A Positive Youth Development Coach Education Program and the
United Nations Millennium Development Goals

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Abstract

In 2000, the United Nations (UN) hosted a world summit to set their major goals and objectives. This summit produced the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), a set of eight goals that addressed key social problems in the world. The UN has recognized the potential of sport and physical activity as a way to achieve the UN MDGs. Empirical evidence has shown that sport is a powerful tool that can promote life skills in youth athletes and that the coach plays a key role in youths’ personal and social development in sport. To date, research has not examined the benefits of sport under the framework of the UN goals, nor has research created activities to achieve these goals. Thus, the purpose of the study was to assess coaches’ thoughts and perceptions of activities that were created to address three UN MDGs (health, education, and empowering women). Six youth soccer and basketball coaches participated in this study. Coaches were required to participate in a workshop designed to teach them the UN MDGs and the principles of positive youth development (PYD). During the workshop four activities were created in a collaborative effort between the participating youth coaches and the McGill research team. These activities were delivered by the coaches to their athletes throughout the season. Data was collected using four qualitative methods: pre and post-intervention forms, interviews, research assistant field notes, and a reflective journal kept by the research coordinator. Data revealed that coaches perceived the project as successful and the activities were seen as beneficial for athletes and for the team. In particular, the coaches believed the activities improved the athletes’ awareness of the importance of health, education, and empowering women. The coaches also believed the activities increased team cohesion and communication skills among their players, and between coaches and players. Finally, observations suggested increased indicators of PYD among youth players. In sum, the results of the present study demonstrated that coaches can be educated in the principles of PYD and the UN goals to develop activities that fostered life skills development of their athletes through sport.
Résumé

En 2000, l’Organisation internationale des Nations Unies (ONU) fut l’hôte d’un sommet international afin de fixer leurs principaux buts et objectifs. De ce sommet sont nés les objectifs du Millénaire pour le développement (OMD), un ensemble de huit objectifs qui abordent des problèmes sociaux importants dans le monde. Les Nations Unies ont reconnu les possibilités du sport et de l’activité physique en tant qu’OMD de l’ONU. Les évidences empiriques ont démontré d’une part que le sport est un outil puissant qui peut encourager le développement d’habiletés de vie chez les jeunes athlètes et d’autre part que les entraîneurs jouent un rôle important dans le développement personnel et social des jeunes dans le domaine du sport. Jusqu’à maintenant les recherches ne se sont pas penchées sur les avantages du sport en fonction du cadre des objectifs de l’ONU de plus les recherches n’ont pas créé d’activités pour atteindre ces buts. Par conséquent, l’objectif de cette étude était d’analyser les pensées des entraîneurs et leurs perceptions d’activités qui ont été créées spécifiquement pour se pencher sur trois des ODM de l’ONU (santé, éducation et l’autonomisation des femmes). Six entraîneurs de soccer et de basketball pour les jeunes ont contribué à cette étude. On leur a demandé de participer à un atelier conçu pour leur enseigner les ODM de l’ONU ainsi que les principes de l’intervention positive youth development (PYD). Au cours de l’atelier, quatre activités ont été créée grâce aux efforts communs des entraîneurs pour les jeunes et de l’équipe de recherche de McGill. Tout au long de la saison, ces activités ont été déployées par les entraîneurs à leurs athlètes. Les données ont été recueillies grâce à quatre méthodes qualitatives: des questionnaires avant après, des entrevues, des notes de recherches et un journal de réflexions tenu par les coordonnateurs de recherche. Les données ont démontré que les entraîneurs ont perçu que le projet fut un succès et que les athlètes ont tiré des avantages des activités. Selon les entraîneurs les activités ont permis une meilleure prise de conscience chez les athlètes de l’importance de la santé, de l’éducation et de l’autonomisation des femmes. Les entraîneurs croient aussi que les activités ont amélioré le travail d’équipe et les aptitudes à communiquer des participants. Finalement, leurs observations suggèrent une augmentation des indicateurs des principes de PYD chez les jeunes joueurs. En résumé, les résultats de cette étude ont démontré que les entraîneurs peuvent recevoir une formation selon les principes de PYD et des objectifs de l’ONU afin de concevoir par le sport des activités qui favorisent le développement d’habiletés de vie chez les athlètes.
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• The more than 20 million underprivileged children in Brazil. This was a first step. Let us keep our hopes of a righteous country and a better world. Through education, determination, and love, better days are to come for all. This is for all of you.
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CHAPTER 1
Introduction

The United Nations (UN) is an international organization that ensures human rights and assists with peacekeeping (UN, 2000). In 2000, the UN hosted a world summit to set their major world goals and objectives. Leaders from 191 nations helped produce the UN Millennium Development Goals (UN MDGs), a set of eight quantified goals that addressed key social problems in the world (UN, 2006b). The goals were created to focus world attention on improving global quality of life. Specifically, these goals aimed to: (1) eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, (2) achieve universal primary education, (3) promote gender equality and empower women, (4) reduce child mortality, (5) improve maternal health, (6) combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases, (7) ensure environmental sustainability, and (8) develop global partnership for development. Three goals which appear to be most applicable to Canada are: (1) health, (2) education, and (3) empowering women (SDPIWG, 2006).

The UN has recognized the potential of sport and physical activity as a way to achieve the UN MDGs. As a result, they proclaimed 2005 the International Year of Sport and Physical Education (IYSPE). During that year, events and publications promoted the use of sport and physical activity to achieving the UN MDGs (see UN, 2003). For example, the Women's Leadership in Sport summit was held in Atlanta, GA, to raise awareness of the power of sport to combat challenges such as HIV/AIDS, extreme poverty, and gender inequality (International Summit, 2005).

Scientific publications have shown how sports contributed to education, health, and the empowerment of women (Fejgin, 1994; Pate et al., 1995; Penney, 2001). More
specifically, Fejgin found that youth sport participation increased self-esteem, educational aspirations, raised grades, and lowered discipline problems among North-American 10th grade students. Results of another study found that sport participation empowered female college athletes by increasing their bodily competence, self-competence, and sense of control (Blinde, Taub, & Han, 1993). Finally, sport participation has shown long-term effects on the adoption of healthy behaviors, such as preventing substance abuse, drinking and driving, and improving nutrition behaviors among high-school football students (Goldberg, MacKinnon, Elliot, Moe, Clarke, & Cheong, 2000). However, simply participating in sport does not lead to healthy behaviors, better grades, or self-empowerment. The United States National Research Council suggested that a positive environment was essential for providing youth with a valuable experience in sport activities (NRCIOM, 2002). The coach plays a key role in creating the sporting environment, and consequently has a major impact on the quality of youths’ experience in sport (Lyle, 2002; Smith & Smoll, 2002a).

Youth sport coaches learn how to coach through experience, interactions with other coaches, and education programs (Lemyre, Trudel, & Durand-Bush, 2007; Trudel & Gilbert, 2006). In Canada, the National Coach Certification Program (NCCP) is the body responsible for coach education. The NCCP focuses on skill analysis, practice planning, injuries, nutrition, and tactical components of sport (CAC, 2008a). Trained coaches create positive experiences in sport, which reduces youth sport drop-out rates and fosters a healthy life style; they can increase psychosocial indicators such as self-esteem, self-confidence, improve self-image and social skills, and reduce depression symptoms stress and anxiety (CAC, 1997). Studies have found that coach education programs modified coaching behavior, affected athletes’ perceptions of their coaches, and influenced team cohesion (Newin, Bloom, &
Loughead, 2008; Smoll, Smith, Barnett, & Everett, 1993). Smith, Smoll, and Curtis (1978, 1979) demonstrated that coaching behaviors influenced children’s self-perceptions, adherence levels to sport, and psychosocial development. Other youth sport research results have shown that when coaches participated in education programs their athletes demonstrated an increase in self-esteem and self-worth, scholastic competence, communication skills, and ability to work with others (Smith & Smoll, 2002b; Smoll et al., 1993). These findings suggest that coach education may be used to enhance youths’ experience in sport and be a tool to achieving the UN MDGs.

Smith and Smoll (2002a, 2002b) have researched ideal behaviors of youth sport coaches that promote enjoyment and psychosocial development among athletes. They identified five guiding principles for youth coaches’ ideal behaviors: (a) to promote a healthy enjoyable environment; (b) to provide positive reinforcement and encouragement; (c) to establish supportive norms and commitment; (d) to include athletes in team decisions; (e) and to focus on positive coaching behaviors (Smith & Smoll, 2002a, 2002b). These ideal behaviors follow similar principles of a recently developed theoretical approach called Positive Youth Development (PYD).

PYD highlights the importance of promoting positive life-experiences to increase youth’s (1) self-esteem, (2) self-worth, (3) ability to bond with others, (4) respect for social norms, (5) and empathy for others; to ultimately achieve sustainable social development (Benson, 2006; Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2004; Damon, 2004; Lerner, Fisher, & Weinberg, 2000). Research has indicated that participation in PYD community-based programs – such as sport programs – promoted the psychosocial outcomes listed above (Lerner et al., 2005). Recently, several studies have applied this approach to
sporting contexts. More specifically, PYD principles have been applied in physical education settings (Mandigo, Corlett, & Anderson, 2008), after-school activities (Zarrett et al., 2008), and competitive sports (Holt & Sehn, 2008) to increase the psychosocial outcomes of the participants. Similarly, Petitpas, Cornelius, and Van Raalte (2008) found that coaches trained in crisis management, life-work planning, study skills, and the use of incentives, created positive relationships with their youth athletes, which in turn was essential to fostering youth’s psychosocial development (Benson, 2006; NRCIOM, 2002).

In order to apply the PYD principles to youth sport, a theoretical framework is needed that will combine both PYD and sport participation. The *Applied Sport-Programming Model* (ASPM) (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005) was used as the theoretical framework for this study. It includes a sport participation model, which considers the psychosocial development of youth (Côté, 1999), and PYD models, which describes the expected outcomes (Lerner et al., 2000), the environmental features (NRCIOM, 2002), and the assets (Benson, 2006) necessary to promote PYD. More specifically, the ASPM proposes that if youth sport programs successfully consider youths’ psychosocial stages of development, are conducted in appropriate settings, and foster individual qualities, youth will have positive sport experiences and emerge as competent members of society (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005).

The strategies used by PYD can only provide positive experiences if well-adapted to the culture and society of the participants (NRCIOM, 2002). One way of ensuring that strategies are appropriately adapted to the context is to work in collaboration with community members. A collaborative approach supports the use of qualitative methods because it takes input from the participants regarding their experiences and opinions about the study in order to adapt the research to the needs of the population under investigation.
Participatory research (PR) is a qualitative collaborative method that encourages the participation of non-academic partners in identifying a research problem, developing strategies, and implementing interventions to improve social living conditions (Israel, Schulz, Parker, & Becker, 1998; Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000; Rossman & Rallis, 2003). The non-academic participants in PR are individuals who are interested in improving living conditions in their community (Gilbourne & Richardson, 2005). PR promotes more effective practice based on theory grounded on the experiences of the participants (Altman, 1995). It enhances the relevance, the quality, and the validity of the study by engaging local knowledge and local theory of the people involved (Hall, 1992; Schulz et al., 1998).

Although PR does not appear to have been used in sport research, it has been successfully applied to various disciplines including education, sociology, psychology, and health promotion (see Brydon-Miller, 1997; Turnbull, Friesen, & Ramirez, 1998; Udas, 1998; Whyte, 1989). Research in health promotion has used knowledge gained from focus groups to create health promotion strategies within a community. For example, El-Askari and colleagues (1998) trained community members to help identify the causes of health problems. The focus on positive aspects of the community generated enthusiasm and a hopeful attitude, and the increased sense of control over the project increased participants’ involvement.

In the current study, semi-structured, open ended interviews were used for data collection. Interviews have been identified as one of the most accurate and commonly used ways of understanding human behavior (Fontana & Frey, 1994). They provide insight on the participants’ knowledge and experience in a specific domain (Weinberg & Gould, 2003), and
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allow researchers to initiate a topic of discussion, while giving interviewees the chance to respond freely with few restrictions (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). In the current study, semi-structured, open ended interviews allowed coaches to express their thoughts and feelings about the activities and their ability to promote the UN MDGs.

Using the UN goals as a framework could increase consistency between sport-based programs, allow the exchange of experiences between communities or countries, and combine efforts to achieve global goals. To date, no research has examined the benefits of sport under the framework of the UN goals, or has tried to create sport-related strategies that contribute to achieving these goals. This has left a gap in the understanding of the potential contribution of coach education towards achieving the UN MDGs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate coaches’ perceptions of activities that are created to address three UN MDG’s (health, education, and empowering women). Activities were created through collaborative effort of the McGill research team and the participating coaches.

Significance of the Study

The UN has suggested ways sport and physical activity can help achieve the UN MDGs. However, the lack of specific models or action strategies has held back the practical work of training programs. This study offered action strategies to assist the use of sport and physical activity in achieving the UN MDGs. It also has the potential to increase the UN MDGs’ influence in sports programs and sport-based non-governmental organizations (NGOs) by raising awareness of coaches to the UN MDGs. In addition, the present study
augmented knowledge in positive youth development by applying its concepts and outcomes to the UN’s global set of goals.

**Delimitations**

For the purpose of this study, the following delimitations were identified:

1. Participants had to be youth coaches at leagues in the metropolitan Montreal region.
2. Participants had to have a minimum of two years coaching experience.
3. Interviews only considered coaches’ and community leaders’ perceptions.

**Limitations**

The following limitations were identified for the purpose of this study:

1. The time available for this study did not allow for significant social changes in communities.
2. The gravity of UN MDGs-related problems in the metropolitan area of Montreal did not reflect the majority of the world.
3. Cultural differences were overlooked as all participants were Canadians.
4. As participating coaches were part of youth leagues, results may not be generalized for different age groups.

**Operational Definitions**

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were used:

*Youth sport coaches* are those who are presently head coaches of U17 or under teams in the West Island of Montreal, and who have coached for a minimum of two years.

*Community* is a group where members identify and are emotionally connected to one another. They share values and norms, have common interests, and are committed to meeting shared needs (Israel et al., 1998).
Community leaders are people who have assumed or been appointed to particular responsibilities that aim at improving living conditions in the community – such as teachers, holders of public office, technical experts and parents.

Positive youth development is the “engagement in prosocial behaviors and avoidance of health-compromising and future-jeopardizing behaviors” (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray, & Foster, 1998, p. 426).

Participatory research is a method that combines the experience and knowledge of non-academic participants and academic researchers to build scientific knowledge. This methodology emphasizes the socially-created nature of scientific knowledge (Israel et al., 1998).
CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

This chapter consists of three main sections. First, coaching research related to this study will be explored, specifically research in coach education and youth coaching. Second, the Positive Youth Development (PYD) approach will be explained, including research in youth sport using the PYD approach. Then the Applied Sport-Programming Model of PYD and all its components will be explained. Finally, the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (UN MDGs) will be presented, including how the Office on Sport for Development and Peace plans to achieve the UN MDGs through sport and physical activity.

Coaching Science

The development of any profession relies on research, training programs and innovations in practice, which in turn depends on the knowledge of its current situation (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004). Often, however, the information on the area is scattered in different outputs, making it difficult to stay current. In order to compile and organize research in coaching science, Gilbert and Trudel did an exhaustive search in computerized data-bases and encyclopedias. Coaching science was defined as a composition of theory fields (such as sport psychology, sport pedagogy, or sport medicine) linked by a mother science (e.g., psychology, pedagogy) (Haag, 1994). These theories are used to understand themes within sport, and coaching science is one of these themes (Haag, 1994).

Gilbert and Trudel (2004) reviewed 611 English-language scientific coaching articles published between 1970 and 2001. Their results indicated a significant increase in the number of published articles since 1970, with an average of 32 articles per year between the years of 1998 and 2001 (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004). Coaching research has focused mostly on
behavioral analyses of coaches, but recently researchers have included aspects such as coaches’ thoughts and characteristics to better understand why coaches behave as they do (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004). Their study also showed that coaching science research has been mostly guided by quantitative epistemologies, which is similarly observed in sport psychology (Culver, Gilbert, & Trudel, 2003). However, the use of qualitative research increased considerably and represented nearly 30% of the publications between 1998 and 2001 (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004).

Of relevance to the current study are research on behavior and thoughts (i.e., perception) of coaches and the use of qualitative methodologies. Research that includes behavior and thought analysis provides a more in-depth and ecologically valid description of coaches and the coaching process (Trudel, Gilbert, & Tochon, 2001). According to Lyle (2002), coaching science requires a multidimensional approach to capture its dynamic essence and provide useful information for coaches.

In order to appropriately evaluate multifocus approaches, methodological changes have occurred. Qualitative data collection methods, such as interviews, have become more common, and between 1998 and 2001 nearly half the studies in coaching science used interviews (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004). The use of multiple methods in a single study has been promoted as a way to better understand the coaching process (Trudel et al., 2001), however by 2001 its use was still very rare, found in less than 15% of published studies (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004).

Gilbert and Trudel’s (2004) study offered a greater understanding of coach training and coach education programs by highlighting key elements of successful coaching. Their study allowed coaches to achieve the potential of coaching research and helped educators
integrate coaching research into education programs (Bloom, 2007). Still, the path for describing this knowledge has not yet been clearly laid out (Bloom, 2007), thus the information on coach education in Canada will be presented next.

Coach Education

Education and training are essential for the quality of future practices, they shape the development and success in any profession (Lyle, 2002). In Canada, coach education and coach development is governed by the Coaching Association of Canada (CAC, 2008a). Created in 1970, the CAC promotes quality coaching to enhance the experience of Canadian athletes (www.coach.ca). This organization provides the foundation of skills, knowledge, and attitudes to ensure effective coaching across all levels of the Canadian sport system (Bloom, 2007). In 1974, this association launched the National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP) to equip coaches with tools to become competent and successful community leaders. Since then, the program has undergone several revisions to keep it up-to-date with scientific findings and adapted to the present coaching environment. One of the key changes has been shifting their focus to a competency-based approach rather than a competition-based approach (CAC, 2008b).

The newest NCCP approach, launched in 2008, is a knowledge- and course-based program made up of three streams and eight contexts. The streams categorize three types of coaching styles or the environment coaches work: community sport, competition, and instruction. Each stream is divided into contexts, which describes the type of participants in each stream. In the community sport stream, the contexts are called initiation and ongoing participation. In the competition stream they are called introduction, development, and high performance. In the instruction stream they are called beginners, intermediate, and advanced
performers. The NCCP workshops give detailed information on the role of coaches inside each context in the different streams. They use five core competences in the training and evaluation of coaches: valuing, interacting, leading, problem-solving, and critical thinking. These competencies are made concrete through seven specific outcomes: make ethical decisions, provide support to athletes in training, plan a practice, support the competitive experience, analyze performance, design a sport program, and manage a program (CAC, 2008b).

Coach education is essential for the success of sport programs because of the influence coaches have on athletes (Lyle, 2002). Coaches serve as role models, especially for children. Coaching literature and coaching education programs have shown that experience is fundamental for the acquisition of coaching knowledge (e.g., Bloom, Durand-Bush, Schinke, & Salmela, 1998). Coaches often rely on youth sport programs to work as volunteers to gain this practical background (Lyle, 2002). The context of youth sport has many implications that distinguish the role of the coach in youth sport from elite-level coaches (Bloom, 2007). In the following section, the importance, the characteristics, and the ideal behaviors of youth sport coaches will be discussed.

Youth Coaching

Coaches influence the youth sport experience through their goals, values, attitudes, and behaviors (Smoll & Smith, 1996; Weiss & Gould, 1986). Research has shown that youth’s degree of enjoyment and their desire to continue in sport is largely influenced by the coach (Smith & Smoll, 1990; Smoll, Smith, Barnett, Everett, 1993). Also, a positive psychosocial outcome through sport at a young age increases the likelihood of individuals
pursuing physical activity later in life, which in turn enhances their health and well-being as adults (Bloom, 1985).

At the present time, youth sport coaches and parents have been criticized for incorporating characteristics and attitudes of performance sports in youth sport (e.g., selection and early maturity, narrow preparation, competition success, little concern for health and long term physical well-being, and low esteem for fun and enjoyment) (Cahill & Pearl, 1993; Coakley, 2001; Lyle, 2002). Sport experience can have an important impact on youth’s developing self-concept and self-esteem, they provide social comparisons and the opportunity of feedback from parents, peers, and coaches (Smith & Smoll, 2002a). The information received by the child can contribute to a positive or negative self-concept, resulting in a high or low self-esteem (Smith & Smoll, 2002a). Smith and Smoll (2002a, 2002b) have studied the ideal behaviors for youth sport coaches to promote fun, enjoyment, skill acquisition, and increase self-esteem. These authors advocated a positive approach to coaching where coaches reinforced positive behaviors instead of punishing the negative ones, offered encouragement to the players, and gave corrective instructions in positive ways (Smith & Smoll, 2002b).

Smith, Smoll, and Curtis (1979) created a coach effectiveness training program (CET) to teach youth sport coaches to promote these characteristics. The CET involves the implementation of five principles. The first principle is to focus on mastering skills other than beating the opponent, winning is defined as giving maximal effort. This focus separates player’s self-worth from game outcome, coaches will foster an enjoyable environment by increasing self-esteem and decreasing anxiety. The second principle underlines a positive approach to coaching; the CET encourages the use of reinforcement and encouragement to
strengthen the team environment. The third principle relates to establishing norms that promote help and support among players to foster a positive environment. The fourth principle is to involve athletes in the decision-making process regarding the team to empower youth as active participants in their environment. Finally, the fifth principle involves coaches initiating behavioral feedback and using self-monitoring to increase awareness of one’s behaviors and encourage compliance to the positive approach guidelines.

The ideology that prevails in youth sport is the humanistic philosophy to coaching (Donnelly, 2000). This ideology fits well with the principles outlined by the CET. Lyle (2002) defined the humanistic approach to coaching as a person-centered ideology that focuses on empowering individuals towards achieving personal goals within a facilitative interpersonal relationship. This approach makes some presumptions about sport and individuals, such as: individual’s interests are more important than competition goals; development occurs if activity promotes empowerment, engagement and self-determination; it is important to consider emotional, psychological, and social components of sport performance; coaching is an interpersonal component built around a interpersonal relationship; and athletes growth and development is influenced by the relationship between coach and athlete (Lyle, 2002). A theoretical approach that also follows the principles of the humanistic philosophy is the Positive Youth Development (PYD) approach. Likewise, this perspective shares similar principles as the ones suggested by Smith and colleagues (1979) and was used as the theoretical approach to this study.
Positive Youth Development (PYD)

PYD is a paradigm\(^1\) that focuses on the development of youth’s talents, strengths, interests, and potentials (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2004). This approach offers positive experiences for youth as a way to build positive values and sustain long-term prevention of unhealthy and risky behaviors. PYD is defined as the “engagement in prosocial behaviors\(^2\) and avoidance of health-compromising and future-jeopardizing behaviors” (Roth, Brooks-Gunn, Murray, & Foster, 1998, p. 426). In PYD, youth are exposed to positive experiences that teach them skills necessary to make positive and healthy life choices in the future (e.g., family support, being valued by the community, socializing in school, and enjoyable physical activities). The PYD approach considers human development as the product of individual characteristics (e.g., resiliency, interests) and how these interact with the environment (e.g., school, neighborhood, family) (Damon, 2004).

Given that people and the environment in which they are emerged are constantly changing, positive development is more reliable in sustaining positive behaviors and improving human life, than traditional approaches (Lerner, 1998; Lerner et al., 2005).

In the 1950’s youth development research in the U.S. began receiving financial support to investigate troubled youth (Catalano et al., 2004). In the 1960’s, interventions were responses to existing crises with emphasis on supporting families and children (Benson, 2006). In the 1970’s, prevention approaches began to emerge. Investigators addressed different dimensions of children’s lives (e.g., family, school, community, and friends) and began indentifying predictors of single problem behaviors (Catalano et al., 2004). In the

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\(^1\) A paradigm is a philosophical and theoretical framework within which theories and the experiments are formulated.

\(^2\) Prosocial behavior is any positive behaviors with the goal of benefiting another, e.g., helping, sharing, or comforting others.
1980’s, researchers investigated predictors of multiple problem behaviors and incorporated environmental predictors to the prevention models (Catalano et al., 2004). At this point in time, positive youth development began to be seen in interventions that promoted social, emotional, behavioral, and cognitive development (Hawkins & Catalano, 1992). PYD supporters focused on factors that promoted healthy development in addition to preventing problems. In the 1990’s, youth development researchers investigated the antecedents and consequences of both positive development and crises intervention (Benson, 2006).

Prevention programs were expanded beyond single problem behavior. At the present time, scientists encourage focusing on developing social and environmental factors that affect development (Catalano et al., 2004; Damon, 2004). The results of recent research have confirmed that youth models of positive development encourage both health promotion and prevention of problem behaviors (NRC, 2008).

The PYD perspective, which focuses on the development of skills and potential, contrasts with deficit-reduction approaches, which focus on the treatment of problems encountered by adolescents (Benson, 2006; Damon, 2004; Holt, 2008a). Deficit-reduction approaches typically work on preventing or reducing problematic behaviors such as substance abuse, anti-social behavior, or academic failure (Catalano et al., 2004). Through these approaches youth learn to avoid a specific negative behavior, for example drug abuse. They are not taught to deal with other health issues, such as smoking and drinking.

Supporters of the PYD approach advocate positive experiences and opportunities that are essential to healthy youth development (e.g., skill development, support, empowerment, character building, and confidence). The promotion of these experiences reduces the need for programs that use deficit-reduction approaches that are associated to higher financial costs.
for the community (Lerner et al., 2005). According to Lerner, Fisher, and Weinberg (2000), five positive developmental outcomes will accrue from a successful PYD approach: competence, confidence, connection, caring or compassion, and character. These outcomes are known as the “five C’s” and have been widely used as indicators of PYD.

In summary, the PYD approach is a recently developed perspective that focuses on promoting positive experiences as a way to increase healthy behaviors among youth. PYD has more positive long-term effects than deficit-reduction approaches. It is also inclusive; as all individuals are seen as obtaining some potential that can promote life improvement. Positive experiences are promoted by adult role models working in community programs. PYD may be achieved from a variety of programming approaches (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003a). One possible approach is through sport and physical education (Larson, 2000). An increasing number of publications have used PYD approach in sport research and sport interventions (e.g., Holt, 2008b), some of which will be presented next.

**PYD in Sport**

Zarrett and colleagues (2008) investigated the relationship between participation in sports and indicators of PYD (i.e., competence, confidence, connection, caring or compassion, and character), degrees of contribution to their families/communities, participation in risky behaviors, and depressive feelings. They used a longitudinal subsample from the 4-H study of positive youth development (for details see Lerner et al., 2005) that included participants assessed in 5th, 6th, and 7th grades. The results indicated that sport participation was a predictor of PYD, contribution, and lower rates on depression only when participation was intense or lasted more than one year (Zarrett et al., 2008). Sport was related to fewer risky behaviors at early adolescence (5th grade), but didn’t predict risky behaviors
for 6th and 7th graders (Zarrett et al., 2008). In this study, the authors also analyzed how type and time spent on out-of-school-time activities influenced the indicators of PYD. Result indicated that youth who were highly engaged in several activities (including sport) or that were engaged in sports and youth development programs (in this study, the YMCA) did better on PYD indicators than those who participated only in sport (Zarrett et al., 2008). This does not mean that sport alone is not effective for promoting PYD, but rather that sport in the context of youth development is more beneficial at developing competence, confidence, character, caring or compassion, and character. Therefore, these results support the use of sport under a positive approach to promote PYD. The lower PYD reported by participants who participated exclusively in sport may be due to settings such as high level competitive settings which, as mentioned before, focus on performance rather than health and long term physical well-being or for fun and enjoyment.

Holt and Sehn (2008) examined how the context of competitive sport provided opportunities for youth development. According to the authors, competitive sport promoted PYD by teaching initiative, teamwork, and social skills; but it was not suited to teaching exploration and identity work, emotional self-regulation, peer relationships, and developing connections to an adult network (Holt & Sehn, 2008). The authors suggested that these ambiguous experiences were related to participants’ interactions with their parents and coaches. Both parents and coaches can provide positive or negative experiences in sport. Extending their analysis, Holt and Sehn indicated that participants reported that parents provided emotional support, responsibility, sportspersonship, and emphasized fun; but negative involvement were related to over protectiveness or showing no interest. On the other hand, coaches taught their players about persistence and effort, sportspersonship, teamwork,
coping skill, and provided feedback (Holt & Sehn, 2008). The negative aspects related to coaches were overemphasis on winning, negative communication, and sport politics (e.g., not being selected to play on a team for personal reasons unrelated to athletics) (Holt & Sehn, 2008). These results corroborate Smith and Smoll (2002a, 2002b) findings on the influential role coaches have in youth sport and the importance of a positive approach to developing self-esteem.

Petitpas, Cornelius, and Van Raalte (2008) acknowledged that “youth development programs are only as effective as the adults that deliver them” (p. 62). These authors compared the mentoring programs offered to coaches from two multi-site sport programs (Play It Smart and The First Tee) that used positive approaches to foster youth development. Empathy, high and positive expectations, and support for individuals were correlated with positive outcomes in the Play It Smart programs (Petitpas et al., 2008). The First Tee program emphasized an active, hands-on approach that encouraged fun and created an environment of self-improvement to increase interest and promote self-discovery (Petitpas et al., 2008). In this program, coaches strive to empower youth by listening and building relationships with the players in order to understand youths’ experiences and become mentors rather than simple instructors (Petitpas et al., 2008). Lastly, it focuses on promoting continuous learning though self-evaluation and positive feedback (Petitpas et al., 2008). These results are successful applications of coach education programs that implement PYD in sport activities with youth. Details of how these principles are taught to coaches are not presented, but these results show, once again, the importance of a positive approach by the coach to promoting positive development.
Sport, physical activity, and physical education (PE) can be used to promote positive psychosocial outcomes in youth if applied under a positive approach. However, Mandigo, Corlett, and Anderson (2008) used PE to also promote peace in a community in El Salvador. In their study, they used a quality physical education (QPE) program which adopted a holistic approach to promoting PYD. The QPE is child centered, it promoted a positive environment, it developed skills and knowledge to foster independence, and it incorporated human rights, gender equity, and peace education (Mandigo et al., 2008). According to these authors, PE in school communities may be a pathway to peace-building by offering opportunities for youth to form identities of courage, compassion, cooperation, and connection (Mandigo et al., 2008). By working constructively and cooperatively with partners youth can experience a deeper sense of belonging, care and hope for others, which will promote peace-building (Mandigo et al., 2008).

A parallel can be drawn between Smith and Smoll’s (2002a, 2002b) positive approach, the PYD indicators (Lerner et al., 2000), and the different frameworks used in positive development in youth sport. It can be said that all these approaches follow the humanistic philosophy and therefore are holistic, youth-centered, and use encouragement to promote positive environments of trust that foster positive psychosocial outcomes in youth. In this study, Lerner’s “five C’s” was used as criteria for PYD because they are part of a larger theoretical framework that integrates PYD and youth sport participation. The *Applied Sport-Programming Model of PYD* (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005) was used as the theoretical framework in this study and will be presented next.
Applied Sport-Programming Model (ASPM)

The ASPM is a theoretical framework that acknowledges youth’s psychosocial developmental stages. This model is designed to create a positive environment in sport settings, which can promote positive psychosocial outcomes through sport. This framework incorporates a developmental model of sport participation (DMSP) (Côté, 1999) into a larger framework of PYD (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005) (See Appendix A). The larger framework of PYD included in this model is a combination of three PYD frameworks: the model of national youth policy (Lerner et al., 2000); the features of positive developmental settings (NRCIOM, 2002); and the forty developmental assets (Benson, 2006). The models that build the framework will be presented separately.

Developmental Model of Sport Participation (DMSP)

The DMSP illustrates the possible trajectories of youth in sport and their different outcomes (Côté, Baker, & Abernethy, 2003; Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2007). This model considers youth’s physical, psychological, social, and intellectual development when describing the stages of sport participation. It illustrates the importance of developmentally appropriate training patterns and social influences (Côte, Baker, & Abernethy, 2007; Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005).

This model’s stages are based on two types of developmental experiences through sport, deliberate practice and deliberate play. Ericsson, Krampe, and Tesch-Römer (1993) defined deliberate practice as a highly structured training activity that aimed solely at increasing performance, required cognitive and physical effort, and promoted skill development. In their research, the authors suggested that the number of hours spent in deliberate practice was the primary factor that distinguished performers at different levels.
However, Côté (1999) observed that other than practicing to increase performance, athletes tend to experience sports through playful games, especially at young ages. Thus, Côté and colleagues (2003) used the term *deliberate play* to characterize sporting activities that were motivating, enjoyable, and that offered immediate gratification as opposed to solely enhancing performance. While *deliberate practice* activities were based on intensive examination of training and performance, *deliberate play* allows children to learn from exploring their physical capacities and take advantage of the opportunity to improvise, innovate, and respond strategically (Côté et al., 2007).

The DMSP was created from research that investigated how professional athletes participated in sport at an early age (e.g., Baker, Côté, & Abernethy, 2003; Côté, 1999). Results from these studies found that from ages 6 to 15, expert athletes practiced several sports and spent most of their time in deliberate play settings. At age 13 the number of hours spent in deliberate play began to reduce, and after 15 the time spent in deliberate practice was significantly higher than for non-experts. Based on this data, Côté proposed three stages of development through sport: sampling years, specializing years, and the investment years. The DMSP (Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2007) describes three trajectories of youths’ sport participation: (a) recreational participation through sampling and deliberate play, (b) elite performance through sampling and deliberate play, and (c) elite performance through early specialization and deliberate practice (see Appendix B).

The first trajectory of the DMSP, *recreational participation through sampling and deliberate play*, begins with the sampling years (ages 6 to 12), focused on deliberate play and involvement in several sports. After age 13 participants go into recreational years, seen as an
extension of the sampling years, with the primary goal being enjoyment and health (Côté et al., 2007).

The second trajectory, *elite performance through sampling and deliberate play*, also begins with the sampling years, but after age 13 they go into the specializing years. During the specializing years, youth balance the amount of deliberate play and deliberate practice and participate in fewer sports. The specializing years last until age 15 and are seen as a transitional stage to the investment years. After age 16, in the investment years, youth commit to only one sport and spend most of their time in deliberate practices. This trajectory has been supported by many studies as an appropriate way to achieve elite performance and the benefits associated with physical activities (i.e., enhanced health and enjoyment) (e.g., Baker et al., 2003; Côté, 1999).

The last trajectory, the *elite performance through early specialization and deliberate practice*, describes athletes that specialize in one specific sport at an early age, skip the sampling years, and usually do not experience the enjoyment associated with the sampling years. Early specialization begins at age 6 and includes high amount of deliberate practice, little deliberate play, and focus on one sport. This trajectory has been associated with elite performance, as well as reduced physical health, reduced enjoyment, and sports dropout (Caine, Cochrane, Caine, & Zemper, 1989; Korell & Côté, 2005).

The DMSP provides a useful model to assess the learning environments that lead to various developmental outcomes in children (Côté et al., 2007). In suggesting involvement in several activities at early childhood and by suggesting a shift from deliberate play to deliberate practice, this model highlights the importance of consistent program structures, opportunities to develop efficacy, and opportunities to improve skills (Fraser-Thomas et al.,
The present study focused on the sampling and specializing years of either the recreation or elite performance participation through deliberate play. These stages focus on promoting early diversification, fun and enjoyment, which are key elements for youth coaches to foster positive experiences through sport.

**Model of National Youth Policy**

The *Model of National Youth Policy* illustrates how civil society can be improved through families’ effective nurturance and socialization of children (See Appendix C). This model highlights the importance of public policies\(^3\) to give families the capacity to provide essential PYD functions to their children (Lerner et al., 2000). According to this framework, policies must capacitate families to provide children with *boundaries and expectations*, *physiological and safety needs*, *climate of love and caring*, *inculcation of self-esteem*, *encouragement and support of growth*, *constructive use of time*, *positive values*, and *positive links to the community*. The social programs that derive from the public policies must provide resources for families to nurture and socialize children. Five resources are mentioned: *healthy start*, *safe environment*, *education for marketable skills*, *opportunity to give back to the community*, and *freedom from prejudice and discrimination*. If programs capacitate families and ensure that resources are available, five positive developmental outcomes will accrue. Known as the five C’s, these outcomes are widely used as indicators of PYD, they are: *competence, confidence, connection, caring or compassion*, and *character* (Lerner et al., 2000). Civil society’s improvement is continued with the achievement of the “five C’s” as these values will be used in parenting the next generations (Lerner et al., 2000).

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3 Public policies are standards for conduct of individuals, organizations, and institutions (Bronfenbrenner, 1974). It addresses social, moral and economic values that characterize a society. Values may vary in different cultures and over time.
Several PYD studies have used Lerner et al.’s five C’s to implement and assess their PYD programs (see Damon, 2004; Gomez & Ang, 2007; Jelicic, Bobek, Phelps, Lerner, & Lerner, 2007; Kurtines et al., 2008; Lerner, Dowling, & Anderson, 2003; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). The relationship between the five C’s and PYD was supported by a study that assessed PYD indexes using the Profiles of Student Life – Attitudes and Behaviors Survey (PSL-AB) with 1700 grade five adolescents and 1117 of their parents. Correlations were found between PYD indicators and all five C’s (Lerner et al., 2005).

Lerner et al.’s (2000) Model of National Youth Policy is a concise framework that offers a list of the essential functions that must be provided by public policies and of resources necessary for a PYD program to succeed. The main contribution of this framework is, however, its outcomes. The “five C’s” allows for consistent planning and assessment of PYD programs.

Features of Positive Developmental Settings

The Features of Positive Developmental Settings was published by the National Research Council and Institute of Medicine (NRCIOM, 2002). It is a list of eight features that community programs should have in order to promote PYD (See Appendix D). Supported by a number of theories in developmental psychology, sociology, public health, and other relevant areas, the NRCIOM suggested that in order to create a setting that promotes PYD, programs must provide (a) physical and psychological safety and security, (b) appropriate structure, (c) supportive relationships, (d) opportunities to belong, (e) positive social norms, (f) support for efficacy and mattering, (g) opportunities for skill building, (h) and integration of family, school, and community efforts.
The importance of each of the eight features has been extensively researched and their relationship with PYD is strongly supported. For physical and psychological safety, see: Blum & Rinehart, 1997; Briere & Runtz, 1991; Martinez & Richters, 1993. For the importance of appropriate structure, see: Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Jackson & Davis, 2000; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2000. For supportive relationships, see: Eccles et al., 1992; Noller & Callan, 1986. For the importance of opportunities to belong, see: Blum & Rinehart, 1997; Ford & Harris, 1996; Grotevant, 1998. For positive social norms, see: Cook, Anson, & Walchli, 1993; Sallis, 1993; Shweder et al., 1998. For support for efficacy and mattering, see: Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998; Grotevant, 1998. For the importance of opportunities for skill building, see: McLaughlin, 2000. Finally, for integration of family, school, and community efforts, see: Darling & Steinberg, 1997; Eccles et al., 1992; Eccles & Harold, 1996; Grotevant, 1998.

The NRCIOM’s eight features offer guiding principles to set a PYD program. These features consider the interaction between individuals with their setting to describe the appropriate environment to promote PYD. In a multicultural society, one must attend to the adaptability of these features across cultural groups and individuals. Community programs directors must be sensitive to how appropriate the features of their organization are to the culture of their participants (e.g.: structure, supportive relationships, positive norms, support for efficacy and mattering, and skill building) (NRCIOM, 2002).

Forty Developmental Assets

The last PYD framework used in Fraser-Thomas’ ASPM is a conceptual model of socialization experiences developed by Benson (2006) entitled the Forty Developmental Assets...
Assets framework (See Appendix E). This model lists essential developmental necessities\(^4\) that require community engagement to ensure healthy and successful life-styles (Benson, 2006). The framework is divided into two broad categories (external and internal), which are each divided into four types of assets. The external assets are support, empowerment, boundaries and expectations, and constructive use of time. The internal assets are commitment to learning, positive values, social competencies, and positive identity. Among these eight types of internal and external assets Benson (2006) lists and defines the 40 developmental assets that describe PYD.

According to Benson (2006), external assets are positive experiences that social systems (e.g., family, school, community) must provide youth. External assets focus on the relationship youth has with the members of these systems, and are experienced through informal interactions with its members (Benson, 2006). Internal assets, on the other hand, are inner qualities that develop character and centeredness among youth. To promote internal assets means to promote commitment and passion; they become part of one’s personal values and promote health-enhancing choices (Benson, 2006). These inner abilities emerge from youth’s individual experiences in the socializing systems. Members of these systems do not have direct influence upon the development of internal assets, yet their role in creating appropriate systems is essential to promote each asset.

This developmental framework was derived from scientific literature in child and adolescent development (Benson, 1990, 1996a, 1996b). Many studies have confirmed the importance of Benson’s developmental assets (see Bickmore, 2005; Brooks-Gunn, Duncan, Duncan, & Laird, 1997; Musterd, 2003).

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\(^4\) Essential developmental necessities are described by Benson (1997) as human experiences that have long-term, positive consequences for young people. For example: adequate family dynamics, support from other adults in the community, school effectiveness, positive peer influence, development of personal values, and learning of social skill.

The ASPM brings all these PYD frameworks together with a sport participation framework to serve as a theoretical framework for utilizing PYD in sport settings. According to this model, policy makers, sport organizations, coaches, and parents can promote positive outcomes for young sport participants (Lerner et al., 2000) by promoting early diversification (Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2007) in an appropriate settings (NRCIOM, 2002) that fosters developmental assets (Benson, 2006).

Fraser-Thomas and Côté (2009) recently used this framework when they interviewed 22 competitive swimmers to investigate positive and negative developmental experiences in competitive sport. Their findings highlighted the importance of coach training, sport programs, and clubs for providing a positive experience in sport. Most athletes discussed the importance of their coaches’ beliefs in determining their self-efficacy and motivation, as well as their coaches’ ability to understand adolescents’ psychosocial development (Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009). In addition, athletes spoke of bringing the swimming community together and highlighted the importance of the clubs in to make that feasible (Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009). These results indicated that sport is an important context to facilitate adolescents’ development and highlighted the importance of creating an appropriate environment to promote positive experiences and foster development.

To ensure a positive experience in sport, the ASPM uses Côté and colleagues’ DMSP for age-appropriate program designs. This model supports that early sampling, play, and diversification lead to the development of healthier recreational players and prolong youth
Sport participation. It also highlights that coaches and parents play a critical role in facilitating positive outcomes in sport settings and suggests that they must create developmentally appropriate psychosocial environments. Finally, the ASPM suggests that, if youth sport programs are appropriately implemented, youth will stay involved in sport and will experience positive developmental outcomes (five C’s).

In the present study, the ASPM was used to promote three UN MDGs (health, education, and empowering women) among youth sport participants. The ASPM framework ensures the youth’s psychosocial developmental stages and the appropriate environmental features that promote positive assets in adolescents are considered. If these requirements are matched, researchers will see enhanced competence, confidence, connection, caring or compassion, and character (five C’s) among the athletes (Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2009). The five C’s outcomes were promoted within the framework of the UN MDGs (health, education, and empowering women). More details on the United Nations, its millennium goals, and how they relate to sport will be presented next.

The United Nations Millennium Development Goals (UN MDGs)

The United Nations is an international organization represented by 192 countries. It provides a communication channel for leaders of different countries to collaborate in solving global problems. In September 2000, over 250 country representatives gathered for the United Nations Millennium Summit (UN, 2000). The purpose of this meeting was to establish the role of the UN in the upcoming millennium. At the summit, participants agreed on the UN Millennium Declaration, which commits them to address global social problems in their countries. The goals described on the declaration came to be known as the UN Millennium Development Goals (UN MDGs) (UN, 2000).
Eight main goals are described in the Millennium declaration: (1) eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, (2) achieve universal primary education, (3) promote gender equality and empower women, (4) reduce child mortality, (5) improve maternal health, (6) combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases, (7) ensure environmental sustainability, and (8) develop global partnership for development. Each goal has been associated to targets, most of them set to be achieved by 2015, in order to assess their goal’s progress (UN, 2006b) (See Appendix F).

*The UN Office on Sport for Development and Peace*

One year after the 2000 Millennium Summit, a Special Advisor on Sport for Development and Peace was appointed to identify how sport could help achieve the UN MDGs. An Office on Sport for Development and Peace (UNOSDP) was created to reach out to people in sports and promote sport as a tool for improving the quality of life around the world and identify how sports could be used to help achieve the UN MDGs (UN, 2006b). Accordingly, three general assets of sport relate to the UN MDGs: ability to promote sustainable human development, economic development, and peace (UN, 2003).

Creating sustainable human development involves increasing opportunities to all members of society through principles of inclusion, equity, and sustainability (UN, 2005). It is thought that sport can increase sustainable human development by increasing health, education, and community integration. Indeed, sport can contribute to leading a healthy lifestyle, improve well-being, and reduce the likelihood of major noncommunicable diseases (such as diabetes, cancer, and heart diseases). Sport can raise awareness to important body cares and help prevent diseases like HIV/AIDS (UN, 2005). It can also reduce depression, improve concentration, and foster social integration within and between communities (UN,
The inclusion of physical education in schools’ curriculums will contribute to education and also instruct people about their bodies. Finally, sports are also important for social life, allowing communities to directly engage in participatory activities, it creates relationships, builds connections, and improves communication between individuals and groups (UN, 2005).

Beyond the direct contributions to economic development (such as employment through manufacture of sporting goods, sporting events, media and other sport related services), sport can improve productivity of the workforce and reduce health care costs by promoting healthier life-styles. It is also argued that important skill for the workplace can be learned through participation in sport, for example, teamwork, leadership, and discipline (UN, 2005).

Sport provides a setting that brings people together in an often apolitical situation. It may promote initial social contact between antagonistic groups. Its popularity makes it a powerful channel to propagate messages of peace and public acts on both global and local levels (UN, 2005). Finally, some skills learned through sport can be applied to prevent and resolve conflicts, such as, respect, honesty, communication, cooperation, empathy, and adherence to rules.

*The UN MDGs and Sport*

Based on the potential of sport to promote human development, economic development, and peace, the UNOSDP exemplified how sport can help achieve each of the eight UN MDGs. The three goals that are most relevant for this study address health issues, educational issues, and empowering women issues. According to the UNOSDP sport can help combat *HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases* by using sport celebrities as role models
to deliver prevention messages. This would allow access to otherwise inaccessible populations (UN, 2005). Sport can promote the second goal, to *achieve universal primary education*, by fostering positive values and life skills that can be applied into the class room, such as teamwork, cooperation, problem solving and confidence building (UN, 2005). The inclusion of physical education classes in schools’ curriculum also make schools more attractive to youth and thus improve attendance (UN, 2005). Finally, sport can facilitate the *promotion of gender equality and empower women* by building women’s confidence and helping them establish a stronger social network. Through sports and physical education girls can acquire new social skills that will improve their engagement in school and community life. Also, sport can be used as a tool for inclusion in co-ed games (UN, 2005).

Considerable attention has been given by the UN to nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) that use sport and physical activity to promote youth development. The UN MDGs have been increasingly impacting NGOs, especially the ones that use sport and physical activity to promote social development in a global scale. For example, Right to Play is an international NGO that uses sport and games to improve health, develop life skills, and foster peace for children and communities (Right to Play, 2007). They train local community leaders to deliver their activities in disadvantaged communities around the world (Right to Play, 2007). Although these NGOs have largely contributed to social issues in several communities, little attention has been given to coach educational curriculum and training programs. Considering the impact coaches have on youth athletes it would be beneficial to achieving the UN MDGs if coaches were educated on how to address the goals that are relevant for their communities in their training.
The current study created, implemented, and assessed sport-related activities that addressed three UN MDGs: (1) health, (2) education, and (3) empowering women. This chapter will outline the qualitative methodologies that were used in this study. First, the principles and guidelines of Participatory Research will be presented. Second, the criteria used to select the participants will be outlined followed by the procedure used to develop and implement the strategies. A description of each activity will follow. Finally, the qualitative methods of data collection will be described.

Participatory Research (PR)

PR is a collaborative qualitative method approach that encourages the researcher to include non-academic participants in the production of scientific knowledge (Israel, Eng, Schulz, & Parker, 2005; Rossman & Rallis, 2003). It has three particular attributes: shared ownership of research projects, community-based analysis of social problems, and an orientation toward community action (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000). Shared ownership means that participants share control over the phases of the research process (Israel et al., 2005). PR addresses the concerns of the community and seeks to enhance its social structures and processes (Israel et al., 2005). Finally, PR is oriented towards community action because it uses social change efforts to build knowledge (Israel et al., 2005).

The role of the researcher in PR is to facilitate collaboration, provoke reflective and reflexive thinking, and encourage a two-way process of sharing (Gilbourne, 2001). Interviews, observations, document analysis, and focus groups are used to gather information, which is validated through triangulation of observations and participant
Method

confirmation (McTaggart, 1991). PR approach increases the quality and the validity of the study; it enhances the relevance and usefulness of its results, and increases the strength of its practices (Israel et al., 2005). Better quality and validity is due to the engagement of local knowledge based on experiences of the people involved (Altman, 1995). The participation of members of the community in understanding the data enhances the relevance and usefulness of the study’s results (Schulz et al., 1998). Results from PR are grounded in social experience and thus create more effective practices (Altman, 1995).

The use of PR and other qualitative methods is still limited in the field of sport psychology (Culver, Gilbert, & Trudel, 2003). A review of the articles published from 1990 to 1999 in three sport psychology journals revealed that only 17.3% used qualitative methods (Culver et al., 2003). According to Strean (1998), qualitative research methods can contribute to sport psychology research by providing an in-depth understanding of how people make sense of their context. Qualitative methods can also grasp the complexity of the phenomena by viewing its components as an organic whole, they can add layers of meaning to analyses at individual levels, and are important to inform the procedures of interventions (Strean, 1998).

Few sport psychology studies have used PR. McKenna and Dunstan-Lewis (2004) used PR to improve an ongoing education programme that supported student-athletes in a UK university. A focus group of student-athletes and university personnel was formed and helped generate action plans that addressed the needs of student-athletes. Findings from this study indicated that PR fostered appropriate interventions, adequately addressed problems experienced by student-athletes, and uncovered unmet needs (McKenna & Dunstan-Lewis, 2004).
Similarly, Gilbourne and Richardsdon (2005) used PR to influence and support the work of heads of education and welfare\(^5\) (HoEW) in UK youth soccer academies. After interviewing HoEWs from different sport associations, it was found that HoEWs dealt primarily with interpersonal relationships within their work environment (e.g., difference in perceptions of practice and personal expertise, operational matters, and feeling excluded from certain decision-making). The use of PR in this study allowed the participants to gain a good understanding of the workplace and encouraged ideas for change in practice. Some of these changes included introducing weekly meetings with players and coaches, educating and training coaches in developmental issues, promoting education to youth outside school, and encouraging coaches to engage more with their players (Gilbourne & Richardson, 2005).

In sum, the use of PR helps create strategies that are well-adapted to the participant’s context as well as issues that are relevant for the community. Therefore, the use of PR fulfills the requirements of PYD (to use strategies that are well-adapted to the context) and of the UN MDGs’ (to focus on the goals relevant to the community). Thus, it is an appropriate research approach for this study.

**Participants**

Participants included six male youth sport (soccer and basketball) coaches from both recreational (house leagues) and competitive (AAA) leagues from two sport associations in an urban section of Montreal (Dollard Soccer Club and Brookwood Basketball Association). The Quebec Soccer Federation and the Quebec Basketball Federation label house leagues as recreational and the inter-city leagues as competitive (Fédération Basketball Québec, 2009; Fédération de Soccer du Québec, 2009). The inter-city division is divided into three levels of

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\(^5\) The Head of Education and Welfare is a job position at sport clubs. The role of this individual is to mentor young athletes. He supervises their non-playing development and ensures their wellbeing.
competition: AAA, AA, and A. The highest level of competition is AAA; in this class players have to try-out for their teams and they compete with players from other regional associations (i.e., Association Régional du Soccer Lac St-Louis and the Montreal Basketball League). House leagues are for everyone and do not include tryouts. The focus is on providing an enjoyable experience through sport. The Quebec Basketball Federation divides their age categories into: Mini (U11), Bantam (U13), Midget (U15), and Juvenile (U17). The Quebec Soccer Federation sets their age categories at each year, from U4 up to U18, and a senior league, which includes everyone up to U35.

One participant was a soccer coach. He coached a U13 house league team. Five participants were basketball coaches. Their teams competed at the AAA inter-city league. Four coached boys teams (Mini, Bantam, Midget, and Juvenile), and one coached a girls team (Juvenile). Four coaches had certification in the old National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP) of Canada. Two coaches had no certification. The average years of coaching experience was 13, ranging from 3 to 20. The participant’s reasons for coaching varied: some started because of bad experiences with other coaches; some wanted to promote development and education; and others loved the sport. More detailed biographical information on the coaches is presented in Table 1.

Athletes were not considered as participants in this study because the purpose was to investigate coaches’ perspectives of activities created to address three UN MDGs. This study was a first step to investigate the use of sport as an avenue to address the UN MDGs. This decision is in agreement with coaching science research that indicated that behavior and thought analysis provided a more in-depth and ecologically valid description of coaches and the coaching process (Trudel, Gilbert, & Tochon, 2001).
### Table 1

Description of Coaches’ Background and Team Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>C1</th>
<th>C2</th>
<th>C3</th>
<th>C4</th>
<th>C5</th>
<th>C6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Sport</td>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>Basketball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Age</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Level of Education</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Certification</td>
<td>Level 3</td>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Level 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Coaching Experience</td>
<td>15 years</td>
<td>16 years</td>
<td>19 years</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>20 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6) Reasons for coaching</td>
<td>Bad experience with [my] children’s coaches early on. Chance to spend time with [my] children and pass on wisdom.</td>
<td>Develop kids mind &amp; body. Give back what I have learned. Teach the game I love.</td>
<td>I like teaching and seeing the kids improve.</td>
<td>Passion for the sport. To help youth achieve higher educational goals.</td>
<td>I do it for the kids. To pass on the knowledge taught to me. To keep kids from doing possibly negative stuff.</td>
<td>Teaching and development of players.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7) Association</td>
<td>Dollard</td>
<td>Brookwood AAA</td>
<td>Brookwood AAA</td>
<td>Brookwood AAA</td>
<td>Brookwood AAA</td>
<td>Brookwood AAA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8) Level</td>
<td>House league</td>
<td>Inter-city Boys</td>
<td>Inter-city Boys</td>
<td>Inter-city Boys</td>
<td>Inter-city Boys</td>
<td>Inter-city Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9) Gender</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) Age group</td>
<td>U13</td>
<td>Mini (U11)</td>
<td>Bantam (U13)</td>
<td>Juvenile (U17)</td>
<td>Midget (U15)</td>
<td>Juvenile (U17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11) Number of players on team</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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All coaching certification refer to the old NCCP program.
All the procedures and instruments for data collection were approved by McGill University’s Research Ethic Board Office. A description of the procedures will be presented next, followed by a description of the instruments used in the data collection.

**Procedures**

The directors of soccer and basketball association’s were contacted by e-mail, informed of the nature of the investigation, and invited to participate. Once consent was obtained (Appendix G) from the directors of the association, they invited their youth coaches to participate. A letter (Appendix H) was sent to the directors, which they forwarded to the youth coaches in their association.

A workshop was arranged with the coaches who were interested in the project. The participating coaches were given the research participant consent form (Appendix I) and asked to complete a demographic questionnaire (Appendix J) at the workshop. The workshop lasted approximately 2 hours and followed the four stage protocol developed by Carron and Spink (1993). The four stages were: (1) *introductory stage*, (2) *conceptual stage*, (3) *practical stage*, and (4) *intervention stage*. The first three stages took place during the 2h workshop, the *intervention stage* happened in the setting where the teams practiced.

This protocol was originally developed as part of an intervention program designed to teach fitness instructors to create and implement team-building strategies in fitness classes (Carron & Spink, 1993). In their study, the workshop protocol was efficient in providing the instructors with strategies that promoted team-building. The researchers concluded that the intervention program influenced individual perception of cohesiveness among class participants (Carron & Spink, 1993). This protocol has also been used in a recent study to teach youth coaches how to implement team-building intervention program (Newin, Bloom,  

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7 In all appendices, the word ‘basketball’ or ‘soccer’ was used depending on the sport.
Method

Newin and colleagues concluded that the intervention program benefited the youth players, the team, and the coaches. The players acquired important life skills (e.g., listening, teamwork), the coaches improved their communication skills, and the teams improved in cohesion (Newin et al., 2008).

Given the previous successful implementations of this workshop protocol, Carron and Spink’s four-stage model was thought to be appropriate for the current study. For ease of discussion, this section will follow the stages of the workshop. See Appendix K for an outline of the workshop which was distributed to the coaches.

Introductory Stage

In the introductory phase the researcher explained the rationale for the program and its benefits. According to Carron and Spink (1993), participants will exhibit greater motivation and adherence in intervention programs if they understand the rationale of the program. In this study, the first stage of the workshop involved presenting the UN MDGs and their relevance for global, national, and community development, their targets for 2015, and the UN perspective on how sports can contribute to the UN MDGs. The research team had done prior research on the West Island community and thus was aware of the reasons for promoting the three UN MDGs in that particular community.

Conceptual Stage

At the conceptual stage, the researcher presented the coaches with the conceptual framework of the study. This stage is beneficial for simplifying complex constructs, making clear how individual components relate to each other, and making it easier to identify the focus of the interventions (Carron & Spink, 2003).
In this study, the research coordinator presented a description of the principles of PYD. The research team underlined the importance of focusing on youth’s strengths and interests (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2004), and the importance of fostering positive experiences to promote youth’s psychosocial development. The ASPM was presented as the framework for the strategies. The importance of deliberate play for youth was highlighted (Côté, Baker, & Abernethy, 2007), as were the similarities between PYD and the principles of youth coaches’ ideal behaviors (CET; Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1979). Learner, Fisher, and Weinberg’s 5C’s (2000) (competence, confidence, connection, caring or compassion, and character) were presented as the outcomes of PYD.

**Practical Stage**

The third workshop stage consisted of creating activities that addressed the UN MDGs. Carron and Spink (1993) used this stage to ensure instructors became active agents in developing the practical strategies. According to the researchers, this stage was important to increase commitment and duration of behavior. This study used the PR approach to assure active engagement of youth coaches at the practical stage. The use of PR allowed the inclusion of non-academic participants in the project, it addressed potential concerns of the community, and oriented the strategies towards community action (Israel et al., 2005).

Two youth U12 AA soccer coaches participated in a pilot study. The coaches were 41 and 59 years old, with 23 and 29 years of experience respectively. One coached a girls’ team and one a boys’ team. The workshop followed all four stages of Carron and Spink’s (1993) protocol. The purpose of the pilot study was to give the research coordinator experience delivering a workshop. It also permitted the McGill research team an opportunity to observe participants’ responses to the intervention program and to train the research assistants.
The McGill research team was formed by the graduate student who coordinated the project, the McGill University Sport Psychology Lab director who supervised the project, and a group of research assistants (RAs). The RAs had been selected and trained to aid with aspects of the study. They were all Physical Education or Kinesiology students in their third or fourth years at McGill University. Some had experience teaching Physical Education classes, playing competitive soccer, and/or coaching youth sports. The RAs were invited to participate in the workshop and were able to contribute to the discussion based on their knowledge and personal experience.

In this stage, the researchers brainstormed with the coaches to create activities that were related to their sport and would target the three UN MDGs of health, education, and empowering women. The participating coaches were given autonomy to develop strategies. They were asked to identify their athletes’ capacities and suggest activities that would address the issues with their athletes. The research coordinator acted as a facilitator to appraise health, education, and women empowerment issues in the participants’ community. All coaches were familiar with the neighborhood and helped adapt the activities to their community. Furthermore, the association’s director was present and contributed to the creation of the interventions.

Four sport-related activities were created during this workshop. The coaches believed the activities would promote the UN MDGs of health, education, and empowering women. A

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8 The RAs’ roles and responsibilities can be described in two parts. As part of their training, they were required to (a) attend an introductory meeting given by the research coordinator, (b) attend bi-weekly research meetings led by the research coordinator – in which they learned the theoretical (UN MDGs and ASPM) and philosophical (PYD) frameworks of the study. As part of their contribution to the study, the RAs were required to (c) attend the implementation of the activities during the pilot study and the study, (d) record field notes on behavioral and contextual information during the implementation of the strategies, and (e) elaborate on field notes and forward them to the team leader within 24 hours post-intervention.
list of the activities and their relation to the UN MDGs and the PYD principles is presented in Appendix L.

**Intervention Stage**

Finally, in the *intervention stage* the activities were carried out with the youth players. The activities were implemented at the location where the teams practiced. They were designed to last approximately 45 minutes and took place every 4 weeks. A more detailed description of each of the activities will be presented next.

**Practice with CIS athletes.** A CIS athlete from McGill University visited the youth players during one of their scheduled practices and led them through some simplified drills that were adapted to their teams’ abilities. It was important that the youth players identified themselves with the athletes. Male athletes were invited to run drills with boys’ teams and female athletes were invited for girls’ teams. It was beneficial to have, in some cases, athletes that had played in that region as a youth. The CIS athlete was aware of the players’ age, level of competition, and sporting abilities. This activity was aimed at promoting education among youth athletes. Thus, after the drills, the athlete talked to the youth players about the importance of education. This talk was the most important part of the activity. The coach promoted a positive environment for the youth players. The coach gave positive feedback during the drills and encouraged the children to ask questions to the CIS athletes during the talk. The support of the coach seemed to give the children confidence to do well in the drill and ask questions to the CIS athletes.

**Healthy choice pre-game team meal.** The youth players purchased healthy foods for a pre-game team meal. This activity was geared towards promoting healthy life-styles through healthy eating. First, coaches and the research coordinator talked to the players about healthy
food choices and the importance of a balanced meal. Health Canada’s *Eating Well with Canada’s Food Guide*© brochure (see Appendix M) was handed out to the players and used as an outline. The talk focused on describing the food groups, the recommended number of servings per day, and how to read nutrition facts food labels.

After talking about healthy eating, the McGill research team and the coaches took the players to a grocery store. The players were told to choose and purchase healthy snacks for a pre-game meal; money was provided by the association. Players purchased foods such as fruits, vegetables, juice, whole wheat bread and cookies, low fat milk, yogurt, peanut butter, and turkey breast. After buying the food, the players, the coach, and the research coordinator met and ate the food. During the meal, the research coordinator and the coaches led a discussion using the purchased products as examples of good and bad food choices. The discussion also touched upon healthier alternatives to unhealthy choices some players made. The conversation during the meal allowed the players to compare nutrition facts.

*Co-ed practice.* Boys and girls practiced together in a collaborative (non-competitive) way. The youth players ran drills chosen by their coaches. It was important that boys and girls had a chance to interact during practice. It was recommended that coaches ran a practice with passing drills so players learned how to use passes to engage and empower teammates. The players were put in a situation where they collaborated with one another regardless of gender. This activity was geared towards empowering women.

Coaches promoted a positive environment for the players to have fun. They encouraged the youth players to make good passes and gave positive feedback when they succeeded. It was important to have players with similar ability levels. Age and division level were considered when pairing boys’ and girls’ teams. After the activity, coaches talked to
their athletes about the importance of teamwork and running appropriate plays. The coaches avoided bringing up gender differences and simply reinforced the right plays and the right passes. The primary goal of this activity was to empower women by showing boys and girls that they were capable of achieving the same outcomes. Coaches reinforced this message with the talk at the end of the activity.

*Hoops for health fundraiser.* The youth players held a fundraiser and then donated sporting equipment to a community center that assisted underprivileged youth who typically do not engage in healthy lifestyles. The health organization where the equipment was donated was chosen by the coaches. For the fundraiser, the children asked for money from their family members, teachers, friends, and neighbors. Those who wanted to donate money agreed on giving a small amount for each free throw the youth player scored at a free throw contest. If the donor preferred, he/she could also make a onetime donation. This fundraiser had been previously done by the association. The coaches and the players had experience running this kind of fundraiser. This time, part of the collected money was used to purchase the sporting equipment that was donated to the community center. The association had all the forms and letters necessary for the fundraiser. The letter from the McGill Sport Psychology Research Lab is presented in Appendix N.

Coaches promoted a positive environment so that the athletes had fun during the activity. Coaches encouraged their players to find donors. The primary goal of this activity was to promote engaging and maintaining a healthy lifestyle among the youth players. In addition, the youth players could promote health among others in their community.

With respect to fidelity of treatment, coaches followed the protocol for each activity as described above. The research coordinator was present at every activity and was available

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9 This activity was only performed with the basketball teams due time constraints with a shorter soccer season.
to provide additional support for the coaches in case it was required. Research assistants were also present at the interventions and took field notes of contextual and behavioral information, which confirmed the activity protocol was followed as planned. The research assistants’ field notes and other methods of data collection will be described next.

**Instruments**

Four qualitative data collections techniques were used to obtain information on the perceptions of youth coaches: *pre and post-intervention forms, interview, and the research assistants’ field notes*. A *personal journal* was kept by the research coordinator as an additional form of data collection.

**Pre and Post-Intervention Forms**

Pre and post-intervention forms were used so participants could communicate their thoughts and perceptions of their role in the research process (Krane & Baird, 2005; Newin et al., 2008). Pre-intervention forms were completed immediately prior to the implementation of each activity by the coach. This form was used to gain information about the coach’s perceptions of the team’s environment (e.g., very positive because of a big win on the weekend) and the coach’s perception of the players’ attitude towards health, education, and empowering women (Appendix O). The post-intervention forms were completed 1 week following the activity. This extended time allowed the coaches to meet their players once or twice before assessing attitude changes. The post-intervention form allowed coaches to express their perceptions of players’ receptiveness and of the influence of the activities on their player’s values of health, education, and women empowerment (Appendix P).

This data collection method has been successfully used by Newin and colleagues (2008) in a study on youth hockey coaches’ perceptions of a team-building intervention.
program. The authors used pre-intervention forms to gather information on the team environment, the relationships among athletes, and coach-athlete relationship. They used post-intervention forms to gather information on the participants’ perception of interventions and receptiveness to team-building activities after each intervention (Newin et al., 2008). These instruments served as an ongoing evaluation of their study and were used in their analysis as a compliment to interviews, the primary source of data (Newin et al., 2008).

*Interviews*

Qualitative interviewing is a guided conversation, where the researcher asks questions and carefully listens to capture the meaning of what is being said (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Qualitative interviewing is used to derive interpretations from the respondents’ talk and aims at understanding the meaning of respondents’ experiences (Warren, 2002). According to Warren, when designing a qualitative interview, the interviewer develops a demographic enquiry to describe the respondent and 10 to 12 specific questions that address the research question. A qualitative semi-structured interview technique was used to retrieve information on the coaches’ perceptions of the project. Qualitative interviews use three types of questions: *main questions* that begin and guide the conversation, *probes* to clarify answers or request examples, and *follow-up questions* that pursue the implications of answers to the main questions (Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

In this study, each coach participated in a semi-structured exit interview that took place between 10 and 15 days after the last activity. The interview was guided by 14 questions (see Appendix Q). The four opening questions were designed to initiate the discussion (e.g., Describe your evolution into coaching) and introduce the main topic of the interview (e.g., What kind of exposure have you had to issues related to the UN MDGs in
Method

your community prior to this study). The seven key questions focused mainly on coaches’ perceptions of the activities and how they impacted the players (e.g., How you felt the activities influenced the athletes’ values towards the UN MDGs in their community?). A summary question was included to obtain their opinions of the study (e.g., In your opinion, what are the three most important qualities that you felt emerged from this program?). Finally, two concluding questions allowed for the participant to add any information, ask questions, or share any concerns.

Research Assistants’ Field Notes

Undergraduate students were selected as research assistants (RA) and were trained by the research coordinator to identify and describe meaningful interactions and processes of the coaches. The RAs observed the implementation of the activities with respect to contextual and behavioral information. Contextual data described the environment in which the activities were implemented: the location, who was present, and what activities took place. Behavioral information refers to reactions to the activities and interactions that took place. RAs were instructed to make short-hand notations during the activities and elaborate on their field notes immediately following the intervention. The notes were written in essay form and e-mailed to the research coordinator within 24 hours following the activities. These notes provided a description of the environment and explained what was happening during the activities.

Reflective Journal

A reflective journal was kept by the research coordinator. Personal observations and opinions were written in the journal after every meeting with the coaches. Journal writing is a common tool in qualitative research (Janesick, 1999). This tool has been incorporated to
provide a data set of the researcher’s reflections (Janesick, 1999). Notes on other forms of communication (e.g., phone calls and e-mails) were also added to this journal. It was used to keep track of the development of the study and record the interaction between the coaches and the researcher.

The reflective journal was also kept throughout the Data Analysis phase. The information gathered was used as a one of the trustworthiness methods. The data analysis process and trustworthiness methods will be presented next.

**Data Analysis**

The objective of the data analysis was to create an organized and consistent set of categories that represented the coaches’ perceptions of the activities implemented to promote the UN MDGs. Four methods of data collection were used in the current study: *pre- and post-intervention forms, research assistants’ field notes, reflective journal, and interviews.* Of these methods, *interviews* were used as the primary data source. The other three methods provided supplemental information to the interview data.

The analysis of the interview data followed three steps: indentifying meaning units, classify them into higher-order categories, and then breaking them down into lower-order themes. Analysis of the higher-order categories was done deductively, while analysis of the lower-order themes was done inductively.

Prior to the data analysis, the interviews were transcribed verbatim using Microsoft Office Word 2007 software. Minor edits were made to ensure confidentiality and improve clarity of the statement. The first step in the analysis was to break down the interviews into individual meaning units. Meaning units are textual sections that reflect a single meaning, idea, or piece of information (Tesch, 1990). The textual sections may be a phrase, a sentence,
or an entire paragraph (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Three hundred eleven units were identified.

In the second step of the analysis, the meaning units were grouped using a higher level synthesis, which is typical of a deductive analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Each of the 311 meaning units were placed into one of the four high level categories: team characteristics, coaching background and philosophy, project outcomes, and project perceptions. The meaning units tagged as team characteristics provided a description of each team prior to the intervention program, including relationships with athletes and parents. The units coded as coaching background and philosophy provided a description of the participants’ coaching experiences and coaching style, as well as their awareness and experience with the UN MDGs and related issues. The tag project outcomes was used in the units that described how the project impacted the coaches, athletes, and the team, both inside and outside of the athletic environment; this tag referred to objective and observable changes in behavior or attitude which the participants attributed to the activities in the study. Finally, project perceptions referred to the participants’ opinions about the project and the activities, including their potential benefits and recommendations for improvement.

The third and last step of this analysis consisted of categorizing each meaning unit into a lower-order theme based on the content of each meaning unit. This step was performed using an inductive process described by Côté, Salmela, Baria, and Russell (1993). First, meaning units were tagged independently. Second, similar tags were grouped and labeled with lower-order themes that best described the cluster of tags. A total of 51 lower-order themes emerged from the data.
Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is an essential part of qualitative and quantitative research that allows the researcher to ensure the findings are worthy and credible (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Sparkes, 1998). In quantitative research, trustworthiness encompasses the notions of internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity. However, these notions are inconsistent with the nature of qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The trustworthiness notions that are appropriate for qualitative research are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Creswell, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This section will describe the techniques used to establish trustworthiness in this study: prolonged engagement, peer debriefing, triangulation, member checks, and peer review.

Prolonged engagement is the investment of sufficient time to learn the culture and build trust (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, prolonged engagement was achieved by having the research coordinator attend the try-outs and the practices twice a week for the first two months of the season. The research coordinator also attended some games, all the activities implemented in the study, and practices once a week for the last 2 months of the season. Once the activities started the research coordinator had a better understanding of the participants’ cultural backgrounds, coaching styles, and practice dynamics. Simultaneously, participants and youth players were familiar with the research coordinator, which was intended to reduce or eliminate distortions by the participants, such as wanting to please the investigator (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). By the end of the interviews a couple of participants invited the research coordinator to return the following year as a volunteer, which supports that trust was built.
Peer debriefing is the process of exposing yourself to a peer in an analytic session with the purpose of exploring procedures and methods that might be unseen by the investigator (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, the research coordinator shared information with the supervisor after each activity and interview. Together they explored new ideas and discussed the techniques and procedures used in the implementation phase and the data collection.

Triangulation is the use of multiple and different sources, methods, investigators, or theories in a study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, triangulation was established by using different methods of data collection. Four data collection methods were used to assess youth coaches’ perceptions of activities created to address three UN MDGs (health, education, and empowering women): pre and post intervention forms, interviews, research assistants’ field notes, and a reflective journal. For more information on the data collection methods refer to the Instruments section in this chapter.

Member checks is when data are tested with members of groups from whom the data were originally collected and has been described as the most crucial technique for establishing credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, member checks were used by providing a verbatim transcript of the interview for the participants so that they could correct errors of interpretation, clarify ambiguous quotes, and add information. Of the six transcripts sent to the coaches, one coach added information, three changed nothing, and two did not reply.

Peer review, or check-coding, is when two or more researchers code the same data set and discuss the differences (Miles & Huberman, 1994). An agreement of 70–80% is recommended to ensure credibility (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this study peer review...
took place between the research coordinator, the research supervisor, and a second researcher. First, the coordinator and supervisor met to discuss the coding scheme. Once they had achieved 100% agreement the coding scheme was sent to the second researcher to revise. The research coordinator and supervisor met a total of 12 times. When agreement was achieved, the coding was sent to the second researcher. Every revision by the co-author triggered new meetings with the supervisor. The co-author reviewed the coding scheme four times in between the supervisor’s revisions. In total, 16 revisions took place between the authors.
CHAPTER 4

Results

This chapter presents the results of the qualitative analysis of this study. First, a summary of the nature of the data will be provided, including a description of the findings that emerged from the analysis. Then, the four higher-order categories will be described with their lower-order themes. Quotes from the interviews, the pre and post intervention forms, the research assistants’ field notes, and the research coordinator’s reflective journal will illustrate the information in each topic. Each quote will be followed by a label (e.g., C1 – C6) to identify the participant that provided the quotation.

Nature of the Data

The six interviews of the study produced a total of 311 meaning units. The 311 meaning units were categorized into four higher-order categories. Table 2 presents the four higher-order categories and the number of times they were expressed by each participant.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Higher-Order Categories</th>
<th>Coaches</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
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<tr>
<td>1) Team characteristics</td>
<td>C1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Coaching background and philosophy</td>
<td>C2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
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<td>3) Project outcomes</td>
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<tr>
<td>4) Project perceptions</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16</td>
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<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>57</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>56</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The number of units discussed by each coach varied from 46 (C4) to 57 (C1 and C6). This does not signify that C4’s interview was inferior to the others. Higher number of
meaning units does not denote higher quality of information. Rather, some participants expressed their ideas more succinctly than others. This is not surprising given the open-ended and semi-structured nature of the interviews.

All participants focused the majority of their interviews on project outcomes and project perceptions. Together, these higher-order categories represented 67.5% of all meaning units. This is not surprising given the purpose of the study and the nature of the semi-structured interview questions.

The 311 meaning units were inductively coded into lower-order themes. Fifty-one lower-order themes emerged from the meaning units. Table 3 shows a list of all themes, the higher-order category, and the frequency they were expressed by each participant. Next, a description of each one of the four higher-order categories will be presented, including some of the lower-order themes and quotes from the participants.

**Team Characteristics**

The higher-order category team characteristics included 21 meaning units and represented 6.7% of the total data base. This category included descriptions of the team, including team cohesion, team’s talent level, athlete’s maturity, athlete’s involvement with the community, and parental involvement.

Five out of 6 coaches mentioned that a small number of their players were involved in some type of community activity. The number of players that were engaged in community activities varied from one to four per team (teams had between 12-20 players).

A few of my players that are in the international Bac Laurier program, or in private schools, are forced to do community work and they also have personal projects that they have to do. I think there are 3 or 4 of them. Other than that none of them are involved in the community outside. I’m not aware of what their personal projects are. (C4)
Table 3

Frequency of meaning units assigned to each lower-order theme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category and Themes</th>
<th>Coaches</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) <strong>Team characteristics</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>a) Athlete talent level</td>
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<tr>
<td>b) Athlete maturity</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Athlete relationships</td>
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<td>d) Athlete community involvement</td>
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<td>e) Team cohesion</td>
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<td>f) Team commitment</td>
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<td>g) Team record</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) Time commitment</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) Parental involvement</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) <strong>Coach background and philosophy</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>a) Reasons for coaching</td>
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<td>b) Coaching experience</td>
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<td>c) Coaching style</td>
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<tr>
<td>f) Awareness of UN MDGs</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) UN MDGs promotion</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) <strong>Project outcomes</strong></td>
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</tr>
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<td>a) Athlete personal growth</td>
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<tr>
<td>b) Athlete awareness and importance of health</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Athlete awareness and importance of education</td>
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<tr>
<td>d) Athlete learning from other gender</td>
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<td>f) Athlete respect</td>
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<td>g) Athlete relationships</td>
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<tr>
<td>h) Athlete confidence</td>
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<td>i) Athlete leadership</td>
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<td>j) Athlete commitment to the team</td>
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<tr>
<td>k) Athlete work ethic</td>
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<tr>
<td>l) Athlete enjoyment</td>
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<td>m) Athlete dialog</td>
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<td>o) Team cohesion</td>
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<td>p) Coach better understand players</td>
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<td>q) Coach learning</td>
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<td>r) Coach relationship</td>
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Table 3 (continued)

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<th>Categories and Themes</th>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>f) Athlete development</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>q) Project improvements / recommendations</td>
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<td>23</td>
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<td>TOTAL</td>
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<td>56</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>57</td>
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Every year there is always kids coming to me with papers that they need to do extra activities, community stuff. I know there is always one or two on the team that will get involved with some kind of community work. I don’t know exactly who. This year, there are two of them. I remember signing papers. Some of them are also involved with the organization, they come and keep time and score, referee with the house league and the younger ones. (C6)

Participants had different perspectives on the talent level of their teams. While some coaches thought these were the most talented teams they had ever coached, others thought their players were not as mature or as dedicated as in previous teams.

Talent wise it’s not too bad. The fun part is watching some players that I have had for the last two years that are really starting to develop. (C1)

I thought my team this year wasn’t as talented as some teams I’ve had in the past. The kids kind of surprised me. We started off the season 1-4. . . Then something shifted
Results

mid way through the 6th game, where we all turned it around and we ended up going 9-2 the rest of the season. . . . I feel much better about the team since the beginning of the season. The boys have grown and they have shown me that they have the effort and drive to do it. (C2)

There’s a lot of talent in my team this year, but there is no heart. If I compare them to the last bantam team I coached . . . they have more talent, but no heart: that’s a big difference. (C3)

Some teams in our league practice five days a week. They come out with full intensity, they are ready to play basketball. Our guys come from home where they played videogames, maybe they went to McDonald’s on their way here. It’s not the same mentality. (C5)

Four of the 6 coaches felt their team had good cohesion, played well together, and the players had good relationships between them. According to the coaches, cohesion played a role in their teams’ success even when they didn’t believe they were as talented as teams in the past.

I have had a lot of talented teams in the past . . . This year I didn’t think that. This year the kids surprised me . . . the kids showed a lot of effort. I was really really impressed with them this year. Compared with teams in the past, there was a lack of athletic talent, but as a team, it was probably one of the best teams I’ve had. They really play together. That’s what stands out for this team. (C2)

My players are very friendly to each other. . . . The social aspect of them and the chemistry has been amazing, they get along even with the girls that haven’t really played with us. We have a girl that came from another team and we played against her last year. Still, they act like they’ve been together for the past 5 years. (C6)

Coach Background and Philosophy

The higher-order category coach background and philosophy included 80 meaning units and represented 25.7% of the total data base. This category included descriptions of the participants’ coaching experiences, their coaching style, and their goals as youth coaches. Seven lower-order themes emerged in this higher-order category. Four of these themes will be presented next: reasons for coaching, coaching experience, awareness of the UN MDGs, and UN MDG promotion.
Reasons for coaching

This theme included descriptions of how and why participants started coaching. One coach mentioned he started coaching when his children started playing. He believed he could provide a better sporting experience for the children and that it would be a good opportunity to spend time with them.

I got involved in coaching when my first child (who will shortly be 22) started playing soccer. . . . He was playing U5 at the time and the coach showed up for the first two practices and never showed up again. All the parents had to take turns running practices and it really didn’t turn out that well in the end. . . . [I] thought I could do better than that, so that’s when I started. . . . It was also a great way to spend some quality time with the children. It forces you to spend at least a couple of hours a week, where you are interfacing with them fulltime. . . . I’ve always coached my children, with the exception of some all star teams. (C1)

Other participants mentioned their parents or former coaches played an important role in getting them involved in coaching. As players, they enjoyed their sports and wanted to give back to children what they had learned in basketball.

[Basketball] was my primary sport. . . . I always enjoyed playing basketball and I also played after I finished school, but the body starts to slow down after a while, and I got into coaching because I like to help. I’m a very helpful individual. I like to help and when I see there is potential in certain kids I want to bring that potential out. . . . Teaching is part of me, I like to help, I like to teach, I like to council. . . . (C2)

I started coaching probably 2001, around the time I finished CEGEP. I started coaching with another organization, helping out my father. . . . This is what I do with the kids now, I try to give back in what I teach, but I also try to give a little bit more life lessons. (C5)

Two participants first coached soccer and later started coaching basketball. Their fathers played a big role in getting them into coaching. One of them mentioned his interest for basketball made him change sports. The other mentioned coaching basketball because of difficulties dealing with parents and children in soccer.

The whole thing about me getting into coaching is that I guess its runs in the family. My dad coached my brother and me in soccer, because in my family everybody plays
soccer. . . . I [started] coaching soccer and I kept on doing that. Basketball started later in high school. I had always enjoyed the game. I did my level 1 clinic one year just for my knowledge as a player and as a person. . . . And the next thing you know, I’m 17 year old and I’m coaching my high school basketball team. . . (C6)

I basically started coaching because my dad was a soccer coach. . . . I have coached soccer in the past. . . . The reason why I stopped is because I have Crohn’s disease. I was going from basketball to soccer and soccer to basketball, plus I was playing on two soccer teams. I was short on time and stressed. I needed to stop something and I decided to stop with soccer. I couldn’t handle the parents anymore (laughter). Most of the parents didn’t know soccer much and they complained a lot without reason. I decided: “that’s it, forget it”. In basketball, it is easier to control the kids and the parents. (C3)

*Coaching experience*

This theme included descriptions of how long the participants have been coaching, the levels and gender they have coached, and the associations where they have coached. The coaches’ years of experience ranged from 3 to 20 years. Participants had coached athletes aged 5 to 22, from novice to triple letter levels (the highest levels in soccer and basketball). These coaches had also coached both boys and girls teams.

I have coached basketball from novice up to CEGEP, 7 years old up to 22 years old. Boys and girls. I have coached all levels, except juvenile intercity. I only coached juvenile at the high school level. (C3)

Four of the basketball coaches coached other sports. Three had coached soccer and one coached lacrosse.

I coach intercity soccer as well. I have coached for about 5 years now. Soccer is not my game, but coaching has transferable skills into different sports. You can use especially the disciple side of coaching. You can use that in any sport. The makeup and the structure of the games you have to learn along the way. I’ve played soccer too, so I know the game, and I decided to give it a shot, and it’s pretty good. I’ve coached soccer division 2, AA division. It’s the top division in Montreal, U12. But I have coached different levels as well. (C2)
Awareness of the UN MDGs

This lower-order theme described the previous knowledge and/or experience the participants had with the UN MDGs. Only one participant had heard of the UN MDGs prior to the study; still, his exposure was limited to a single paragraph in a text book.

Actually I had already heard of the UN MDGs. I did a class, a UN class. I remember just reading a brief little paragraph about them. The course was held at [University]. It was an online class and it was in my text book that I was asked to buy and use to study for the class. (C4)

None of the other coaches had any exposure to the UN MDGs prior to the study. One coach researched the UN MDGs on the internet after the initial meeting. Others reported never learning about the UN MDGs as athletes; these coaches thought it would’ve been beneficial for them.

Prior to the study I really had had no exposure to the UN MDGs. I did some research on the UN goals when this study first started. I went on the UN website and the FIFA’s website. I think it’s a project primarily oriented towards third world countries, where they don’t have the same degree of quality of life as we have here. It’s basically to have everyone in the same standard and use FIFA as a tool to achieve that. Locally you don’t see much of that, other than if you go to a soccer game and you see the children standing in front of the players. It’s more of a symbolic thing I think than anything that has really been put into action. (C1)

I’m not sure if I’d heard of the UN MDGs before. I don’t think I did, no. I was never exposed to them in the sport environment. I wish I had had a coach who would have been able to tell me [about the UN MDGs]. That’s why, when I see that, I try to promote that with the kids, to make sure that they do it. (C3)

UN MDG promotion

This theme described activities, unrelated to the study, which the team might have done that could’ve promoted the UN MDGs. Three coaches mentioned there had been no activities that could’ve promoted the UN MDGs. Some participants mentioned they talked to their players about the importance of health, education, and gender equity. Others mentioned they had done scrimmages between boys and girls in the association before the study.
There were no other team functions that might’ve promoted health, education, or empowered women. (C2)

We did some scrimmages with the girls. Other than that, there were no team functions that might’ve promoted the UN MDGs. . . . I wish we had done a lot more activities that promoted health, education, and empowered women, but I didn’t. (C3)

Only one coach described an activity that might have promoted empowering women. It was a simulation of the soccer Euro Cup, where the youth boys’ or girls’ teams represented different European countries. It is an annual competition that alternates between boys and girls. On the year of this study, the Euro Cup was played by the girls’ teams; the boys’ teams were invited to volunteer. According to the coach, five players volunteered to this activity.

There was one activity, which was not part of the project, and promoted the UN goals. We have the Euro Cup every year for the division 3 teams and they always look for volunteers. We had a good contingent of our team, I think we had four or five of the boys went and did flag carrying for the girls. It was tied with the gender equality. I was really happy about that because it is very rare that you get a large contingent. With the girls is easier, when I had the girls we had like 7 or 8 girls show up for the guys in one year. But for the boys to show up for the girls it’s a little… I was pretty happy this year. We had 4 or 5 players, 5 actually, that volunteered to help out with the Euro Cup. They first helped carry the flags for the ceremony, and then they gave directions to people. They helped out at the barbecue tent. There is a lot to do there. (C1)

Coach 6 had a high number of UN promotion lower-order themes, however most of them referred to teams he coached in the past. Only three meaning units referred to his present team. This coach had taken his players to work with CEGEP college athletes. He also spoke to his players about education and health.

We talk about education and health in general. I always talk about that because I tell them my job is to prepare them for the next level, and in the next level you’re a student athlete. I always mention academics. The health nutrition stuff, we always talk about that when we go away, but it’s in general I don’t really take the time to talk just about that. (C6)
Project Outcomes

The higher-order category *project outcomes* included 98 meaning units and represented 31.5% of the total data base. This category included descriptions of how the project impacted the participants, the athletes, and the team; it described objective and observable changes in behaviors and attitudes. Eighteen lower-order themes emerged in this higher-order category. Some of these lower-order themes will be discussed next: (a) *athlete awareness and importance of health*, (b) *athlete awareness and importance of education*, (c) *athlete learning from other gender*, (d) *athlete respect for other gender*, (e) *athlete confidence*, (f) *team cohesion*, and (g) *coach learning*. Three lower-order themes, *athlete learning from other gender*, *athlete respect for other gender*, and *athlete confidence*, relate to the same UN MDG goal of empowering women. Therefore, they will be presented under the same subheading entitled *empowering women*.

Athlete awareness and importance of health

This theme described concrete and observable outcomes which indicated greater awareness of the importance of health among the youth athletes. One participant noticed that his son was now making healthier nutritional choices at home. Other coaches saw their players talking about healthy eating, asking questions about it, and even giving suggestions to their peers. One coach said that for the first time he didn’t have to worry about his players eating unhealthy foods during team trips.

The nutritional activity that we did was very beneficial. . . . I saw the kids making choices about what to eat. A couple of weeks later, I saw them talking about it. It was very beneficial. . . . It’s awareness, it’s in the minds of the kids now. They have the questions, they want to know answers, they are curious about it. That’s the best thing that came out of this. . . . The nutritional activity definitely helped raise awareness to health. They are talking about it. They are thinking twice about the things they put in their body. (C2)
I think the players gained a lot from going to the grocery store because we have been to two tournaments and they are always asking “Coach, can I have this?”, and you have a kid saying “Hey, you’re not supposed to have chocolate, you’re not supposed to have this before a game”. They definitely learned from it. For example, [when we travelled] I didn’t have to worry about going to McDonald’s. . . . Honestly, it’s the first time I had a team that were not looking to go to McDonalds. It didn’t come up at all. (C3)

The pre and post intervention forms from the coaches also indicated their players were more aware of what they ate.

[The healthy pre-game meal] benefited more at an individual level rather than the team. It still benefited both. Most of them understood how good nutrition helps them in daily activities or playing sports. (C2)

After the nutrition activity they all made an effort to eat well. (C4)

The research coordinator also reported greater awareness of nutrition among youth athletes in the reflective journal. One journal entry recounted the youth athletes asking if what they were eating was healthy.

Tonight I was sitting at the entrance of the gym when three bantam boys came in eating snacks. They saw me and asked whether or not their snacks were healthy. They were laughing because they knew not all of it was healthy. This showed me they were thinking about what they were eating.

The hoops for health fundraiser also improved athletes’ awareness of health. One coach mentioned his players noticed they were more fit than the children from the community center. He believed this realization helped them understand the importance of health.

I think this activity definitely helped bring awareness to health. My son was curious if they were underprivileged or came from bad backgrounds. . . . He saw that the guys [from the association] were more fit than the kids that were there [from the community center]. I think he kind of put it together. (C2)
**Athlete awareness and importance of education**

This theme described outcomes which indicated a greater awareness of the importance of education. All participants observed changes in their athletes’ attitudes and behaviors towards education. Some coaches noticed their players had a greater interest in pursuing higher education. Other coaches noticed increased dedication to homework and better management of school and practice schedules.

I think the visit from the McGill athletes definitely impacted the players that want to move on and pursue a career after high school. They realized what they have to do to get to that level. . . . In terms of education, it’s right on there. I noticed a lot of them have been not skipping practice since the guys from McGill came. If they have homework, they are coming and doing it here. . . . Definitely, some of those [activities] have hit them. (C5)

I think the visit from the McGill players helped raise awareness to education. Two of the kids in particular started talking about “I can still play basketball when I’m in university.” So I asked the question “Oh, so you’re going to university?” “Well... yeah... I think so, because I can play basketball.” I said: “But you have to understand, you are going to university not just to play basketball, you are going to get an education.” So again, the dialog was there. The kids had good questions. I have a lot of kids in my team that are bright kids... Four [players] have a little problem in school, so their mind set might not be in education. But out of these four there are two who were talking about university down the line. So it could’ve changed their mind and mentality about education and the power of an education. We’ll see down the road (laughter). (C2)

These results were supported by statements found in the pre and post intervention forms.

The [players] concerned about playing at a higher level, have learned what they need to do to reach a higher level of basketball and schooling. (C5)

One participant received positive feedback from a parent. The player’s mother told the coach she was surprised when her child chose to stay home and do homework instead of going out with friends.

I think the activity was good for some players education wise, not for everyone but maybe for half one them. . . . [One] player’s mother told me “Last year he didn’t do
homework and this year he is doing it”. Actually a good example was a month ago, she said that he was called to go out but he said “No, I’m going to go do homework”, because he had basketball on the weekend and no time. It’s like: “Oh, wow!” Last year supposedly, he would have said: “Pfff, forget it”. (C3)

Empowering women

This section encompassed behavioral or attitude changes that demonstrated greater respect for the opposite gender or empowerment of women. Three lower-order themes will be addressed in this section: athlete learning from other gender, athlete respect for other gender, and athlete confidence.

The theme athlete learning from other gender encompassed what youth players learned from interacting with the opposite gender. The girl’s coach mentioned his players were challenged by playing a physically stronger team, which in turn taught them to play at a quicker pace. One participant mentioned his players noticed the dedication the girls put into practice. According to him, the players realized how much dedication was required to progress in the sport.

We had the co-ed practice and I think, if anything, they probably noticed the heart and intensity the girls in our organization put into it. . . . Specially in practice, girls do things a lot differently, so they might have seen what it takes to compete at their level. They see what it’s like. (C5)

Coaches reported their players were not reluctant to practice with the other gender. In his interview, the girl’s coach described his players’ reaction as “natural”.

It seems like interacting with the opposite gender is more natural, it’s not a problem. . . . For them it’s just what I have to do to go to the next level. . . . That’s what I saw anyway. The last time we scrimmaged with the guys there wasn’t a negative reaction like “Oh, again?” or “No”, it was more like “OK, how come we haven’t done it yet?” (C6)
This result was supported by statements from the pre and post intervention forms. The boys’ coaches mentioned their players were looking forward to doing the activity and they enjoyed practicing with the girls.

The boys look at practicing with the girls as more of a challenge because the girls are stronger and faster. The boys feel like they can compete with the older girls. . . (C2)

The team had been looking forward to the [co-ed practice] activity for weeks and appeared to enjoy it. The boys certainly had respect for opposite sex after scrimmage. (C1)

The theme athlete respect for other gender encompassed improved respect for the opposite gender. The coaches of boys’ teams gave examples of situations where they observed a greater respect towards girls. One coach mentioned his players got “a lesson in humility” (C2) as they realized the girls were better than them. Another coach described a situation where, while getting competitive, boys and girls would help each other up when they bumped into each other.

I think the players learned to respect the opposite gender. I think that is something wasn’t there before, because as they are growing up they think “Oh… girls” (negative tone), that kind of thing. Now they are becoming more aware of the opposite gender and having the opportunity to play with them gives them new found respect. I think it was a very very good activity. . . . In that [activity] there were a couple of moments that I saw they were starting to get competitive. They knocked into each other and they would stop and give a hand to help lift the other player up. I thought that was pretty good. It went both ways. They were not shy (laughter). I thought “Wow, very interesting.” (C1)

The theme athlete confidence described how athletes gained confidence from the activities. Most of the tags in this theme were associated to the girls’ coach (C6), which therefore were related to empowering women. According to the girls’ coach, his players realized they were better than some of the boys and felt confident to teach the boys how to do

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10 The only exception was a meaning unit from the soccer coach. He mentioned the visit for the CIS athlete increased his players’ confidence level. That was especially true for one player who was considered “problem child”. According to the coach, after the activity the player asked questions about education, mentioned he would make the intercity team, and believed he would move ahead with soccer.
the drills. He also noticed that the visit from CIS players made them believe they could achieve higher academic and athletic standards.

One of the things that I noticed was that some of the girls were actually explaining to the boys how things were done. . . . For the girls it’s a challenge to play against someone that stronger than you. At the same time they realize “Actually, I know more than him”, so it’s a good thing. I noticed that when that happened the boys weren’t taking it negative either. I think that overall it was a good thing for them individually and as a team. (C6)

I think the visit from the McGill girls helped my players academically and sports wise. . . . Now they are saying “Wow, I can do that.” I can see that the girls talk about wanting to go to the next level. . . . My players see they can go to the next level. They don’t have to stop at CEGEP and they can still play in university. . . . After the activity with the McGill players I hear them talk about the future. . . . It’s funny because one of the girls made a comment when we were watching a [CIS] game, she said: “I can see myself doing that.” (C6)

**Team cohesion**

This theme encompassed concrete and observable behaviors that indicated better team cohesion. All coaches mentioned the *healthy pre-game meal* promoted team cohesion.

According to the coaches, during the activity, the players had a chance to interact, get to know each other better (e.g., what one eats or doesn’t eat), and bond. Finally, the interaction between players also helped to break the language barrier between French and English speaking players.

The nutrition activity definitely helped the team. Just going into the grocery store early in the season was a good bonding activity. . . . Individually, when we were walking to the grocery store, I think a couple of the kids were talking and bonding. That was really early on in the season, a lot of the kids haven’t played together yet, because a couple of kids came from different organizations. That was definitely really good. (C4)

Socially, the activities we did as a team was an outside of practice bonding experience for some of these guys. . . . There really isn’t much bonding outside of basketball practice and sticking around before or after practice. So it definitely brought in some bonding issues with these guys. I’ve been trying to do more outside of practice, but it hasn’t worked out. In a way, it’s been really beneficial for our team to have activities outside of practice. (C5)
These results were supported by the pre and post intervention forms where the participants noted increased team cohesion after both healthy pre-game meal and the co-ed practice.

Since the [co-ed practice] activity the team is more united. (C3)

Since the [healthy pre-game meal] activity one unique thing is that [the players] are closer to each other. (C3)

One coach mentioned that the co-ed practice was a good bonding experience because his team was losing to the girls’ team. According to him, going through adversity together brought the team closer.

I think the co-ed practice benefitted the team as a whole. It is more of a team bonding thing. When you are getting beaten 1 x 0 by a girls’ team that is your own age, even though they are intercity, people start looking around a little: “Pick up your game a little there” (laughing). I think that is the key effect. When you are doing something together, and it’s something you haven’t done before, it brings the team together. It’s a new experience. (C1)

In addition, a couple of participants thought the project improved the relationship between the coaches. According to the coaches, the novelty of the activities allowed the coaches to build similar coaching perspectives. The hoops for health fundraiser also allowed the coaches to interact while watching their players run the basketball clinic.

I enjoyed the activities. It’s something different, not only for the players but for the coaches as well. It helps to bring the coaches closer together. . . . When we have activities like this it lets you integrate your view and learn to work together. It’s not only for the players it’s also for the coaches. As you do activities that you don’t normally do, you tend to develop the same perspective. (C1)

I think the fundraiser activity helped the relationship between the coaches. Just getting them together on a Saturday, where we are just standing around watching our kids. It allows you to communicate what is going on. . . . It helped just getting the coaches together. (C4)
Coach learning

This theme described what the coaches learned from the project. Three participants said they gained coaching knowledge from the activities. Participants felt the project made them better prepared to promote life skills through sports. Coaches said they would now add some of the activities to their coaching repertoire.

As a coach I feel better prepared to use the soccer environment to promote different skills. (C1)

I think I gained from the project as a coach. The health activity is definitely something I will add. (C5)

I think I gained from this project because when it comes to health or nutrition, I know what to do next year. I can do it again since I learned. The kids will benefit from it. I would do it two or three times next year. . . (C3)

Finally, participants also mentioned the project helped them better understand their players.

[The project] has helped me deal with the kids at a non coaching level. More of a life level, . . . This has helped me deal with them, answer their question, and see a different perspective of the child that I had never saw before. . . (C2)

Project Perceptions

The higher-order category project perceptions included 112 meaning units and represented 36% of the total data base. This category was discussed the most and described participants’ opinions about the project and the activities; it included athlete personal development, enjoyment, and coaches’ perception of the UN MDGs. Seventeen lower-order themes emerged in this category. Four of these themes will be discussed next: project acceptance from coach, re-implementing the activities, project improvement / recommendations, and perceptions of UN MDGs.
Project acceptance from coach

This theme encompassed how participants thought the project was beneficial to the players, teams, coaches, and their association. It included coaches’ perceptions of the overall project and particular activities. All coaches agreed that the project was successful in providing positive experiences to the youth players.

I think we did benefit. At times it was difficult to deal with because of time constraints with gym time, and schedules are so volatile. I’m glad we got through it. I thought it was great. I thought we benefited tremendously. (C4)

I’m happy that you’re around, this was a good program. I would like to bring this into next year and make it part of our team. (C6)

These results were confirmed in the pre and post intervention forms. Participants replied positively when asked if they thought the activities were effective.

Yes, it teaches them to help others, discipline with nutrition, difference between the genders and awareness of other people. (C2)

Players benefitted from exposure to new scenarios/situations, learning situations. (C1)

The participants thought the CIS athletes did a good job working with the youth players. According to the coaches they were charismatic and ran good technical drills.

I think the education one this year was good. It was our first scheduled practice at the artificial field. None of the players had ever played there before, so it was great. It was a brand new setting and you had the captain of the McGill soccer team there. It was really special for them. (C1)

Some of the drills the McGill players did were good, working on jump shots, which my guys needed to work on. I can’t remember what another drill was, but he was pretty good with my guys. I even saw him with the mini guys and he was pretty good there too. (C5)

Notes from the trained research assistants (RAs) reiterated the results found in the interviews. One RA observed that the soccer CIS athlete built a welcoming environment by using a positive approach: he asked the youth players if they wanted to do the drill instead of
telling them they had to do it. This athlete used the stretching period to discuss the importance of education in his athletic career.

The McGill athlete first introduced himself, then he explained he would like to do a couple of the fun drills they do at McGill. He emphasized they were fun. He mentioned that this practice was done before games to prepare the players without making them tired. He made a very comfortable environment for the youth athletes by asking rather than telling them what to do. The team felt more at ease and this created a welcoming and fun environment with less stress and anxiety. . . . After the activity the CIS athlete sat all the players in a circle to stretch. He used the stretching time to talk about education. He talked about how education was important and how it helped him in soccer. He mentioned how his scholarship has been because of soccer and having good grades. How both helped each other out but especially how education has helped his soccer career.

The coaches thought the healthy pre-game meal was effective for teaching the children how to eat healthy. They liked the fact that the children had autonomy to buy their foods. A couple of participants thought this was the best activity in the study.

The nutrition activity was the best. It’s all about educating, letting them know what is there and what’s available. It was like you were giving a lesson to those kids, and a lot of them soaked it in. A lot of them were reading the labels and the questions were coming out, so that’s good. (C2)

The healthy meal activity was pretty good, I liked that one. You put them out there and let them do what they have to do. It was good on them because they made decisions as a team, and later on you showed the better stuff they could have gotten and replaced it. That one was pretty good, spot on. (C5)

In general, the coaches thought these benefits would impact the youth players outside of the sporting environment.

The nutrition activity was really good. We ended up winning the game we played right after the activity, and we absolutely steamed roll the team. I’ve had players that had cramped up, and there were no issues of that. . . . I think the nutrition activity definitely helped them individually. Not even just with sport, but later on I think they will be able to carry on at least a point or two. . . . (C4)

A description of the healthy pre-game meal done by an RA illustrated the procedures used in this activity. In the notes, the RA described that the youth athletes worked together to
achieve a consensus on what foods to purchase. The RA also noted the youth athletes were excited and seemed to enjoy the activity.

During the healthy pre-game meal intervention the youth athletes received a brief explanation of what a healthy pre-game meal consisted of. They were also shown several methods on how to compare foods and make a decision on the healthiest choices. At the store, the team worked as a group to choose the food for the meal. The athletes analyzed the nutrition facts of the products that they were thinking of buying and tried to make the healthiest decisions. No one player played a leadership role, instead each player seemed to give an opinion and then the team would decide what to buy. By the time the team decided on all the food that would be bought they had a variety of food from all four food groups. The atmosphere during the intervention was a fairly positive one. The coach was very calm and dealt with his athletes in a relaxed way. The athletes were very excited about the intervention.

The coaches also agreed the youth players enjoyed the *hoops for health fundraiser*. In particular, they enjoyed running the basketball clinic for the children in the community center.

[*The hoops for health fundraiser*] was good too. The good thing was that the kids were able to participate. They felt they were a part of the whole activity with the other kids [from the community center]. That was good. [This activity] brought awareness to what can happen when you are not active. They saw the situation and are more aware of it. (C2)

The kids that were at the donation activity seemed to have enjoyed it a lot. I thought our kids interacted pretty well with them. (C4)

Similar observations were made by an RA who observed that the youth athletes were enjoying themselves and giving positive feedback to the children from the community center.

The Brookwood players spent some time interacting, playing with and helping the youth from the community to play basketball. Both the Brookwood players and the children from the community were hesitant and shy at first, however as the intervention continued the atmosphere changed drastically. As everyone got to know each other and became more comfortable, they began to have fun. Everyone was smiling and cheering on others, high fives were given out, words of praise were used and everyone appeared to be enjoying the experience. Even after the intervention had officially ended, several players from Brookwood continued to play with the community members whose parents had not yet arrived to pick them up. The Brookwood players seemed to get a lot of satisfaction out of giving back to the community which was evident from the smiles on their faces and the enthusiasm
demonstrated while giving tips and help to the young community members. The children from the community appeared to really appreciate the equipment that was donated and also the time and attention that the Brookwood players were giving them.

Despite the positive feedback at the end of the study, a few coaches were not welcoming of the project at first. One coach in particular mentioned he was concerned about losing practice time. He only believed it was worth participating in the project once he noticed the positive outcomes on his youth players.

Honestly, when we first started doing this I didn’t think it was worth the time, worth the effort, and you know, you are going to be taking away from my practice time. I was sort of against it in the beginning, but as we did the different activities and the questions and the dialog started to emerge, I saw that this is so helpful and so beneficial to the kids, that it’s not about me, it’s truly about them. (C2)

Entries from the reflective journal verify this behavioral change. Journal entries throughout the entire project indicated that some coaches were hesitant to implement the activities early in the study, as supported by the high number of rescheduled activities. Participants asked to reschedule eight out of the 21 activities, and these cancelations occurred mostly within one week of the activity. The frequency of rescheduled activities was much less towards the end of the project. Only two activities were rescheduled after the second activity was implemented. As the season progressed coaches were more supportive of the activities, putting additional effort for their players to participate. Comments from the journal at various times of the season support this conclusion.

Pre-season workshop:

The workshop went very well. . . . The coaches seemed interested in the activities. . . . All coaches participated actively in the meeting. . . . Overall the meeting went very well and the coaches seemed to have understood the purpose and importance of the study.
Middle of the regular season:

Tonight I spoke to C2. I asked him about his practicing schedule so I could set a date for an activity. The coach said he would have games for the next 3 weeks. Later I found out from the director of the association that wasn’t the case.

Tonight we were supposed to have the co-ed practice but the coaches cancelled because of a tournament in four days. I was able to talk to only one coach who didn’t understand why the activities were cancelled. He thought the co-ed practice could help teams prepare for the tournament.

End of season:

Tonight C5 told his players about the last part of the hoops for health fundraiser. He explained how, when, and where the donation would take place. A few players wanted to go but couldn’t make it to the location. The coach offered to give rides to everyone.

Re-implementing the activities

This theme described the participants’ intentions to implement the activities used in this study with their future teams. All participants said they would re-implement the activities. One participant would do the activity again because he thought the players enjoyed them.

I would for sure do these activities again, 100%. I see the player’s reactions and they were positive. We would do it again. I’m looking for their reaction more than anything. . . . The [players’] reactions were positive, so yes. Why not? Let’s do it again. (C3)

There are things I would take out of the project. The nutrition activity is something I’m definitely going to use with my summer team. When we are on the road I will bring them to a grocery store and see the decisions that they make there. (C4)

The coaches from the boys’ and girls’ teams had already gotten together and replicated the co-ed practice three times by the time the interviews were held. They were planning a fourth practice the week following the interviews. One coach mentioned he would like to do this activity again more often.
After the co-ed activity we have scrimmaged against the girls three times so far. They would beat us every single time. (C3)

I’m going to do the co-ed practice again this Thursday. It’s going to be a scrimmage and I’m hoping it’s going to be longer than 30-40 minutes. (C6)

I think the co-ed activity was good, but personally I would do it more often, a lot more. So we could learn more about each other. It’s always a question of the coaches on the other side have to be on the same page about what we do. It always comes down to the coaches on the other side. Is he willing to do it? Because kids will always follow, they’ll do what you want them to do, it’s not a problem. (C3)

Finally, one participant shared his plans of expanding these activities to all teams in the association the following year:

I’m already planning on doing some activities next year, and not just with my team, with the others teams, with the whole Brookwood program. It’s going to be a plus. For example, for me it’s important boys working with girls. I think it’s going to help the girls and the boys at the same time. It will help them see that it’s not because she’s a girl that she can’t play basketball. These are the things I want to do next year. More things, include every team, talk about the nutrition. (C6)

**Project improvement / recommendations**

Most meaning units in this theme addressed the activities separately (i.e., *practice with CIS athlete*, *co-ed practice*, *healthy pre-game meal*, or *hoops for health fundraiser*). One coach thought the *practice with CIS athlete* could have a greater impact on the children if done at the University’s training facility. Another coach suggested this activity should be held during an entire practice instead of just 45min. One participant highlighted the importance of the CIS player contacting the youth coach prior to the activity to ensure he/she runs drills appropriate to the players’ skill level. Others suggested that more CIS players, and even the coaching staff, should attend the practice with the youth players.

The practice with the CIS athlete was good. I would suggest probably holding the entire practice, because the things that they said to the players, some tips they gave them, my players are doing. . . . If they have that much of an influence in them, get them to do the whole practice. (C2)
The activity with the McGill players was good, but I would like to have more players. . . . The presence of the coach and five or six players makes a big difference. The kids will see it’s more serious. (C3)

Participants recommended more interaction between the coaches in the co-ed practice. One coach thought it would be important to have the coaches from both teams in the same gym to ensure discipline. Other participants believed coaches needed to get together prior to the activity to plan drills. The soccer coach suggested a third party (someone other than the coaches from the participating teams) run this practice to avoid disputes between the coaches.

One idea might be to integrate one of the technical directors of the associations and have them run the practice. The intercity coaches, sometimes, they have their own way of specifically dealing with their team, which doesn’t really work for the [house league] guys. . . . It might be an idea to have somebody neutral run it. . . (C1)

The only thing I can think of to improve the co-ed practice is having the coaches involved. They get together before the practice and come up with a schedule of things to do based on what they want to accomplish during that practice. (C5)

The participants seemed pleased with the healthy pre-game meal. Four coaches thought the activity did not need improvement. Two coaches recommended that the children should be allowed to cook. Most teams ate their meals at the association, where there were no resources to cook. One coach invited his players and the McGill research team to his home, where the players cooked eggs and toast. This coach believed this was beneficial for the players and recommended other teams did it.

I don’t think I would change anything in the nutrition activity. Actually, I would try to make the kids cook a bit more. Just let them get involved and learn and go ahead and do whatever. I don’t think every team did it like we did, I know some of the teams came to the association and ate. I think just that is a big plus, just cooking made a big difference. Even if it’s wasn’t at my house, but going somewhere that you can get them involved. Cook what you just bought. It’s healthy. That helps a lot. (C3)

The only improvement I can suggest for the nutrition activity is related to the limitations of what the players could buy. They couldn’t buy something you need to
cook, because obviously, there’s no microwave in the room where we met (laugher). If you have the opportunity to do it twice, you could do a brunch or a lunch where you don’t really have to cook. Then another one where you try showing them what they should you be eating that is cooked. That’s an idea for next year. (C6)

The recommendations for the hoops for health fundraiser were mostly out of the control of the researcher: raising more money, having more children from the community center attend, and having a better venue. One coach, however, suggested more children from each team should participate.

For the donation, the only thing I would do differently is probably get more players from each team to represent. Like two more players per team, because that is more awareness you bring to the kids. Now, down the line, they’ll help somebody else. So probably bring a little more kids and get them involved in the donation. You were lucky to get one kid from the juvenile team. I could’ve got three or four teams in my team. I got 2 no problem, but I could’ve got more if I wanted. . . . I would say three or four per team would be good, because it only helps them down the line. (C2)

Perceptions of UN MDGs

This theme encompassed participants’ opinions towards the UN MDGs after their experience in this project. All coaches mentioned they had had a positive exposure to the UN MDGs. One coach elaborated on this theme:

I think using sports to achieve the UN goals is a very good idea. The implementation has to be customized to each situation. You can’t use the same approach you use in Canada to Uganda, for example. It would be a very different approach, but the goals are the same. I think it’s worth implementing them in a first world country. As we went through the activities, at least the ones we did were definitely worth it. (C1)

Summary

The purpose of this study was to assess coaches’ perceptions of activities that were created to address three UN MDG’s (health, education, and empowering women).

Participants included six youth sport coaches of boys’ and girls’ teams in house and intercity leagues. Data was collected using four methods: pre and post intervention forms, research assistants’ field notes, a reflective journal kept by the research coordinator, and semi-
structured interviews. The interviews were the primary data source. Four categories described the participants, their teams, and their perceptions of the activities: *team characteristics, coach background and philosophy, project outcomes, and project perceptions*. In addition, they revealed the impact of the activities on their athletes, their team, and the participants.

*Team characteristics* described the make-up of the teams in this study. Prior to our study only a small number of players in each team were involved in community activities. Most participants thought their teams had good cohesion and were among the most talented teams they had coached. A few coaches thought their players were not as mature as players they had in the past.

*Coach background and philosophy* explained the participants’ coaching experiences, their reasons for coaching, and their awareness of the UN MDGs prior to the study. The coaches’ had between 3 and 20 years of experience coaching from novice to triple letter levels. Participants mentioned their parents or former coaches played an important role in getting them involved in coaching. Only one participant had some knowledge of the UN MDGs prior to the study.

*Project outcomes* described objective and observable changes in behaviors and attitudes that were associated with the activities. Coaches noticed their players talking about healthy eating, asking questions about it, and even giving suggestions to their peers after the *healthy pre-game meal*. Coaches noticed that after the *practice with the CIS athlete*, their players had a greater interest in pursuing higher education. More specifically, coaches noticed increased dedication to homework and better management of school and practice schedules. Coaches reported their players were not reluctant to practice with the other gender
after the *co-ed practice*. The coaches of boys’ teams observed greater respect from their players towards girls. The girls’ coach noticed increased confidence among his players. In particular, he observed that the girls felt comfortable explaining the drill to the boys. He also noticed that after the *practice with the CIS athlete* his players believed they could eventually play basketball at University.

In addition to the behavioral changes mentioned above, all coaches mentioned the *healthy pre-game meal* promoted team cohesion. During the activity the players had a chance to interact and get to know each other better. The *co-ed practice* was also a good bonding experience. According to a coach, going through adversity brought the team closer together.

*Project perceptions* described participants’ opinions about the project and the activities. All coaches agreed the project was successful in providing positive experiences to the youth players. They agreed the activities taught children the importance of health, healthy nutrition, education, and respect for others. Additionally, they helped build the self-confidence of the participants and provided them important life experiences. Finally, all participants thought their players enjoyed the activities.

Participants made recommendations concerning the overall project and individual activities. One coach recommended assessing the youth athletes after each activity. Coaches also suggested the *practice with CIS athlete* take place at the University’s training facility, and include more CIS athletes and even the coaching staff. They recommended more interaction between the coaches in the *co-ed practice*. The recommendations for the * hoops for health fundraiser* included bringing more children from each team to the donation event. The participants seemed pleased with the *healthy pre-game meal*. 
Although the feedback was all positive at the end of the study, a few coaches were less enthusiastic and welcoming of the project at first. However, as they started noticing the positive outcomes of the study, they showed increased commitment, dedication, and enthusiasm towards the project. At the end, all participants said they would re-implement the activities this year and in future years.
CHAPTER 5

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate coaches’ perceptions of activities that were created to address the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (UN MDG) of health, education, and empowering women. Activities were created through collaborative effort of the McGill research team and six youth sport coaches. This study examined youth coaches’ perceptions of the activities and their impact on their teams, athletes, and themselves. Results from this study will be compared to scientific publications in coaching science, youth coaching, and positive youth development (PYD). The following chapter will be divided into three sections: UN MDGs, PYD, and Coaching Science.

UN MDGs

From 2002 to 2005, the UN assembled an inter-agency task force to review activities involving sport within the UN framework. This task force felt that sport had many positive inherent values such as fair play, co-operation, and sharing, and could promote life skills such as resiliency, self-esteem, respect, and connection with others (UN, 2005). Despite this task force making a number of recommendations on how to address the UN MDGs through sport, the UN felt their recommendations were not being utilized by sport programs and coaches. As a result, in 2006, the UN gathered a number of experts to develop ideas to increase the impact of the UN MDGs in sport and coach education programs. This expert panel workshop described how local, regional, national, and international initiatives must work together to meet the UN MDGs through sport (UN, 2006a). The expert panel workshop and the inter-agency task force recommended that theoretical models should be used to guide sport-related activities, that new action strategies should be developed to address the UN
MDGs and ensure target audiences were reached, and that pilot studies should be carried out to address the UN MDGs (UN, 2005, 2006a). The current project was a first step in fulfilling some of the recommendations forwarded by the UN inter-agency task force and the expert panel.

The current project successfully fulfilled the requirement for a theoretical model that guided activities that addressed the UN MDGs through sport. This project used the ASPM (Fraser-Thomas, Côté, & Deakin, 2005), which combined PYD frameworks into a sport participation model. The model allowed researchers to relate the UN MDGs to life skills associated to PYD and provided a framework on how to promote these life skills through sport. The successful use of the ASPM model has the potential to shorten the gap between coach practical training and education tools for working with the UN MDGs. Another recommendation was to seek innovative ways of addressing the UN MDGs through sport. In this study, the participants and the research team created four specific action strategies that addressed three UN MDGs of health, education, and empowering women. The activities created in this study provided practical examples that showed coaches how to promote the UN MDGs through sport.

This study also ensured the activities reached the target populations by using the participatory research (PR) approach. The use of PR in the practical stage of Caron and Spink’s (1993) workshop protocol allowed community members to participate in the research process by creating the activities, and ensured the activities were well-adapted to their culture and that the target population was reached. Finally, this study also complied with the recommendation to conduct pilot studies to address the UN MDGs through sport. The pilot
study done in this project provided a good understanding of the challenges in developing and implementing action strategies in youth sport.

To the best of our knowledge, the current study was the first to develop and implement action strategies that addressed three of the UN MDGs. To date, we are aware of only one study that has examined citizenship and the UN MDGs in youth sport (see Boon & Gilbert, in press). Boon and Gilbert conducted an exploratory study where they interviewed youth soccer coaches from Central California to identify ways the UN MDGs could be addressed in sport. Interestingly, Boon and Gilbert’s participants suggested activities similar to the ones created in this study. For example, coaches said they brought healthy snacks to their practices, they regularly organized co-ed scrimmages, and held a soccer ‘shoot-out-a-thon’ to raise money for donation. Similarities between these activities and the ones created in this study suggest there may be consistencies on the ways UN MDGs should be addressed in North American youth sport.

In sum, the current season long intervention program used the ASPM to guide the use of sport-related activities designed to address the UN MDGs and reach the targeted population. The PR approach allowed participants to get involved in creating the activities and ensured they were well-adapted to the community. The ASPM used principles of PYD to ensure the activities took place in a positive environment that fostered positive experiences. According to the participants, the activities were effective in promoting the UN MDGs, citizenship, and other life skills, which will be discussed in the next section.

PYD

PYD is a philosophical framework that focuses on the development of youth’s talents, strengths, interests, and potentials (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2004).
A vast amount of scientific studies have been published using PYD, especially in the fields of education and child development. Five outcomes are known to accrue from a successfully implemented PYD program and have been widely used as indicators of PYD, namely, competence, confidence, connection, caring or compassion, and character (Lerner, Fisher, & Weinberg, 2000). In addition to the five C’s, the National Research Council and Institute of Medicine (NRCIOM, 2002) and Benson (1997) published guidelines that would help community programs and adult role models achieve the PYD principles. The current study offers empirical support to the PYD literature, particularly in sport. The activities implemented in this season long project encouraged positive behaviors such as going to school, eating healthy, respecting others, and helping children in the community.

Results from the current study found support for the outcome of the five C’s. Higher competence was observed in the social, cognitive, and academic domains. Youth coaches thought their athletes learned interpersonal skills, cognitive abilities (e.g., decision making), and seemed more interested in school. Increased confidence was observed with youth athletes’ now believing they could play their sport at the varsity level. Connection was built through positive bonds with their peers and coaches. Caring and compassion was seen at the hoops for health fundraiser when youth volunteered with children from their community. Finally, character was observed by the coaches when their athletes showed increased moral values, such as sportsmanship and respect towards women, and responsibility, for example with their schedule. These PYD outcomes were achieved through the sport related activities that were created in this study.

An increasing number of publications have used the PYD approach in sport research (e.g., Holt & Sehn, 2008; Jones, Dunn, Holt, Sullivan, & Bloom, in press; Petitpas,
Petitpas and colleagues found that coaches in two youth sport programs promoted PYD by listening to and building a relationship with their players. This finding is similar to what was observed in the current study, where participants reported an improvement in coach-athlete communication and getting to know their players better. The activities from the current study gave coaches and athletes the opportunity to interact outside of the practice or game environments. This extended interaction allowed them to talk about things other than sports, such as education and the consequences of leading unhealthy lifestyles. Three participants from the current study mentioned in their interviews the importance of coaches serving as mentors to youth athletes. Two of these coaches, the mini’s basketball coach and the girl’s coach, felt their role as coaches required them to be mentors in addition to sport instructors. According to them, youth athletes often approached them looking for advice on school and personal issues. This mentoring provided positive adult role models to youth athletes, which in turn may have assisted building their confidence and character.

In another study that used PYD in sport, Holt and Sehn (2008) compiled scientific publications in PYD and sport science to examine how the context of competitive sports provided opportunities for PYD. The researchers concluded that competitive sports promoted PYD by teaching initiative, teamwork, and social skills. They also found that an overemphasis on winning was a negative aspect attributed to coaches in these contexts. Findings from the current study corroborate Holt and Sehn’s findings. The current project identified improved youth’s teamwork, social skills, and coach-athlete relationship. The current study also observed an emphasis on winning, but only early in the season. The data collected in the interviews and in the research assistants’ field notes indicated that as the
season progressed the coaches switched their emphasis from winning to promoting life skills and character development. Participants mentioned this behavioral change happened once they observed the impact of the activities on their youth athletes. Therefore, these findings suggest that implementing activities guided towards youth development may be key for youth coaches to emphasize the promotion of life skills and character development in youth sport.

In another study that investigated PYD in sport, Zarrett and colleagues (2008) used longitudinal data collected from 5th, 6th, and 7th grade students to examine the relation between adolescents’ sport participation, their well-being, and PYD. Their results suggested that sport was a predictor of PYD only when participation was intense or lasted more than one year. The authors defined intense participation as above average hours involved in sport. Since 2007, Health Canada has recommended that youth participate in physical activity at least 90 minutes a day, but in 2010 less than half of Canadian youth met this requirement (Health Canada, 2007, 2010). Participation of the youth athletes in this study may be considered intense because they engaged in practices and games an average of 105 minutes per day four days a week. Given this study’s design the results cannot verify that participation intensity influenced PYD; all youth athletes were more physically active than the average population. Still, results can support Zarrett and colleagues’ findings since the study used intense participation sport programs to promote indicators of PYD and foster a positive and supportive environment. These findings offer additional support to the use of PYD in sport.

Jones and colleagues (in press) examined the validity of the five C’s model of PYD in sport. The authors administered a PYD questionnaire to youth in a summer sport camp, and
used confirmatory factor analysis to test whether PYD could be represented by five different constructs (the five C’s). Researchers found that, in their population, PYD was better represented by only two constructs, which Jones and colleagues called pro-social values and competence/confidence. Even though the current study found behavioral examples of increased five C’s, the observations could fit the description of other C’s. For example, the increased positive bond observed between teammates was interpreted as increased connection, but could also be interpreted as increased caring and compassion. Similarly, higher competence was seen in the social, cognitive, and academic domains, but higher social competence is closely related to connection and academic competence is closely related to confidence. Therefore, further investigation of the data collected in this study may provide support to the two factor PYD indicators suggested by Jones and colleagues. This ambiguity of the five C’s may be due to conceptual overlap between these constructs (Jone et al., in press). However, this discussion is beyond the purpose of this study and more research is needed to test how sport promotes PYD (Jones et al., in press). Thus, this study continued to use the five C’s model as it has been traditionally used in PYD literature.

In addition to PYD, some research results have investigated youths’ character development through sport (e.g., Camiré & Trudel, 2010; Gould & Carson, 2008; Lacroix, Camiré, & Trudel, 2008). For example, Camiré and Trudel interviewed 20 high school students about their perceptions of the development of social and moral values through sport. Among their results, researchers found that high school sport was often youths’ first opportunity to learn social values (e.g., teamwork), but most participants reported not learning moral values (e.g., honesty, respect). In addition, researchers noticed that participants were confused when asked about character building and had different
interpretations to the concepts of social and moral values. The authors recommended it would be more viable to work with more specific concepts to avoid confusion. Following their recommendations, the current study focused on three specific concepts, which were related to the UN MDGs: health, education, and empowering women. Simplifying these goals was essential to ensuring the activities focused on promoting these life skills and that the athletes understood the theme in each activity. The use of specific concepts also facilitated the talks after the activities. This study showed that the UN MDGs’s framework provided an adequate set of specific concepts that may facilitate the promotion of citizenship and character development in sport.

Lacroix and colleagues (2008) focused their research on coaches’ perceptions of youth development through sport. They interviewed 16 high school coaches to investigate how they promoted youth development through school sport. Researchers found that coaches agreed school sports were suitable environments to promote youth development, help support academic success and school integration, promote health, and an active lifestyle. However, coaches found it difficult to explain how they promoted these assets in sport and many believed this development occurred automatically through simple participation (Lacroix et al., 2008). These observations made the researchers highlight the importance of youth development material being incorporated into coach education programs and the importance of seeking ways of making developmental opportunities more attractive for coaches. In the current study, participants also believed sport was a suitable environment to promote education and health. In addition, coaches thought sport could empower individuals, especially women. Similar to Lacroix and colleagues’ study, most coaches in the current study had not implemented activities to promote youth development prior to this study. The
use of PR approach in the current study helped researchers make youth development strategies more attractive to coaches by including them in building the activities. The inclusion of coaches and the practical experience implementing the activities made coaches more aware of the possibility of using sport to promote youth development. During the interviews participants mentioned they were more aware of their role in youth development and intended to replicate the activities on the following year. These results stress the importance of youth development material and practical opportunities being addressed in coach education programs. Findings related to coach education will be discussed in more in depth in the next section.

**Coaching Science**

Coaching science is comprised of fields such as sport psychology, sport pedagogy, and sport medicine, and is used to understand themes within sport and coaching (Haag, 1994). An analysis of published articles in the field of coaching science indicated the use of qualitative data collection methods, such as interviews, increased considerably between 1998 and 2001; however, intervention and multi-method studies were still rare (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004). The current study was intervention based and used qualitative methods. As suggested by Trudel, Gilbert, and Tochon (2001), the qualitative methodology allowed the researchers to adequately investigate coaches’ thoughts and characteristics, and provided a more in-depth and ecologically valid description of the topic. This study also used a multiple methods design. In addition to these methodological implications, the current study added to the literature in coach education and youth coaching.

Coach education and training programs are essential for the future of quality coaching practices (Lyle, 2002; Gilbert & Trudel, 2004). Coach education has become a prominent
research topic in the field of coaching science, where several researchers have investigated how coaches acquired knowledge (Bloom, Durand-Bush, Schinke, & Salmela, 1998; Sullivan & Gee, 2008; Trudel & Gilbert, 2006; Werthner & Trudel, 2006). Coach education programs involve learning directed by others and focus on the acquisition of units of knowledge (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006; Werthner & Trudel, 2006). Experience is described as an unmediated or internal learning situation where the learner gains experience through problem solving situations or reflective processes (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006; Werthner & Trudel, 2006).

The current study provided these opportunities to acquire knowledge by using a four stage workshop protocol developed by Carron and Spink (1993). In the introductory phase the researcher explained the rationale for the program and its benefits. At the conceptual stage the researcher presented the coaches with the conceptual framework of the study. These two stages fit the definition of a coach education program. They were mediated by the research coordinator, who presented concepts and shared knowledge about the UN MDGs, their relevance for global and community development, and how sport could contribute to them. In addition, the research coordinator acted as an instructor educating the participants on the ASPM model, the principles of PYD, and their relation to sport. Although this program does not qualify as a large-scale certification program such as the NCCP, it still fits the description of a coach education program presented by Trudel and Gilbert (2006) and Werthner and Trudel (2006).

The practical stage consisted of creating activities that addressed the UN MDGs. This fits the definition of learning through problem-solving experience. It was an unmediated process, where coaches were given autonomy to develop strategies based on their previous experience and knowledge; the research coordinator acted as a facilitator to this process.
Finally, at the intervention stage coaches implemented the activities with the youth players. This stage allowed reflective learning by giving coaches the opportunity to reconsider their preconceptions about the importance of promoting life skills through sport. According to Werthner and Trudel (2006), different types of learning situations will happen simultaneously. Thus, it is likely that reflective learning (attributed to the intervention stage) also happened during the other stages of the workshop and that learning through problem-solving (attributed to the practical stage) also happened during the intervention stage.

In sum, the participants in the current study were able to develop four strategies that successfully addressed three of the UN MDGs by using the workshop protocol. These results suggest that Carron and Spink’s (1993) workshop protocol was effective in educating coaches on the UN MDGs and the principals of PYD, and it was also effective on developing and implementing sport-related activities that met the goals of this study. There has been other intervention studies that have successfully used this workshop protocol in exercise and sport (e.g., Carron & Spink, 1993; Carron, Spink, & Prapavessis, 1997; Newin, Bloom, & Loughead, 2008).

Carron and colleagues (1997) implemented Carron and Spink’s (1993) workshop protocol with elite male soccer coaches and fitness class instructors to increase cohesion and adherence levels among the team or group. Results showed increased cohesion and adherence levels among the members of the fitness group, but no differences were found between the sport teams (Carron et al., 1997). In the current study, youth sport coaches reported greater confidence delivering the activities and increased cohesion among players. The difference concerning sport teams cohesion levels may be attributed to the participants assessed in each study. Caron and colleagues assessed athletes. They found no differences
because coaches from both the experimental and control groups implemented some team building activity. In contrast, researchers in the current study assessed coaches’ thought and perceptions. Coaches reported the workshop increased their confidence and satisfaction delivering the activities because it gave them theoretical and conceptual frameworks that guided their interventions. Similar findings were observed in Newin et al.’s (2008) intervention study that used Carron and Spink’s (1993) framework.

Newin and colleagues (2008) implemented the workshop protocol with eight youth ice hockey coaches to promote team building among their players. They assessed coaches’ perceptions of the effectiveness of the team building intervention program. Newin and colleagues found that coaches communicated better with their athletes and gave more positive feedback after participating in the workshop. All their coaches said they would participate in the workshop if it was offered again; they were initially anxious about their involvement in the workshop, but were enthusiastic about it once the activities started (Newin et al., 2008). In the current study, participants also reported improved communication with their athletes, they mentioned becoming enthusiastic about the program after leading the activities, and they would do the activities again the following year. In addition, the coaches said they felt better prepared to promote life skills through sport. The coaches’ behaviors observed in the current study were similar to the ideal behaviors of youth sport coaches identified in other studies (e.g., Smith & Smoll, 2002a, 2002b; Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1979).

Smith and Smoll (2002a, 2002b) created the coach effectiveness training (CET) program to teach coaches how to promote fun, life skills, sport skills, and increase self-esteem among youth athletes. The CET workshop follows five coaching principles, which are
closely related to the principles of PYD. These include using reinforcement and encouragement, establishing norms that promote help and support, and empowering youth by involving them in the decision-making processes (Catalano et al., 2004; Smith et al., 1979). The coaches in the current study were oriented to the principles of PYD and CET, and the results indicated they followed these principles and guidelines. First, during the activities coaches focused on mastering skills instead of beating opponents. This was evident in the interviews when the coaches reported changing their focus from winning to promoting sport and life skills. Second, coaches encouraged their players and reinforced positive behaviors. This was observed by some research assistants in their field notes. At first, coaches punished their player’s negative behaviors with sit-ups, push-ups, or running laps. After a few activities, especially during the practice with CIS athlete and the hoops for health fundraiser, the coaches were more supportive, encouraging the players, and giving more positive feedback. Third, participants established clear expectations and positive norms that emphasized helping and supporting one another. For example, the midget boys’ basketball coach set clear expectations regarding punctuality and encouraged the players to be supportive of one another. During his interview he mentioned players would call each other to make sure they were on time and offer rides to make sure no one missed practice. Fourth, coaches included athletes in decision making roles for the team, especially in the healthy pre-game meal. The research coordinator reported in his reflective journal that coaches were surprised with their players’ ability to make decisions, especially the coaches of younger teams. This realization may have helped improve coach-athlete communication. Finally, during the course of the season long intervention project coaches engaged in self-monitoring to focus on positive coaching behaviors. This was evident by the behavioral changes coaches
went through during the program. As predicted by Smith and colleagues (1979), fostering these principles in youth sport settings positively impacted youth’s experience in sport, promoted fun, and increased players’ enjoyment and self-esteem.

These findings indicate that coach education programs can positively impact coaches’ behaviors and in turn affect youth’s experiences in sport. Effects on youth players include increased fun and enjoyment, a more positive perception of their coaches, and liking of coaches and teammates (Smoll, Smith, Barnett, & Everett, 1993). A more positive perception of coach’s ability to teach and more liking of the coach and teammates can influence team cohesion and athletes’ communication. The participants in the current study emphasized these two outcomes among their athletes. Team cohesion and communication will be discussed more in-depth in an additional section.

Other Outcomes

The focus of the present study was to promote the three UN MDGs of health, education, and empowering women. However, other outcomes were also observed, for example personal growth, leadership, work ethic, enjoyment, team cohesion, and communication. During the interviews the participants emphasized improved team cohesion and communication. Therefore, these outcomes will be discussed more in-depth in this section.

Cohesion has been defined as the tendency of a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of its goals (Carron, Brawley, & Widmeyer, 1998). Coaches have noted that team cohesion was achieved through team building activities (Bloom, Stevens, & Wickwire, 2003; Newin et al., 2008). Ryska and Cooley (1999) described two types of strategies that coaches used in team building activities: one designed to improve social
interaction between the athletes and another designed to clarify task cohesion and role behavior. According to the coaches in the present study the healthy pre-game meal gave the athletes time to learn personal information about each other, when they walked from the association to the grocery store and ate together. In addition coaches in the present study mentioned the co-ed practice was a good team building experience. According to these coaches, going through adversity together brought the athletes closer together.

In the current study all coaches reported an increase in team cohesion and believed it was a result of the season long intervention program. The participants believed the activities encouraged the youth athletes to interact outside of the sporting environment, and allowed them to learn more about each other. All coaches mentioned the healthy pre-game meal was a good team building activity. This activity may have promoted cohesion by requiring youth athletes to work together to choose healthy snacks for the whole team. Similar results were found by Newin and colleagues (2008) when they taught coaches team building activities to their youth ice hockey players. As a result, coaches reported a greater bond between the players and said that players worked better together after the activities (Newin et al., 2008). These findings support the belief that activities that require players to work together to achieve a common goal can promote team cohesion. Another unexpected finding to emerge from the current study was improved communication.

Communication is defined as the process of interpersonal interaction between the member of a group or team that facilitates success and well-being (Vealey, 2007; Yukelson, 2006). In sports, communication affects motivation, team dynamics, and internalization of goals (Yukelson, 2006). Recommendations for improving team communication have included creating opportunities for team members to socialize and promote member
discussions (Eccles & Tenenbaum, 2007). Three types of interactions have been used to describe communication in the team sport setting: coach-team, coach-athlete (and athlete-coach), and athlete-athlete interactions (Yukelson, 2006). In the current study, researchers found results related to coach-athlete (and athlete-coach), and athlete-athlete interactions. According to Yukelson (2006), coaches must take time to get to know their athletes to reduce misunderstandings that can risk the team’s performance. Knowing players’ individual differences can also help coaches plan practices and give feedback during competitions. In the present study, coaches reported that the additional interaction time outside of sports allowed them to get to know their players better, resulting in improved coach-athlete communication.

Regarding athlete-coach communication, Yukelson (2006) noted that athletes seek out their coach to talk about things outside of sport that may be affecting their lives and self-esteem. This point was made earlier in the PYD section and was mentioned by the juvenile women’s basketball coach. The mini boys’ basketball coach also emphasized this type of communication. According to him, the increased dialog between him and his players about topics related to health, education, and empowering women, showed a greater awareness of the topics addressed in this project. This highlights the value of this study for the coaches and the athletes.

Finally, with regards to athlete-athlete communication, Yukelson (2006) states that when athletes have a bonding relationship off the field they are more successful as a team and perform better under pressure situations within a competition. Good communication can help avoid conflicts caused by intercultural misunderstandings when teammates come from different backgrounds (Yukelson, 2006). The teams in the current study were all
multicultural. A difference observed in all teams was the players’ mother tongue. Most players’ mother tongue was English, but every team had players who spoke French as a first language. According to one coach, the increased interaction fostered by the activities in this season long intervention program helped break the language barrier between his players. The coach mentioned his athletes had fun practicing a second language and did it every time they had a chance.

In sum, the increased interaction allowed the youth athletes to learn more about each other and bond. The coaches thought the activities helped improve the team’s cohesion and communication. They thought it allowed them to get to know their players better and made them more open to talking and helping the players. We believe this openness was a result of a positive and encouraging environment the activities intended to build. In addition to fostering health, education, and empowering women, this study was able to foster other positive outcomes that transpired from the interaction between players, and players and coaches.
CHAPTER 6

This chapter will begin with a summary of the current research along with conclusions. Following this, the practical implications of the study, limitations, as well as recommendations for future research will be addressed.

Summary

In 2000, the United Nations (UN) hosted a world summit to set eight goals that addressed key social problems in the world. Today these goals are known as the UN Millennium Development Goals (UN MDGs) (UN, 2006b). Three of these goals appear to be most applicable to Canada: (1) health, (2) education, and (3) empowering women (SDPIWG, 2006). The UN recognized the potential of sport and physical activity as a way to achieve the UN MDGs. In addition, scientific publications have shown how sports can foster life skills and character development in youth athletes (Camiré & Trudel, 2010; Fejgin, 1994; Gould & Carson, 2008; Lacroix, Camiré, & Trudel, 2008; Pate, Pratt, Blair, Haskell, Macera, Bouchard, et al., 1995; Penney, 2001). However, no research has examined the benefits of sport under the framework of the UN goals, or has tried to create sport-related strategies that contribute to achieving these goals. This has left a gap in the understanding of the potential contribution of coach education towards achieving the UN MDGs. Thus, the purpose of this study was to investigate coaches’ perceptions of activities created to address three UN MDG’s (health, education, and empowering women).

Participants were six youth sport (soccer and basketball) coaches from both recreational (house leagues) and competitive (AAA) leagues from two sport associations in Montreal’s West Island. The inter-city division is divided into three levels of competition where AAA is the highest level. House leagues are for everyone and focus on providing fun
and an enjoyable experience through sport. One participant coached U13 boys’ house league soccer. Five participants coached AAA inter-city basketball, four coached boys’ teams (U11, U13, U15, and U17) and one coached a U17 girl’s team. Participants were required to participate in a workshop prior to the beginning of the season. This workshop used Carron and Spink’s (1993) four stage workshop protocol to educate coaches on the principles underlying the project. In the practical stage of the workshop the activities were created in a collaborative effort between the participating coaches and the McGill research team. In the last stage of the workshop the activities were carried out with the youth players by their coaches.

Four activities were created and implemented during this season long intervention program. The *practice with CIS athletes* aimed at promoting education among youth athletes. In this activity CIS athletes from McGill University visited the youth players during a practice and led some drills that were adapted to their abilities. After the drills, the CIS athletes talked to the youth players about the importance of education. The *healthy choice pre-game team meal* was geared towards promoting healthy eating. First, the coaches and the research coordinator talked to the youth players about healthy food choices. Then the players were taken to a grocery store and told to purchase healthy foods for a pre-game team meal. After buying the food the players had a team meal, during which the research coordinator and the coaches used the purchased products as examples to talk about good and bad food choices. The *co-ed practice* aimed at empowering women by showing boys and girls that they were capable of achieving the same outcomes. In this activity boys and girls practiced together with drills that put them in situations where they collaborated with one another regardless of gender. Coaches reinforced the gender equity message with a talk at the end of
the activity. The hoops for health fundraiser aimed at promoting healthy and physically active lifestyles. In this activity the youth players held a shoot-a-thon to raise money to purchase sporting equipment. The sporting equipment was then donated by the youth athletes to a community center that assisted underprivileged youth who do not typically engage in healthy lifestyles.

Four qualitative data collection methods were used in this study: pre and post-intervention forms, semi-structured interviews, research assistants’ field notes, and a reflective journal kept by the research coordinator. Four higher-order categories emerged from analysis of the interviews which helped to assess coaches’ perceptions of the activities: team characteristics, coaching background and philosophy, project outcomes, and project perceptions. Results indicated that despite having between 3 and 20 years of experience coaching several levels of sport, no participants had any exposure to the UN MDGs prior to the study. Despite this, they created activities that addressed the UN goals. After implementing the activities, coaches observed increased awareness of health, education, and empowering women among their youth athletes. In addition, coaches reported increased team cohesion and communication between players, and between coaches and players. The project helped the participants know their players better. Overall, all coaches perceived the project as successful in promoting positive experiences for youth athletes and addressing the UN MDGs. They appreciated using the UN MDGs framework in sport and all mentioned they would re-implement the activities the following year. The findings of the present study supported scientific publications in coaching science, youth coaching, and PYD. It described how coaches could be educated in the principles of youth coaching, positive development,
and the UN goals to develop activities that could effectively promote the UN MDGs through sport.

Conclusions

- After the education activity, coaches said their players showed a greater interest in pursuing higher education and noticed increased dedication to homework.

- After the co-ed activity, coaches saw increased respect for the other gender, learning from the other gender, and increased athlete confidence. The coaches noticed boys and girls would help each other during the activities. The boys learned from watching the dedication the girls put into practice, and the girls gained confidence by playing with physically stronger players.

- After the health activities, coaches saw their players talking about healthy eating, asking questions about healthy foods, and giving suggestions to their peers. Coaches thought the healthy pre-game meal was the best activity in the study and that these benefits would impact the youth players outside of the sporting environment.

- Participants also thought the healthy pre-game meal helped build team cohesion because it made the players interact with each other.

- Coaches noticed increased communication between the athletes, and between coaches and athletes. The opportunity to interact outside of sport allowed the players to talk more and communicate better during competition. Interaction between coaches and athletes also increased and athletes looked to their coaches for guidance on issues unrelated to sport. As a result, coaches took on a more active role with their players.
The project was successful in providing PYD experiences through sport. Coaches noticed a number of life skills developing during the project, such as increased confidence, commitment, personal growth, leadership, and work ethic.

The coaches also learned from the project. They said they gained youth coaching knowledge from the activities. It helped them better understand their players, and it helped them become better equipped to promote life skills through sport.

A few coaches were not welcoming of the project at first; one mentioned being concerned about losing practice time. Coaches became more enthusiastic about participating in the project once they noticed how the activities were impacting their players.

All participants said they would re-implement the activities. Coaches said they believed the activities were beneficial for developing life skills among youth and, most importantly, their players had fun doing the activities.

Practical Implications

The current study is of interest to youth sport coaches and coach education programs because it brought forward specific action strategies that promoted life skills through youth sport. In particular, the present study helped youth coaches enhance their coaching skills by teaching them strategies that went beyond developing technical and tactical skills. Although the project focused on promoting the UN MDGs of health, education, and empowering women, the findings also suggested other positive development outcomes emerged, such as personal growth and respect for others.

The present study is of interest to coach education programs because it described a workshop that taught coaches how to develop life skill through sport. The workshop lasted 2
hours and included the creation of specific activities that addressed the goals of this study. The workshop used in this study may be implemented to new or already existing coach education certification programs to endorse the UN MDGs and other life skills development of youth athletes.

This study is of interest to researchers using qualitative methods in sport intervention studies. This was one of few studies that used multiple qualitative methods in an intervention study in Sport Psychology. This methodology may be used by future researchers to develop and investigate the effectiveness of other topics. This study is also of interest to researchers investigating PYD in sport. Studies have shown that sport can promote PYD (Holt & Sehn, 2008; Zarrett et al., 2008), but the strategies used by coaches to foster its principles are only starting to be uncovered (Mandigo, Corlett, & Anderson, 2008; Petitpas, Cornelius, & Van Raalte, 2008). This study provided descriptions of how coaches were able to build a positive and encouraging environment that fostered the PYD indicators in sport.

Limitations

While this study investigated coaches’ perceptions of activities created to address the UN MDGs of health, education, and empowering women, limitations exist. First, additional time would have allowed the researchers to implement more activities and make long-term observations. Additional time would have also allowed for follow-up with coaches to investigate the long-term impact of the activities in the youth athletes and the community. Second, the demographic characteristics of the coaches were fairly similar. Six coaches from two sporting modalities (soccer and basketball) participated in the study. One of these coached soccer and one coached a girls’ team. All participants were male coaches. Ideally, a more diversified group of participants would have been included. For example, three female
coaches and three male coaches of three boys’ and three girls’ teams. Unfortunately, the research team was not able to select a more heterogeneous group of coaches because of the limited number of volunteers interested in participating. Therefore, it is impossible to speculate whether the participation of women coaches or additional girls’ teams would have influenced the results of this study. In addition, all participants coached in the same region, the West Island in Montreal. Despite the consistency among the social-economic characteristics of the participants, the results would have been easier to generalize if participants’ demographics were diversified.

Due to time restriction, three of the eight UN MDGs were addressed in the study. The UN has recommended that developed countries take initiatives towards contributing to all goals to identify the most efficient practices, which can then be applied to countries where the goals are pertinent (UN, 2005). In the present study, addressing three goals was a first step towards using sports to address all the UN MDGs.

Another limitation of the current study was that youth athletes’ perceptions were not assessed. This limitation was brought up by the participating coaches during the interviews. Assessing the youth athletes would have provided valuable information about the level of enjoyment of the players and how the activities impacted them. The choice to only gather data from coaches allowed the researchers to provide a more in-depth analysis of their thoughts and perceptions of the activities. This was a first step in this process.

Future Recommendations

This study aimed at addressing the gap in the literature concerning the use of sport on meeting the UN MDGs. Very few studies have investigated the UN MDGs in sport and this study was unique for developing, implementing, and assessing activities to help coaches
address these goals with youth athletes. As such, there are a number of future directions research could take. The current study may be replicated in different neighborhoods of Montreal, such as Lachine, LaSalle, Côte-des-Neiges, Notre-Dame-de-Grace, Park Extension, Hochelaga-Maisonneuve, and Verdun. In addition, it should be replicated in other cities in Canada and in other countries to identify if cultural differences affect the creation of the activities and their impact on youth athletes.

Other researchers may be interested in using quantitative instruments to investigate additional characteristics of the coaches, such as personality traits (e.g., introversion/extroversion), and how they may influence the creation and delivery of the activities. The use of control and experimental groups would also provide an interesting research design to investigate the effectiveness of activities developed to address the UN MDGs.

Future research could address some of the limitations of this study. For example, include male and female coaches, from modalities other than soccer and basketball, and who coach boys and girls teams. Studies could aim at developing and assessing activities that meet other UN MDGs not addressed in the current study, namely, to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, reduce child mortality, improve maternal health, ensure environmental sustainability, and develop global partnerships for development. Finally, future studies could assess youth athletes’ perceptions of the activities and on the impact of the activities on their personal and social development.

In sum, PYD in sport literature is still limited. More studies are necessary to fully understand how the principles of PYD can be applied to sport, and how sport can foster the PYD indicators. There is also a need for additional research on the use of sport to meet the
UN MDGs and to promote life skills. This project was a first attempt to develop a coach education procedure to learn and enhance ways of promoting the UN MDGs and other life skills among youth athletes. The results from this study offer the UN some empirical evidence regarding social development and human rights through sport. These results may be used by the UN to orient policy makers and community leaders on how to use sport to promote development, citizenship, and life skills among children. Future studies should re-implement this workshop looking to improve its procedures, create new sport-related activities, and disseminate the importance of promoting life skills with youth athletes.
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References


Appendix A

Applied Sport-Programming Model of PYD

Retrieved from:

Appendix B

Developmental Model of Sport Participation

1. Probable Outcomes
- Recreational participation
- Enhanced physical health

2. Probable Outcomes
- Elite performance
- Enhanced physical health
- Enhanced enjoyment of the sport

3. Probable Outcomes
- Elite performance
- Reduced Physical health
- Reduced enjoyment

Recreational Years
Activities:
- High amount of deliberate play
- Low amount of deliberate practice
- Activities that focus on fitness and health

Investment Years
Activities:
- High amount of deliberate practice
- Low amount of deliberate play

Early specialization
Activities:
- High amount of deliberate practice
- Low amount of deliberate play
- Focus on one sport

Specializing Years
Activities:
- Deliberate play and practice balanced
- Reduced involvement in several sports

Sampling Years
Activities:
- High amount of deliberate play
- Low amount of deliberate practice

Entry into sport

1. Recreational participation through sampling
2. Elite performance through sampling
3. Elite performance through early specialization

Retrieved from:
Appendix C

A Model of National Youth Policy

Policies aimed at giving families the capacity to provide for children:

- Boundaries and expectations
- Physiological and safety needs
- Climate of love and caring
- Inculcation of self-esteem
- Encouragement and support of growth
- Constructive use of time
- Positive values
- Positive links to the community

Programs

Children deserve resources that give them:

- Healthy start
- Safe environment
- Education for marketable skills
- Opportunity to give back to the community
- Freedom from prejudice and discrimination

Outcomes for Children

Civil Society

- Competence
- Confidence
- Connection
- Caring / Compassion
- Character

Retrieved from:

## Appendix D

### Features of Positive Developmental Settings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptors</th>
<th>Opposite Poles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physical and Psychological Safety</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safe and health-promoting facilities; and practices that increase safe peer group interaction and decrease unsafe or confrontational peer interactions.</td>
<td>Physical and health dangers; fear; feeling of insecurity; sexual and physical harassment; and verbal abuse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Appropriate Structure</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limit setting; clear and consistent rules and expectations; firm-enough control; continuity and predictability; clear boundaries; and age-appropriate monitoring.</td>
<td>Chaotic; disorganized; laissez-faire; rigid; overcontrolled; and autocratic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supportive Relationships</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warmth; closeness; connectedness; good communication; caring; support; guidance; secure attachment; and responsiveness.</td>
<td>Cold; distant; overcontrolling; ambiguous support; untrustworthy; focused on winning; inattentive; unresponsive; and rejecting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Opportunities to Belong</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities for meaningful inclusion, regardless of one’s gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, or disabilities; social inclusion, social engagement, and integration; opportunities for sociocultural identity formation; and support for cultural and bicultural competence.</td>
<td>Exclusion; marginalization; and intergroup conflict.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive Social Norms</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules of behavior; expectations; injunctions; ways of doing things; values and morals; and obligations for service.</td>
<td>Normlessness; anomic; laissez-faire practices; antisocial and amoral norms; norms that encourage violence; reckless behavior; consumerism; poor health practices, and conformity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Support for Efficacy and Mattering</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth-based; empowerment practices that support autonomy; making a real difference in one’s community; and being taken seriously. Practice that includes enabling, responsibility granting, and meaningful challenge. Practices that focus on improvement rather than on relative current performance levels.</td>
<td>Unchallenging; overcontrolling; disempowering, and disabling. Practices that undermine motivation and desire to learn, such as excessive focus on current relative performance level rather than improvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Opportunities for Skill Building</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities to learn physical, intellectual, psychological, emotional and social skills; exposure to intentional learning experiences; opportunities to learn cultural literacies, media literacy, communication skills, and good habits of mind; preparation for adult employment; and opportunities to develop social and cultural capital.</td>
<td>Practices that promote bad physical habits and habits of mind; and practices that undermine school and learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Integration of Family, School, and Community Efforts</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concordance; coordination; and synergy among family, school, and community.</td>
<td>Discordance; lack of communication; and conflict.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Retrieved from:

# Appendix E

## Forty Developmental Assets

### External Assets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assets Type</th>
<th>Asset Name and Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Support              | 1. *Family support*: Family life provides high levels of love and support.  
2. *Positive family communication*: Young person and parent(s) communicate positively, and young person in willing to seek parental advice and counsel.  
3. *Other adult relationship*: Young person receives support from three or more nonparent adults.  
5. *Caring school climate*: School provides a caring, encouraging environment.  
6. *Parent involvement in schooling*: Parent(s) are actively involved in helping young person succeed in school. |
| Empowerment          | 7. *Community values youth*: Young person perceives that adults in their community value youth.  
8. *Youth as resources*: Young people are given useful roles in the community.  
9. *Service to others*: Young person serves in the community one hour or more per week.  
10. *Safety*: Young person feels safe at home, at school, and in the neighborhood. |
| Boundaries and Expectations | 11. *Family boundaries*: Family has clear rules and consequences, and monitors the young person’s whereabouts.  
14. *Adult role models*: Parent(s) and other adults model positive, responsible behavior.  
16. *High expectations*: Both parent(s) and teachers encourage the young person to do well. |
| Constructive Use of Time | 17. *Creative activities*: Young person spends three or more hours per week in lessons or practice in music, theater, or other arts.  
18. *Youth programs*: Young person spends three or more hours per week in sports, clubs, or organizations at school or in the community organizations.  
19. *Religious community*: Young person spends one or more hours per week in activities in a religious institution.  
20. *Time at home*: Young person is out with friends, with “nothing special to do,” two nights or fewer per week. |

### Internal Asset

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Asset Type</th>
<th>Asset Name and Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Commitment to Learning   | 21. *Achievement motivation*: Young person is motivated to do well in school.  
22. *School engagement*: Young person is actively engaged in learning.  
23. *Homework*: Young person reports doing at least one hour of homework every school day.  
24. *Bonding to school*: Young person cares about school.  
25. *Reading for pleasure*: Young person reads for pleasure three or more hours per week. |
| Positive Values          | 26. *Caring*: Young person places high value on helping other people.  
27. *Equality and social justice*: Young person places high value on promoting equality and reducing hunger and poverty.  
28. *Integrity*: Young person acts on convictions and stands up for beliefs.  
29. *Honesty*: Young person tells the truth even when it is not easy.  
31. *Restraint*: Young person believes it is important not to be sexually active or to use alcohol or other drugs. |
| Social Competencies      | 32. *Planning and decision-making*: Young person knows how to plan ahead and make choices.  
33. *Interpersonal competence*: Young person has empathy, sensitivity, and friendship skills.  
34. *Cultural competence*: Young person has knowledge of and comfort with people of different cultural, racial, and ethnic backgrounds.  
35. *Resistance skills*: Young person can resist negative peer pressure and dangerous situations.  
36. *Peaceful conflict resolution*: Young person seeks to resolve conflict nonviolently. |
| Positive Identity        | 37. *Personal power*: Young person feels in control over “things that happen to me.”  
39. *Sense of purpose*: Young person reports that “my life has a purpose.”  
40. *Positive view of personal future*: Young person is optimistic about personal future. |

Retrieved from:

### Appendix F

The UN MDGs and their Targets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>U.N. Millennium Development Goals</th>
<th>Targets to be achieved by 2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Goal 1: Eradicate extreme hunger and poverty | - Half the number of people whose income is less than one American dollar a day  
- Half the number of people suffering from hunger |
| Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education | - Ensure that children everywhere are able to complete a full course of primary schooling |
| Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women | - Eliminate gender disparity in all levels |
| Goal 4: Reduce child mortality | - Reduce by 60% the mortality rate of children under 5 years old. |
| Goal 5: Improve maternal health | - Reduce in 75% the maternal mortality ratio. |
| Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases | - Half and reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS and the incidence of malaria and other diseases |
| Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability | - Fully integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs  
- Reverse the loss of environmental resources  
- Half the proportion of people without sustainable access to potable water and basic sanitation  
- Have considerably improvement the lives of 100 million slum dwellers. |
| Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development | - Establish nondiscriminatory trading and financial systems between countries, in order to allow social development. |

Adapted from:

Appendix G

SPORT ORGANIZATION CONSENT FORM

McGill University requires that organizations be informed of the details of any research study in which they participate. However, this does not imply that the organization or its participants are put at risk through their participation; the intention is simply to ensure the respect and confidentiality of individuals concerned. This study is in partial fulfillment of the requirement of the degree of Master of Arts for William Falcão, a graduate student in sport psychology, in the Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education at McGill University.

The purpose of this study is to assess youth soccer/basketball coaches’ perceptions of activities that address United Nations Millennium Development Goals (UN MDGs). The activities will be created through collaborative effort of the McGill research team and the participating coaches to ensure they address the UN MDGs that are relevant to your community. In particular, this study will educate coaches on the UN MDGs, facilitate the development of sport-related activities, and assess coaches’ thoughts and feelings of the effectiveness of these activities. We would like to invite your soccer/basketball association to participate in this study. If you choose to participate, 6 (six) coaches from the intercity leagues divisions (U11-U17) will be asked to attend workshop sessions describing the UN MDGs and the principles of Positive Youth Development. During the workshop the researchers and coaches will develop sport-related activities that address relevant UN MDGs, which they will be asked to implement with their athletes throughout the regular season. A member of the research team will observe the implementation of the activities and will record contextual information and data on the coaches’ behaviors. There will be no picture, recording, or taping of these sessions to ensure anonymity of the coaches and the athletes. Prior to the playoffs, each coach will participate in a 60 minute tape recorded interview. Finally, a group meeting will be held for participants to share their experiences and their perceptions of the activities. As well, copies of the results and conclusions of the study will be sent to the organization prior to the publishing of this data. All information retrieved in this study will remain confidential and will be used for publication purposes in scholarly journals or for presentations at conferences. The researchers will not disclose names or identities of the participants at any time.

The participation of your soccer/basketball organization in this study is voluntary and not mandatory. The organization is free to withdraw from participation at any time, for any reason, without penalty or prejudice.

I (please print your name/s and position/s), __________________________________________________________, have carefully studied the above statements and have had the directions verbally explained to me. My organization freely consents and voluntarily agrees to participate in this research project based on the terms outlined in this consent form. I understand that my organization may refuse to continue participation at any time, without penalty, and that all information gathered will remain confidential.

___________________________  __________________________
Signature                             Date

Please feel free to contact us at any time:
William Falcão  Gordon Bloom, Ph. D.
Master’s Candidate, Sport Psychology  Graduate Program in Sport Psychology
Dept. of Kinesiology & Phys. Education  Dept. of Kinesiology & Phys. Education
McGill University, Montreal, Quebec  McGill University, Montreal, Quebec
william.falcao@mail.mcgill.ca  (514) 398-4148 ext. 0516
gordon.bloom@mcgill.ca
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Appendix H

Presentation Letter

McGill

Project Title: A Positive Youth Development Coach Education Program and the United Nations Millennium Development Goals

Sport is a powerful tool that can provide youth with positive social interactions and promote personal and social development. As a coach you have a crucial role in this process by setting the tone and establishing a positive team environment. In this study the McGill research team will work with coaches to create and implement soccer/basketball-related activities that address three of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (UN MDGs): promoting health, promoting education and empowering women. Throughout the season, the McGill research team and the coaches will create activities that will last approximately 1 hour to engage your athletes in community activities that raise awareness to health, education and empowering women. For example, players could help at local shelters or wellness centers, or organize a fundraising tournament. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to attend a workshop before the start of the season and a 30-60 minute individual exit interview in the month of August. By participating in this study you will learn how to incorporate community awareness into your soccer/basketball program and how to promote psychosocial development among your athletes.

William Falcão
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Dept. of Kinesiology & Phys. Education
McGill University, Montreal, Quebec
william.falcao@mail.mcgill.ca

Gordon Bloom, Ph. D.
Graduate Program in Sport Psychology
Dept. of Kinesiology & Phys. Education
McGill University, Montreal, Quebec
(514) 398-4184 ext. 0516
gordon.bloom@mcgill.ca

To learn and read more about Dr. Bloom’s research in coaching, please visit his sport psychology website at: http://sportpsych.mcgill.ca/publications.html

You can also read one of Dr. Bloom’s published articles which is similar to my proposed study at:

McGill University
2009
Appendix I

RESEARCH PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

McGill University requires that participants be informed of the details of any research study in which they participate. However, this does not imply that the participant is put at risk through their participation; the intention is simply to ensure the respect and confidentiality of individuals concerned. This study is in partial fulfillment of the requirement of the degree of Master of Arts for William Falcão, a graduate student in sport psychology, in the Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education at McGill University.

The purpose of this study is to assess youth soccer/basketball coaches’ perception of activities that address United Nations Millennium Development Goals (UN MDGs). The activities will be created through collaborative effort of the McGill research team and you, to ensure they address the UN MDGs that are relevant to your community. In particular, this study will introduce the UN MDGs and facilitate the development of sport-related activities. We would like to invite you to participate in this study. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to attend workshop sessions describing the UN MDGs and the principles of Positive Youth Development. During the workshop the researchers and you will develop, in a collaborative effort, sport-related activities that address relevant UN MDGs. You will be asked to implement these activities with your athletes throughout the regular season. In addition, you will be asked to record your thoughts and feelings regarding team environment and athletes’ values by completing six pre and six post-intervention forms. Once all activities are done, you will be asked to participate in a 60-90 minute interview prior to the playoffs; this interview will be taped recorded. Following the interview you will receive a typed transcript of the interview, which you may edit as desired. As well, copies of the results and conclusion of the study will be sent to you prior to the publishing of this data. All information retrieved in this study will remain confidential and will be used for publication purposes in scholarly journals or for presentations at conferences. The researchers will not disclose names or identity of the participants at any time.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and not mandatory. You are free to withdraw from participation at any time, for any reason, without penalty or prejudice.

I (please print your name), ____________________________, have carefully studied the above statements and have had the directions verbally explained to me. I freely consents and voluntarily agree to participate in this research project based on the terms outlined in this consent form. I understand that my organization may refuse to continue participation at any time, without penalty, and that all information gathered will remain confidential.

_________________________________ ____________________________
Signature Date

Please feel free to contact us at any time:

William Falcão
Master’s Candidate, Sport Psychology
Dept. of Kinesiology & Phys. Education
McGill University, Montreal, Quebec
william.falcao@mail.mcgill.ca

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gordon.bloom@mcgill.ca
Appendix J

Demographic Questionnaire

Name: ____________________________

Age: _____________________________

E-mail Address: _________________________________________________________

Phone Number (home, work, and cell): ________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

Highest level of education: ________________________________________________

Personal athletic experiences, particularly in soccer/basketball (list years played, highest
level reached, awards): _____________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

Number of children playing soccer/basketball and their current level (list sport and level):

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

Highest level of coaching certification: ________________________________________

Coaching experience (list sports, season, and level): _____________________________

________________________________________________________________________

Past successes as a coach (list personal coaching awards and team championships): _____

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

Reason for coaching youth sport: ____________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
Appendices

Appendix K

WORKSHOP OUTLINE

Hello coach, this is a workshop to teach you how to use sport to promote psychosocial development among youth athletes. This workshop will focus on activities that promote three assets: healthy life-styles, education, and empower women. These three assets are part of the United Nation (UN) goals that are most relevant for your community. Similar workshops have shown that youth can benefit from sport-related activities by increasing their self-esteem, self-worth, their education aspirations, and life-skills such as communication and teamwork (which can increase cohesion among the players in your team!). As a coach, you will also benefit from this workshop by learning new strategies on how to promote positive assets and community awareness in your practices. Sport has been portrayed as a great way to promote personal growth. In the long-term the West Island community would benefit from having healthier, better educated and more confident and active members.

The goal of this workshop is to create activities that will promote these assets (health, education, and empower women) among youth athletes in your community. These activities will be created through a collaborative effort among the coaches and the McGill research team. But first we need to understand some of the theoretical components in order to ensure we create effective activities. In this workshop we will talk about the UN and their goals, how sport can help achieve these goals, and the importance of the coach and of a positive approach to coaching in this process. We will then work together to design activities that will help your youth athletes.

Thank you,

William Falcão
1) UN Millennium Development Goals
   a. The UN is an international organization that aims at global economic and social progress, ensuring human rights, and achieving world peace.
   b. The UN set eight goals that address the key social problems in the world. Three (in bold) are most relevant in Canada and in the West Island community.
      i. End extreme poverty
      ii. Achieve universal primary education
      iii. Promote gender equality and empower women
      iv. Reduce child mortality
      v. Improve maternal health
      vi. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases
      vii. Ensure environmental sustainability
      viii. Develop global partnerships for development

2) Sports
   The UN has recognized the potential of sport as a way to achieve these goals. Research has also supported that sport is a useful tool to promote psychosocial development in youth. However, simply participating in sports does not lead to positive outcomes. An appropriate and positive sporting environment is essential for providing youth with a valuable experience in sport. One individual who
impacts the sporting environment and thus impacts the quality of youth’s experience in sport is the coach.

3) Coaching
   a. Positive approach to coaching increases youth’s self-esteem, self-worth, scholastic competence, communication skills, and ability to work with others. It also promotes enjoyment and decreases drop-out rates.
   b. Five guiding principles for youth coaches’ ideal behaviors are:
      i. Promote a healthy enjoyable environment
      ii. Provide positive reinforcement and encouragement
      iii. Establish supportive norms and commitment
      iv. Include athletes in team decisions
      v. Focus on positive coaching behaviors
   c. These five principles follow very similar principles of a recently developed theoretical approach called Positive Youth Development.

4) Positive Youth Development
   a. Has increasingly been used in developmental sciences and research. Sport practitioners have just begun to
include this approach in coach training and sport programs.

b. Highlights the importance of promoting positive life experiences to increase youth’s competence, confidence, connection, caring or compassion, and character. It focuses on developing skills and exploring children’s potential.

c. It contrasts with deficit-reduction approaches, which focus on treating or reducing problematic behavior.

5) Activities

a. Health

b. Education

c. Empower women
### Appendix L

#### Relationship between Elements of Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Targeted UN MDGs</th>
<th>Relevant Developmental Asset (40 Assets)</th>
<th>Associated PYD Outcomes (5C’s)</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>External</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Constructive use of time</td>
<td>Connection</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Character</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>Commitment to Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Positive Values</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Health</strong></td>
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<td>External</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Competence</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Boundaries and Expectations</td>
<td>Connection</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Confidence</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Character</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>Positive Values</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Social Competencies</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Positive Identity</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>Empower Women</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>External</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Connection</td>
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<td>Empowerment</td>
<td>Caring or Compassion</td>
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<td>Constructive use of time</td>
<td>Character</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>Positive Values</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Positive Identity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Recommend Number of Food Guide Servings per Day

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age in Years</th>
<th>Children</th>
<th>Teens</th>
<th>Adults</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Girls and Boys</td>
<td>Females</td>
<td>Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-18</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-50</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51+</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1-2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The chart above shows how many Food Guide Servings you need from each of the four food groups every day.

Having the amount and type of food recommended and following the tips in Canada's Food Guide will help:

- Meet your needs for vitamins, minerals and other nutrients.
- Reduce your risk of obesity, type 2 diabetes, heart disease, certain types of cancer and osteoporosis.
- Contribute to your overall health and vitality.
What is One Food Guide Serving?

Look at the examples below.

- Fresh, frozen or canned vegetables
  - 125 mL (1/2 cup)

- Leafy vegetables
  - Cooked: 125 mL (1/2 cup)
  - Raw: 250 mL (1 cup)

- Fresh, frozen or canned fruits
  - 1 fruit or 125 mL (1/2 cup)

- 100% Juice
  - 125 mL (1/2 cup)

- Bread
  - 1 slice (35 g)

- Bagel
  - 1/2 bagel (45 g)

- Flat breads
  - 1/2 pita or 1/2 tortilla (35 g)

- Cooked rice, bulgur or quinoa
  - 125 mL (1/2 cup)

- Cereal
  - Cold: 30 g
  - Hot: 175 mL (1/2 cup)

- Cooked pasta or couscous
  - 125 mL (1/2 cup)

- Milk or powdered milk (reconstituted)
  - 250 mL (1 cup)

- Canned milk (evaporated)
  - 125 mL (1/2 cup)

- Fortified soy beverage
  - 250 mL (1 cup)

- Yogurt
  - 175 g (1/2 cup)

- Kefir
  - 175 g (1/2 cup)

- Cheese
  - 50 g (1 1/2 oz.)

- Cooked fish, shellfish, poultry, lean meat
  - 75 g (2 1/4 oz.) / 125 mL (1/2 cup)

- Cooked legumes
  - 175 mL (1 1/2 cup)

- Tofu
  - 159 g or 175 mL (1/2 cup)

- Eggs
  - 2 eggs

- Peanut or nut butters
  - 30 mL (2 Tbsp)

- Shelled nuts and seeds
  - 60 mL (1 1/4 cup)

Oils and Fats

- Include a small amount – 30 to 45 mL (2 to 3 Tbsp) – of unsaturated fat each day. This includes oil used for cooking, salad dressings, margarine and mayonnaise.
- Use vegetable oils such as canola, olive and soybean.
- Choose soft margarines that are low in saturated and trans fats.
- Limit butter, hard margarine, lard and shortening.
Make each Food Guide Serving count...
wherever you are – at home, at school, at work or when eating out!

- Eat at least one dark green and one orange vegetable each day.
  - Go for dark green vegetables such as broccoli, romaine lettuce and spinach.
  - Go for orange vegetables such as carrots, sweet potatoes and winter squash.

- Choose vegetables and fruit prepared with little or no added fat, sugar or salt.
  - Enjoy vegetables steamed, baked or stir-fried instead of deep-fried.

- Have vegetables and fruit more often than juice.

- Make at least half of your grain products whole grain each day.
  - Eat a variety of whole grains such as barley, brown rice, oats, quinoa and wild rice.
  - Enjoy whole grain breads, oatmeal or whole wheat pasta.

- Choose grain products that are lower in fat, sugar or salt.
  - Compare the Nutrition Facts table on labels to make wise choices.
  - Enjoy the true taste of grain products. When adding sauces or spreads, use small amounts.

- Drink skim, 1%, or 2% milk each day.
  - Have 500 mL (2 cups) of milk every day for adequate vitamin D.
  - Drink fortified soy beverages if you do not drink milk.

- Select lower fat milk alternatives.
  - Compare the Nutrition Facts table on yogurts or cheeses to make wise choices.

- Have meat alternatives such as beans, lentils and tofu often.

- Eat at least two Food Guide Servings of fish each week.*
  - Choose fish such as cod, herring, mackerel, salmon, sardines and trout.

- Select lean meat and alternatives prepared with little or no added fat or salt.
  - Trim the visible fat from meats. Remove the skin on poultry.
  - Use cooking methods such as roasting, baking or poaching that require little or no added fat.
  - If you eat luncheon meats, sausages or prepackaged meats, choose those lower in salt (sodium) and fat.

Enjoy a variety of foods from the four food groups.

Satisfy your thirst with water!

Drink water regularly. It’s a calorie-free way to quench your thirst. Drink more water in hot weather or when you are very active.

* Health Canada provides advice for limiting exposure to mercury from certain types of fish. Refer to www.healthcanada.gc.ca for the latest information.
Advice for different ages and stages...

**Children**

Following *Canada's Food Guide* helps children grow and thrive.

- Serve small nutritious meals and snacks each day.
- Do not restrict nutritious foods because of their fat content. Offer a variety of foods from the four food groups.
- Most of all... be a good role model.

**Women of childbearing age**

All women who could become pregnant and those who are pregnant or breastfeeding need a multivitamin containing **folic acid** every day. Pregnant women need to ensure that their multivitamin also contains **iron**. A health care professional can help you find the multivitamin that's right for you.

Pregnant and breastfeeding women need more calories. Include an extra 2 to 3 Food Guide Servings each day.

Here are two examples:
- Have fruit and yogurt for a snack, or
- Have an extra slice of toast at breakfast and an extra glass of milk at supper.

**Men and women over 50**

The need for vitamin **D** increases after the age of 50.

In addition to following *Canada's Food Guide*, everyone over the age of 50 should take a daily vitamin **D** supplement of 10 µg (400 IU).

How do I count Food Guide Servings in a meal?

Here is an example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vegetable and beef stir-fry with rice, a glass of milk and an apple for dessert</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>250 mL (1 cup) mixed broccoli, carrot and sweet red pepper = 2 Vegetables and Fruit Food Guide Servings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75 g (2 1/2 oz.) lean beef = 1 Meat and Alternatives Food Guide Servings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250 mL (1 cup) brown rice = 2 Grain Products Food Guide Servings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 mL (1 tsp) canola oil = part of your Oils and Fats intake for the day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250 mL (1 cup) 1% milk = 1 Milk and Alternatives Food Guide Serving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 apple = 1 Vegetables and Fruit Food Guide Serving</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Health Canada. (2007). *Eating well with Canada’s food guide* [Brochure]. Ottawa, ON:

Publications Health Canada.
Appendix N

Donation Request Letter

Dear (name of recipient),

Learning to make healthy lifestyle decisions is an important part of a young person’s growth and development. This involves proper eating habits and exercise, as well as lowering risky behaviors such as alcohol and drug abuse. Currently, the McGill University Sport Psychology Laboratory is partnered with the Brookwood Basketball Association in a project that promotes healthy lifestyles, education, and gender equality among their youth basketball players. Promoting healthy lifestyles among adolescents is important in all communities, including the Lac St-Louis region. The 2006 census indicated that thousands of adolescents in this region suffered from various types of unhealthy lifestyle behaviors, such as drug and alcohol abuse, and eating disorders.

One of the goals of our program is for the Brookwood players to donate sporting equipment to a community center that assists underprivileged youth who typically do not engage in healthy lifestyles. This is being accomplished through a fundraising activity. The money raised by the players will be used to purchase the sporting equipment that will be donated. The players are actively involved in this activity and are committed to promoting health to others. This will raise their awareness of health problems in their community and develop positive values about engaging and maintaining healthy lifestyles. Therefore, this fundraiser will promote health among the Brookwood players and also the underprivileged youth at the community center.

The players of the Brookwood Association and their families are not able to raise the money themselves to purchase the equipment that will be donated. Thus, I am writing to see if your business or you are interested in donating money, basketball equipment, or a gift certificate for this collaborative project between Brookwood Basketball Association and the McGill University Sport Psychology Laboratory.

Please know that all contributions you make will be directed to purchasing equipment for donation. They will have a direct positive impact on the youth players at Brookwood and the members of the community center, who will receive the equipment. Thank you for your thoughtful consideration of our request. Please do not hesitate to contact us at McGill University should you have any questions or concerns.

Sincerely,

William Falcão, B.A.
Graduate Student in Sport Psychology
william.falcao@mail.mcgill.ca

Gordon Bloom, Ph. D.
Sport Psychology Lab Coordinator
gordon.bloom@mcgill.ca

Department of Kinesiology & Physical Education
McGill Sports Complex, 332
475 Pine Avenue West
Montreal, Quebec, H2W 1S4
Appendix O

Pre-Intervention Form

Please answer the following set of questions no later than 48h prior to your next team activity. Be honest and try to be as thorough as possible in your description of the answers.

Your team: _______________________

Your name: _______________________

Date: _______________________

Activity: _______________________

1) What is the atmosphere with your team right now? Why?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terrible</th>
<th>Not good</th>
<th>OK</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Great</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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________________________________________________________________________

2) What is your team’s record?___________________________________________

3) How do you think your athletes are enjoying their experience with soccer/basketball so far? Why?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Slightly</th>
<th>Moderately</th>
<th>Mostly</th>
<th>A lot</th>
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<tbody>
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</table>

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
4) Do you think these activities are effective? Why/Why not?

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

5) 

a. How do you think your players feel about maintaining a healthy life-style at this point in time? Why?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>Of little importance</th>
<th>Moderately important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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b. How do you think your players feel about education at this point in time? Why?

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<tr>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>Of little importance</th>
<th>Moderately important</th>
<th>Important</th>
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________________________________________________________________________
c. How do you think you players feel about equity between boys and girls at this point in time? Why?

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Unimportant</th>
<th>Of little importance</th>
<th>Moderately important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
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</thead>
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</table>

6) Has anything unique or unexpected happened since the last activity with your team or any person on your team?
Appendix P

Post-Intervention Form

Please answer the following set of questions no later than 48h following your team activity. Be honest and try to be as thorough as possible in your description of the answers.

Your team: ______________________  Date: ______________________

Your name: ______________________  Activity: ______________________

1) How did you feel about delivering this activity (prepared, overwhelmed, confident, nervous, etc.)? Describe your roles/responsibilities during the activity.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

2) How much do you think your players enjoyed the activity?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>A little</th>
<th>Moderately</th>
<th>Mostly</th>
<th>A lot</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</table>

What do you think they enjoyed the most/least?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
3) Do you feel this activity benefited your team individually and/or as a group? If so, how?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

4) a. How do you think your players feel about maintaining a healthy life-style after the activity? Why?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Very little important</th>
<th>Little important</th>
<th>Somewhat important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
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</table>

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b. How do you think your players feel about education after the activity? Why?

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<tr>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>Very little important</th>
<th>Little important</th>
<th>Somewhat important</th>
<th>Very important</th>
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</thead>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
c. How do you think you players feel about equity between boys and girls after the activity? Why?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not important</th>
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<th>Little important</th>
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</table>

5) Do you think the activity was valuable? Why/Why not?

6) Is there anything else you would like to add?
Appendix Q

Semi-structured Interview Questions

Opening Questions

1. Describe your evolution into coaching.
   a. When, how, and why did you get involved in coaching?
   b. At what level?
   c. At what levels of sport have you coached?

2. Describe your team this year.
   a. How do they compare to teams you have coached in the past?
   b. What capacities do you see in your players as community members?

3. What is your outlook on coaching children?

4. What kind of exposure have you had to issues related to the UN MDGs (health, education, equity) in your community prior to this study?
   a. As an athlete?
   b. As a coach?
   c. As a community member?
   d. How was your exposure? Was it a positive/negative experience? Why?

Key Questions

5. What did you feel the athletes gained from the activities?
   a. Socially?
   b. Personally?

6. How you feel the activities influenced the athletes’ values towards the UN MDGs in their community?
   a. Health
   b. Education
   c. Equity
   d. Community engagement

7. Did you feel confident delivering the activities?
   a. Is it something you would carry on doing on following years?
   b. Why?

8. How could the activities be improved?

9. Where there any other team functions you did with your team you thought promoted the UN MDGs (health, education, equity)?
   a. What? When? And why?
   b. How did it/they go?
10. Do you think you gain something from this program?
   a. Personally?
   b. Professionally? As a coach?
   c. As a community member?

**Summary Questions**

11. In your opinion, what are the three most important qualities that you felt emerged from this program?
   a. For you personally?
   b. For you as a coach?
   c. For your players?
   d. For the community?

**Concluding Questions**

12. Is there anything you would like to add?

13. Do you have any final questions or concerns?