory*. Random House.

Morgan, W. J. (1993). Amateurism and Professionalism as Moral Languages: In Search of a Moral Image for Sport. *Quest*, 45(4), 470–493.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00336297.1993.10484101>

Morrison, E., & Cooper, P. (2010). Some biomedical mechanisms in athletic prowess. In R. Irving & V. Charlton (Eds.), *Jamaican Gold: Jamaican Sprinters* (pp. 11-19). Kingston: UWI Press.

Neumann, I. B., & Gstöhl, S. (2004). Lilliputians in Gulliver's world?: Small states in international relations. Iceland: Center for Small States Studies.

Newland, B., & Kellett, P. (2012). Exploring new models of elite sport delivery: The case of triathlon in the USA and Australia. *Managing Leisure*, 17(2/3), 170–181.

- Nolte, P. L., Burnett, C., & Hollander, W. (2017). Perspective of coaches on LTAD of elite judo athletes: A comparative analysis. *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education & Recreation (SAJR SPER)*, 39, 219–228.
- NPR. (2012). A need for speed: Inside Jamaica's sprint factory. Retrieved March 17, 2018, from <https://www.npr.org/2012/05/04/151956595/a-need-for-speed-inside-jamaicas-sprint-factory>
- Oakley, B., & Green, M. (2001a). Still playing the game at arm's length? The selective re-investment in British sport, 1995–2000. *Managing Leisure*, 6(2), 74-94.
- Oakley, B., & Green, M. (2001b). The production of Olympic champions: International perspectives on elite sport development system. *European Journal for Sport Management*, 8(Special issue), 83–105.
- Olus, Y. (2018, February 8). Can Jamaica maintain its dominance in Track and Field? Retrieved March 12, 2018, from <https://www.makingofchamps.com/2018/02/08/can-jamaica-maintain-dominance-track-field/>
- Orchard, S., Stringer, L., & Quinn, C. (2015). Environmental entitlements: Institutional influence on mangrove social-ecological systems in Northern Vietnam. *Resources*, 4(4), 903–938. <https://doi.org/10.3390/resources4040903>
- Pal, L. A. (2010). *Beyond policy analysis* (4th ed.). Toronto: Nelson.
- Parchment, R. (2017, October 29). Jamaica runners-up at Fast-5 Netball World Series. Retrieved from <http://jamaica-gleaner.com/article/sports/20171029/jamaica-runners-fast5-netball-world-series>
- Parliament of Jamaica. (1962). Ministry paper No. 15: National stadium. *Ministry of Welfare and Culture*. Kingston: MWC.

Parliament of Jamaica. (1967). Ministry paper No. 26: National sports limited. *Ministry of Development and Welfare*. Kingston: MDW.

Parliament of Jamaica. (1979). Ministry paper No. 1: National sports limited. *Ministry of Youth, Sports and Community Development*. Kingston: MYSCD.

Parliament of Jamaica. (2013). Ministry paper No. 29: White paper on the national sport policy. *Office of the Prime Minister*. Kingston: OPM.

Parliament of Jamaica. (2016). Minister Grange Sectoral Presentation 2016-2017. *Ministry of Culture, Gender, Entertainment & Sport*. Kingston: MCGES.

Parliament of Jamaica. (2018). Opening of Budget Presentation – Audley Shaw. *Ministry of Finance, Planning & the Public Service*. Kingston: MFPS.

Patton, M. Q. (2014). *Qualitative research and evaluation* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Park, J.-W., Lim, S.-Y., & Bretherton, P. (2012). Exploring the truth: A critical approach to the success of Korean elite sport. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, 36(3), 245–267.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0193723511433864>

Park, J.-W., Tan, T.-C., & Park, H.-U. (2016). Interrogating the key policy factors behind South Korea's archery success. *The International Journal of the History of Sport*, 33(5), 523–544. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09523367.2016.1173673>

Payne, T. (1991). Jamaican society and the testing of democracy. In C. Clarke (Ed.) *Society and Politics in the Caribbean*. Springer.

Peters, B. G., Pierre, J., & King, D. S. (2005). The Politics of Path Dependency: Political Conflict in Historical Institutionalism. *The Journal of Politics*, 67(4), 1275–1300.

<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2508.2005.00360.x>

Peterson, T. (2007). The professionalization of sport in the Scandinavian countries. Retrieved from <http://www.idrottsforum.org/articles/peterson/peterson080220.html>

- Petry, K., Steinbach, D., & Burk, V. (2008). Germany. In B. Houlihan & M. Green (Eds.) *Comparative elite sport development* (pp. 116-146). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.
- Phillips, P., & Newland, B. (2014). Emergent models of sport development and delivery: The case of triathlon in Australia and the US. *Sport Management Review*, 17(2), 107–120.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2013.07.001>
- Piggin, J., Jackson, S. J., & Lewis, M. (2009). Knowledge, power and politics: Contesting ‘evidence-based’ national sport policy. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 44(1), 87-101.
- Polley, M. (2000). ‘The amateur rules’: Amateurism and professionalism in post-war British athletics. *Contemporary British History*, 14(2), 81–114.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13619460008581583>
- Reiche, D. (2015). Investing in sporting success as a domestic and foreign policy tool: the case of Qatar. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 7(4), 489–504.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940.2014.966135>
- Richards, D. (2017, September 5). Levy, Wilks call for support to help athletes make transition to senior level. Retrieved March 12, 2018, from
http://www.jamaicaobserver.com/sports/levy-wilks-call-for-support-to-help-athletes-make-transition-to-senior-level_109976?profile=1511
- Riordan, J. (1981). *Sport Under Communism: The U.S.S.R., Czechoslovakia, the G.D.R., China, Cuba*. McGill-Queen’s Press - MQUP.
- Riordan, J. (2007). The Impact of Communism on Sport. *Historical Social Research / Historische Sozialforschung*, 32(1 (119)), 110–115.
- Riordan, J., & Kruger, A. (1999). *The international politics of sport in the Twentieth Century*. London, UK: Taylor & Francis Group.

Robinson, P. (2009). *Jamaican athletics: A model for 2012 and the world*. London: BlackAmber.

Robinson, L., & Minikin, B. (2012). Understanding the competitive advantage of National Olympic Committees. *Managing Leisure, 17*(2-3), 139-154.

Rose, R. (1991). What is lesson-drawing? *Journal of Public Policy, 11*(1), 3–30.

<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0143814X00004918>

Sabatier, P. A. (1988). An advocacy coalition framework of policy change and the role of policy-oriented learning therein. *Policy Sciences, 21*(2–3), 129–168.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00136406>

Sabatier, P. A., & Jenkins-Smith, H. C. (1993). The advocacy coalition framework: Assessment, revisions, and implications for scholars and practitioners. *Policy change and learning: An advocacy coalition approach*, 211-236.

Saldana, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. London: SAGE.

Sam, M. (2012). Targeted investments in elite sport funding: wiser, more innovative and strategic?. *Managing Leisure, 17*(2-3), 207-220.

Sam, M. P. (2003). What's the big idea? Reading the rhetoric of a national sport policy process. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 20*, 189-213.

Sam, M. P. (2005). The Makers of Sport Policy: A (Task)Force to Be Reckoned with. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 22*(1), 78–99. <https://doi.org/10.1123/ssj.22.1.78>

Sam, M. P. (2009). The Public Management of Sport. *Public Management Review, 11*(4), 499–514. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14719030902989565>

Sam, M. P. (2015). Sport policy and transformation in small states: New Zealand's struggle between vulnerability and resilience. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics, 7*(3), 407–420. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940.2015.1060715>

- Sam, M. P., & Jackson, S. J. (2004). Sport Policy Development in New Zealand: Paradoxes of an Integrative Paradigm. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 39(2), 205–222. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1012690204043463>
- Sam, M. P., & Jackson, S. J. (2006). Developing national sport policy through consultation: The rules of engagement. *Journal of Sport Management*, 20(3), 366-386.
- Sam, M. P., & Jackson, S. J. (2015). Sport and small states: the myths, limits and contradictions of the legend of David and Goliath. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 7(3), 319–327. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940.2015.1031814>
- Scott, R. A., Georgiades, E., Wilson, R. H., Goodwin, W. H., Wolde, B., & Pitsladis, Y. P. (2003). Demographic characteristics of elite Ethiopian endurance runners. *Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise*, 1727-1732.
- Scott, R. A., Irving, R., Irwin, L., Morrison, E., Charlton, V., Austin, K., Tladi, D., Deason, M., Headley, S. A., Kolkhorst, F. W., Yang, N., North, K., & Pitsladis, Y. P. (2009). ACTN3 and ACE genotypes in elite Jamaican and US sprinters. *Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise*, 107-112.
- Seale, C. (1999). Quality in qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 6(4), 465-478.
- Seidman, I. (2013). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences* (4th ed.). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Sherlock, P., & Bennett, H. (1998). *The story of the Jamaican people*. Kingston: Ian Randle.
- Sherlock, P. M., & Nettleford, R. (1990). *The University of the West Indies: A Caribbean response to the challenge of change*. MacMillan Caribbean.
- Shibli, S., De Bosscher, V., & van Bottenburg, M. (2014). Measuring and forecasting elite sporting success. In I. Henry & L.-M. Ko (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of sport policy* (pp. 212-224). London, UK: Routledge.

- Shibli, S., De Bosscher, V., van Bottenburg, M., & Bingham, J. (2012). Forecasting the performance of nations in elite sport. In L. Robinson, P. Chelladurai, G. Bodet, & P. Downward (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of sport management* (pp. 86-98). London, UK: Routledge.
- Shibli, S., De Bosscher, V., van Bottenburg, M., & Westerbeek, H. (2013). Measuring performance and success in elite sports. In P. Sotiriadou & V. De Bosscher (Eds.), *Managing high performance sport* (pp. 30-45). London, UK: Routledge.
- Shilbury, D., & Ferkins, L. (2011). Professionalisation, sport governance and strategic capability. *Managing Leisure, 16*(2), 108–127. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13606719.2011.559090>
- Shilbury, D., Popi Sotiriadou, K., & Christine Green, B. (2008). Sport Development. Systems, Policies and Pathways: An Introduction to the Special Issue. *Sport Management Review, 11*(3), 217–223. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3523\(08\)70110-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3523(08)70110-4)
- Shryack, L. (2014, December 10). IOC in talks to remove 10k, 200 from Olympics. Retrieved from <https://www.flotrack.org/articles/5040052-ioc-in-talks-to-remove-10k-200-from-olympics>
- Sinclair, D. (2005). Sports education-a priority for Caribbean sports tourism. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 17*(6), 536-548.
- Skinner, J., Stewart, B., & Edwards, A. (1999). Amateurism to professionalism: Modelling organisational change in sporting organisations. *Sport Management Review, 2*(2), 173–192. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3523\(99\)70095-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1441-3523(99)70095-1)
- Smolianov, P., Murphy, J., McMahon, S. G., & Naylor, A. H. (2015). Comparing the practices of US Soccer against a global model for integrated development of mass and high-performance sport. *Managing Sport and Leisure, 20*(1), 1–21. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13606719.2014.929402>

Smyth, R. (2008). Nvivo (Software). In L. M. Given (Ed.) *The Sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods* (pp. 564-566). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Sotiriadou, K. (Popi). (2009). The Australian sport system and its stakeholders: development of cooperative relationships. *Sport in Society*, 12(7), 842–860.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/17430430903053067>

Sotiriadou, P., Brouwers, J., De Bosscher, V., & Cuskelly, G. (2017). The role of interorganizational relationships on elite athlete development processes. *Journal of Sport Management*, 31(1), 61–79.

Sotiriadou, P., Gowthorp, L., & De Bosscher, V. (2014). Elite sport culture and policy interrelationships: the case of Sprint Canoe in Australia. *Leisure Studies*, 33(6), 598-617.

Sotiriadou, K. (Popi), & Shilbury, D. (2009). Australian elite athlete development: An organisational perspective. *Sport Management Review*, 12(3), 137–148.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2009.01.002>

Sports Development Foundation. (1999). Annual Report: 1995-1999.

Sports Development Foundation. (2000). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2001). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2002). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2003). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2004). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2005). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2006). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2007). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2008). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2009). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2010). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2011). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2012). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2013). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2014). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2015). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2016). Annual Report.

Sports Development Foundation. (2017). Annual Report.

Stewart, B., Nicholson, M., Smith, A., & Westerbeek, H. (2004). Australian sport: Better by design?: The evolution of Australian sport policy. London, UK: Routledge.

Stoddart, B. (1988). Caribbean cricket: the role of sport in emerging small-nation politics. *International Journal*, 43(4), 618-642.

Storm, R. K., Nielsen, K., & Thomsen, F. (2016). Can a small nation be competitive in the global sporting arms race? The case of Denmark. *Managing Sport and Leisure*, 21(4), 181–202.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/23750472.2016.1243993>

Stump, S. (2013, October 25). Cool runnings 2? Jamaican bobsled team aims for Sochi Olympics. *TODAY News*. Retrieved from <http://www.today.com>

Supreme Court of Jamaica. (2001). Jamaica Lottery Company Limited v Supreme Ventures Limited.

Sutton, P. (2011). The concept of small states in the international political economy. *The Round Table*, 100(413), 141–153. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00358533.2011.565625>

Swanton, W. S. (2018). How the ball-tampering scandal strikes a blow against Australia's psyche. Retrieved May 5, 2018, from <https://edition.cnn.com/2018/03/26/sport/cricket-australia-ball-tampering-psyche-blow/index.html>

- Taks, M., Green, B. C., Misener, L., & Chalip, L. (2014). Evaluating sport development outcomes: The case of a medium-sized international sport event. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 14(3), 213–237. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2014.882370>
- Tan, T.-C., & Houlihan, B. (2013). Chinese Olympic sport policy: Managing the impact of globalisation. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 48(2), 131–152. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1012690212445169>
- Taro, K., & Hanni, E. (2015). Using a comparative method in performance audit for evaluating effectiveness of the elite sports policy: The case of Estonia. *Administrative Culture*, 16(1), 24–46.
- Taylor, O. W. (2015). It's Culture, Not Genes: Explaining Why Jamaican Sprinters Are the Fastest Humans on Earth. *Caribbean Quarterly*, 61(1), 23–41. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00086495.2015.11672546>
- Thibault, L., & Harvey, J. (2013). Introduction. In L. Thibault & J. Harvey (Eds.), *Sport policy in Canada* (pp. 1-8). Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press.
- Thomis, M. A. I. (2011). Genes and strength and power phenotypes. In C. Bouchard & E. P. Hoffman (Eds.), *Genetic and molecular aspects of sport performance* (pp. 159-176). Balckwell Publishing Ltd.
- Thorhallsson, B., & Wivel, A. (2006). Small states in the European Union: What do we know and what would we like to know? *Cambridge Review of International Affairs*, 19(4), 651–668. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09557570601003502>
- Toomer, R. (2015). Jamaica. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 7(3), 457-471.
- Tracey, O. (2015, October 13). Jamaica needs strong MVP. Retrieved March 17, 2018, from <http://jamaica-gleaner.com/article/sports/20151013/jamaica-needs-strong-mvp>

- Truyens, J., & De Bosscher, V. (2012). National success and efficiency in athletics at the 2012 Olympic Games in London. *New Studies in Athletics*, 27(4), 11–24.
- Truyens, J., De Bosscher, V., & Heyndels, B. (2012). The SPLISS Athletics Project: A Resource-Based Evaluation of Elite Athletics Policies. *New Studies in Athletics*, 27(1/2), 133–139.
- Truyens, J., De Bosscher, V., & Heyndels, B. (2016). Competitive balance in athletics. *Managing Sport & Leisure*, 21(1), 23–43.
- Truyens, J., De Bosscher, V., Heyndels, B., & Westerbeek, H. (2014). A resource-based perspective on countries' competitive advantage in elite athletics. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 6(3), 459–489.
- Truyens, J., De Bosscher, V., Sotiriadou, P., Heyndels, B., & Westerbeek, H. (2016). A method to evaluate countries' organisational capacity: A four-country comparison in athletics. *Sport Management Review*, 19(3), 279–292. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2015.05.002>
- Turner, R., & Freiermuth, E. (2017). *Travel and Tourism: Economic Impact 2017, Jamaica*. World Travel & Tourism Council.
- Viallon, R., Camy, J., & Collins, M. F. (2003). The European integration of a new occupation, the training and education strategies of national professional organizations: The case of the fitness sector in France and the United Kingdom. *Managing Leisure*, 8(2), 85–96. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1360671032000085693>
- Weber, A. C., De Bosscher, V., & Kempf, H. (2018). Positioning in Olympic Winter sports: Analysing national prioritisation of funding and success in eight nations. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 18(1), 8–24. <https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2017.1336782>

Wisdom, T.-A. (2016, August 23). Jamaica's Olympic Games Medal Haul: Men vs Women.

Retrieved March 11, 2018, from <http://digjamaica.com/blog/2016/08/23/jamaicas-olympic-games-medal-haul-men-vs-women/>

Wholey, J. S. (1979). *Evaluation: Promise and performance*. Washington: The Urban Institute.

Yang, N., MacArthur, D. G., Wolde, B., Onywera, V. O., Boit, M. K., Lau, S. Y. M-A., Wilson, R. H., Scott, R. A., Pitsladis, Y. P., & North, K. (2007). The ACTN3 R577X polymorphism in East and West African athletes. *Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise*, 1985-1988.

Yin, R. K. (2018). *Case study research and applications: Design and methods*. Sage Publications.

White, T. P. (2015). *Stepping out from the cloud*. *Masters Thesis*. Retrieved March 11, 2018, from <http://thekeep.eiu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=3366&context=theses>

Wicker, P., Orłowski, J., & Breuer, C. (2018). Coach migration in German high performance sport. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 18(1), 93–111.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2017.1354902>

Zheng, J., Oh, T., Kim, S., Dickson, G., & De Bosscher, V. (2017). Competitive balance trends in elite table tennis: The Olympic Games and World Championships 1988-2016. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02640414.2017.1375174>

Appendix A
Ethics Approval Notice

File Number: H10-15-07

Date (mm/dd/yyyy): 11/16/2015



Université d'Ottawa
 Bureau d'éthique et d'intégrité de la recherche

University of Ottawa
 Office of Research Ethics and Integrity

Ethics Approval Notice

Health Sciences and Science REB

Principal Investigator / Supervisor / Co-investigator(s) / Student(s)

<u>First Name</u>	<u>Last Name</u>	<u>Affiliation</u>	<u>Role</u>
Jean	Harvey	Health Sciences / Human Kinetics	Supervisor
Richard	Toomer	Health Sciences / Others	Student Researcher

File Number: H10-15-07

Type of Project: PhD Thesis

Title: National Sport Policy in a Developing Country: The Case of Jamaica's Elite Sport Development in Selected Sports

<u>Approval Date (mm/dd/yyyy)</u>	<u>Expiry Date (mm/dd/yyyy)</u>	<u>Approval Type</u>
11/16/2015	11/15/2016	Ia

(Ia: Approval, Ib: Approval for initial stage only)

Special Conditions / Comments:

N/A

File Number: H10-15-07

Date (mm/dd/yyyy): 11/16/2015



Université d'Ottawa
Bureau d'éthique et d'intégrité de la recherche

University of Ottawa
Office of Research Ethics and Integrity

This is to confirm that the University of Ottawa Research Ethics Board identified above, which operates in accordance with the Tri-Council Policy Statement (2010) and other applicable laws and regulations in Ontario, has examined and approved the ethics application for the above named research project. Ethics approval is valid for the period indicated above and subject to the conditions listed in the section entitled "Special Conditions / Comments".

During the course of the project, the protocol may not be modified without prior written approval from the REB except when necessary to remove participants from immediate endangerment or when the modification(s) pertain to only administrative or logistical components of the project (e.g., change of telephone number). Investigators must also promptly alert the REB of any changes which increase the risk to participant(s), any changes which considerably affect the conduct of the project, all unanticipated and harmful events that occur, and new information that may negatively affect the conduct of the project and safety of the participant(s). Modifications to the project, including consent and recruitment documentation, should be submitted to the Ethics Office for approval using the "Modification to research project" form available at: <http://research.uottawa.ca/ethics/submissions-and-reviews>.

Please submit an annual report to the Ethics Office four weeks before the above-referenced expiry date to request a renewal of this ethics approval. To close the file, a final report must be submitted. These documents can be found at: <http://research.uottawa.ca/ethics/submissions-and-reviews>.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact the Ethics Office at extension 5387 or by e-mail at: ethics@uOttawa.ca.

Signature:

Riana Marcotte
Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research
For Daniel Lagarec, Chair of the Health Sciences and Sciences REB

550, rue Cumberland, pièce 154 550 Cumberland Street, room 154
Ottawa (Ontario) K1N 6N5 Canada Ottawa, Ontario K1N 6N5 Canada
(613) 562-5387 • Téléc./Fax (613) 562-5338

www.recherche.uottawa.ca/deontologie/ www.research.uottawa.ca/ethics/

Appendix B
Letter of Information



Université d'Ottawa

Faculté des sciences
de la santé

École des sciences de
l'activité physique

University of Ottawa

Faculty of Health Sciences

School of Human Kinetics

☎ +1 613 562 5800
☎ +1 613 562-5149

125 Université/University (222)
Ottawa ON K1N 6N5 Canada

www.uOttawa.ca

Title of the Study: National Sport Policy in a Developing Country: The Case of Jamaica's Elite Sport Development in Selected Sports

Principal Investigator: Richard Toomer, Doctoral Candidate, University of Ottawa, School of Human Kinetics.

Supervisor: Professor Jean Harvey, University of Ottawa, School of Human Kinetics.

Invitation to Participate: You are invited to participate in the abovementioned research study conducted by Richard Toomer as part of his doctoral dissertation.

Purpose of the Study: This research will explore the national sport policy of Jamaica and seek to understand the development of elite sport through public policy. It will investigate the perceived impact of the national sport policy on the international competitive successes of selected sports, such as, athletics, cycling, football, netball, swimming, and table tennis. Particularly, the perceived successes in the elite sport of athletics, and why it is that athletics is considered to be more successful than the other elite sports.

Participation: As an informed member of the elite sport development system, you are invited to share your knowledge and experience in regards to the national sport policy of Jamaica, on how this policy has contributed to the development of the national sporting organizations, and the successes attained by the respective elite sport at international competitive events, such as, the Olympic Games, Commonwealth Games, and the sport specific World Championships. Your participation in the study will be highly valuable. The interview will take approximately forty-five minutes to one hour of your time and, with your permission, the interview will be conducted through Skype or in-person, and will be audio-recorded or video-recorded to facilitate accurate collection of the information. The recorded data will be transcribed, and a transcript will be provided to those participants consenting to be quoted by name. You do not have to provide an answer to any questions that you do not wish to respond to, or that makes you feel uncomfortable. If you wish to participate in this study, please let me know at your earliest convenience. I will be sending you a notice of reminder at least two weeks prior to the interview.

Benefits: The study is intended to produce empirical findings that can be used to inform strategy on a national level and also within the national sporting organizations. The outcome of the study is also expected to help all of us understand the value, significance and contribution of the national sport policy and its continued ability to assist in the development of elite sport in collaboration with national sporting organizations. It will also address several arguments (among citizens) which has been raised about the outcomes attributed to international successes from elite competitions, and specifically as to why one elite sport can be more successful than another.

Risks: The study offers no risk to you as a participant. Your identity will remain confidential and will not be shared with anyone other than the investigator and the thesis supervisor. Further, if you do not feel comfortable providing an answer to a given question, you can skip that question.

Confidentiality and Anonymity: The information that you will share will remain strictly confidential and will be used solely for the purposes of this research. Only I, the investigator, and the thesis supervisor will have access to your data/responses. Your answers may be used verbatim in presentations and publications, but neither you (nor your organization) will be identified, unless you provided consent to be quoted by name, and in that case, only your name will be identified. If you wish to be anonymous, a pseudonym will be assigned to you, and only myself, and the thesis supervisor will have access to your code. Results will be published in pooled (aggregate) format. In other words, only overviews of the data, and not individual interviews, will be published.

Conservation of Data: The interview data will be kept in a locked storage unit in the supervisor's office, in password protected computer files, and on a hard-drive protected by an alpha-numeric password. Any documents in the form of hard copy will be scanned and saved on an external hard disk and the hard copy will be destroyed immediately. Data will be filed immediately following the investigator's doctoral thesis defense for a period of five (5) years, at which time they will be totally destroyed.

Voluntary Participation: You are under no obligation to participate in this study, and if you do, you have the right to withdraw at any time. If you choose to participate, you may refuse to answer any questions that you do not wish to answer. Should you withdraw from the study after having signed the consent form, data collected up until that moment will be destroyed, unless permission to use it is granted by you!

Information about the Study Results: The results will be available to the interviewee on request by email to the investigator.

If you have any questions or require more information about the study itself, you may contact the investigator directly at the contact information mentioned herein.

I have scheduled interviews starting from the week of December 1, 2015. To proceed, once you have expressed your interest to me, I will contact you to confirm your participation and to discuss the consent form and the scheduling of your interview.

If you have any questions with regards to the ethical conduct of this study, you may contact the University of Ottawa's Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research (Tabaret Hall, 550 Cumberland Street, Room 154, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5, Telephone: (613) 562-5387, or ethics@uottawa.ca).

Please keep this document for your records.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Richard Toomer
Doctoral Candidate

Appendix C
Consent Form



Université d'Ottawa
Faculté des sciences
de la santé

Ecole des sciences de
l'activité physique

University of Ottawa
Faculty of Health Sciences

School of Human Kinetics

Title of the Study: National Sport Policy in a Developing Country: The Case of Jamaica's Elite Sport Development in Selected Sports

Researcher: Richard Toomer, Doctoral Candidate, University of Ottawa, School of Human Kinetics.

Supervisor: Professor Jean Harvey, University of Ottawa, School of Human Kinetics.

Invitation to Participate: I am invited to participate in the abovementioned research study conducted by Richard Toomer as part of his doctoral dissertation.

Purpose of the Study: The purpose of the study is to explore the national sport policy of Jamaica and seek to understand the development of elite sport through public policy. It will investigate the perceived impact of the national sport policy on the international competitive successes of selected sports, such as, athletics, cycling, football, netball, swimming, and table tennis. Particularly, the perceived successes in the elite sport of athletics, and why it is that athletics is considered to be more successful than the other elite sports.

Participation: My participation will consist essentially of one interview, which will take approximately forty-five minutes to one hour, during which I will answer questions from the researcher. The interview will be conducted in-person, and will be audio-recorded to facilitate accurate collection of the information. The recorded data will be transcribed, and a transcript will be provided to me if I consent to be quoted by name.

Risks: My participation in this study will entail that I do not volunteer any personal information, as this may cause me to feel uncomfortable. I have received assurance from the researcher that every effort will be made to minimize this risk, and I will not provide an answer to any questions that I do not wish to respond to, or that makes me feel uncomfortable. It is my understanding that I am under no obligation to participate in this study, and have the right to withdraw at any time if this assurance is not upheld.

Benefits: My participation in this study will help to produce empirical evidence that can be used to inform strategy on a national level, and also within the national sporting organizations. Further, my participation will add value and significance to future national sport policies and assist in the long-term development of elite sport.

Confidentiality and Anonymity: I have received assurance from the researcher that the information I will share will remain strictly confidential. I understand that the contents will be used only for the purposes of this research project and that my confidentiality will be protected by access to my information being restricted to only the researcher and the thesis supervisor. I also understand that by checking one of the two boxes below, I will be selecting anonymity, or I will provide consent to be quoted by name, for which, only my name will be identified and not my organization.

☎+1 613 562 5800
☎+1 613 562-5149

125 Université/University (222)
Ottawa ON K1N 6N5 Canada

www.uOttawa.ca

I choose to be anonymous

I choose to be identified

Anonymity, if selected above, will be protected in the following manner, given that no name or personal identifying information will be provided. I understand that my responses may be used verbatim in presentations and publications, and therefore, a study code will be used, such as, *Participant 1*, to represent the information I have provided.

Conservation of Data: The data collected for the interviews will be kept in an access restricted office at the University of Ottawa, accessible by only the researcher and the thesis supervisor. The data will be further stored on an alpha-numeric password protected computer. Any documents in the form of hard copy will be scanned and saved on an external hard disk and the hard copy will be destroyed immediately. Data will be filed immediately following the researcher's doctoral thesis defense for a period of five (5) years, at which time they will be totally destroyed.

Voluntary Participation: I am under no obligation to participate and if I choose to participate, I can withdraw from the study at any time and/or refuse to answer any questions, without suffering any negative consequences. If I choose to withdraw, all data gathered until the time of withdrawal will be destroyed, unless permission to use it is granted by me.

Acceptance: I, _____, agree to participate in the above research study conducted by Richard Toomer of the School of Human Kinetics, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Ottawa, whose research is under the supervision of Professor Jean Harvey.

If I have any questions about the study, I may contact the researcher or his supervisor.

If I have any questions regarding the ethical conduct of this study, I may contact the Protocol Officer for Ethics in Research, University of Ottawa, Tabaret Hall, 550 Cumberland Street, Room 154, Ottawa, ON K1N 6N5
 Tel.: (613) 562-5387
 Email: ethics@uottawa.ca

There are two copies of the consent form, one of which is mine to keep.

Participant's signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher's signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix D
Sample Interview Guide – Selected Sports

Participant # _____.

I. GENERAL

- (1) Can you tell me about your involvement in elite sport in Jamaica? (*Probe: Your experiences? What area of sport you're involved-in? How long have you been involved in sports, etc.?*).
- (2) What do you consider as your role in the organization and management of elite sport in Jamaica? (*Probe: Where do you place yourself in the overall elite sport development community?*).
- (3) When were you first exposed to the national sport policy of Jamaica, and how did this happen? (*Probe: Was this the 1994 or the revised national sport policy?*).

II. PRIOR TO 1994

- (4) What can you tell me about your knowledge of the various National Development Plans for Jamaica, before and following the 1962 Independence, and how do you view its focus on the sport sector? (*Probe: How have these plans moved us to the current Vision 2030 development plan? What can tell me about the current short, medium or long term plans for the sport sector? Can you explain how this ties-in with the current national sport policy?*).
- (5) How would you describe the operations in your organization, and the success of your sport, in general, prior to the 1994 national sport policy? (*Probe: Reflecting on then and now, how was things in your sport before 1994?*).
- (6) Reflecting on government policies for sport before 1994, what are some of the sport policies that come easily to your mind?

III. 1994 TO 2011

- (7) What can you tell me about your knowledge of the 1994 national sport policy? (*Probe: What it proposed? What was implemented? How successful would you say it was?*).
- (8) How has your organization, and your sport, in general, changed since the 1994 national sport policy? (*Probe: How has the 1994 national sport policy contributed directly to the*

development of your organization? How has it contributed to the development of elite athletes and coaches in your sport?).

- (9) What are some of the benefits to your organization, and to your sport, that you would attribute to the 1994 national sport policy? *(Probe: Reflecting on the past 20 years in your organization, and your sport, how has the 1994 national sport policy contributed to making things better?).*

IV. 2012 ONWARDS

- (10) How different is the revised 2013 national sport policy, from the original 1994 policy? *(Probe: Why was change necessary? Was this revision a result of the international successes in elite competitions? Was this revision a result of increased competition from other countries, or was this done to become more competitive?).*
- (11) What are some of the benefits to your organization, and to your sport, that you would attribute to the revised 2013 national sport policy? *(Probe: Reflecting on the period from January 2012 to the present, for your organization, and your sport, how has the 2013 national sport policy contributed to making things better? How has the 2013 national sport policy contributed to the long-term planning for your organization?).*
- (12) It is suggested that elite sport can contribute to the gross domestic product for Jamaica, but without investment from the government, this may never become a reality. What do you make of this point? *(Probe: Try to get an in-depth assessment of the importance of the sector. Should athletes and coaches receive a dedicated salary from the government? Should the government invest directly in specific areas such as science and technology, and facilities development and maintenance?).*
- (13) Would you attribute any possible international successes in elite competitions directly to the national sport policy? *(Probe: either the 1994 directly, or the revised 2013 policy?).*
- (14) Is there anything else you feel is important for me to know as it relates to the contribution of the national sport policy to the development of elite sport?

Appendix E
Sample Interview Guide – Sporting Industry

Participant # _____.

I. GENERAL

- (1) Can you tell me about your involvement in elite sport in Jamaica? (*Probe: Your experiences? What area of sport you're involved-in? How long have you been involved in sports, etc.?*).
- (2) What do you consider as your role in the organization and management of elite sport in Jamaica? (*Probe: Where do you place yourself in the overall elite sport development community?*).
- (3) When were you first exposed to the national sport policy of Jamaica, and how did this happen? (*Probe: Was this the 1994 or the revised national sport policy?*).

II. ATHLETICS & THE NATIONAL SPORT POLICY

- (4) What can you tell me about your knowledge of the various National Development Plans for Jamaica, before and following the 1962 Independence, and how do you view its focus on the sport sector? (*Probe: How have these plans moved us to the current Vision 2030 development plan? What can tell me about the current short, medium or long term plans for the sport sector? Can you explain how this ties-in with the current national sport policy?*).
- (5) How successful in your estimation was the sport of athletics, prior to the 1994 national sport policy? (*Probe: What would you say contributed to any possible success in athletics before 1994?*).
- (6) How successful in your estimation is the sport of athletics, since the 1994 national sport policy? (*Probe: Reflecting on the policy decisions of the various governments since 1994 to present, how has the national sport policy contributed to the success of athletics? Would you attribute any, or all of the success in the sport of athletics to the national sport policy?*).
- (7) How would you describe the environment locally and internationally for athletics, prior to 1994? (*Probe: Specifically, the environment for athletes and coaches, such as, training and competitive facilities, economic opportunities, and access to qualified coaches?*).

- (8) How has the local and international environment changed for the sport of athletics since the 1994 national sport policy, and would you say that this change contributed to the current success of the sport? (*Probe: Specifically, how the national sporting organizations changed between 1994 to the present? How the national sporting organizations responded to the implementation of the national sport policy?*).
- (9) How would you describe the financial support provided by the government to the sport of athletics? (*Probe: Does athletics get more financial support from the government than others sports, such as, football, netball, and swimming?*).
- (10) How has this financial support contributed to the successes of athletics at the elite level?
- (11) Do you consider athletics to be more successful at the elite level than other sports in Jamaica? (*Probe: Why? Is it easier to find talents in athletics, than other elite sports in Jamaica? Is athletics easier to develop than other sports?*).

III. ATHLETICS & AN ACCIDENTAL OCCURRENCE

- (12) How have the internal policies of the JAAA contributed to the successes in athletics? (*Probe: Any other possible internal policies?*).
- (13) How different would you say are the internal policies of the JAAA from those of other NSOs administering elite sports in Jamaica? (*Probe: Does leadership and management style makes a difference?*).
- (14) Would you attribute the successes in athletics to one derived from accidental occurrence, and not from the strategic objective of the government through the national sport policy?
- (15) Could the success in athletics occurred through years of development, from trial and error?
- (16) Could the success in athletics occur over many years from the contributions of private actors, either working on their own, or with international partners? (*Probe: Private actors such as Track & Field clubs established locally?*).
- (17) Is there anything else you feel is important for me to know as to why athletics is more successful than other elite sports in Jamaica?

Appendix F
Table F-1
Breakdown of Jamaican Governments since 1962

Year of General Election/ Change in Cabinet	Political Party in Administration	Government Institution	Ministers with Portfolio Responsibility for Sport
April 10, 1962	Jamaica Labour Party	Ministry of Development and Welfare	Hon. Edward Seaga
February 21, 1967	Jamaica Labour Party	Ministry of Development and Welfare	Hon. Edward Seaga
†New Cabinet – June 14, 1967	- Jamaica Labour Party	Ministry of Youth and Community Development	Hon. Allan Douglas
February 29, 1972	People's National Party	Ministry of Youth and Community Development	Hon. Dr. Douglas Manley
December 15, 1976	People's National Party	Ministry of Youth, Sports, and Community Development	Hon. Hugh Small
*Cabinet Changes – December 1979	- People's National Party	Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sports	Hon. Hugh Small
*Cabinet Changes – March 1980	- People's National Party	Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sports	Hon. Phyllis MacPherson-Russell
October 30, 1980	Jamaica Labour Party	Ministry of Youth and Community Development	Hon. Errol Anderson
December 15, 1983	Jamaica Labour Party	Ministry of Youth and Community Development	Hon. Edmund Bartlett
February 9, 1989	People's National Party	Ministry of Labour, Welfare, and Sports	Hon. Portia Simpson
March 30, 1993	People's National Party	Ministry of Local Government, Youth, and Sports	Hon. John Junor
*Cabinet Changes – January 1995	- People's National Party	Ministry of Labour, Social Security, and Sports	Hon. Portia Simpson
December 18, 1997	People's National Party	Ministry of Labour, Social Security, and Sports	Hon. Portia Simpson
*Cabinet Changes – February 2000	- People's National Party	Ministry of Tourism and Sports	Hon. Portia Simpson-Miller
October 16, 2002	People's National Party	Ministry of Local Government, Community Development, and Sports	Hon. Portia Simpson-Miller
‡New Cabinet – March 31, 2006	- People's National Party	›Office of the Prime Minister	Most Hon. Portia Simpson-Miller
September 3, 2007	Jamaica Labour Party	Ministry of Youth, Sports, and Culture	Hon. Olivia Grange
December 29, 2011	People's National Party	Office of the Prime Minister – Ministry of Defence, Development, Information, and Sports	‡Most Hon. Portia Simpson- Miller
February 25, 2016	Jamaica Labour Party	Ministry of Culture, Gender, Entertainment, and Sports	Hon. Olivia Grange

Note: †Change in cabinet occurred due to the death of the sitting Prime Minister. *Changes in cabinet resulting from general reshuffle, or a change in some Ministry portfolio
‡Change in cabinet occurred due to the retirement of the sitting Prime Minister. ‡Although the Prime Minister had portfolio responsibility, the Hon. Natalie Neita-Headley was the
Minister without portfolio with responsibility for Sports, and was generally recognized as the Sports Minister. ›The new Prime Minister assumed and retained a number of portfolio
positions including that of Minister with responsibility for Sports.

Source: Compiled with data gathered from the Ministry of Finance and the Public Service; Jamaica Gleaner Archives; Jamaica Observer Archives