Facilitating Student-Athletes' Life Skills Transfer from Sport to the Classroom: An Intervention Assisting High School Teacher-Coaches

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Abstract

Sport is deemed by many researchers and practitioners as a favourable context to foster positive youth development (PYD), including the acquisition of life skills (Petitpas et al., 2005). However, researchers have cautioned for vigilance before assuming with assurance that sport leads to positive developmental outcomes (Coakley, 2011). Consequently, it is important to understand how sport leaders can facilitate the development and transfer of life skills. In the context of high school sport in Canada, teacher-coaches are considered essential adults in the delivery of school sport programs. Using Pierce et al.'s (2017) life skills transfer model, the present thesis explored the contextual and psychological factors influencing the development and transfer of life skills. An intervention was designed, using action research principles, with two high school teacher-coaches. Data were collected via teacher-coach pre- and post-intervention interviews, as well as student-athlete post-intervention interviews (i.e., five student-athletes per teacher-coach). Further, data were gathered through observation, and audio recording of each life skill implementation, as well as a researcher reflective journal. The results indicated that teacher-coaches played an important role in influencing contextual and psychological factors, in both the learning and the transfer context, which shaped student-athletes' life skills development and transfer. The study has practical implications for coach education programs, suggesting the benefits of on the ground support to provide coaches and teacher-coaches with the necessary tools to promote PYD.

Preface

I, Nikolas Martin, was responsible for collecting and analyzing the data used in this master's research. I was also responsible for writing this master's thesis. Dr. Martin Camiré supported all aspects of the conceptualization, analysis, and writing by reviewing the thesis on several occasions.

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Introduction

Sport is amongst the most popular organized activities in which adolescents engage (Gould, 2019), situated as a social context of great influence (Camiré, 2015a). Intuitively, in popular discourse, sport has long been associated with positive outcomes; however, recent research findings have highlighted how it is important to stay cautious and not assume that sport participation automatically leads to positive outcomes (Bean, et al., 2014; Coakley, 2011). When appropriately structured and overseen by competent adult leaders, sport, including outdoor education programs, can foster some positive developmental outcomes (Andre et al., 2017; Petitpas, et al., 2005). Many of the outcomes of adolescent development through sport have been framed in the literature as the learning of *life skills* (i.e., cognitive, behavioural, and affective skills) that enable individuals to succeed in the different environments of their lives (Danish, et al., 2004). A key notion is that for a skill learned in sport to be considered a life skill, it must *transfer* and be applied in other life domains (Camiré et al., 2012).

Around the world, adolescents spend much of their waking hours at school, where they partake in regular classroom activities as well as extracurricular activities (e.g., sport, academic clubs, theatre). In Canada, high school sports are practiced by over 750,000 student-athletes, making it the most popular extracurricular activity in which adolescents engage (School Sport Canada, 2020). Most high school sport teams are overseen by teacher-coaches (i.e., full-time teachers who volunteer to coach a sport team at their school), with their dual role putting them in an advantageous position to facilitate life skills learning and transfer given that they interact with student-athletes in two different contexts: sport/outdoor education programs and classroom (Camiré, 2015a; Camiré & Kendellen, 2016). In light of their advantageous position of influence, the purpose of this study was to implement an intervention assisting high school teacher-coaches

in facilitating life skills transfer from sport/outdoor education programs to the classroom. The research was framed using the life skills transfer model (Pierce et al., 2017), which details the contextual and psychological factors influencing transfer. Through three research questions, transfer was examined at both a process (i.e., How do teacher-coaches experience implementing life skills strategies in sport/outdoor education programs and then transfer/adapt these same strategies for use in the classroom? and How do student-athletes experience life skills strategies in both settings?) and outcome (i.e., How do student-athletes believe the strategies implemented by their teacher-coaches influenced their development and transfer of life skills?) levels.

Literature Review

The literature review is organized in four sections: (a) PYD framework, (b) PYD through sport, (c) the development of life skills in sport and life skills transfer, and (d) high school teacher-coaches.

Positive Youth Development

The PYD framework, which is grounded in relational developmental systems theory (Geldhof et al., 2013), gained prominence in the late 1980s to counter the focus on deficit-reduction approaches consistent with the traditional medical model (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). Within the PYD framework, youth are viewed as "resource to be developed" and development is framed within an ecological lens, which stresses the importance of the plasticity of human development and competency building (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003; 2016). Thus, the underlying focus of the PYD framework is to support youth so they can maximize their potential (Curran & Wexler, 2017; Gould & Carson, 2008; Lerner et al., 2005). Consequently, PYD has been defined as the "development of personal skills or assets, including cognitive, social,

emotional, and intellectual qualities necessary for youth to become successfully functioning members of society" (Weiss & Wiese-Bjornstal, 2009, p. 1).

Relational Developmental Systems Theory

The main aim behind examining development from a relational systems perspective is to better understand how human development is regulated (i.e., outcomes, pace, direction) by bi-directional processes involving the individual and his/her constantly evolving ecology (Lerner et al., 2011). As a result, there is always, to different levels, potential for change (i.e., plasticity) over time (Lerner, 2002). Thus, under the perspective of relational developmental systems theory, human development is a complex process that can be manipulated, at individual and ecological levels, to increase opportunities for change and the probabilities that this change is for the better (Lerner et al., 2009). Considering that adolescence is a critical period of development at cognitive, behavioural, and social levels, researchers have advocated for the use of frameworks (e.g., PYD) informed by relational developmental systems theory to promote development (Lerner et al., 2011).

Brief History of PYD

Over the last few decades, researchers (Baltes et al., 1998; Bronfenbrenner, 2005; Gottlieb, 1997) from many areas of interest within psychology (e.g., life-span developmental psychology, bioecological developmental psychology, and comparative psychology) have argued that during the course of one's development, there is the potential for systemic change (i.e., plasticity). They have argued that changes in individuals could be optimized by altering the bi-directional relations between them and their surroundings. Furthermore, within community psychology, primary prevention (i.e., developing strengths and competencies) is deemed more

desirable than secondary or tertiary prevention (i.e., reducing or eliminating the problem; Trickett et al., 1996).

The second half of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century were punctuated by major changes in demographic trends (e.g., single parent family, dual-career families, increase in the diagnosis of mental disorders). Such changes warrant a need to obtain a better understanding of how youth spend their time, especially after school (Erskine et al., 2017; Lerner et al., 2005). To better understand how youth spend their time after school, the National 4-H council partnered with Tufts University to study the effectiveness of its youth development programs across 42 states in the USA (National 4-H Council, 2020). Lerner and colleagues (2005) used a longitudinal sequential design (from 2002 to 2010) to assess if PYD would occur when adolescents' strengths are aligned with family, school, and community resources. Researchers involved with the 4-H study (e.g., Gestsdóttir & Lerner, 2007; Jelicic et al., 2007; Li et al., 2008) have published a series of articles that highlighted how much adolescents play an active role in their own development (Gestsdóttir & Lerner, 2007). Using developmental systems models (Jelicic et al., 2007), the extent to which youth partake in school and out-of-school activities has been shown to influence academic, emotional, and behavioural development (Li et al., 2008).

At the same time that numerous studies were being conducted on 4-H programming in the mid 2000s, researchers in sport psychology started to adopt the PYD framework to study youth development in sport. Hence, in 2007, Nicholas Holt from the University of Alberta edited the first version of the book *Positive Youth Development through Sport,* and from there, PYD became the preeminent approach to the study of youth development in sport.

PYD and Youth Development Programs

As strength-based views of youth development gained in prominence, empirical research helped identify factors potentially leading youth to a successful transition to adulthood (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2000). These factors included exposing youth to positive experiences, people, and opportunities in a wide range of developmental context (e.g., school, family, peer activities). Following the paradigmatic shift from youth being viewed as problems to be managed to youth being viewed as resources to be developed, there was a rise in community and school-based youth programs focused on youth development (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). The goal of such programs is to foster, through intentional planning, designing, and evaluating, positive experiences that help adolescents develop their competencies to successfully meet the challenges of adulthood (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2016).

Models of PYD

As PYD is grounded in relational developmental systems theory, PYD models share similarities, including an emphasis on (a) the strength of youth, (b) plasticity, and (c) internal and external developmental assets (Lerner et al., 2011; Tolan et al., 2016). In the following section three models of PYD are examined.

Benson's Developmental Assets. According to Benson (1997), for youth to develop adequately, there need to be reciprocal relationships between internal and external assets. Internal assets (i.e., competencies) are divided in four categories (i.e., five assets per category). The first category is commitment to learning, which include assets (e.g., achievement motivation, engagement) that facilitate youth interest in continuous learning and developing abilities. The second category is positive values (e.g., caring, honesty, responsibility) that help youth make good life decisions. The third category is social competencies, which are needed for

developing healthy relationships and adapting to novel situations (e.g., conflict resolution, cultural competence). The fourth category is positive identity, which is one's ability (e.g., self-esteem, sense of purpose) to recognize one's strength and potential.

External assets represent the positive aspects gathered by youth from interacting with their multiple developmental contexts (Benson, 1997). The external assets are also divided in four categories with five assets per category. The first category of external assets is support (e.g., family support, other adult relationships, caring school climate) from people surrounding the individual. The second category is empowerment, which is defined by youth's feeling that they can contribute to their surroundings (e.g., service to others, the community values them). The third category is termed boundaries and expectations, which refers to stating clear sets of rules and consequences (e.g., family boundaries, school boundaries), while also encouraging youth to do their best (e.g., high expectations, positive peer influence). Finally, the fourth category of external assets is constructive use of time, which includes different opportunities (e.g., youth programs, creative activities) for youth to enjoy life and develop new skills. According to scholars, youth who possess more of these assets have better chances of successfully transitioning to adulthood (Benson, 1997; National Research Council, 2002).

According to a review dedicated to the contributions of the developmental assets framework (Benson et al., 2011), many youth programs (e.g., Y Canada, Boys and Girls Clubs of America) have adopted an asset-building strategy within their program's planning and evaluation. For example, the Asset-Getting-to-Outcomes program (AGTO) implemented by the Search Institute with different youth programs in the United States demonstrated its capacity to systematically lead to prevention of substance abuse and risk taking (Chinman et al., 2012). Another study conducted with Canadian high school students (Forneris et al., 2015) highlighted

how students engaged in sport and other extracurricular activities scored significantly higher on the acquisition of both internal and external developmental assets when compared to non-involved students. Moreover, Soares et al. (2019) sought to explore the relationship between developmental assets and life satisfaction in Portuguese adolescents. Based on their findings, they concluded that the framework is a worthy strategy to foster PYD. Thus, there is empirical evidence (e.g., Chinman et al., 2012; Forneris et al., 2015; Soares et al., 2019) from studies conducted in different countries suggesting the effectiveness of the developmental asset framework to promote youth development.

Catalano's PYD Constructs. Through consultations with practitioners and a review of the literature, Catalano and colleagues (2004) proposed a model and a definition for PYD that includes 15 constructs. Each of the 15 constructs represents an objective that youth programs should try to promote and foster. They posited that youth programs are effective when they promote at least five of the following 15 outcomes (Catalano et al., 2004). The first construct is bonding, referring to youth's positive relations with peers, family, and/or community. The second construct is resilience, which refers to one's ability to adapt to events. The third construct is social competence, which provide youth with the interpersonal skills to achieve their social goals. The fourth construct is emotional competence, which refers to one's ability to recognize his/her emotions and to act accordingly. The fifth construct is cognitive competence such as problem-solving and decision-making skills. The sixth construct is behavioural competence, which refers to effective behaviours in relevant situations. The seventh construct is moral competence, which represents the competency to determine the ethical aspect of a situation. The eight construct is self-determination, which represents the ability to control one's thoughts and act accordingly. The ninth construct is spirituality, which is related to one's moral reasoning. The

tenth construct is self-efficacy, representing one's perceived ability to achieve what he/she strives for. The eleventh construct is clear and positive identity, which signifies the ability to be congruent with one's sense of self. The twelfth construct is the belief in the future, which represent youth's optimism. The thirteenth construct is recognition for positive behaviour, which is the actual positive response of others. The fourteenth construct is opportunities for prosocial involvement, which encourage youth to act coherently in social situations. The fifteenth construct is prosocial norms that enable youth to forge positive beliefs and healthy expectations for their actions.

Catalano's (2004) PYD construct has been used as evaluative benchmarks in multiple systematic reviews (e.g., Catalano et al., 2019; Gavin et al., 2010) of PYD programs. Indeed, in both aforementioned reviews looking at the efficacy of youth programs, the authors used Catalano's (2004) PYD constructs as their main evaluators of youth programs. In a recent review by Waid and Uhrich (2020), the authors noticed that most youth programs with developmental objectives have structure that aligns with Catalano's PYD construct: they are multidimensional and focus on strengthening individual and inter-personal assets. Such programs, whether they are situated in low-income or high-income countries, have been shown to have short and long-term positive impacts on physical and mental health, overall well-being of adolescents, and a reduction in risky behaviours (Catalano et al., 2019; Gavin et al., 2010). In addition, Lee (2011) developed a comprehensive conceptual framework for the prevention of adolescent drug use. In his model, he integrated Catalano's PYD constructs, which had gained empirical support through the PYD program entitled Positive Adolescent Training through Holistic Social Programmes (Project P.A.T.H.S.) in Hong Kong (Catalano et al., 2012; Lee, 2011).

Lerner's 5Cs Model of PYD. Lerner and his colleagues (2005) operationalized what characteristics youth need to develop to thrive in society (i.e., 5Cs). The first characteristic is competence, which includes cognitive competence (e.g., problem solving), social competence (e.g., conflict resolution), academic competence (e.g., school grades), and vocational competence (e.g., work habits). The second characteristic is confidence, which refers to one's self-perspective and capacities. The third characteristic is connection, which refers to the positive relationships one has with his/her social environments. The fourth characteristic is character, which represents the values (e.g., morality, integrity) necessary for healthy behaviour in society. The fifth characteristic is caring, which represents the ability to be empathetic to others. Lerner and colleagues (2005) added that when all these characteristics are present in an individual, it helps mold the sixth C, which is contribution to society. These six characteristics (Cs) enabling youth to thrive are widely used by practitioners when planning and evaluating youth development programs (Geldhof et al., 2015).

In the scientific literature, there is empirical support for Lerner's (2005) 5Cs in various settings (i.e., sport, school, after school programs). For example, Pendry and colleagues (2014) conducted a randomized controlled trial to determine the efficacy of an 11-week equine-facilitated learning (EFL) program in improving the social competence of young adolescents. The experimental group participated in 11 (i.e., 90 minutes session) standardized activities, each having different learning objectives (e.g., communication, trust, leadership, relaxation). Further, different modalities were used for each lesson, such as mounted and unmounted activities, horse-human interactions, and personal and group reflections. Lerner's 5Cs were chosen as the study's theoretical framework because the EFL program activities aligned with the framework's rationale. Further, the ability to demonstrate social competence, one of Lerner's 5Cs, was chosen

by the authors because it is an indicator of academic achievement, mental health, and wellbeing. Findings indicated significant positive effects resulting from program participation such as improvement in decision-making, self-awareness, and self-management (Pendry et al., 2014).

For their part, Truskauskaité-Kunevičiené et al. (2018) evaluated the efficacy of the school-based intervention program *Try Volunteering* in the development of the 5Cs. The program was structured for adolescents to participate in eight, 45-minute sessions, in which a wide range of activities (i.e., group discussions, role plays, reflections) were developed to target one or more of the 5Cs. Each session concluded with program leaders encouraging adolescents to participate in volunteering activities to strengthen their individual assets. Further, at the end of the program, adolescents were given the opportunity to meet with leaders of real volunteer-based organizations, providing adolescents with the option to choose whether they would like to pursue new challenges within these organizations. The longitudinal study lasted one year and had a sample consisting of 615 adolescents aged 14 to 17 years from two Lithuanian schools. Findings showed that the program *Try Volunteering* was effective in fostering PYD because participants showed an increase in competence, connection, and caring, while maintaining stable levels of confidence and characters at post-intervention (Truskauskaité-Kunevičiené et al., 2018). Along the same lines, Strachan and colleagues (2018) conducted a study to explore how PYD through sport and physical activity is experienced by urban Indigenous youth. The study asked participants to discuss how they experienced each C through sport and physical activity. A total of 43 Indigenous youth in a Canadian city enrolled in an organized sport and physical activity program participated in this study, which included seven talking circles to generate data. The analysis was deductive in nature based on Lerner's 5Cs. Interestingly, participants understood each C through the inclusion of the self, helping stakeholders gain a more culturally relevant

perspective of how Indigenous youth experience sport and physical activity. Hence, Lerner's 5Cs have been discussed in the scientific literature from multiple points of view, study contexts, and designs (Shek et al., 2019).

Positive Youth Development through Sport

Research has shown that the development of assets is possible with the support of environmental resources, such as caring adults, in settings (e.g., school, sport, home) in which youth spend their time (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005; Larson, 2006). One popular context for youth is sport, which has been linked to physical and psychosocial benefits (Forneris et al., 2015; Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005; Gould, 2019; Gould & Carson, 2008; Holt et al., 2017). As a developmental context, sport has been shown to be conducive to several positive outcomes such as increased academic achievement, increased self-esteem, and, of particular interest in the present study, the development of life skills (Camiré, 2015b; Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005; Gould & Carson, 2008).

Models of PYD through Sport

As sport became increasingly considered a relevant context for PYD, many researchers developed sport-specific models to better study PYD in this context. In this section, Petitpas et al.'s (2005) model, Côté et al.'s (2014) model, and Holt et al.'s (2017) model are reviewed.

Framework for Planning Youth Sport Programs that Foster Psychosocial Development. According to Petitpas and colleagues' (2005) model, positive psychosocial development is influenced by four factors. The first factor that facilitates PYD is context. An appropriate environment for youth is one in which they are engaged, have fun, feel psychologically safe, and can develop their identity. The second factor that facilitates PYD is external assets, consisting of caring and supportive adults (e.g., parents, coaches). Positive

relationships with surrounding adults can expose youth to successful self-learning experiences inside and outside of sport. The third factor that facilitates PYD is internal assets. Effective youth sport programs should provide youth with opportunities to forge their values, interests, and skills, as well as foster youth's confidence in using their skills in multiple life contexts. The fourth factor is research and evaluation. It is important for programs to put in place comprehensive evaluation plans to document their efficacy and effects on youth participants. Considering that most programs have multiple outcome objectives, assessments should be multidimensional in nature to inform better practice.

This framework has been used in many sport-based youth development programs such as Play It Smart, Project Rebound, and The First Tee (Petitpas et al., 2008). Weiss et al. (2013) evaluated The First Tee program and the authors suggested that the success of the program can be attributed to the inclusion of the four components of Petitpas et al.'s (2005) framework. According to the authors, The First Tee program was successful for the following reasons: (a) the synergy between context, program delivery, and the intentional curriculum; (b) the availability of a manual on how coaches can introduce activities, teach strategies, and effectively coach behaviours for promoting PYD; (c) the integration of life skills and golf skills in a singular activity; and (d) the emphasis placed on supportive and positive relationships. Qualitative researchers (e.g., Camiré et al., 2013; Camiré et al., 2009) have used Petitpas et al.'s (2005) framework as a theoretical framework to analyze and discuss the experience of their study participants. In their study, Camiré et al. (2009) explored high school athletes' perspectives on support, communication, negotiation, and life skill development. Findings from this study supported the framework suggesting that youth are more likely to experience positive development when exposed to caring adults within an appropriate context that provides

opportunities to develop life skills. In another study, Camiré et al. (2013) conducted a case study of an ice hockey program designed to teach athletes life skills. Results showed that it was possible to establish a sport program designed to teach life skills within the school system. The effectiveness of the program was demonstrated based on its accordance with the components of Petitpas et al.'s (2005) framework, by having coaches and athletes develop strong relationships while taking time to implement life skills strategies (Camiré et al., 2013).

Along similar lines, Bean et al. (2015) conducted a study to explore the factors participants found important in the delivery of a female youth-driven physical activity-based life skills program, as well as their perceived outcomes resulting from participation in the program. Using Petitpas et al.'s (2005) framework, their findings showed that the female youth-driven program was led by strong and caring leaders that sought to teach life skills in a positive and challenging context, which supports the main components of Petitpas et al.'s (2005) framework.

Personal Assets Framework (PAF). Côté et al. (2014) developed the Personal Assets Framework as a tool to design sport programs that foster PYD. The PAF considers three key elements in the youth developmental process through sport: (a) personal factors (e.g., engagement in activities), (b) relational factors (e.g., relationships), and (c) organizational environments (e.g., social and physical settings). Côté and colleagues (2014) stated that the interactions between these elements during sport experiences can, over time, generate changes in an individual's personal assets. Côté and colleagues (2014) used four of Lerner's 5Cs (i.e., competence, confidence, character, and connection) to describe personal assets. In this model, the authors considered the contextual factors of youth sport by examining their role in generating changes in young individuals' competence, confidence, character, and connection.

In one study, Lundy et al. (2019) sought to explore how family dynamics (i.e., role and influence of parents and siblings) affect, in the broader context of the PAF (Côté et al., 2014), the development of Canadian interuniversity student-athletes over time. Findings from this study provided insights on the nature of family relationships, in addition to how the broader family context can facilitate or hinder athletic development (Lundy et al., 2019). These findings provided a theoretical understanding of how families factor are key elements (i.e., personal factors, relational factors) of the PAF.

Dionigi et al. 2018 used the PAF (Côté et al., 2014) to understand psychosocial development through Masters sport. The authors argued that since sport is mostly considered a youth-based context, there is a lack of research on sport as a context for development later in life. Thus, informed by the PAF, the study led to the emergence of a model of positive development among Masters sport athletes, which included 6Cs: competence and confidence, character, connection, commitment, cognition, and challenge.

Model of PYD through Sport. Holt et al.'s (2017) model is derived from the findings of a qualitative meta-study of 63 articles from the PYD through sport literature. When developing the model, Holt and colleagues (2017) viewed sport as a microsystem that is influenced by the macrosystems in which it is geographically and historically situated. Further, they acknowledged that not all individuals have the same characteristics (e.g., traits, gender, ethnicity) prior to participating in a sport program, which in turns influences their PYD outcomes. There are three main components to this model. First, the PYD climate, when defined by positive, supportive, and empathetic relationships with mentoring adults, peers, and parents, enables youth to live experiences conducive to PYD. Second, a life skills program focus includes life skills development and transfer activities (e.g., role modeling, discussion, explicit teaching). Third,

PYD outcomes (e.g., personal, social, physical) represent the benefits that can be obtained by participating in sport. Holt and colleagues (2017) developed the model as a guide for future research by proposing five hypotheses. The fourth hypothesis: "The combined effects of a PYD climate and a life skills focus will produce more PYD outcomes than a PYD climate alone" is of most important to the present thesis because the researcher developed an intervention to help teacher-coaches implement life skills focus strategies in their coaching and teaching.

Gerabinis and Goudas (2019) used Holt et al.'s (2017) model as a theoretical foundation to examine the experiences of young footballers regarding the role of peers and adults in structuring the PYD climate, their ability to develop life skills through football, and their thoughts on having PYD outcomes resulting from participation. Their findings suggested that youth believed that the general philosophy of the club affected the coaches' approaches as well as the actions of parents and peers during practices and competitions. Further, participants added that the overall philosophy of the other clubs in the league also influence the PYD climate (i.e., microsystems and macrosystems). Participants in the study did not report any explicit teaching strategies used by their coaches; however, they reported a wide range of life skills developed through their participation (Gerabinis & Goudas, 2019).

In another study, Johnston et al. (2019) sought to explore girls' experiences in one after-school PYD program called Reflective Educational Approach to Character and Health (REACH). Using a case study methodology, the authors focused on the experiences of young urban girls of colour who participated in REACH. Holt et al.'s (2017) model was used as a theoretical framework to guide the study by focusing on the relational aspects of the program supported by the multifaceted aims (i.e., integration of physical activity, academic development, and cultivating a safe space) of REACH. The findings helped increase our understanding of how

the girls' experienced a specific PYD climate shaping their PYD outcomes. Indeed, the findings highlighted the interrelated nature of adults and participants in co-creating a participant-centred space. This led to the empowerment of participants to make choices and voice their opinions regarding the enactment of the program activities (Johnston et al., 2019). These enactments reflect the second component in Holt et al.'s (2017) model (i.e., life skills program focus) while contributing to the PYD climate (i.e., first component), because participants had enjoyable and meaningful experiences (Johnston et al., 2019).

Critiques of PYD through Sport

Although there is some empirical evidence highlighting the benefits of sport, Coakley (2011) cautioned for more vigilance before assuming that sport inevitably contribute to PYD. For example, a review of the literature by Bean and colleagues (2014) identified potential negative outcomes related to sport participation (e.g., anxiety, burnout, alcohol and drug use, aggression). Furthermore, Coakley (2011; 2016), argued that sport stakeholders (e.g., youth program leaders, government leaders) are more concerned with individual success while disregarding societal issues and the need for collective progressive changes. By ignoring macro level contexts in which youth are living, youth are encouraged to accept the status quo (Coakley, 2016; Kochanek & Erickson, 2019). Thus, even if youth sport programs are devoted to PYD, they seldom plan for youth participants to develop critical awareness and reflection toward societal issues, which in turn, would give them the necessary tools to take actions against social injustice and inequalities (Coakley, 2016). Hence, Kochanek and Erickson (2019) argued that youth sport participation that avoids adopting a critical praxis fails to promote PYD and instead reinforces, in many cases, oppressive beliefs.

While researchers recognize that participation in sport does not automatically lead to PYD, when sport programs are ‘‘appropriately’’ structured, there is evidence for PYD outcomes (Fraser-Thomas et al., 2005; Gould & Carson, 2008; Lee & Martinek, 2013). Hence, moving forward, an effective way for sport programs to foster PYD is to include life skills development and transfer activities in the program that focus on promoting an increasingly inclusive society (Camiré et al., 2011; Holt et al., 2017; Pierce, Kendellen, et al., 2018).

PYD and Outdoor Education Programs

Another context in which youth partake in different types of sport and physical activities is outdoor education programs. Scholars (e.g., Asfeldt et al., 2020; Wattchow & Brown, 2011) in this field have stated that there is no universal definition to outdoor education, as it is a broad concept that varies depending on the region and culture. For the purpose of the present study, and in line with Potter and Henderson (2004), outdoor education refers to outdoor adventure programs in which youth partake in outdoor sporting activities. Based on the Canadian geographic situation, which is comprised of many lakes and forests, most outdoor education programs in Canada include activities such as canoeing, camping, biking, and hiking (Asfeldt et al., 2020). Interestingly, in a study exploring the PYD outcomes of urban youth partaking in a wilderness program, Norton and Watt (2014) showed that within a positively structured outdoor context, and through participation in different wilderness activities (e.g., backpacking, camping, canoeing), youth can form trusting relationships with adult leaders and develop life skills.

In a review of the outdoor education literature, Andre and colleagues (2017) found empirical evidence that such programs lead to many interpersonal and intrapersonal benefits for youth. Of those benefits, the authors discussed the learning/refinement of valuable transferrable life skills such as resilience, self-efficacy, and emotional control. In another study evaluating the

influence of outdoor challenge courses on youth' development of life skills, Flood and colleagues (2009) indicated that a one-day challenge course had a positive influence on youth's ability to practice their time management, leadership, and initiative. In sum, similar to traditional sports, outdoor education programs appear to have the potential to positively influence the development of youth through the learning and refinement of life skills (Norton & Watt, 2014; Bowers et al., 2019).

Life Skills Development and Transfer

Most youth sport organisations have established within their mission statement that promoting PYD is one of their primary goals (Camiré et al., 2009). Gould and Carson (2008) cautioned that for PYD outcomes to emanate from sport participation, the sport context must be structured in manners conducive to development. Thus, life skills development through sport gained traction as a particular subject of interest to youth sport researchers. Gould and Carson (2008) defined life skills as "internal personal assets, characteristics and skills such as goal setting, emotional control, self-esteem, and hard work ethic that can be facilitated or developed in sport and are transferred for use in non-sport settings" (p. 60). Transfer represents an essential feature whereby the skills learned in sport must be applied in contexts extending beyond sport to be considered life skills (Pierce et al., 2017). Hence, it is crucial to consider the notion of transfer as integral to life skills development. Pierce and colleagues (2017) defined life skills transfer as:

> The ongoing process by which an individual further develops or learns and internalises a personal asset (i.e., psychosocial skill, knowledge, disposition, identity construction, or transformation) in sport and then experiences personal change through the application of the asset in one or more life domains beyond the context where it was originally learned. (p. 194)

There are four key components within this transfer definition. First, life skills transfer is an ongoing process occurring over time, starting from the moment an individual develops a life skill in sport until he/she applies it in a different context. Second, the individual learner is at the core of the transfer process, meaning that transfer manifests itself in different ways based on the learner's pre-existing skills and characteristics. Third, the broad conceptualisation of what are considered life skills (i.e., the different types of personal assets) allows for learning and transfer processes to be understood in congruence with the evolving transformation of individuals that occurs over time. Fourth, the focus of this definition is on sport as the learning context, with transfer occurring in a wide variety of life domains, each offering different environmental conditions that either facilitate or hinder the transfer process.

Life Skills Transfer Models

Four models of life skills development and transfer through sport are detailed in this section.

Model of Coaching Life Skills through Sport. Gould and Carson (2008) conducted a critical review of the life skills development literature, noting that at the time, the field was lacking in sport-specific life skills development theories, which was weakening the work practitioners were doing on the ground. Thus, they developed a five-component heuristic model to advance the theoretical and practical knowledge of life skills development in sport. Firstly, the authors recognized that youth do not enter the sport context as blank slates. Indeed, they possess pre-existing skills (e.g., characteristics, abilities, life skills) and have past experiences (e.g., with parents, previous coaches) that influence how they will develop life skills through sport. Secondly, coaches have a major influence on youth sport participation experiences. Thus, coaches' characteristics (e.g., philosophy, accessibility) as well as their direct (e.g., instruction,

reinforcement) and indirect (e.g., modeling) teaching strategies are all factors that influence youth's life skills development and transfer. Thirdly, the authors proposed two sets of explanations, social environment influences and utility of life skills, to explain life skills development in sport. The social environment influences explanation refers to how youth's sport experiences can influence their sense of belonging with peers and attachment to supportive adults, as well as having the potential for positive identity changes (i.e., self-worth, perceived competence, locus of control). Relative to the second explanation, the authors suggest that how youth perceive a life skill learned in sport to be useful in another context plays a key role in influencing the extent to which life skills are develop and applied. Fourthly, outcomes of sport participation can be positive outcomes (e.g., school engagement) but also negative (e.g., injury). Fifthly, the last component of the model refers to the transferability of life skills to other life domains. This is a critical aspect of the model, considering that life skills development is under the conceptual umbrella of the PYD framework, with a principal focus on helping young individual become thriving adult.

Since the publication of the model (Gould & Carson, 2008), there is growing evidence supporting the model as a tool to examine how coaches teach life skills. For example, Camiré et al. (2012) examined the strategies and philosophies used by model high school coaches to coach life skills and their transfer. Nine coaches and 16 student-athletes participated in this study providing different accounts on how life skills are taught by coaches. Findings from the study supported Gould and Carson's (2008) model, showing that coaches understood athletes' needs and backgrounds (component one), established philosophies and strategies to coach life skills (component two), that coaches and student-athletes believed in the utility of life skills outside of

sport (components three and five), and that student-athletes' participation led to positive outcomes (component four).

For their part, Hardcastle et al. (2015) used Gould and Carson's (2008) model to evaluate the perceived effectiveness of a life skills program Developing Champions from multiple perspectives including athletes, coaches, parents, program facilitators, and sport administrators. Their findings suggested that the program was successful in developing adaptive behaviours (i.e., time management, planning skills) in and out of sport, consistent with components three and five of Gould and Carson's (2008) model. Further, the authors argued that for such programs to be effective, more emphasis should be placed on actually practicing the life skills taught and less effort should be put toward theory and information (component two). In addition, to achieve transfer outcomes (component four) program administrators should find ways to better involve parents and other adults to improve continuity.

Implicit/Explicit Transfer Framework. An important debate revolving around the notion of transfer is intentionality, which refers to the implicit and explicit coaching approaches that can influence transfer (Turnnidge et al., 2014). Researchers refer to the implicit approach when coaches do not implement specific strategies in their coaching practice to facilitate the transfer of life skills, assuming that athletes will automatically apply the life skills learned in sport in other settings. Thus, this approach consists mainly of creating a positive climate through positive relationships between athletes and coaches. In contrast, when coaches deliberately emphasise the importance of transferring life skills learned in sport to other life domains, it is viewed as the explicit approach. Some studies have demonstrated that an implicit approach may promote some life skills transfer (Camiré et al., 2009; Chinkov & Holt, 2016; Jones & Lavallee,

2009; Kendellen & Camiré, 2017), while others have shown that an explicit approach may be most conducive for life skills transfer (Bean & Forneris, 2016; Camiré et al., 2012).

The Implicit/Explicit Continuum of Life Skills Development and Transfer. Based on this model (Bean et al., 2018), the implicit versus explicit debate may be artificial, given that coaches' approaches to life skills development and transfer are better understood on a continuum rather than as a dichotomy. Bean and colleagues' (2018) continuum consists of six levels: (a) structuring the sport context, (b) facilitating a positive climate, (c) discussing life skills, (d) practicing life skills, (e) discussing transfer, and (f) practicing transfer. Please refer to Appendix A for a figure of the continuum. The first two levels, structuring sport context and facilitating a positive climate, are deemed implicit and refer to the environment created by sport leaders. On the other hand, the four highest levels: discussing life skills (level 3), practicing life skills (level 4), discussing transfer (level 5), and practicing transfer (level 6) of the continuum are deemed explicit and consist of talking about life skills and life skills transfer, and providing youth with opportunities to practice life skills in and out of sport. The premise of the continuum is that youth athletes have a greater likelihood of developing and transferring life skills as their coaches' behaviours move up the continuum. Bean et al. (2018) developed the continuum as a tool to guide researchers and practitioners in designing and evaluating youth sport programs.

Bean et al.'s (2018) continuum serves as a useful tool in delineating the levels of intentionality this intervention targeted. Specifically, the researchers supported teacher-coaches in working at the four highest levels: (a) introducing and defining life skills (level three; discussing life skills), (b) implementing life skills strategies in sport (level four; practicing life skill), (c) discussing opportunities to transfer the life skills in other contexts (level five; discussing transfer), and (d) strategies implementation in the classroom (level 6; practicing

transfer). Hence, teacher-coaches are ideally suited for transfer interventions, since they have roles of influence in two key school contexts: the classroom and the field of play (Camiré, 2015a).

A Model for Life Skills Transfer from Sport to Other Domains. Pierce et al.'s (2017) model was developed based on a thorough review of the transfer literature from multiple fields (i.e., sport psychology, education, and business). Please refer to Appendix B for a figure of the model. The authors developed this model to situate life skills transfer as an interactive and complex developmental process in which the individual plays an active and integral part (Pierce et al., 2017). Within the model, two families of factors are posited to influence transfer: four contextual factors and eight psychological factors. The first contextual factor is similarities between the learning and transfer context, which facilitate life skills transfer. The second contextual factor is that individuals who are provided more opportunities to practice life skills have more chances to be successful in applying their life skills in different contexts. The third contextual factor is that life skills transfer is fostered when the learner is positively encouraged by supportive adults to transfer life skills. The fourth contextual factor is that providing extrinsic or intrinsic rewards to individuals might reinforce continued transfer.

In addition to contextual factors, the authors (Pierce et al., 2017) identified psychological factors that influence athletes as they experience transfer contexts. The first psychological factor is unconscious personal reconstructions, which means that some transfer occurs implicitly beyond the individual's realm of conscience. The second psychological factor is the satisfaction of basic needs, which stipulates that the satisfaction of autonomy, relatedness, and competence facilitates transfer. The third psychological factor is confidence, referring to one's belief in his/her ability to successfully transfer a life skill. The fourth psychological factor is one's level of

engagement or interest toward the life skill, which will either hinder or improve the chance of successful transfer. The fifth psychological factor is one's awareness of transfer possibilities. The sixth psychological factor is the learner's perception of support from caring influential adults. The seventh psychological factor is perceived contextual similarities between learning and transfer contexts. Finally, the eighth psychological factor is the perceived meaningfulness of learning that propels an individual to use a learned skill in another context. Thus, within the model, coaches are critical actors within the sport context (i.e., learning context), who have the potential to facilitate life skills learning and transfer by influencing the aforementioned factors. Due to its comprehensiveness and focus on transfer, Pierce et al.'s (2017) model was used as the guiding conceptual framework for the present thesis to situate how high school teacher-coaches can facilitate life skills transfer from sport/outdoor education programs to the classroom.

High School Teacher-Coaches

High school sports in Canada are typically practiced outside of daily class hours, with student-athletes partaking in adult-organized competitive interscholastic leagues (Camiré, 2014). According to School Sport Canada (2020), which is Canada's national governing body for school sport, each year over 750,000 student-athletes participate in high school sports, which are overseen by 52,000 volunteer coaches. The mission statement of School Sport Canada is to "promote and advocate for positive sportsmanship, citizenship and the total development of student athletes through interscholastic sport" (School Sport Canada, 2020). High school sport participation provides opportunities for male and female students between the age of twelve to eighteen to partake in a wide variety of team and individual sports (Camiré & Kendellen, 2016). Thus, high school sport is positioned as a worthwhile developmental setting in which student-

athletes can increase their physical activity levels while they learn life skills (Camiré et al., 2009; Camiré & Kendellen, 2016; Forneris, et al., 2012).

In Canada, high school sports are primarily overseen by school teaching staff members who coach teams as part of their voluntary contribution to their school's extracurricular program (Camiré, 2014). Therefore, these individuals hold the dual role of teacher-coach (Camiré, 2014, 2015a). Previous studies (Camiré, 2015c; Winchester et al., 2013) have indicated that teacher-coaches are motivated to assume volunteer coaching positions for numerous reasons, including a better standing on their performance evaluations, a passion for sport, and an increased ability to contribute to student development. Past research has demonstrated that teacher-coaches have valuable opportunities to create meaningful relationships with their student-athletes based on the increased interactions their coaching role affords them (Camiré, 2015a). Since teacher-coaches are constant figures (i.e., regular interactions with student-athletes in different contexts) on school premises, it allows them to have an up close perspective of their student-athletes and an understanding of which factors (i.e., life experiences, personal characteristics) influence their personal and academic development (Camiré, 2015c).

Although high school sport participation has been associated with life skills development, explicit life skills teaching is not the norm for high school teacher-coaches (Camiré, 2015c). Thus, there is a need to examine which factors (i.e., contextual, psychological) are influencing life skills transfer from high school sport (Pierce et al., 2017). Given that youth spend most of their daytime at school, the classroom represents a preeminent and logical transfer context for the life skills learned in sport/outdoor education programs. With that in mind, teacher-coaches should take full advantage of the opportunities at their disposal to teach life skills in the two contexts within the high school setting where they hold positions of influence. Indeed, the

classroom and sport/outdoor education contexts provide significant opportunities to teach student-athletes life skills and increase their awareness and confidence for life skills transfer (Camiré, 2015a; Carson-Sackett & Gano-Overway, 2017).

Therefore, the purpose of this research was to implement an intervention to assist high school teacher-coaches in fostering life skills transfer from sport/outdoor education programs to the classroom. The intervention is guided by the following three research questions. First, how do teacher-coaches experience implementing life skills strategies in sport/outdoor education programs and then transfer/adapt these same strategies for use in the classroom? Second, how do student-athletes experience life skills strategies in both settings? Third, how do student-athletes believe the strategies implemented by their teacher-coaches influenced their development and transfer of life skills? The intervention was expressly designed to meet the needs identified in the coaching literature, whereby coaches have discussed a preference for experiential on-the-ground support for their learning (Erickson et al., 2008), especially when it comes to learning how to teach life skills (Santos et al., 2017). Furthermore, by providing continuous on the ground support, this intervention was able to offset the primary disadvantages (i.e., reduced feeling of engagement, lack of meaningful interaction, absence of practical components) identified by recent evaluations of online coach education courses (Camiré et al., 2020; Santos, Camiré, et al., 2019; Strachan et al., 2016).

Conceptual Framework

As mentioned above, the present thesis was framed using the life skills transfer model (Pierce et al., 2017). In relation to the intervention, the life skills learning context was sport/outdoor education programs and the life skills transfer context was the classroom. The model guided how the intervention was designed and implemented, with the researcher paying

close attention to how the strategies implemented by teacher-coaches considered the contextual and psychological factors posited in Pierce et al.'s (2017) model to influence the transfer process. Furthermore, the model was used to develop the interview guides, steer the observation periods, and guide the evaluation of the experiences of participants during the analysis phase. For example, based on the model, the researcher asked student-athletes if they believed their teacher-coaches made efforts to increase their confidence in applying in the classroom the skills they had learned in sport/outdoor education programs.

The present thesis is situated within three of Pierce et al.'s (2017) recommendations for future research. First, a specific definition of transfer was used in the thesis, which enhanced conceptual clarity. Second, the intervention was designed for data to be collected at multiple time points over a period of six months from multiple actors (i.e., teacher-coaches, student-athletes, the researcher). Third, the contextual and psychological factors influencing transfer were assessed in the present thesis.

Paradigmatic Position

The epistemological stance guiding the present research was constructionism, which considers that meaning is not discovered but rather constructed into each individual mind by interacting in a social world (Crotty, 1998). Constructionist inquiry emphasizes the interrelated nature of individuals and their social world by focusing on social participation, relationships, and the setting (Hyde, 2015; Packer & Goicoechea, 2000). The intervention delivered as part of this thesis was created and consolidated through interactions that occurred at the intersection between the researcher, the participants, and sport psychology theories. The methodology and the methods of the intervention align with constructionist inquiry, which encourages social action

(Hyde, 2015). Hence, this study was framed within an action research perspective, which is based on collaborative actions, critical reflection, and theoretical knowledge (Costello, 2003).

Methodology

This intervention was created because, from a life skills transfer perspective, there existed an opportunity to conduct a study with individuals who hold considerable influence in two contexts (i.e., sport/outdoor education program, classroom) on school premises. Further, based on the structure of the school from which participants were recruited, the teacher-coaches taught most of the student-athletes they coached. Such structure provided an opportunity to examine the contextual and psychological factors influencing transfer from both the perspective of teacher-coaches and student-athletes. The intervention was guided by the principles of action research with the aim of helping teacher-coaches optimize their ability to foster life skills transfer (Boog, 2003). Action research projects are based on theoretical knowledge and critical reflection to promote change (Costello, 2003). Action research aligns with constructionism by jointly engaging stakeholders in the co-construction of knowledge through collaboration and practical action (Greenwood, 2015). The researcher devised an action research cycle (planning, acting, observing, and reflecting) that guided the intervention through a systematic process of alternative action and reflection integrating both practice and theory in the change process (Dick, 2015; Hart, 1995). Although not conducted with participants deemed marginalized, this action research intervention was an opportunity for the teacher-coaches to improve their practice and gain confidence in positively impacting student-athletes in sport/outdoor education programs, in the classroom, and beyond. The researcher deliberately delivered the intervention to provide teacher-coaches with personalized, on-the-ground support for experiential learning. The teacher-coaches

themselves decided which life skills they wanted to teach in sport/outdoor education programs and in the classroom from January to June 2019.

Method

Context and Participants

Two high school teacher-coaches from the same public high school participated in the intervention. The school is situated in the province of Québec in Canada and is attended by 1,200 students ranging from 12 to 17 years of age. In Québec, the last year of elementary school (i.e., grade 6) is followed by five years of high school (i.e., secondary 1 to 5). The school's student population is predominantly constituted of francophone Caucasian students from mid to high socioeconomic status families. The school offers students in secondary 1 to 3 the option to enroll in an outdoor education program allowing them to learn and practice outdoor sporting activities (e.g., canoeing, hiking, mountain biking) during their three years in the program. Students in this program are selected based on their grades in elementary school, motivation to be in the program, and personal characteristics that will allow them to thrive in the program, as the regular school curriculum is condensed to allow time to practice outdoor sporting activities.

The first participant (TC1) is a 29-year-old francophone Caucasian male who had five years of teaching experience. TC1 teaches two school subjects, physical education as well as ethics and religion, to students in secondary 1 (i.e., 12-13 years of age). TC1 is the school's co-ed atom level football head coach and teaches physical education as well as ethics and religion to approximately half of the players on his football team. Given that the atom team's objective is to introduce young adolescents to football, the team plays under modified rules to provide a safe context. Specifically, there are only 6 players per team on the field at the same time and the team is comprise of a total of 20 players (i.e., 6 females and 14 males). The second participant (TC2)

is a 34-year-old francophone Caucasian male who had 11 years of teaching experience. TC2 teaches three school subjects, history, geography, and ethics and religion to students in secondary 2 (i.e., 13-14 years of age). TC2 is responsible for leading the school's outdoor education program for all secondary 2 students he teaches in the classroom (i.e., 28 students). Thus, both teacher-coaches consistently interact with a large number of their student-athletes in both sport/outdoor education programs and in the classroom. Ten student-athletes (five males, five females) participated in the post-intervention interviews. Student-athletes were between 12 and 14 years of age. Five student-athletes were taught and coached by TC1 and TC2, respectively.

Considering the methodological specificities of this thesis which sought to engage the researcher and participants in a collaborative working relationship, it is important to provide a description of all individuals involved, including the researcher. At the time of this study, I, the principal researcher, was a 27-year-old graduate student. I am a francophone Caucasian from a middle-class family. I was raised in a small town in the Province of Québec, in which the primary spoken language is French. Throughout my childhood, I played multiple teams sports, most notably baseball, lacrosse, and football. Over the last decade, I have coached football with a vast range of age groups; from 6-year-old children to young adults.

Procedure

After receiving ethical approval from the University of Ottawa (Appendix C), the researcher contacted the Executive Director of the Réseau du sport étudiant du Québec en Outaouais (RSEQ Outaouais), asking permission to contact high school coaches. Once permission was granted, the researcher sent to potential participants an email that included an invitation letter detailing the different requirements of the intervention. Five high school teacher-coaches contacted the researcher. After discussions with potential participants, two individuals

demonstrated a genuine motivation to participate in the intervention. Both teacher-coaches took part in a pre-intervention interview conducted in January 2019. Please see Appendix D for the teacher-coach pre-intervention interview guide. This interview allowed the researcher to start building a trusting relationship with each teacher-coach. Further, it constituted an ideal time to discuss expectations for the intervention and ascertain how each teacher-coach saw himself working with the researcher to implement explicit life skills teaching strategies in sport/outdoor education programs and in the classroom. At the conclusion of the pre-intervention interview, modalities related to ongoing researcher-participant communication (e.g., telephone, skype, text message, in person) and the conduct of observations (e.g., recorded, not recorded) were discussed. In light of the participants' busy schedules, their preferences were put into action to ensure the intervention was not a burden but rather an instrumental support for them. From the first time the researcher met with teacher-coaches to the day of their post-intervention interview, 137 days elapsed for the intervention conducted with TC1 and 83 days elapsed for the intervention with TC2. In total, the researcher was present at the school on 25 different occasions (i.e., 14 times with TC1 and 11 times with TC2), spending either half or full days with participants. Of note, the researcher spent two full days with TC2 during two distinct mountain biking expeditions. During these two days, the researcher followed the group and rode the same biking trails as them.

During the intervention, TC1 took part in three 5-step action cycles while TC2 took part in two 5-step action cycles. Please see Appendix E for a visual representation of the action cycle. First, following the pre-intervention interview, the researcher met in-person with each teacher-coach for them to select the preferred life skills they wanted to implement in their coaching practice (step 1). Following this meeting, each teacher-coach proceeded to implement in sport

their first chosen life skill. The researcher observed the implementation, took field notes, and audio-recorded the proceedings (step 2). Written field notes were taken to enrich the audio-recorded field notes, as the researcher focused on describing in detail contextual features, documenting the non-verbal actions of participants, as well as recording interactions between student-athletes and teacher-coaches. After each observation session, and based on gathered field notes, the researcher met with each teacher-coach, with each party providing their thoughts on how the implementation in sport/outdoor sporting activity went. The last part of this meeting was dedicated to discussing how the life skill taught in sport/outdoor sporting activity could be adapted to the classroom, and a decision was made concerning the best moment for implementation in the classroom setting to occur (step 3). Then, the researcher observed the implementation in the classroom, took field notes, and audio-recorded the proceedings (step 4). Following the observation, and based on gathered field notes, the researcher met with each teacher-coach, with each party providing their thoughts on how the implementation in the classroom went (step 5).

After TC1 took part in three action cycles and TC2 in two, post-intervention interviews were conducted with each teacher-coach (May/June, 2019). Please see Appendix F for the teacher-coach post-intervention interview guide. The aim of this interview was to further understand how each teacher-coach experienced the intervention as a whole and to obtain a sense of how contextual and psychological factors may have hindered/facilitated the transfer and adaptation of their life skills strategies from sport/outdoor education programs to the classroom (i.e., to answer research question 1). Furthermore, at post-intervention, five student-athletes per teacher-coach (i.e., both taught and coached by the teacher-coach) were interviewed. Invitation letters were sent to all student-athletes who meet the criterion of being both taught and coached

by the teacher-coach participant during the timeframe in which the intervention took place. The interviews enabled the researcher to gather student-athletes' perspectives on how they experienced the life skills implemented by their teacher-coach in sport/outdoor education programs and in the classroom (i.e., research question 2). Further, student-athletes were asked to share how/if they believed their teacher-coach's life skills teaching strategies in sport/outdoor education programs and in the classroom enabled them to learn and subsequently transfer their skills from one context to the other (i.e., research question 3). Please see Appendix G for the student-athlete post-intervention interview guide.

Data Collection

Data collection took place from January 2019 to June 2019. Over the 6-month intervention, data were collected using the following methods.

Individual Semi-Structured Interviews

Three interview guides were deductively created based on the principles of the life skills transfer model (Pierce et al., 2017). Each interview guide (i.e., pre-intervention with teacher-coaches, post-intervention with teacher-coaches, and post-intervention with student-athletes) includes specific questions that targeted the contextual and psychological factors influencing transfer. The three guides can be consulted in the appendices.

Observations

Overt non-participant observation was used in both the sport/outdoor education programs and classroom settings during each participant's action cycles. This meant that the researcher made teacher-coaches and students-athletes aware that he was not to take an active role in the situations being observed (Grey, 2014). The researcher observed from a distance and made efforts not to interfere with the teacher-coaches' implementation of life skills strategies. During

the observations, the researcher took field notes using the 6W perspectives (when, what, where, why, who, how) to gather the most details possible regarding the life skills strategies being implemented. Furthermore, details deemed outside the scope of the 6W, but appearing relevant to the researcher, were also considered within the field notes.

During the pre-intervention interview, the researcher offered to each teacher-coach the opportunity to be audio recorded during sport and classroom life skills implementation sessions. Providing the participants with a choice as to whether they wanted to be audiotaped or not aligns with the collaborative foundation of action research. Both teacher-coaches agreed to be audio recorded, which added interpretative dimensions to the implementation debriefings, allowing comparisons to be made between the researcher's field notes, the participant's recall, and the audiotapes.

Reflective Journal

A reflective journal was kept by the researcher for the duration of the intervention (Ortlipp, 2008). Entries to the journal were made by the researcher at different moments during the intervention process. The researcher wrote in his journal at opportune moments, such as after interviews, observation periods, and debriefing sessions. The journal entries differed from the field notes by not being concerned as much with descriptive details; rather, the reflective journal was an opportunity for the researcher to focus on his emotions, assumptions, and reflections relevant to the intervention process. Taking field notes and keeping a reflective journal aligns with Babbie's (1995) recommendation of recording what is seen and what the researcher thinks. Ultimately, the journaling process guided and nuanced the interpretations that were made during the analysis phase.

Data Analysis

Interviews, field notes, audio recordings, and reflective journal entries were analyzed using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2019), which aligns with constructionism. Thematic analysis was deemed suitable as the preferred analytical approach for the thesis because it allowed the researcher to look for patterned meaning across the different types of data collected. As Kellner (1999) noted, approaches based on multiplicity provide an opportunity to construct knowledge that can inform action.

The researcher followed the six phases suggested by Braun et al. (2016), which include: (a) familiarization with the data; (b) coding of the data; (c) theme development; (d) refinement of themes; (e) naming of themes; and (f) reporting the findings. To become familiarized with the data, the researcher transcribed verbatim the interviews and read each transcript. Audio recordings, field notes, and reflective journal entries were also listened to/read (phase 1). The software NVivo 12 (Qualitative Solution and Research, 2019) was used during the initial coding phase (phase 2) as it facilitated data management. During phase 2, the researcher, with the research questions in mind, annotated the data to identify salient passages illustrative of participants' experiences implementing life skills strategies during the intervention. The next step (phase 3) consisted of developing themes, which occurred in a deductive fashion using the contextual and psychological factors found within the life skills transfer model (Pierce et al., 2017). These factors were used as overarching themes, with codes clustered in relevant themes to provide a meaningful representation of participants' experiences. For example, under the contextual factor "opportunity for transfer" (Pierce et al., 2017), the codes were organized and combined to form the following themes; planning for life skills teaching, dedicating time to practicing life skills, and providing enough opportunities to practice life skills. Then, the themes were reviewed (phase 4) for there internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity (Braun &

Clark, 2006) to make sure they reflected the teacher-coaches' experiences as implementers of life skills strategies and student-athletes' experiences as recipients of life skills strategies. During the process of ensuring the internal homogeneity of the themes, the researcher paid particular attention to clustering the codes to form coherent themes which were consistent with the overarching theme. For example, in one instance, the theme "positive reinforcement" was moved from the overarching theme "perception of support" to the overarching theme "reward for transfer". With regards to ensuring external heterogeneity, the researcher made similar adjustments to themes to minimize conceptual overlap. In phase 5, decisions were made by the researcher and a critical friend (Smith & McGannon, 2017) regarding the defining and naming of the themes. For instance, under the overarching theme "similarity of context", a theme named "similar learning contexts" was changed to "structuring activities using similar teaching strategies". The change was made to represent more precisely what made the two learning contexts similar. The reporting phase occurred through the writing of several versions of the thesis to ensure that the researcher's interpretations reflected participants' experiences and answered the research questions (phase 6). Further, following discussion with the critical friend, a decision was made to write the results section using a chronological narrative approach, as it best represented participants' experiences during the entire length of the intervention.

Study Quality

In attempts to enhance study quality, a relativist approach was used, and the following strategies were selected based on their relevance to the intervention and the specific context of the research (Sparkes & Smith, 2009). Prior to conducting the study, the researcher felt it was important for him to participate in a bracketing interview. A bracketing interview is a supportive tool that qualitative researchers can use to be aware of their own assumptions that could

potentially influence the research (Crotty, 1998). Thus, considering that the researcher had prior experiences as a coach and athlete in high school sport in the province of Québec, the aim of the bracketing interview was to increase his awareness and to identify potential preconceptions that may influence the research process (Rolls & Relf, 2006). During the intervention, the researcher frequently looked back to the interview, notably while completing his reflective journal. This process helped reduce the influence of biases (i.e., the researcher's own coaching experiences and knowledge) the researcher held regarding participants' experiences within their context.

With the researcher leading the intervention and being regularly on school premises for approximately six months, he gained an awareness of the day-to-day functioning within the natural setting of the participants. This prolonged engagement enhanced his understanding of the setting and provided opportunities to develop meaningful relationships with the teacher-coaches and student-athletes (Burke, 2016).

Member reflections (Smith & McGannon, 2017) are embedded within the intervention design. Throughout each action cycle, the researcher and the participants worked in collaboration to achieve mutual understanding on how the intervention unfolded. At steps 1, 3, and 5 of the action cycle, the researcher and the participants reflected on and discussed how the implementation of life skills strategies unfolded. Moreover, after the post-intervention interviews, the researcher further engaged in member reflections by presenting his findings to the teacher-coach participants, stimulating a discussion defined by joint sense-making. These member reflection initiatives align with constructionism and action research.

Results

Participants' experiences are presented separately in the results section. For the two participants, each intervention cycle (i.e., three for TC1 and two for TC2) is detailed in a

chronological manner (i.e., step by step). Further, within each step, findings from the thematic analysis are detailed, consistent with Pierce et al.'s (2017) contextual and psychological factors influencing transfer, to answers the three research questions.

Teacher-Coach 1

Intervention Cycle 1: Goal Setting

Collaborative Selection of the Strategy (Step 1). After getting to know each other during the pre-intervention interview, TC1 and I met again to discuss more specifically which life skill TC1 would target with his football athletes and secondary 1 students. During the pre-intervention interview, TC1 verbalised explicitly his philosophy and the culture he wanted to implement with the school's football program. On multiple occasions, he mentioned that he uses the acronym DES (i.e., discipline, effort, sacrifice), to represent the culture of the program. Thus, student-athletes are encouraged to always act according to DES, which means that they should be disciplined, always put in effort, and be able to make sacrifices.

It was important for me that the life skill taught in the first intervention cycle reflected the qualities valued by TC1. I proposed at the meeting that goal setting could be the first life skill taught during the intervention. I explained my rationale to TC1 by stating that for student-athletes to be disciplined, put in effort, and make sacrifices, they first need to be able to set short- and long-term goals that help them understand what they are striving for exactly. TC1 showed instant enthusiasm for the proposition and added that it would be beneficial to include team goals alongside individual goals. Next, we discussed different ways to implement goal setting in the football context.

The first part of the strategy was to introduce student-athletes to goal setting by combining goal setting messages to DES messages when first addressing the team. We believed

that it would increase the buy-in from the student-athletes. Since the first intervention cycle started at the beginning of the spring training camp, TC1 mentioned that the timing was perfect, and he would be able to make goal setting integral to his messages to the team. The next part was to plan how TC1 would teach goal setting. Based on the sport psychology literature, one straightforward way of teaching goal setting is through SMART (i.e., specific, measurable, attainable, relevant, and time based) goals that are process oriented rather than outcome oriented (Doran, 1981). The last part was to plan for specific moments during practice during which TC1 would teach SMART goals. It was decided that TC1 would teach goal setting at the beginning of practice and do a brief recall session at the end of practice. Further, we both agreed that it would be a good idea for TC1 to ask veterans to lead a team discussion regarding what the team's collective goals would be for the season. The objective was to involve all student-athletes on the team and increase their sense of belonging.

Observation of the Implemented Strategy in Sport (Step 2). The first life skill strategy was implemented during the first practice of training camp, which was a great moment to set the tone for the season. Indeed, teaching goal setting as the first life skill turned out to be very timely because TC1 was able to address it in his first message to the team.

At the beginning of practice, as the whole team was gathered around him, TC1 started by talking about DES. He discussed its meaning before giving examples of how student-athletes can act accordingly. Then, TC1 proceeded to introduce goal setting. TC1 asked student-athletes their opinions on why, according to them, it is important to set goals. Some of their answers included the following: to get better, to surpass themselves, and to persevere. He acknowledged their answers and added that during the season, they would work on setting process goals, making the link between these types of goals and DES. Then, using the white board behind him, TC1 wrote

SMART and explained to the team that SMART principles were going to be used to set personal and team goals for the season. He then defined each letter of the acronym and gave sport-related examples. After introducing the SMART principles, TC1 fostered student-athletes' interest and engagement in the activities by being overtly enthusiastic: "Do you have any questions? I am very excited by this!! Are you eager to find goals for yourselves and to realize them?!" (TC1 - Intervention Cycle 1). Further, TC1 took time to explain to student-athletes that it is also possible for them to set goals in other life domains.

After the discussion on goal setting, the football practice started. My observation of the actual practice was a great moment that provided a glimpse into what type of coach TC1 is. He talked to every student-athlete, was very relatable, and used humour to connect. Indeed, he worked to develop strong relationships from the start, providing constructive feedback and encouragement.

At the end of practice, TC1 encouraged peer support when debriefing the SMART principles to the team:

> So, if you're a rookie and you don't know much about football, talk to others before setting up a goal for yourself. As for the team goal, I'll ask veterans to meet and talk to the team to come up with a goal for the season. (TC1 - Intervention Cycle 1)

One veteran was ecstatic about this leadership opportunity and immediately inquired about others' availabilities. This sort of reaction indicated a keen interest in the activity proposed by TC1, which in turn increased student-athletes' level of engagement. In his post-season interview, TC1 mentioned that he used debriefs as a tool to help student-athletes reflect on the life skill learned during the session. He said: "I did that to make sure everyone understood and were able

to apply it. So, I'd say that the beginning and the end of practice were the most important moments to discuss goal setting and that's what we did!"

Reflective Conversation and Adaptation of the Strategy to the Classroom (Step 3). After each implementation in sport, TC1 and I scheduled a time to discuss the classroom implementation. After the first practice, we talked about how TC1 did some nice work introducing goal setting and discussing transfer possibilities. However, more work was needed to consolidate student-athletes' learning of goal setting.

As for the classroom adaptation, we decided to create a goal setting index card on which students wrote individual and group goals. The idea was to introduce students to goal setting via a tool that shared some similarities with regular in-class documents that students were used to work with. Moreover, students had to identify three sources/situations that could hinder their chances of realizing their goals. Finally, we decided to add DES at the top of the index card so football athletes in the class could relate and make the link between the sport and classroom activities. The rationale was to explicitly adapt to the classroom a strategy that was previously employed in football to make them aware of transfer possibilities.

Observation of the Implemented Strategy in the Classroom (Step 4). The first classroom implementation occurred a few days after the sport implementation. At the beginning of a lecture in his ethics and religion class, TC1 informed the students that he was participating in a university study, and that I was in the classroom to observe him. Then, he mentioned that the plan for the day was to learn about goal setting and SMART goals. In addition, TC1 told the class: "I'm doing this not just with our group. Can my football players raise their hands? Everyone who has their hands up are on the football team and are doing the same activities that we will be doing today" (TC1 - Intervention Cycle 1). By TC1 letting the entire class know that

some classmates are also doing goal setting in football, the idea was to have the athletes become, to some degree, leaders during the activity, with the hopes that it would further increase their confidence with regards to setting goals in sport and at school.

The classroom implementation lasted longer than the sport implementation, as TC1 spent more time detailing SMART principles. Overall, students also had a lot more questions about what each letter in the acronym meant. TC1 used the interactive board in the classroom to provide visuals that helped him define the letters of the acronym. When students gave examples of possible individual goals, TC1 reiterated the importance of setting process goals and not outcome goals. He also indicated that everyone was different, that each one should set up goals that are relevant to them, and that goals can be used in different classes:

> By the way, we're doing this activity during our ethics and religion class but if you want to do goal setting in a class that you are having some difficulties, go for it. For example, if you're having a hard time in math, you can use SMART goals in all sphere of your life! (TC1 -Intervention Cycle 1)

When the students had their index card in hand, TC1 asked them to find a group goal. He acted as a facilitator while students were going back and forth on what goal they wanted to set for the class. Using the interactive board, TC1 wrote down their ideas and helped them formulate a goal that was SMART. When the class had settled on a group goal, which was that for each lecture, a minimum of five different students would ask questions related to the lecture's subject, TC1 asked everyone to complete the rest of the index card individually. As students were thinking of their individual goals, TC1 also asked them to identify three factors that could impact the realization of their goals. TC1 walked around the classroom answering questions and making sure their objectives were SMART. During their post-intervention interview, students mentioned

that these supportive behaviours by TC1 in football and in the classroom were important in their learning of goal setting. SA1 mentioned: “He did the same things in class. If you couldn’t find objectives, he would help you find an objective that fits you.’’

Observing TC1 in class reaffirmed to me the type of teacher he was. Indeed, just like the football practice I observed, TC1 used humour in class to relate with students and find ways to bond with them. He encouraged them to answer questions and showed genuine interest in what they were saying. It was evident to me that he valued collaboration in both contexts, which student-athletes recognized (Reflective Journal). On this particular notion, SA1 said in her post-season interview: “Everyone needs to be on the same page to make it work! It’s like this with football! Everyone needs to be able to help each other and it’s pretty much the same in class.” Hence, both contexts were treated similarly by TC1 in the sense that they were both approached as valuable learning contexts for student-athletes to learn life skills.

Reflective Conversation (Step 5). After the first implementation of goal setting in both the sport and classroom contexts, TC1 and I scheduled a moment to discuss and reflect on the actions taken. Considering the nature of the present study, those discussions/reflections were seen as critically important moments to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the first cycle. The discussion led to TC1 and I agreeing that to stimulate further learning, it was probably beneficial to undertake a subsequent goal setting cycle for the following two reasons. First, a high number of athletes on the football team were rookies who did not yet have enough football knowledge to establish goals for themselves after the first practice. Second, during the reflective conversation, we noted that for student-athletes to better internalize the utility of goal setting, TC1 would have to push the rationale further by including more in-depth discussions on the importance of goal setting and on the possibilities to transfer this life skill. Further, we agreed

that TC1 had to allocate more time to goal setting by developing activities that integrate goal setting and football-related skills. The objective was that the combined teaching of goal setting and football skills would strengthen student-athletes' belief that goal setting could be useful to them. Finally, considering the success of the SMART index card in the classroom, a decision was made to use the index card during the next football practice (Reflective Journal).

Intervention Cycle 2: Goal Setting

Collaborative Selection of the Strategy (Step 1). Between the time TC1 and I debriefed the first cycle and the moment we met to discuss the implementation of the second cycle, we had time to reflect on the first implementation and how we were going to plan the second strategy. Our reflections were targeted towards addressing some of the shortcomings of the first implementation. For example, we agreed that TC1 did not integrate enough goal setting activities within actual football drills.

To achieve that, we devised two strategies. The first strategy was to make students-athletes set a short-term process goal before a drill that relates to their overall individual SMART goal. For example, let's say a quarterback sets an overall individual goal to throw 100 accurate passes each week during practice. If a throwing drill is scheduled to last five minutes, the quarterback could aim to throw 20 accurate passes during the drill and add up his totals until he reaches 100 accurate passes during the week. The second strategy that we believed would strengthen student-athletes' internalization of goal setting was to introduce cues that would remind student-athletes of the team goal during practices and games.

In addition, TC1 and I planned to add new elements to initiatives that went well during the first cycle, such as adding in the goal setting index card a section in which student-athletes could write down specific actions they must undertake to be able to achieve their goals. For

example, if we take the example again of our quarterback who set a goal for himself to throw 100 accurate passes each week, he could make plans to go to a park two times a week with a friend/sibling to play catch to ensure he reaches his desired weekly number of accurate passes. The rationale was to help student-athletes develop a plan to attain their personal objectives. This would in turn make their objectives seem more attainable and help student-athletes work towards them. Ultimately, we believed that if student-athletes were given realistic opportunities to be successful in achieving their goals, there was a higher likelihood that they would want to repeat the process of setting goals to improve their football skills but ultimately to improve themselves in all domains of their lives (Reflective Journal). Other additions for cycle 2 included getting student-athletes to place their goal setting index card in their individual lockers and having the team goal written down and easily readable in the team's locker room. For cycle 2, we decided that I would observe two practices. The first practice was dedicated to reinforcing the learning of goal setting, as well as completing the goal setting index card. The second practice was dedicated to practice goal setting within football drills.

Finally, we also talked about the necessity for TC1 to further address the importance of goal setting and for student-athletes to be able to apply it in their everyday lives. I reiterated to TC1 the importance of having a consistent message during practices and games (Reflective Journal).

Observation of the Implemented Strategy in Sport (Step 2). At the beginning of practice, TC1 asked student-athletes, who were all gathered close to the white board what they remembered from the first discussion on SMART goals. Student-athletes recognized what each letter stood for and gave a rationale as to why it was important for them to set goals. Indeed, they discussed how goal setting was important to improve, to have something to strive for, to not be

discouraged, to be able to move the ball, and score touchdowns (Field Notes -Intervention Cycle 2). TC1 believed in what he was trying to accomplish with his student-athletes, which helped convince and engage student-athletes in goal setting: “I personally believe in this (goal setting), if I teach it to you, you’ll all be able too.” (TC1 – Intervention Cycle 2). Then, TC1 steered the conversation toward reminding student-athletes that they can use SMART goals in other areas of their lives. Student-athletes mentioned that TC1 made them aware of possible transfer opportunities. For example, SA5 said in her post-season interview: “Yeah! He would often explain it to us. Like, that is something we learned during football practices, but it could help us in class, at home or with our friends”.

During step 1, TC1 acknowledged that most of the team members were beginners that had little or no prior experience in football. Thus, when he explained the objective of that day’s practice, which was for every student-athlete to complete a goal setting index card, TC1 suggested to rookies that they set SMART goals that were geared toward their effort or discipline (e.g., knowledge of the playbook, listening to the coaches). By emphasizing these types of goals, TC1 also emphasized the DES values of the team.

At the end of practice, TC1 gathered the team in the locker room. Standing beside the team logo, TC1 mentioned to the team that it was time to identify the team’s SMART goal for the season as well as individual goals. He handed out the goal setting index card so all student-athletes could complete it. As athletes were sitting at their locker completing their goal setting index card, TC1 walked around the room and answered questions. When done, student-athletes were asked to place their goal setting index card in their locker. Student-athletes recognized that completing the goal setting index card and being exposed to goal setting messages frequently by TC1 helped them to become engaged in applying goal setting in sport. SA3 said in his post-

season interview: “Every time we came to the locker room, we saw the card and it reminded us that we had a goal to attain.” Further, student-athletes mentioned that completing their goal setting index card as a team activity helped them. Indeed, they took time to look at others’ goals and even took time to discuss it between teammates. SA1 said in her post-season interview: “Like we could talk with each other about our objectives. He gave us time to do it! Like if you wanted to talk about it with a friend. I did ask my friend what objectives she set for herself”.

When TC1 felt that all athletes had completed the goal setting index card and stuck it in the back of their locker, he gathered the team in the middle of the locker room and asked them about their thoughts regarding the team goal. TC1 said: “We’ve got to find an objective that at each practice, at every moment, this is something that we can apply. That each time we step on the field, there is something that would make us strive to get better” (TC1 - Intervention Cycle 2). SA3, one of the team’s veteran, instantly answered: “To me, it’s when you are doing drills, it’s to always give your 100%. Never slow down” (SA3 – Intervention Cycle 2). That was the starting point. From there, TC1 and the student-athletes engaged in a discussion that lasted a few minutes on how to better formulate a goal so that it is SMART. The team agreed that their team goal would be “Atom Football 2019 team goal: Each player will give 100% effort at all times, until the whistles blow” (Field Notes – Intervention Cycle 2). TC1 wrote the goal down under the team logo, and then made every player sign their name below the team goal as a form of contract signing. Thus, he wanted them to be accountable by signing their name on their individual goal setting index card and below the team goal.

Finally, after the practice ended, as student-athletes were slowly leaving the locker room, some players from the senior team came in. The captain, and vocal leader, saw the atom team’s goal under the logo and urged his teammates to do the same. It was a welcomed surprise to TC1

and me that the senior team would adopt an initiative of the atom team, as this was not the target of the intervention. At that moment, we realized that the impact of the intervention could be bigger than the team and could infiltrate elsewhere in the school (Reflective Journal).

The second practice was dedicated to practicing, during football drills, the goals athletes had set up for themselves and for TC1 to use verbal (e.g., On the hop!, Finish!) and behavioral (e.g., use of whistle) cues linked to the team goal. The second practice started as usual, as TC1 always gathered the team to introduce the practice plan. TC1 explained the objective of that practice to student-athletes, which was to include goal setting activities during football drills. He also reminded everyone of the team goal and added that he was going to start using cues as reminders. Most notably, he emphasized the use of his whistle during drills, stating that student-athletes must put forth 100% effort until they hear the whistle.

The following are two examples during practice in which student-athletes practiced goal setting. First, when the offense was working as a unit and was reviewing plays. TC1 asked one of the wide receivers, whose goal was to know 100% of the offensive playbook, to identify all the receiver routes before each repetition. Based on student-athletes' testimonies, having their coach provide them direct and tangible opportunities to practice goal setting in the team environment was critical in their learning. Indeed, peer support influenced the development and application of goal setting. SA4 said in his post-season interview: "Like if teammates encourage you, it gives you confidence, like when people encourage you when you set a good goal for yourself." Also, the student-athletes mentioned how TC1 was supportive in their overall life skills learning process (not just goal setting), that he someone who was able to help them apply life skills by increasing their confidence. For some student-athletes, TC1 support came in the form of helping them identify what type of goals were relevant to them. SA1 said in her post-season interview:

"Oh yes, yes. He really encouraged us! Like, he would also provide us with suggestions, if we could not find any."

The second example occurred during a team competition in which TC1 used two whistles as cues to maximal effort. The first whistle was to encourage defensive players to actively pursue the ball carrier. The other whistle indicated the end of the play. That way, student-athletes had to put forth their maximum effort and not stop playing before they heard the second whistle. Finally, at the end of practice, TC1 congratulated student-athletes for their effort and made a link between goal setting and DES. All student-athletes got together for the team breakdown. To our surprise, they had changed the team cheer to "One, two, team; One, two, Finish," which is directly related to the team goal and a verbal cue used by TC1 (Field Notes – Intervention Cycle 2).

Reflective Conversation and Adaptation of the Strategy to the Classroom (Step 3). After two cycles of goal setting in sport, TC1 was convinced of its meaningfulness for the development of student-athletes. Hence, it is something he stated he would continue implementing: "Yes, with regards to my coaching, for sure I'm going to do it again because the kids loved it! It easily applicable, like it's smart. The fact that it is smart, kids understand it and apply it" (TC1 – Post-Season Interview). Thus, TC1 and I believed that goal setting strategies implemented in sport were successful.

With regards to the implementation in class, the main objective was for TC1 to engage students in an in-depth discussion on goal setting and on the possibilities to apply goal setting in their everyday lives. The plan was to reinforce students' development of goal setting skills. In addition, it was agreed upon that TC1 would give back the goal setting index cards that students completed during the first implementation. He would provide feedback, mostly to make sure

their goals were SMART. These goals would then serve as the foundation to complete the second goal setting index card in which students would write down concrete and specific actions to undertake to achieve their objectives. Finally, similar to what student-athletes did during the football practice, TC1 instructed students to place their goal setting index cards inside their locker as a daily reminder. Students would also fill-in the new cards and place them on the cover of their ethics and religion notebook.

Observation of the Implemented Strategy in the Classroom (Step 4). The second classroom implementation started with TC1 reminding students of the group goal. Then, he handed out the first goal setting index card that students had completed during the first cycle. It is important to note that, prior to the implementation, TC1 had acquainted himself with the individual goals set by students in the class. Thus, he had a very good understanding of students' development of their goal setting skills. After they all received their goal setting index card, TC1 started by giving feedback on some of the students' goals. He provided good and less good examples he had noticed and asked the class to state if they were SMART goals. The goal of this review was to help students identify and formulate SMART goals for themselves.

Following the discussion, TC1 handed out the second goal setting index card, telling them to make sure their goals respected SMART principles. He gave them a few minutes to write their goals, while offering to answer questions. Then, when he felt they had completed the first part of the goal setting index card, he said that the plan for that day was to think of strategies that could be put in place to help them achieve their goals. He asked a few volunteers to disclose their goals to the group and discussed examples of strategies that could be done to achieve these goals. During this conversation, TC1 provided students with direct feedback and encouragement in front of the whole group. He verbalized his rationale for providing encouragement, stating:

> It's as easy as saying "good job" to a student. To give them positive feedback and positive reinforcement. It works a lot, mostly because they are secondary 1 kids. It works with the youngest, at that age, they like being told that they did good in front of the whole class. (TC1 – Post-Season Interview)

Student-athletes also said that positive reinforcement from TC1 in the form of individual encouragement was a main reason why they continued applying goal setting in class. SA2 mentioned in her post-season interview: "Yes, for sure he encouraged us, so we would do it again."

I observed that the student-athletes ended up being those who were the most vocal during the class implementation of goal setting. They were often the first to answer questions as well as to provide examples for the class. Moreover, on multiple occasions, they mentioned how they perceived many similarities between what they were doing in football practices and in class. Thus, by being exposed to goal setting messages on multiple occasions and in multiple settings, I noticed gains in student-athletes' confidence for goal setting (Reflective Journal). Further, in cycle 2, student-athletes believed they had sufficient opportunities and were provided with enough time to practice goal setting in class. SA3 said in his post-season interview:

> We had a lot of time. We spent more than one lecture to do it and we had a card to complete. The group goal, we did it all together. Our individual goal had to be SMART, and we reviewed it to make sure that all our objectives were SMART in the end.

Finally, when every student had completed their goal setting index card, TC1 asked them to insert it in the cover page of their ethics and religion notebook. That way, they would see their goals each time they came to class and every time they studied.

On multiple occasions during the lecture I observed, TC1 reiterated to students that they were practicing goal setting in class, but that the ultimate goal was to help them understand how they could become proficient in setting goals in every sphere of their lives (Field Notes – Intervention Cycle 2). On this notion, SA4 said in his post-season interview: "Yeah, it's important because SMART goals can be used everywhere in your life. Like in your study, in sports, or in class. These are objectives to get better and it's true, it works!" SA5 stated in her post-season interview that she was quite convinced by TC1 and his life skills messages: "Like he really made us think about it. So, at some point, I had some sort of a click! Like I should really listen because it would be really good for me to do it."

Reflective Conversation (Step 5). Throughout the intervention, reflective conversations were important, representing ideal moments to reflect on the strategies used to teach life skills to student-athletes. After the second implementation of goal setting in class, TC1 stated how he was happy with what he had accomplished. Indeed, he firmly believed that he had influenced student-athletes' development and transfer of goal setting. Also, he believed that he did make a difference in young adolescents' lives (Reflective Journal). Hence, TC1 referred to the intervention as a tool that helped him reconnect with the fundamental reasons why he initially decided to take on the dual role of high school teacher-coach. He said:

> It takes 10 years to know if you did a good job as a youth coach. You'll see kids after that time and like what are they doing now!? That's what drives me as a coach. So, I think the study helped me get back to that and not only as a coach, but as a teacher too! (TC1 – Post-Season Interview).

In addition, TC1 and I discussed options for doing the third classroom implementation in his physical education class. After doing the first two intervention cycles in his ethics and

religion classroom, TC1 wanted to implement the third cycle in a different context. Moreover, since TC1's academic background is in physical education, I suspected that the gymnasium would be a context in which he would be quite comfortable, which in turn could influence student-athletes' development and their transfer of life skills (Reflective Journal). Hence, it was a great opportunity to see if similarities (or differences) of classroom context would facilitate or not transfer.

Intervention Cycle 3: Stress Management

Collaborative Selection of the Strategy (Step 1). After the successful two-cycle implementation of goal setting in football and in the classroom, TC1 and I wanted to continue to build on what was accomplished for the third intervention cycle. At that point in the intervention, TC1 and I had built a good relationship, and we were able to genuinely share our ideas and thoughts. TC1 mentioned:

> We could communicate by messenger, text message, by phone, you were often present at school. The fact that you were present, whether it was in class, at the gym or on the field, facilitated the collaboration. The way we were able to work together was great! (TC1 – Post-Season Interview)

As the third intervention cycle began, the school year was close to ending, which meant that final exams were approaching and that the spring football season was about to start. In the upcoming weeks, student-athletes were about to be exposed to many performance situations. TC1 and I decided that it would be relevant to provide student-athletes with tools to face stressful and challenging moments, as well as being able to achieve their goals. Thus, TC1 and I concurred that the third intervention cycle was to focus on teaching stress management skills to student-athletes.

As I got to know TC1 better, it came to my attention that he had prior knowledge of the concept of flow, as well as a keen interest in meditation. This information, coupled with the fact that I was familiar with the concentration and mindfulness scientific literature, led to me proposing two strategies to help student-athletes manage their stress, which TC1 was excited to teach. The goal was not to overload students with concepts, but to teach them quick and easy strategies they could use while feeling stressed. The first strategy was a relaxation technique (i.e., box breathing), and the second strategy was a concentration technique (i.e., re-centring). Both strategies were simple enough that student-athletes would not have too much difficulty in grasping and applying them in performance situations.

Observation of the Implemented Strategy in Sport (Step 2). TC1 started practice by reminding his student-athletes that they were about to play their first game of the season at the end of the week. For some, it was going to be their first football game ever. He acknowledged that stress would undoubtedly be present on game day. Hence, the plan was to practice two strategies to help alleviate stress. He asked students about the impact stress can have on their performance and made the link between exam results and their level of stress. TC1 mentioned that not enough stress may impact how they prepared while too much stress may impact how they reacted. He made the point that stress may get in the way of being in the present moment.

Then, TC1 introduced the first strategy: “So now, what we are going to do together before warm-up is to focus on our breathing, so we focus on the present moment” (TC1 - Intervention Cycle 3). TC1 explained the strategy called “box breathing,” which is essentially a four-step breathing strategy in which student-athletes inhaled, held their breath, and exhaled, alternating between each steps every four seconds. To help them remember the strategy, TC1 used his hands to portray a box and told them to remember 4-4-4 as a reference to the number of

steps, the number of seconds between each step, and the number of times the exercise could be repeated. Then, he asked students to follow his lead as he guided them through the breathing exercise. The second strategy that he proposed to student-athletes was re-centring to help regain focus. He mentioned that sometimes student-athletes may not have time to do the breathing exercise, so they should use keywords to try to calm down and refocus instead. To illustrate his point, he used his experiences as a player to highlight how useful keywords could be. He wrapped up the discussion by saying that keywords must be kept short and relevant.

TC1 believed that being supportive of student-athletes, while also not imposing any specific strategy, was key to them finding their own ways to manage their stress. He said:

> Like, I would never force someone to do it. I would make suggestion, try this or this. I believe it would help reduce your stress or help you be more focused. Nine times out of 10, kids try it, because there is some trust between us. (TC1 – Post-Season Interview)

Indeed, based on student-athletes' testimonies, it seems that TC1's strategies to teaching life skills allowed student-athletes to feel some level of autonomy. First, student-athletes believed that they had some choice over the strategies they wanted to use. SA1 said in her post-season interview: "Yeah, I had the choice. I did not feel I was forced to choose one or the other. Really what I wanted to do is what I was going to. He made suggestions, but we weren't forced to comply." Second, student-athletes stated being free to choose to apply or not strategies given by TC1 was appreciated. SA2, in her post-season interview, added: "It helped me a lot, because if he had forced me to do something I didn't want, I wouldn't be happy to do it. Since, he let me choose, sometimes I did use them, sometimes I didn't." Hence, feeling autonomous seemed to have facilitated student-athletes' internalization of stress management skills.

Reflective Conversation and Adaptation of the Strategy to the Classroom (Step 3).

The implementation of stress management strategies went well, as TC1 felt comfortable teaching both strategies. I observed how his delivery was fluid and convincing. Further, I believe having TC1 use personal experiences as illustrative examples of how to use these strategies was key in convincing student-athletes of their usefulness. Moreover, the timing was also key in being able to provide student-athletes with relevant tools, with games fast approaching.

For the adaptation to the classroom, contrary to the first two intervention cycles, the implementation would take place in the gymnasium during TC1's physical education class. Hence, the observation I conducted took place during a period in which students were evaluated on physical tests. TC1 discussed how he usually plans his physical education classes and detailed how he wanted to incorporate the teaching of stress management strategies:

> There is time to do it in class (gym). There are always moments. There are always three of four moments. Like, I take the attendance. I explain the lesson plan. They always have a small activity and then I explain the other activity and explain the last game. Most of my classes look like this. So, in these moments, I could talk about it and at the end, it's important to always take time to debrief what we learned. (TC1 – Post-Season Interview)

The inherent contextual similarities between physical education in the gymnasium and football on the field facilitated how TC1 planned and adapted the two strategies. According to TC1: "Both are human movement activities. The objectives are to get better and to apply the good techniques. The similarities also lie in the pleasure of being active" (TC1 – Pre-Season Interview). Thus, with both contexts being movement-based, TC1 could use very similar strategies as well as keep the same structure of lesson.

Observation of the Implemented Strategy in the Classroom (Step 4). TC1 and I planned for the strategy to be implemented and observed on the same day students had their end

of year physical testing. Students were aware they had a test that morning, and many of them entered the gymnasium a little bit stressed. When the bell rang, TC1 gathered students close to a whiteboard, where he had drawn the Yerkes and Dodson (1908) inverted U curve. He introduced the life skill of stress management by explaining the relations between arousal and performance. He then proceeded to give sport and school examples of situations where more or less stress is needed to optimally perform. Then, he asked students to provide their opinion on the importance of being focused during a performance and wrote their answers on the whiteboard. He steered the discussion towards the importance of being able to manage one's stress. He stated that he was going to teach them two different techniques.

The first strategy is a breathing exercise TC1 called box breathing. To help students visualize the strategy, he drew a box on the board. Each side of the box represented inhaling or exhaling. He said: "When you are overly stressed, it is important to do this breathing exercise." (TC1 – Intervention Cycle 3). The second strategy is one that TC1 deemed more useful when a performance is becoming stressful and challenging. He suggested to students to have a keyword that would help them regain focus in the middle of a performance. He said: "Keywords help you channel your mental energy, so you focus on the right cues again" (TC1 - Intervention Cycle 3). He added that today would be a great moment to practice these strategies. Finally, he split the class in four running groups. Before each group did their running test, TC1 led a box breathing relaxation exercise, in which all students participated.

Student-athletes stated how being exposed to different life skills strategies taught by TC1 helped them gain confidence in applying in class their life skills. SA2 said in her post-season interview: "Like before, I didn't know how to use strategies, or that strategies to get better existed. Like I knew but I didn't use them. Since he showed us, it helped me understand and use

them." In relation to gaining confidence from TC1, SA1 said in her post-season interview: "For sure, all the encouragement gave us confidence, to try the concentration and relaxation strategies. If he hadn't encouraged us, for sure that we wouldn't have done it."

Reflective Conversation (Step 5). Based on my observations, I deemed that the implementation of stress management skills was successful, in the sense that TC1 was comfortable teaching the subject, which allowed for interesting and in-depth discussions with students (Reflective Journal). Student-athletes seemed to have taken the role of leaders in the class, as I observed them answering questions, giving examples, and encouraging reluctant classmates (Reflective Journal). TC1 believed that this occurred because student-athletes benefited from his support and constant presence on school premises, making it possible for him to provide prompt feedback about what they had learned in class and in sport. On this notion, during his post-season interview, TC1 said: "Each time I saw them in the hallway, I always provided them with feedback on what they did at practice or in class. Just little positive feedback or reminders of their objectives. These definitely facilitated transfer, I think."

With regards to the intervention itself, TC1 mentioned consistency as a major challenge of teaching life skills in sport and in class, while managing all other responsibilities (e.g., exams, workshops). He emphasized the importance of having myself to help him during the intervention as key in allowing him to plan for explicit life skills teaching in the coming years. He said:

> That was definitely an advantage to do this project with you this year. It put an idea in the back of my head. Like teaching life skills, it helps us be more effective as teachers. So, next year, I'm probably going to teach the same courses, so it will definitely be a part of my planning (TC1 – Post-Season Interview).

Student-Athlete Outcomes

In this section, results are presented that help answer the third research question, using data from the five student-athletes who participated in the post-intervention interviews. Student-athletes shared how they believe they learned and transferred goal setting and stress management skills from TC1.

Student-Athlete 1. SA1 discussed two outcomes resulting from being taught/coached by TC1, as she participated in the intervention. First, SA1 mentioned how she believed she changed her behaviour in ways that helped her perform better at school:

> Yes, for sure I used the strategies that he taught us! It definitely helped me, like to find strategies to reach my goals. Now I study one hour every night. Before I didn't study that much, and my grade weren't as high. Now that I study more, my grades have gotten higher. Also, just the relaxation technique helped me!

Second, SA1 mentioned that she did not find keywords as something she is going to use when faced with stressful situations: " No, not really, if I want to relax, I just take a deep breath and sometimes I'll do the (Box) technique he taught us. But I don't really have any keywords."

Student-Athlete 2. During the post-intervention interview, SA2 provided multiple examples of applying strategies taught to her by TC1:

> In ethics class, when we talked about SMART goals, it definitely helped me. Now, I do have concrete goals to improve on. When we did stress management in physical education, it helped me to regain my focus. Now I know what to do to regain focus and calm down. Now, before exams, I do the box breathing to reduce my stress. So, I use that technique!

In addition, SA2 mentioned how she used goal setting in contexts extending beyond those where she was under the tutelage of TC1: “I have also set up goals for my math and French classes and I’ve also used it during my basketball practices and games.”

Student-Athlete 3. SA3 mentioned using his goal setting skills learned in football and in class to help improve his sleep hygiene: “Like the objectives that I did, like I really used that. I’ve used them every day. My goal was to go to bed earlier, that was at home and it helped everywhere.” Further, in specific reference to the concept of transfer, SA3 added: “There is definitely a link, because it can be done every day. I do see the link. I started practicing life skills in football practices, but it is really gonna help in the future!”

Student-Athlete 4. SA4 provided positive feedback on the SMART strategy of goal setting: “SMART goal setting helped me the most. The fact that I gave myself objectives, always a bit higher, a bit more challenging, I was able to improve. Also, it helped me with my concentration.” Further, he demonstrated an understanding that goal setting could be applied in other spheres of his life when he said: “I think I’m gonna use it when playing golf this summer. One of my goals that I told myself is to hit 300 yards with my driver by the end of the season.”

Student-Athlete 5. SA5 gave a number of examples that illustrated how she felt she developed and applied both life skills taught by TC1. With regards to goal setting, SA5 said: “It made me more aware of time. Like I wanted to set a goal and I thought of obstacles that I faced, and there were a lot! So, I made a schedule and I made it work!” She added that during an actual football game, she used the keywords strategy to regain focus: “I was in coverage one on one. So I told myself I’m good, stay focused! So I talked to myself and it ended up that I made a play!”

Moreover, SA5 stated that she transferred and applied the box breathing exercise to reduce her stress when taking part in an improvisation group: “Yeah, I was really nervous, since

it's a small group together and there are rules and everything. So, I was nervous to do good. So, I used the breathing strategy and I did it. It was okay." SA5 added that she anticipated continuing to use the life skills she learned from TC1:

> Yes! Like, it served me well this year, so I could see myself using it next year since I'm going in secondary 2, it might be more difficult. So, I'll need these strategies to stay focused. I'm pretty sure I'm gonna use it again. I do use the breathing strategy a lot, and keywords, so yes!

Perspective of TC1 on Student-Athlete Outcomes. When discussing if he thought student-athletes had developed and transferred goal setting and stress management skills, TC1 gave the following example during his post-season interview:

> Kids still talk about SMART goals. Like we were doing a classroom activity and they said something like coach, yes even in class they call me coach: "say on the hop, we will do it faster!" So, they applied something we did in football in the context of a classroom activity. So, you could see transfer there, and that is not me who, it comes from them! I didn't even think about "on the hop". So, this was a fun thing to see!

TC1 believed that having student-athletes see him often and in multiple school contexts facilitated their continued ability to apply goal setting and stress management skills. TC1 gave the following explanation during his post-season interview to support his thoughts:

> I do believe that more than half of them are going to continue to do it. Because I repeated it a lot, because I do it and because I will do it again with them next year. It's the type of thing that I'm going to bring back to my coaching, because it's also personal tools for myself. So, for half of them, those that I am able to stay around, I believe they will be able to apply it by themselves and become autonomous.

Teacher-Coach 2

Intervention Cycle 1: Attention, Courage, Initiative, Teamwork

Collaborative Selection of the Strategy (Step 1). When I met with TC2 for the first time, he mentioned being very interested in participating in the study since the intervention could be an opportunity for him to reflect on and improve his practice (Reflective Journal). However, he admitted being concerned about time constraints with regards to his family, as well as his ability to fully commit to the study while meeting his academic responsibilities (Reflective Journal). To mitigate his apprehensions, I reassured him that the study would not be a burden to him, as my aim was to facilitate his planning of life skills strategies. My main objective was to help TC2 gain confidence and efficacy in promoting student-athletes' life skills development. It was of upmost importance to me that the life skills taught were of value to TC2, as well as being relevant within his contexts.

During his pre-intervention interview, TC2 described the nature of the outdoor education program and his long-term vision for it. While describing the program, he mentioned four life skills (i.e., attention, courage, initiative, and teamwork) he wanted student-athletes to develop during their three years in the program. However, after questioning TC2 on how he believed those life skills could be developed, it became apparent to me that these life skills were not explicitly taught by TC2. Hence, we both agreed that the objective of the first intervention cycle would be to explicitly teach the four aforementioned life skills.

We planned for the implementation of these four life skills during an indoor rock-climbing activity, as it was the sporting activity scheduled for the group at that moment. We decided to separate the implementation into two instances. First, we developed an activity that required student-athletes to use their rock-climbing skills as well as the four life skills.

Specifically, student-athletes had to hold onto the wall for two minutes and if one student-athlete fell, the whole class had to start again. This game exposed student-athletes to a situation where they had to work as a group (teamwork), consider others' needs (attention), and change positions on the wall as there were different levels of difficulty (initiative and courage). Second, after completing the activity, TC2 engaged student-athletes in a discussion on how the four life skills manifested themselves during the activity, as well as providing examples of how to transfer these life skills.

Observation of the Implemented Strategy in Outdoor Sporting Activity (Step 2). When I arrived at the school the morning of the first implementation, TC2 was already there, wearing his climbing gear and standing in front of the two climbing walls installed in one of the school gymnasiums. Soon after, as student-athletes gradually entered the gymnasium, I noticed behaviours in line with the life skills (e.g., initiative and teamwork) targeted with the first strategy. For example, some student-athletes made sure the environment was safe to use, while others got the gear out and started distributing it. Further, working in pairs, student-athletes made sure their partner had securely put on their gear. Such behaviours suggested to me that initiative and teamwork skills were being developed implicitly by the student-athletes, even though TC2 had not devised explicit strategies to teach such skills in the outdoor education program (Reflective Journal).

When everyone was geared up and ready to start, TC2 briefly introduced me and the study to the group. Then, he told them they were going to start with a game, where the goal was to climb on the wall and stay on for two minutes without anyone falling, or the whole group had to start over again. It took six attempts for the group to be successful. Interestingly, from the first attempt to the last, I observed how student-athletes were being attentive to others, took initiative

to change places on the wall, and encouraged each other. Further, TC2 and I provided student-athletes with some liberties to complete the activity as they deemed fit. Hence, for many student-athletes, the activity was an opportunity for them to showcase their climbing skills and life skills, which facilitated connection and relatedness to the group. SA7 said in his post-intervention interview: “The game helped me feel included. It allowed me to show that I’m important, that I can be good at something.”

After the game ended, TC2 gathered the group to reflect on the activity. He asked student-athletes to provide concrete examples of how each life skill was displayed during the game. For example, with regards to teamwork and attention, SA6 said: “Like at one point, I told my friend she could try to hold on to another grip that seemed easier because I saw she was having difficulties.” Other student-athletes acknowledged the importance of the four life skills learned during the rock-climbing activity. SA10 said that, when practicing a sport like rock-climbing, courage and teamwork are essential: “Teamwork is definitely important, sometimes you need to guide your friend through the wall, being guided is even more important when you are afraid of heights.”

TC2 continued the group reflection by discussing how these four life skills can be transferred and applied in the other sporting activities practiced in the outdoor program. For example, during his post-intervention interview, TC2 discussed how he witnessed student-athletes’ grasp of the importance of being attentive as well as the importance of teamwork during mountain bike rides: “If someone has a problem with his bike chain, we’re 29 that can’t go on. So, we all have to help, and solve that problem. I believe they understand that!” Finally, TC2 also discussed the possibility of transferring these life skills to school contexts beyond the outdoor program.

Reflective Conversation and Adaptation of the Strategy to the Classroom (Step 3). During our conversation, I pointed out to TC2 that the first observation helped me realize how the inherent demands of rock-climbing helped created conditions for the learning of the four life skills valued by TC2 (Reflective Journal). However, it was through the group reflection that learning was galvanized, helping student-athletes realize and internalize the importance of the four life skills.

When planning for the classroom implementation, we believed the best way to facilitate student-athletes' awareness of transfer possibilities was to develop an activity that resembled the rock-climbing activity in terms of logic but could be done in a classroom. Thus, just like the rock-climbing activity, we decided to expose student-athletes to a problematic situation they had to solve by using courage, initiative, attention, and teamwork. TC2 believed that his ethics and religion class was the ideal context to implement the strategy, during a lecture when he would talk about Québec's management of potable water (Reflective Journal). Analogous to the implementation in rock-climbing, TC2 would follow the activity with a group reflection on how the four life skills manifested themselves. The rationale was to make student-athletes aware of the usefulness of the four life skills in two different contexts, which in turn would facilitate the transfer of these life skills in other spheres of their lives.

Observation of the Implemented Strategy in the Classroom (Step 4). TC2 briefed me that during the lecture prior to the one I observed, student-athletes had worked on a small team-project (i.e., 4 to 5 student-athletes per team) where they had to propose three recommendations to the Québec government regarding the province's management of potable water. The second step of that project, which TC2 and I adapted to incorporate the teaching of attention, courage, initiative, and teamwork, was explained to student-athletes at the beginning of the lecture I

observed. The goal of the activity was for student-athletes to debate each team's ideas in order to find a consensus on one recommendation the whole group would propose. TC2 also instructed student-athletes to write down the behaviours they observed from classmates that were consistent with the four life skills. As a sign of trust, and also to provide autonomy, TC2 said: "Today, it's all on you, I'm going to take a step back and observe as you work your way to a class consensus!" (TC2 – Intervention Cycle 1). The idea was for TC2 to have a minimal role in the activity to compel student-athletes to take action (Reflective Journal).

Prior to the debate starting, student-athletes demonstrated initiative by indicating how they needed a debate moderator, as well as a secretary to take notes. Two student-athletes volunteered for these roles, and the debate began. Throughout the debate, I noticed how student-athletes were quite conscious of writing down behaviours from their classmates they considered to be attentive and courageous, as well as behaviours they believed demonstrated teamwork and initiative. Once the group came to a consensus on a potable water management strategy, TC2 asked student-athletes to share, for each of the four life skills, a few examples of how they believed each was manifested during the debate. For example, SA6 discussed one of his classmate's demonstration of courage: "I know that Antoine is shy, but he decided to get in front of the class anyway and animate the debate!" Student-athletes were engaged during the group reflection as they provided multiple examples for each life skill.

During post-intervention interviews, student-athletes acknowledged that the activities proposed by TC2 were relevant and helped them apply the different life skills of the outdoor education program. SA8 said: "Through the different activities, he gave us the chance to apply the different skills, like teamwork and the others. The debate helped us combine all of them together." Student-athletes demonstrated a keen understanding of how to use the four life skills

in the classroom. On this notion, SA9 said: “We talked about it and we gave examples. The fact that we wrote down the four outdoor program values, I realized we need to be attentive to others in class, and that there’s also a lot of teamwork.”

Further, during the group reflection, I observed that TC2 provided positive feedback to student-athletes. For example, in response to one student-athlete example, he said: “Excellent, good example! I noticed that people were very attentive to each other’s ideas and it helped in finding a consensus. I thought you did a good job of that!” (TC2 – Intervention Cycle 1). According to student-athletes, constructive feedback from TC2 was beneficial, as it helped them gain confidence in applying these life skills. During his post-intervention interview, SA10 said: “For sure, he did it when he noticed. And then after, even when he was not looking, we did it on our own. But yes, when he saw us help each other, he congratulated us!”

Finally, TC2 concluded the group reflection by asking how student-athletes believed attention, courage, initiative, and teamwork can be developed. SA9 had an interesting answer, pointing out that like sport skills, the four aforementioned life skills can be developed through practice in multiple contexts.

> For example, it’s similar to team sport or activities like that. You always need to work together, communicate and be attentive to what your teammates need. And like the more you do it, the better you become. That’s why, to do it in class, it gave us even more time to practice.

During his post-intervention interview, SA7 stated that he was aware of future transfer possibilities for the four life skills in question.

> So, with my girlfriend or with my future wife, it is not easy to tell a girl that I want to be with her for the rest of my life. So, courage will definitely help me in that way. Being

> attentive will also help with keeping my friends around, and also, being attentive to what people want will allow me to help people that are in need. And finally, if I'm able to work well in a team, I'll be able to solidify relationships in whatever group I am.

Reflective Conversation (Step 5). After the first intervention cycle, during which activities were explicitly planned to target and discuss attention, courage, initiative, and teamwork, TC2 indicated being satisfied with student-athletes' participation, as well as their improvement from the implementation in the rock-climbing activity to the implementation in the classroom. Hence, he stated in his post-intervention interview how he realized that even though student-athletes reap benefits simply by being in the outdoor education program, there is potential for more benefits through explicit life skills teaching.

> Now can we go even further? I realized that yes, I need to go even further if I want students to demonstrate that they developed these skills. I can't only rely on the context for students to randomly learn things. I need to target skills and hammer them again and again. So, I believe this intervention was a step in the right direction and something that will guide me in the coming years to structure the program around these life skills.

TC2 added that working with me facilitated his reflective practice, which he believed his essential for a pedagogue.

> To have someone with me in the classroom with whom I reflected with, it's something I loved about the study. For you to be here, and that we're able to discuss on different aspects of teaching. To me it's extraordinary, to have feedback on my work and have external input.

As TC2 and I reflected on intervention cycle 1, I mentioned to him the importance of being consistent and continuing to discuss life skills with student-athletes while they participated in

other outdoor and school activities (Reflective Journal). Based on a testimony by SA10 during his post-intervention interview, TC2 continued to support them in transferring and applying their life skills to other contexts of the outdoor education program.

> He often said to us to help each other. Like, for example, he told me to come help a friend with his knots, or to work together to build a shelter. He also said it was important for us, if we feel we're stronger in something, like me, that I could help with some biking techniques.

Intervention Cycle 2: Ecological Awareness

Collaborative Selection of the Strategy (Step 1). In our meeting, TC2 affirmed his desire to improve student-athletes' ecological awareness. Indeed, considering the nature of the outdoor education program, he believed student-athletes should, after three years in the program, develop a strong awareness of and connection to the environment. He also elaborated on his desire to promote ecological awareness in his pre-intervention interview:

> For me, it is very important that students develop ecological awareness. I believe it is a big weakness of our program. Because after three years in the outdoor program, I don't want them to consume nature. I want them to respect the environment and everything it has to offer when they practice outdoor sports.

Thus, we decided intervention cycle 2 was going to be dedicated to ecological awareness development. TC2 was quite enthusiastic and through multiple discussions (i.e., in person, by phone), two ideas were advanced to teach ecological awareness. The first strategy was to introduce ecological awareness from a sense-exploration perspective. The second strategy was to introduce student-athletes to a positive role model. By doing so, we believed it would alleviate TC2's concern of having to lecture to convince student-athletes of the importance of ecological

awareness. The two strategies were implemented during a mountain bike expedition, with the group accompanied by an expert who is a big believer in eco-friendly human behaviours. She has built sustainable bike trails, using rocks and trees, while living a minimalist lifestyle at her camp. In sum, she was a suitable person to teach and model ecological awareness to student-athletes. Thus, TC2 asked her to lead a group discussion, explaining her lifestyle and the benefits of having a healthy connection with nature. Moreover, we decided that during the expedition, TC2 would lead a mindfulness activity to help student-athletes connect with nature using their five senses. The rationale behind this activity was to facilitate student-athletes' connection with nature to increase their ecological awareness.

Observation of the Implemented Strategy in Outdoor Sporting Activity (Step 2). Before leaving for the 1-hour bus ride to the mountain biking site, TC2 told student-athletes that during the day, they were going to work on their biking techniques as well as participate in an activity to develop their ecological awareness. When we arrived on site, we were welcomed by the owner who was asked to lead a group discussion. She had prepared a presentation detailing her motivation to live a minimalist lifestyle in connection with nature. She questioned student-athletes on "normal" societal behaviours and asked them what they thought of capitalist society. Student-athletes were frank and some shared personal information. Throughout her presentation, she discussed the importance of loving nature and loving their nature. After her presentation, it was time for TC2 and student-athletes to jump on their mountain bikes and ride the many trails offered on site.

After lunch, TC2 led a walk through the forest to discuss ecological awareness and to get student-athletes to partake in the mindfulness activity. We stopped on a plateau that was big enough for everyone to distance themselves. TC2 told the group they were about to take a

moment to connect with nature. He instructed them to be silent and to live in the present moment using their five senses, trying to make an observation for each one of them. The rationale was for student-athletes to appreciate the moment to the fullest to become aware of all that nature has to offer. After about 15 minutes of silence, TC2 gathered student-athletes around him. They discussed the activity and the reasons for doing it. From my observation, student-athletes seemed to have appreciated the activity.

The next day, when back at school, TC2 led a debrief activity with student-athletes on what they had learned from the biking expedition. He summarized the key messages delivered by the role model and revisited the rationale behind the mindfulness activity. During his post-intervention interview, he also explained his rationale for using debriefs, saying: “Within the competence development loop, one part of it is debrief, which is of utmost importance. So, for sure to come back at the end and discuss what was learned is a winning strategy for knowledge retention.”

Reflective Conversation and Adaptation of the Strategy to the Classroom (Step 3). According to TC2, the mountain bike expedition was quite different from what he is used to doing with his group, which increased his motivation: “I modified how my expedition was structured to get closer to what I really believe in, my objective of developing student-athletes’ ecological awareness. It gave real meaning to my work!” (TC2 – Post-Intervention Interview). Further, we believed that the mindfulness activity and the group discussion than ensued gave student-athletes opportunities to reflect on their impact on the environment, as well as to get to know more about themselves. Hence, we believed the implementation during the mountain bike expedition was successful, since the first step toward ecological awareness was for student-athletes to recognize that they do indeed impact the environment on a daily basis. Further, we

thought that the mindfulness activity helped them develop a growing desire to be proponents for the environment (Reflective Journal).

TC2 proposed his ethics and religion class for the classroom implementation since he believed it would be relevant to make ecological awareness integral to an ethical discussion. Thus, to increase student-athletes' ecological awareness, we decided that TC2 would ask them to come up with specific environmental problems regarding the sporting activities they practice, and to find concrete solutions to make the practice of all sports within the outdoor education program more respectful of the environment. Then, to facilitate student-athlete transfer, we planned to have them reflect on contemporary environmental problems and think of possible solutions to alleviate them. Further, TC2 decided to assign a grade to this activity.

Observation of the Implemented Strategy in the Classroom (Step 4). TC2 started class by asking student-athletes "How many of you biked to school this morning?". There were only a handful who raised their hands. He followed by asking "For how many of you would it be feasible to bike to school?". Most raised their hands. TC2 used these two questions to introduce ecological awareness by emphasizing that everyone as the potential to impact the environment positively through small gestures. Then, TC2 asked for student-athletes' feedback regarding the mindfulness activity the group did during the mountain bike expedition. SA9 said: "We sat back, we listened, and watched. It was a moment where we noticed stuff that we usually don't. When we're out there doing activities, we don't notice all of that. It helped us notice!" Others said it helped them be aware of why they want to protect the environment.

Then, in attempts to consolidate student-athletes' ecological awareness, TC2 explained an activity to be done in groups of four. Each team was attributed a sporting activity (e.g., biking, hiking) that is regularly practiced within the outdoor education program. For each sporting

activity, student-athletes had to identify an environmental problem associated with its practice. Also, they had to find one solution to reduce human impact on the environment when practicing the sport. After the activity, TC2 led a discussion during which groups presented their sport-specific problem and solution. After this discussion, student-athletes were exposed to many examples of their impact on the environment when partaking in the six sporting activities they practice most in the program. Further, by sharing ideas, they found potential ways to alleviate their impact. For example, the canoe group discussed the negative impacts associated with the practice of the sport. Indeed, they argued that a lot of people drive long distances to get to a body of water, which creates pollution problems. To mitigate this, they proposed that people should canoe in bodies of water closer to their home. Further, they proposed to build trailers from sustainable materials that can be attached to bicycles.

Finally, in a bid to promote life skill transfer, TC2 asked each team to discuss concrete problems and solutions they encounter in their everyday lives in relation to ecological awareness. The discussion that ensued led many student-athletes to speak about what their families were currently doing. TC2 showed a lot of support for those who spoke about their behaviours. For example, in response to one student-athlete's example, TC2 replied: "You guys are great!! You're doing a lot of great things. I've never thought of that, it's a great idea!" (TC2 – Intervention Cycle 2). Also, by listening to their classmates, student-athletes became more aware of concrete things they could do for the environment in contexts beyond outdoor sporting activities (Reflective Journal). As SA10 mentioned during his post-intervention interview, he believed he had enough opportunities to understand the importance of his actions: "I think with all the discussions, it was enough, I understood what the message was."

Reflective Conversation (Step 5). TC2 and I deemed that the implementation in the classroom was successful in fostering student-athletes' ecological awareness, and we believed the in-depth discussions achieved our objectives. Further, we believed that sharing ideas and examples of concrete positive behaviours had the potential to prompt change in student-athletes (Reflective Journal). However, as TC2 admitted, he is only one part of student-athletes' lives, and it is difficult to gauge the extent of his influence in the life skills transfer process:

> They want to be the person who protects the environment, but from words to deeds, there is a gap. School is a source of influence, but there is also the family which is a big source of influence. Friends are also a huge source of influence at that age. So, what is the percentage of influence do I have? (TC2 – Post-Intervention Interview).

Student-Athlete Outcomes

This section presents results that help answer the third research question, using data from the five student-athletes who participated in the post-intervention interviews. Student-athletes shared how they believe they learned and transferred the five life skills (i.e., attention, courage, initiative, teamwork, and ecological awareness) taught by TC2.

Student-Athlete 6. During his post-intervention interview, SA6 provided examples of how he used in the classroom context the teamwork skills taught by TC2. Most notably, he mentioned how teamwork skills are essential to be successful with teammates and friends: "You always need teamwork. For example, a friend needed help in French homework, I stopped what I did and helped him complete it. And just at lunch today, I helped a friend do an ollie while we were skateboarding." Moreover, regarding teamwork, he provided an example of how it is an important skill that he often uses with his family: "At home, my younger brother and I decided to save money together so we could buy some stuff."

Student-Athlete 7. SA7 shared two examples of using the life skills taught by TC2 and how they led to positive outcomes. First, he discussed how he displayed initiative and courage to ask permission to a physical education teacher he did not know to try a unicycle:

> For a while now, I wanted to try to ride a unicycle from the circus program, but since I'm in the outdoor program, I wasn't sure if I could. For a long time, I hesitated to ask because I was scared of the teacher's answer because I'm not in the circus program. But after we had the discussion on courage and initiative, I told myself that I better ask because if I don't, I'll never have the chance to try it. So, I finally went, and I asked him, and he said yes!

Second, during a school activity, SA7 described how he went to a theme park with a group of students he barely knew. He explained how he tried to be attentive to others' need:

> We were four, and in our group, there was one girl who was a little bit shy. So, I was paying attention to understand what she wanted. For example, I helped her express her opinion on what rollercoaster she wanted to do. That way, I helped her feel less alone. I believe I was able to help the group gel together.

Student-Athlete 8. During her post-intervention interview, SA8 did not provide specific examples of how she used the life skills taught by TC2 during the intervention. However, she mentioned that the explicit strategies used by TC2 helped her be more aware of the importance of life skills and to deliberately practice them: "Like at one point, I understood what it was all about and I tried to practice these skills. I might have done it without even knowing, but I wanted to practice them after we discussed it."

Student-Athlete 9. SA9 discussed how she believed she already applied the five life skills targeted by TC2, but that the intervention triggered refinement: "I believe that I was

already applying all these skills, like I'm courageous and I take initiative. But I believe that the activities and the discussions helped me develop them even more." In addition, she provided a concrete example of how she often used teamwork at school: "Like last week, my friend did not understand one question in her homework, and I understood it! So, I helped her out. We're friends. We need to help each other."

Student-Athlete 10. Similar to SA9, SA10 believed that prior to the intervention, he applied the life skills targeted by TC2. He added that he benefited from being exposed to TC2's strategies by realizing how he could transfer his skills in more situations than he did before the intervention: "I believe that I was already using these skills, so I did not see much of a difference, apart from the fact that I now use them with people other than my friends."

Perspective of TC2 on Student-Athlete Outcomes. With regards to the life skills (i.e., attention, courage, initiative, teamwork) taught during the first intervention cycle, TC2 believed that the student-athletes learned much from the strategies used during the rock-climbing activity and in the classroom. However, when discussing the development of student-athletes' ecological awareness, TC2 admitted that it was difficult for him to assess any behaviour change, but mentioned being confident that student-athletes were more aware of their environmental impact:

> The reflections they did during these discussions are not lost. I think they will continue to think about it, because every day, the media talks about environmental problems on Earth. So, for sure I believe they possess more tools than before.

Discussion

The purpose of the study was to implement an intervention assisting high school teacher-coaches in facilitating life skills transfer from sport/outdoor education programs to the classroom. The design of the intervention meant that life skills development and transfer were

approached through a collaborative cycle of actions and reflections (i.e., 5-step intervention cycle), which made possible the examination of Pierce et al.'s (2017) contextual and psychological factors influencing life skills transfer. In attempts to answer the three research questions, life skills transfer was assessed at both a process and an outcome level. To this aim, teacher-coaches' experience implementing life skills strategies in sport/outdoor education programs and in the classroom was explored (i.e., research question 1). Further, student-athletes' experience applying life skills in both settings (i.e., research question 2), and their beliefs regarding how much teacher-coaches' strategies influenced their development and transfer of life skills (i.e., research question 3), were also explored.

The discussion is presented in six sections. The first section offers a summary of the results for both TC1 and TC2. In the second, third, and fourth sections, results, as they pertain to the three research questions, are discussed using Pierce et al's. (2017) model and Bean et al's. (2018) continuum. The fifth section offers a discussion on the theoretical, methodological, and practical implications of the present thesis. The last section is focused on delineating the limitations of the study, as well as proposing future research directions.

Summary of Results

TC1

The results indicated that over the course of the three cycles, the intervention had an impact on the four contextual factors found in the life skills transfer model (Pierce et al., 2017). First, TC1 planned opportunities for student-athletes to transfer their life skills from sport to the classroom (i.e., opportunity to use skills). Second, TC1 created conditions for there to be similarities between contexts that facilitate the development and transfer of these life skills (i.e., similarity of context). Third, TC1 provided student-athletes with appropriate supervisory support

and strongly encouraged peer support, for student-athletes to transfer their life skills (i.e., support for transfer). Fourth, student-athletes appreciated the genuine feedback and positive reinforcement they received from TC1 (i.e., intrinsic reward for transfer).

Moreover, the intervention had an impact on seven of the eight psychological factors from Pierce et al.'s (2017) model. First, TC1 made student-athletes aware of potential transfer context (i.e., aware of transfer possibilities). Second, thanks to TC1's encouragement, student-athletes shared how they believed in their ability to apply goal setting and stress management skills in multiple contexts (i.e., confidence). Third, TC1 planned for relevant activities and fostered student-athletes' interest, which led appropriate levels of participation (i.e., level of engagement). Fourth, student-athletes shared how they believed that the life skills taught by TC1 were useful for them in the present and in the future (i.e., meaningfulness of learning). Fifth, student-athletes' feelings of autonomy, competence, and relatedness were supported through the different teaching strategies employed by TC1 (i.e., satisfaction of basic needs). Lastly, as mentioned earlier when discussing the contextual factors, student-athletes believed they had enough support and believed the familiarity between both contexts facilitated the transfer of goal setting and stress management skills (i.e., perception of support and perception of similarity).

TC2

The results indicated that over the course of the two cycles, the intervention had an impact on the four contextual factors found in the Pierce et al. (2017) model. First, the number of planned activities was believed, from student-athletes' perspectives, to be sufficient to gain a good understanding of the five targeted life skills (i.e., opportunity to use skills). Second, TC2 and student-athletes mentioned the benefits of their constant interactions in the outdoor education program and in the classroom in creating a good level of familiarity (i.e., similarity of context).

Third, group support in front of the whole class was a strategy often used by TC2 to encourage student-athletes to transfer their life skills targeted throughout the intervention (i.e., support for transfer). Fourth, to engage student-athletes, TC2 assigned grades to the personal reflections as part of the intervention (i.e., extrinsic reward for transfer).

In addition, the intervention influenced six of the eight psychological factors found in the Pierce et al. (2017) model. First, by participating in discussions and activities planned by TC2, student-athletes developed the ability to identify potential transfer contexts (i.e., awareness of transfer possibilities). Second, TC2 positively acknowledged student-athletes' behaviours, which fostered the belief that they possessed life skills and could successfully apply them (i.e., confidence). Third and fourth, the activities planned by TC2 were aimed at convincing student-athletes that the targeted life skills were relevant to their contexts, which increased their engagement (i.e., meaningfulness of learning and level of engagement). Fifth, the discussions, reflections, and activities planned by TC2 provided student-athletes opportunities to connect with their peers (i.e., satisfaction of basic needs). Lastly, student-athletes mentioned that support from TC2 was helpful in internalizing behaviours that exemplify the five life skills targeted during the intervention (i.e., perception of support).

Teacher-Coaches' Experience Implementing Life Skills Strategies in Sport/Outdoor Education Programs and in the Classroom (Research Question 1)

In sport and in outdoor education programs, teacher-coaches must set rules and design their programs to assure the appropriate functioning of activities. According to Pierce et al.'s (2017) model and Bean et al.'s (2018) implicit/explicit continuum of life skills development and transfer, appropriately structuring the sport context is the first step (level 1 in the Bean et al. continuum) in the life skills development process. For example, in this intervention, TC1 wanted

to teach through his football program what he called D.E.S., which consisted of being disciplined, always putting in effort, and being able to make sacrifices. The two teacher-coaches acknowledged that developing strong relationships with their student-athletes was crucial with regards to life skills teaching. Building positive relationships is considered an implicit approach by Bean et al.'s (2018), situated at level 2 of the implicit/explicit continuum. Based on the results, teacher-coaches' ability to develop positive and trusting relationships with their student-athletes was an important reason why student-athletes were receptive to their teacher-coach's life skills teaching during the intervention. The present intervention was designed to get the two teacher-coaches to operate at levels 3 to 6 of the Bean et al.'s (2018) continuum, which build upon the first two levels. Indeed, the intervention's objective was to facilitate teacher-coaches' ability to explicitly discuss life skills (level 3), practice life skills (level 4), discuss life skills transfer (level 5), and practice life skills transfer (level 6).

As it pertains to the discussion of life skills, the teacher-coaches employed different strategies. First, they indicated starting practice by defining the life skill(s) targeted. A clear definition of the targeted life skill has been shown to help student-athletes' comprehension, putting them in a better position to develop and transfer the life skill (Kendellen & Camiré, 2017). In addition, teacher-coaches took time to discuss with student-athletes the importance of the targeted life skills. As evidenced by the student-athletes' testimonies and in accordance with previous work (Leberman et al., 2006), the teacher-coaches' ability to convince the student-athletes of the meaningfulness of their learning is crucial in encouraging them to apply their life skills.

In order to practice life skills, the first step for teacher-coaches consisted of intentionally planning for opportunities in which student-athletes could apply life skills. It is at this precise

level of life skills teaching that teacher-coaches deemed the intervention as most useful in providing them the support they needed to take meaningful steps to be explicit in their approach. Input and direct assistance from individuals with expertise in PYD has been shown to accentuate teacher-coaches' confidence and efficacy in taking an explicit approach to life skills teaching (Santos et al., 2019). Given their pedagogical training and preferred standing as providers of learning experiences, the teacher-coaches recognized the power that lies in getting student-athletes to engage in debriefs and reflect on their life skills application experiences as a preferred means to promote life skills internalization (Allen et al., 2015; Camiré et al., 2011).

As Camiré et al. (2012) mentioned, for a skill learned in sport to be considered a life skill, it must be applied by the individual learner in a context beyond sport. In order to discuss transfer, the teacher-coaches in this study had to make the student-athletes aware of transfer possibilities (Pierce et al., 2017). The true potential of the present intervention was in helping the teacher-coaches promote life skills at levels 5 and 6, given their dual role of teacher and coach. Building on their efforts to teach life skills in sport/outdoor education programs, the teacher-coaches then promoted their classrooms as sites of explicit life skills teaching and, in the process, facilitated their student-athletes' life skills transfer. Given that adolescents do not always have the ability to make the link between the life skills they have learned in sport and how such life skills can be useful in contexts extending beyond sport (Camiré et al., 2012), the teacher-coaches gave specific examples of the different contexts student-athletes could transfer the life skills they learned in sport (Gould et al., 2007).

The highest level in the Bean et al.'s (2019) continuum is level 6, in which coaches make deliberate efforts to afford their athletes opportunities to transfer their life skills. During the intervention, this represented step 4 of the intervention cycle. When practicing transfer with

student-athletes in the classroom, the teacher-coaches developed several activities and supported transfer attempts through positive feedback and reinforcement. By acknowledging desired behaviours, the teacher-coaches fostered the student-athletes' confidence in transferring their life skills to the classroom but also, in many cases, at home and with peers (Allen et al., 2015; Pierce et al., 2017). Another strategy consistent with Bean et al.'s (2018) continuum was how TC2 connected with a community member to foster the student-athletes ecological awareness during a mountain biking expedition. Forging links with members of the community has been shown useful in extending teacher-coaches' life skills messages as well as providing more opportunities for student-athletes to generalize to multiple contexts the life skills they have learned (Pierce et al., 2017; Pierce, Kendellen et al., 2018).

It is also important to state that the teacher-coaches did face some challenges during the intervention, mostly related to time. As past research has demonstrated (e.g., Santos et al., 2016; Camiré, 2015b), for teacher-coaches to have the resources necessary to teach life skills, organizational mandates must value PYD. However, it can be argued that currently in Canadian schools, providing teachers and coaches with pedagogical support for learning how to intentionally teach life skills is not considered a high priority. Given the complexity of the life skills development and transfer process, teacher-coaches should be provided with further support to foster student-athletes' long-term application of life skills (Pierce, Erickson, & Dinu, 2018; Trudel & Trottier, 2019).

Student-Athletes' Experience of Developing and Transferring Life Skills in Sport/Outdoor Education Programs and in the Classroom (Research Question 2)

When verbalizing their experience of developing and transferring life skills, the student-athletes mentioned support as a key factor in this process. They discussed feeling supported by

their teacher-coach through concrete actions that included positive reinforcement and specific feedback. Throughout the intervention, I observed many of these behaviours from the teacher-coaches, which in past research have been shown to be conducive to life skills transfer (e.g., Allen et al., 2015). Peer support was also discussed, by student-athletes, as a preferred method of support. Indeed, being able to share and discuss with teammates who were going through the same learning process was deemed an enabler to life skills transfer, as also shown by Allen et al. (2015).

According to Allen et al. (2015), one important barrier to adolescents' ability to transfer life skills is boredom. In the present intervention, the student-athletes admitted how they generally felt engaged in the life skills strategies implemented by their teacher-coach. The perceived relevance of the life skills targeted, as well as their perceived importance, played a key role in generating interest in student-athletes, which in turn facilitated the development and transfer process (Pierce et al., 2017).

Another psychological factor from Pierce et al.'s (2017) model that influenced the student-athletes' experience was the satisfaction of basic psychological needs (Ryan & Deci, 2000). For instance, TC1's student-athletes reported how they appreciated having some control over their learning (i.e., autonomy) during the intervention (i.e., box breathing, keywords). Feelings of self-governance allowed student-athletes to making informed decisions as to how they wished to apply/transfer their life skills and when they believed application/transfer would help them the most (Martinek et al., 2011). In addition, connecting (i.e., relatedness) with their teammates during activities and hearing/seeing how their teammates progressed in their learning/transfer of life skills was also appreciated by student-athletes. Hence, student-athletes'

satisfaction of basic psychological needs must continue to be examined as an important factor in helping explain the life skills transfer process (Hodge et al., 2013).

Student-Athletes' Beliefs that Teacher-Coaches' Strategies Influenced their Development and Transfer of Life Skills (Research Question 3)

Although most of the student-athletes indicated their teacher-coach's strategies had a positive influence, a few stated the strategies had no influence on them. It is important to note that transfer is a complex process, with behavioural manifestations not necessarily occurring immediately (Pierce et al., 2017). Thus, even the student-athletes who did not offer any examples of behaviour change nonetheless described how they were receptive to their teacher-coach's messages and strategies, which might translate to future life skills application (Jacob & Wright, 2018). For example, a student-athlete (i.e., SA3) mentioned in a post-intervention interview how he did not use the stress management strategies taught by TC1. He elaborated how he did not feel the need to use these strategies at that point in his life but understood that stress management skills might come in handy later in life. As Salomon and Perkins (1989) posited, when individuals understand the content that is taught to them, they can create mental models of the content that remain with them over time and contexts. The post-strategy reflections planned by both teacher-coaches were seen by student-athletes as vital in helping them see different transfer possibilities and think about the relevance of the learned life skills to their life (Lee & Martinek, 2013). This type of reflection emphasizes the integral role of the individual learner in the life skills development and transfer process (Pierce et al., 2017).

Thesis Implications

The strength of this study lies in its many implications. Indeed, the present thesis as theoretical, methodological, and practical implications, which are discussed in this section.

Theoretical Implications

Pierce et al.'s (2017) model was used as the conceptual framework for this thesis, making it possible to examine life skills learning and transfer contexts in the same study. The thesis was guided by Pierce et al.'s (2017) recommendation that future research should empirically explore the pertinence of the four contextual and eight psychological factors. The results lend support to the pertinence of the contextual and psychological factors proposed by Pierce et al. (2017). Such results add to the body of literature, as researchers continue to try to identify consistent predictors to understand the life skills development and transfer process (Jacobs & Wright, 2018; Pierce et al., 2017).

The Bean et al.'s (2018) continuum was also used as a model that informed the present thesis. The intervention was framed as enabling teacher-coaches to operate at the four highest level of the continuum. The study offers support to the primary tenet of the continuum, which is that life skills teaching should be considered on a continuum of explicitness rather than as an implicit/explicit dichotomy. Indeed, throughout the intervention cycles, the teacher-coaches implemented life skills strategies in sport (i.e., levels 3-4) and then adapted those strategies for implementation in the classroom (i.e., levels 5-6). The student-athletes' development and transfer of life skills was fostered as teacher-coaches progressed through the intervention cycles and thus gradually moved up the continuum (Bean & Forneris, 2016; Bean et al., 2018). In sum, the results of the thesis support the key tenets of two recent theoretical models (Bean et al., 2018; Pierce et al., 2017), providing empirical evidence for more conceptual clarity and consistency in the field.

Methodological Implications

The thesis proposed an innovative methodological approach to the study of life skills development and transfer. The researcher engaged with the teacher-coaches for a prolonged period of time, directly assisting them in teaching life skills and their transfer. Direct immersion in the context of study led to much rich data in the form of interviews, observations (i.e., field notes, audio recordings), and a researcher reflective journal. The longitudinal design of this intervention, where data were collected at multiple time points, addressed previous limitations in the literature, where much of the scholarship on life skills development and transfer has been conducted using cross-sectional and retrospective designs (Jacobs & Wright, 2018; Pierce et al., 2017). Further, gaining the perspective of teacher-coaches and student-athletes across different contexts offered insights into the life skills development and transfer process beyond studies where only one perspective was examined (Pierce, Erickson, & Dinu, 2018). Lastly, the intervention design, which consisted of a cyclical collaborative approach blending strategy implementation and reflection, was a strength of the study, as it increased participants' feelings of satisfaction as well as their motivation towards the explicit teaching of life skills.

Practical Implications

Researchers (e.g., Côté & Hancock, 2016; Santos et al., 2019) have discussed the importance for all stakeholders within an organization to share the same philosophy toward PYD. With that in mind, and to eliminate as many challenges as possible (e.g., communication issues), this study was designed to take advantage of the privileged position of teacher-coaches to teach life skills in both sport/outdoor education programs and in the classroom. The results were encouraging, with student-athletes reporting that being taught life skills by the same person in two different contexts was conducive of learning. This result has implications for

organizations whose objectives are to promote PYD, emphasizing the importance of consistent messaging.

Further, both teacher-coaches mentioned how they benefited from the intervention by having someone (a) help them plan and implement life skills strategies, and (b) with whom they could reflect on their coaching/teaching practice. Providing concrete on the ground support that was relevant to the teacher-coaches' context enhanced their confidence in their ability to explicitly teach life skills. As discussed by Santos et al. (2019), direct support must be one possible solution for coach education program to achieve PYD effectiveness and sustainability. As coaches navigate the life skills teaching process (Szedlak et al., 2020), they can perhaps expect greater success if they can receive support from knowledgeable mentors.

Further, as the person who assisted teacher-coaches in implementing life skills strategies, I have learned several lessons that might prove useful to other researchers conducting studies with similar objectives. First, effectively assisting teacher-coaches as they implement life skills is a challenging process that requires the researcher to engage in thoughtful planning and clearly articulate justifications for decisions made in attempts to increase teacher-coach buy-in. I cannot reiterate enough how important it was for me to create conditions whereby the teacher-coaches and I were in sync in order to alleviate the many constraints (e.g., time) impeding their explicit teaching of life skills. Second, to facilitate the life skills teaching process and provide teacher-coaches with sufficient resources for them to feel confident and equipped to continue teaching life skills in the long term (i.e., post-intervention), they need to be provided with continuing support. Such support can take many forms and include the provision of access to online resources (e.g., life skills activity bank) as well as quick periodic check-ins (i.e., monthly) during which teacher-coaches can ask questions and share concerns and researchers can provide advice,

reminders, and pointers. Third, to ensure that teacher-coaches are legitimately provided with a setting facilitative of their life skills teaching process, athletic directors and school principals must be on board and foster conditions that allow teacher-coaches to invest the time and energy necessary to explicitly teach life skills. Finally, it is essential to recognize the reality that very few teacher-coaches will ever benefit from life skills mentors, analogous to the role I played with TC1 and TC2, given the labour intensiveness of the process. Nevertheless, based on the results of the present thesis, I would recommend to decision-makers in formal coach education systems to consider adding some form of on-the-ground life skills mentoring as a useful complement to traditional in-person or online training programs.

Limitations/Future Directions

Although this thesis offers some contributions to the literature, there are limitations that must be acknowledged. First, the participants were from one region within the Province of Québec, meaning that the particularities of the teacher-coaches' and student-athletes' experiences may be somewhat different in other high school contexts across Canada. For instance, the high school structure differs from one province to another, which creates noticeable distinctions in terms of student-athletes' experiences based on the province in which they live. In the Province of Québec, high school starts after grade six and lasts for five years. In comparison, in the other Canadian provinces, high school starts in grade 9 and is four years in duration. Further, no female teacher-coaches participated in the study, while the student-athletes interviewed were of equal gender representation (i.e., five female and five male). Future research should be conducted with participants from other parts of Canada and efforts should be made to study female teacher-coaches, as there might be differences in how they teach life skills compared to their male counterparts. Second, the researcher who conducted the intervention also

conducted the interviews. From one perspective, this approach has advantages, but it inherently leads to issues of social desirability (Cushion et al., 2003) with participants perhaps portraying the intervention in more of a positive light than they would have had they been interviewed by another individual. This social desirability bias was partially mitigated by also gaining the perspective of student-athletes, as well as the researcher's observations. Finally, in the present thesis, student-athlete participants ranged from 12 to 14 years of age. Given that the individual learner is at the core of the life skills transfer process (Pierce et al., 2017), accounts of the contextual and psychological factors influencing transfer that were presented in this thesis should be made in light of the student-athletes' age. In terms of future research, it would be interesting to explore if contextual and psychological factors influencing transfer would manifest themselves differently with older adolescents or even emerging adults.

Conclusion

Using Pierce et al.'s (2017) model as a conceptual framework, this thesis consisted of an intervention that assisted teacher-coaches in facilitating life skills transfer from sport/outdoor education programs to the classroom. The results showed that contextual and psychological factors do indeed appear to influence life skills development and transfer, particularly when teacher-coaches attempted to operate at the highest levels (i.e., levels 3-6) of the Bean et al. (2018) continuum. The thesis provided some support that some factors (i.e., contextual, and psychological) do appear to influence life skills development and transfer. Further, teacher-coaches' testimonies indicated that through on the ground collaboration and support, they gained confidence in their ability to explicitly teach life skills, which provided a model to be considered by coach education programs wanting to effectively promote PYD.

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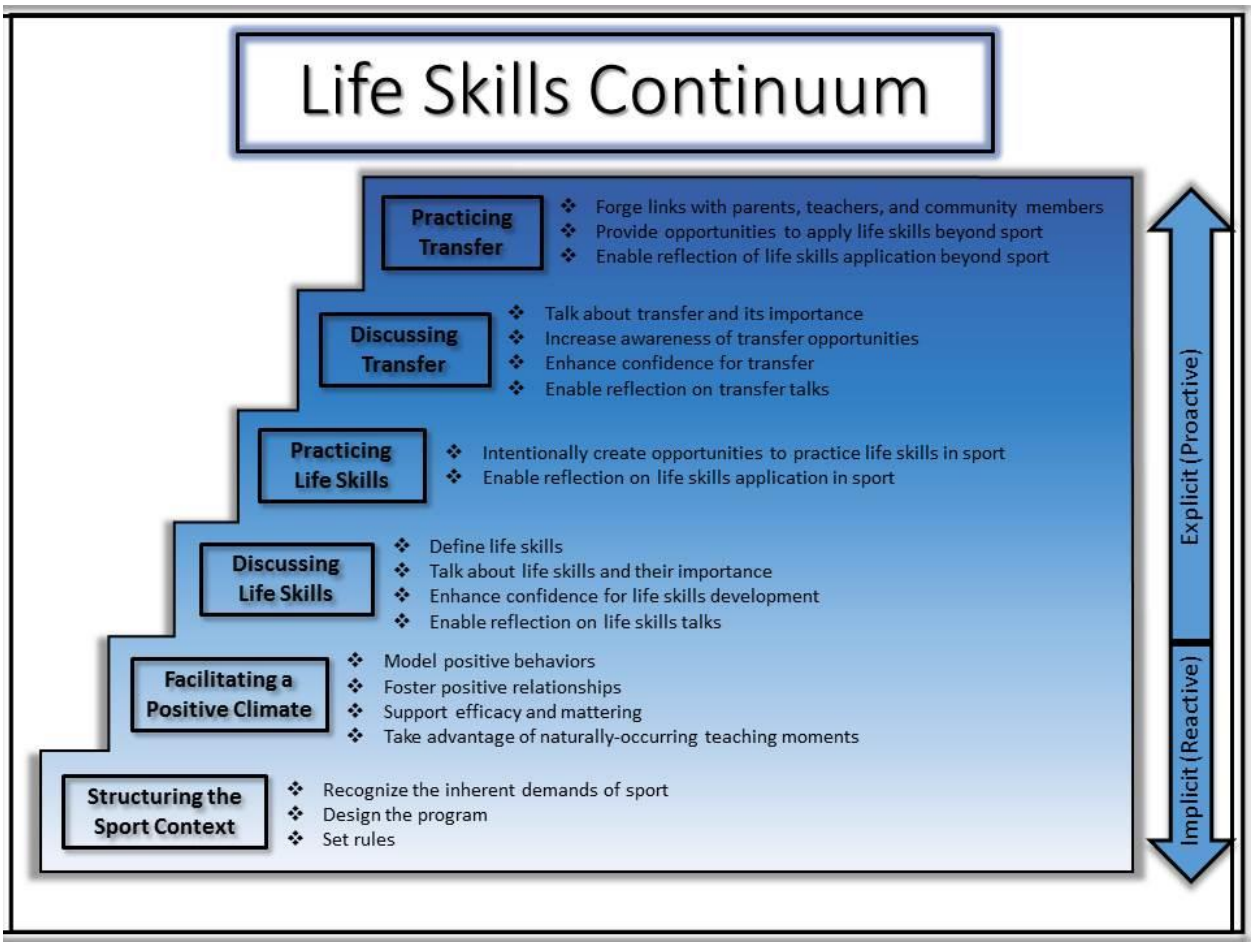
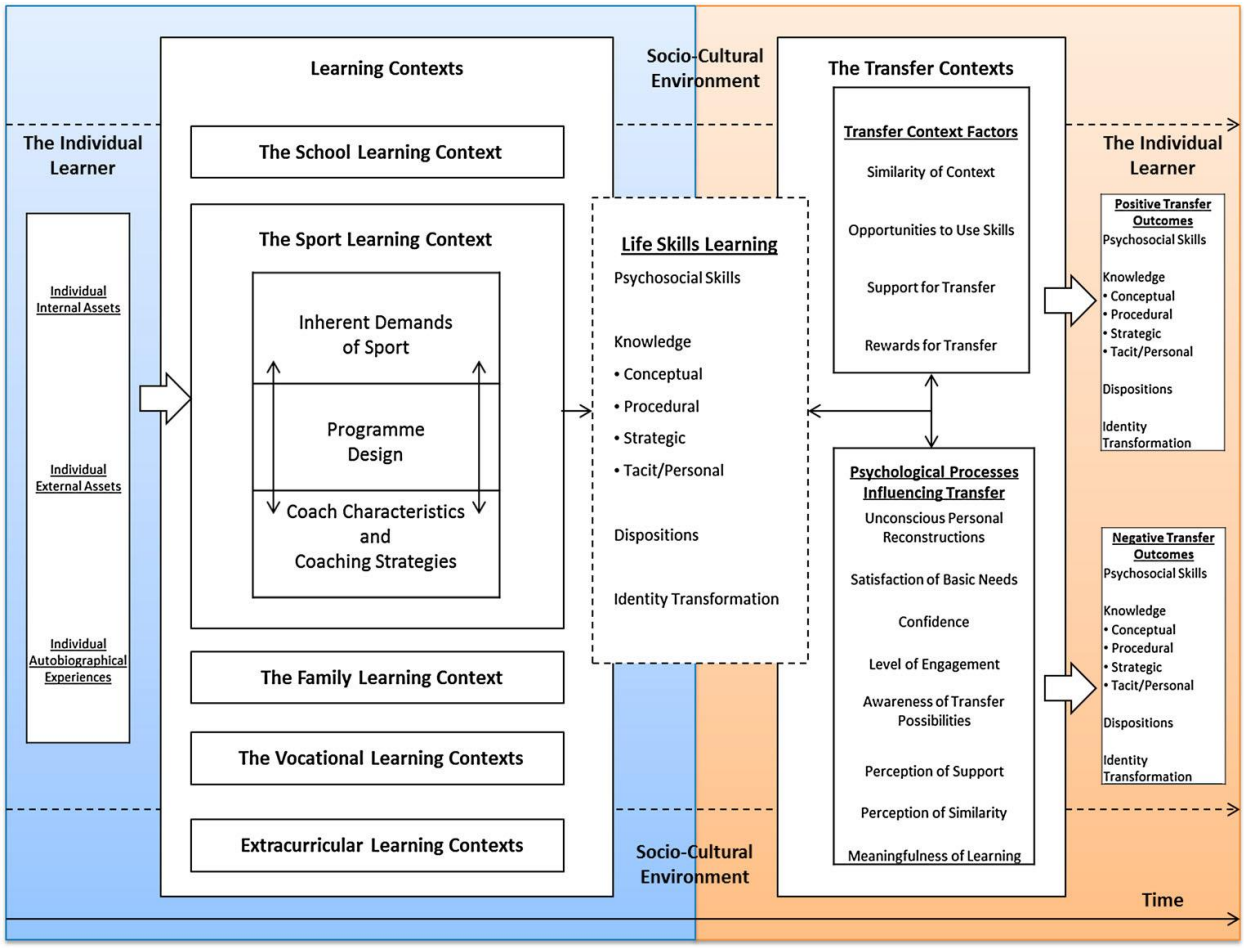
Appendix A

The Implicit/Explicit Continuum of Life Skills Development and Transfer (Bean, Kramers, Forneris, & Camiré, 2018)



Appendix B

Model of Life Skills Transfer (Pierce, Gould, & Camiré, 2017)



Appendix C

University of Ottawa Certificate of Ethics Approval

25/07/2018

Université d'Ottawa
Bureau d'éthique et d'intégrité de la recherche

University of Ottawa
Office of Research Ethics and Integrity

CERTIFICAT D'APPROBATION ÉTHIQUE I CERTIFICATE OF ETHICS APPROVAL

Numéro du dossier / Ethics File Number	H-06-18-643
Titre du projet / Project Title	Intervention aidant les enseignants-entraîneurs du secondaire à faciliter le transfert des habiletés de vie du sport à la salle de classe.
Type de projet / Project Type	Thèse de maîtrise / Master's thesis
Statut du projet / Project Status	Approuvé / Approved
Date d'approbation (jj/mm/aaaa) / Approval Date (dd/mm/yyyy)	25/07/2018
Date d'expiration (jj/mm/aaaa) / Expiry Date (dd/mm/yyyy)	24/07/2019

Équipe de recherche / Research Team

Chercheur / Researcher	Affiliation	Role
Nikolas MARTIN	École des sciences de l'activité physique / School of Human Kinetics	Chercheur Principal / Principal Investigator
Martin CAMIRÉ	École des sciences de l'activité physique / School of Human Kinetics	Superviseur / Supervisor

Conditions spéciales ou commentaires / Special conditions or comments

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25/07/2018

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University of Ottawa
Office of Research Ethics and Integrity

Le Comité d'éthique de la recherche (CÉR) de l'Université d'Ottawa, opérant conformément à l'*Énoncé de politique des Trois conseils* (2014) et toutes autres lois et tous règlements applicables, a examiné et approuvé la demande d'éthique du projet de recherche ci-nommé.

L'approbation est valide pour la durée indiquée plus haut et est sujette aux conditions énumérées dans la section intitulée "Conditions Spéciales ou Commentaires". Le formulaire « Renouvellement ou Fermeture de Projet » doit être complété quatre semaines avant la date d'échéance indiquée ci-haut afin de demander un renouvellement de cette approbation éthique ou afin de fermer le dossier.

Toutes modifications apportées au projet doivent être approuvées par le CÉR avant leur mise en place, sauf si le participant doit être retiré en raison d'un danger immédiat ou s'il s'agit d'un changement ayant trait à des éléments administratifs ou logistiques du projet. Les chercheurs doivent aviser le CÉR dans les plus brefs délais de tout changement pouvant augmenter le niveau de risque aux participants ou pouvant affecter considérablement le déroulement du projet, rapporter tout évènement imprévu ou indésirable et soumettre toute nouvelle information pouvant nuire à la conduite du projet ou à la sécurité des participants.

The University of Ottawa Research Ethics Board, which operates in accordance with the *Tri-Council Policy Statement* (2014) and other applicable laws and regulations, has examined and approved the ethics application for the above-named research project.

Ethics approval is valid for the period indicated above and is subject to the conditions listed in the section entitled "Special Conditions or Comments". The "Renewal/Project Closure" form must be completedfour weeks before the above-referenced expiry date to request a renewal of this ethics approval or closure of the file.

Any changes made to the project must be approved by the REB before being implemented, except when necessary to remove participants from immediate endangerment or when the modification(s) only pertain to administrative or logistical components of the project. Investigators must also promptly alert the REB of any changes that increase the risk to participant(s), any changes that considerably affect the conduct of the project, all unanticipated and harmful events that occur, and new information that may negatively affect the conduct of the project or the safety of the participant(s).

Germain ZONGO
Responsable d'éthique en recherche / Protocol Officer
Pour/For **Daniel LAGAREC** Président(e) du/ Chair of the **Comité d'éthique de la recherche en sciences sociales et humanités / Social Sciences and Humanities Research Ethics Board**

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Appendix D

Pre-Intervention Teacher Coach Interview Guide

Guide d'entrevue pré-intervention avec enseignant-entraîneur

Objectif: Établir un premier contact avec les enseignants-entraîneurs, de discuter de leurs attentes et d'en apprendre plus sur leurs stratégies pour faciliter le transfert d'habiletés de vie.

A. Préambule

Les objectifs principaux de cette entrevue sont de vous connaître davantage, ainsi que d'en apprendre plus sur vos attentes pour les prochains mois lors de notre travail mutuel sur l'enseignement de stratégies d'habiletés de vie. Les questions porteront sur vos motivations, vos attentes, et les stratégies pédagogiques que vous planifiez utiliser en classe et en sport.

Il est possible que je vous demande d'élaborer, ou de fournir des exemples si nécessaire.

Cette entrevue n'est pas une évaluation, il n'y a donc pas de bonnes ou de mauvaises réponses.

Je tiens à souligner le fait que vous participez à cette entrevue volontairement et que vous n'avez pas à répondre aux questions auxquelles vous n'avez pas envie de répondre. Tout ce que vous direz restera confidentiel. De plus, je vais utiliser une enregistreuse durant l'entrevue.

Avant de commencer, avez-vous des questions?

B. Questions démographiques

1. Quel âge avez-vous?
2. Combien d'années d'expérience en enseignement avez-vous?
3. Quelle matière enseignez-vous, et à quel niveau?
4. Pouvez-vous me décrire vos expériences sportives?
5. Quel sport(s) entraînez-vous?
6. Selon vous, quelles sont les particularités de ce(s) sport(s)?
7. Quelle position occupez-vous au sein de votre/vos équipe(s) (Chef, Assistant)?
8. Combien d'années d'expérience avez-vous à titre d'entraîneur?
9. À titre d'entraîneur, quelle formation(s) avez-vous complétée?

C. Motivation

10. Quelles étaient les raisons pour lesquelles vous êtes devenu enseignant?
11. En ce moment, qu'est-ce qui vous motive dans votre rôle d'enseignant?
12. Quelles étaient les raisons pour lesquelles vous êtes devenu entraîneur?

13. En ce moment, qu'est-ce qui vous motive dans votre rôle d'entraîneur?

D. Attentes

14. Quelles étaient vos motivations de participer au projet sur les habiletés de vie?
15. Avez-vous des attentes spécifiques, en lien avec notre collaboration?

E. Habiletés de vie

16. Enseignez-vous déjà, à vos athlètes, des stratégies qui visent l'apprentissage de différentes habiletés de vie ?
17. Enseignez-vous déjà, à vos élèves, des stratégies qui visent l'apprentissage de différentes habiletés de vie ?
18. Quelles-sont les habiletés de vie que vous aimeriez enseigner à vos élèves-athlètes au cours de l'intervention ?

Facteurs contextuels du modèle du transfert d'habiletés de vie

F. Similarité du contexte

18. Quelle est votre philosophie d'enseignement?
19. Quelle est votre philosophie d'entraîneur?
20. Selon vous, quelles sont les similarités et différences entre les deux contextes?

G. Opportunités d'utiliser les habiletés de vie

21. Comment anticipez-vous intégrer dans vos pratiques sportives des moments où les élèves-athlètes puissent pratiquer différentes habiletés de vie? De quelle façon?
22. Comment anticipez-vous intégrer dans vos classes des moments où les élèves-athlètes puissent pratiquer différentes habiletés de vie? De quelle façon?

H. Encouragement/soutien pour le transfert

24. Comment prévoyez-vous discuter avec vos élèves-athlètes de la possibilité de transférer les habiletés de vie apprises en sport vers la salle de classe?

I. Récompenses pour transfert

26. Quels types de renforcements (intrinsèque et/ou extrinsèque) allez-vous utiliser, dans les prochains mois, pour favoriser le transfert d'habiletés de vie chez vos élèves-athlètes ?

Facteurs psychologiques du modèle du transfert d'habiletés de vie

J. Satisfaction des besoins fondamentaux

27. De quelle façon pourriez-vous accroître le sentiment de compétence des élèves-athlètes à transférer leurs habiletés de vie du sport à la salle de classe?

28. De quelle façon pourriez-vous accroître le sentiment d'autonomie des élèves-athlètes à transférer leurs habiletés de vie du sport à la salle de classe?
29. De quelle façon pourriez-vous accroître le sentiment d'appartenance des élèves-athlètes à transférer leurs habiletés de vie du sport à la salle de classe?

K. Confiance

26. Quelles stratégies allez-vous utiliser, dans les prochains mois, pour augmenter la confiance de vos élèves-athlètes à utiliser en salle de classe les différentes habiletés de vie apprises en sport?

L. Importance de l'apprentissage

27. Comment allez-vous essayer de convaincre vos élèves-athlètes de l'importance d'utiliser en salle de classe leurs habiletés de vie apprises en sport?

M. Niveau d'engagement

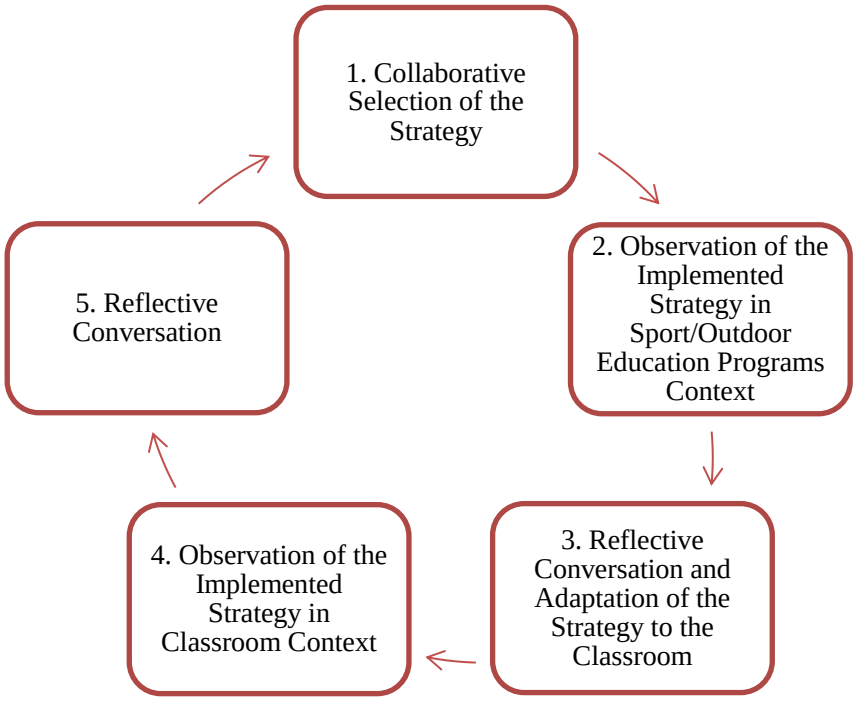
28. Quelles stratégies pourriez-vous utiliser, dans les prochains mois, pour favoriser l'engagement et l'intérêt des étudiants-athlètes envers l'apprentissage et l'application de stratégies d'habiletés de vie dans les deux contextes?

N. Conclusion

29. En terminant, est-ce qu'il y aurait autre chose que vous aimeriez discuter?

Appendix E

5 Steps Action Cycle



Appendix F

Post-Intervention Teacher Coach Interview Guide

Guide d'entrevue post-intervention avec enseignant-entraîneur

Objectif: Documenter l'expérience des enseignants-entraîneurs lors de l'enseignement de différentes habiletés de vie en sport et de leurs éventuels transferts en salle de classe.

A. Préambule

L'objectif de cette entrevue est d'en connaître davantage sur votre expérience spécifiquement en lien avec l'étude qui a eu lieu cet hiver.

Il est possible que je vous demande d'élaborer, ou de fournir des exemples si nécessaire.

Cette entrevue n'est pas une évaluation, il n'y a donc pas de bonnes ou de mauvaises réponses.

Je tiens à souligner le fait que vous participez à cette entrevue volontairement et que vous n'avez pas à répondre aux questions auxquelles vous n'avez pas envie de répondre. Tout ce que vous direz restera confidentiel. De plus, je vais utiliser une enregistreuse durant l'entrevue.

Avant de commencer, avez-vous des questions?

B. Résumé de l'intervention

1. Quelles sont vos impressions face au déroulement de l'intervention qui a eu lieu dans les derniers mois?

C. Habiletés de vie

2. Est-ce que vos perceptions et sentiments par rapport à l'enseignement d'habiletés de vie ont changé/évolué dans les derniers mois?

D. Attentes

3. Est-ce que vous croyez avoir satisfait vos attentes lors de cette étude?
4. Est-ce que certains aspects de votre enseignement ont changé depuis notre première entrevue?
5. Est-ce que certains aspects de votre coaching ont changé depuis notre première entrevue?

Facteurs contextuels du modèle du transfert d'habiletés de vie

E. Similarité du contexte

6. Est-ce que votre contexte sportif et votre salle de classe étaient assez similaires pour faciliter l'adaptation des stratégies d'habiletés de vie?
7. Quels ont été les défis lors de l'adaptation de stratégies apprises en sport vers la salle de classe?

F. Opportunités d'utiliser les habiletés de vie

8. De quelle façon avez-vous intégré l'enseignement des habiletés de vie au sein de votre équipe sportive?
9. De quelle façon avez-vous intégré l'enseignement des habiletés de vie dans votre salle de classe?
10. Croyez-vous que les élèves-athlètes ont eu assez d'opportunités en sport pour internaliser les habiletés de vie que vous leur avez enseignées?
11. Croyez-vous que les élèves-athlètes ont eu assez d'opportunités en classe pour internaliser ces habiletés de vie?

G. Encouragement/soutien pour transfert

12. Comment avez-vous encouragé ou soutenu vos élèves-athlètes à transférer les habiletés de vie du sport à la salle de classe?
    a. Est-ce que ces discussions se sont faites en groupes ou individuellement?

H. Récompenses pour transfert

13. Quels types de renforcement (intrinsèque et extrinsèque) avez-vous utilisés pour favoriser le transfert des habiletés de vie du sport à la salle de classe chez vos élèves-athlètes?

Facteurs psychologiques du modèle du transfert d'habiletés de vie

I. Satisfaction des besoins fondamentaux

14. Qu'avez-vous entrepris pour satisfaire le sentiment de compétence de vos élèves-athlètes envers l'utilisation des différentes habiletés de vie enseignées?
15. Qu'avez-vous entrepris pour satisfaire le sentiment d'autonomie de vos élèves-athlètes à apprendre et utiliser les différentes habiletés de vie?
16. Qu'avez-vous entrepris pour satisfaire le sentiment d'appartenance de vos élèves-athlètes envers l'apprentissage et l'utilisation des différentes habiletés de vie enseignées?

J. Confiance

17. Croyez-vous avoir réussi à augmenter la confiance de vos élèves-athlètes à utiliser en salle de classe les différentes habiletés de vie que vous leur avez enseignées en sport?

K. Importance de l'apprentissage

18. Croyez-vous avoir réussi à convaincre vos élèves-athlètes que l'utilisation de différentes habiletés de vie peut être bénéfique en salle de classe?

L. Niveau d'engagement

19. Croyez-vous avoir réussi à augmenter l'engagement des élèves-athlètes envers l'apprentissage et l'utilisation des habiletés de vie enseignées?

M. Conclusion

20. Est-ce qu'il y aurait autre chose que vous aimeriez partager de votre participation à cette étude?

Appendix G

Post-Intervention Student-Athlete Interview Guide

Guide d'entrevue post-intervention avec élève-athlète

A. Préambule

L'objectif de cette entrevue est d'en connaître davantage sur tes expériences en lien avec l'apprentissage de différentes habiletés de vie. Je vais te poser des questions en lien avec les stratégies utilisées par ton enseignant-entraîneur pour t'aider à apprendre différentes habiletés de vie.

Il est possible que je te demande d'élaborer ou de fournir des exemples si nécessaire.

Cette entrevue n'est pas une évaluation, il n'y a donc pas de bonnes ou de mauvaises réponses.

Je tiens à souligner le fait que tu participes à cette entrevue volontairement et que tu n'as pas à répondre aux questions auxquelles tu n'as pas envie de répondre. Tout ce que tu diras restera confidentiel. De plus, je vais utiliser une enregistreuse durant l'entrevue.

Avant de commencer, as-tu des questions?

B. Questions autobiographiques

1. Parle-moi de l'importance du sport dans ta vie?
2. Depuis combien de temps pratiques-tu (sport pratiqué à l'école)?
3. Pour quelles raisons pratiques-tu (sport pratiqué à l'école)?
4. Peux-tu discuter de tes expériences avec ton enseignant-entraîneur actuel?

Facteurs contextuels du modèle du transfert d'habiletés de vie

C. Similarité du contexte

5. Décris les similarités et les différences que tu vois entre le sport et la salle de classe.

D. Opportunités d'utiliser les habiletés de vie

6. Crois-tu avoir eu assez de moments pour pratiquer les stratégies d'habiletés de vie en sport? Exemples de moments de pratique en sport?
7. Crois-tu avoir eu assez de moments pour pratiquer les stratégies d'habiletés de vie en classe? Exemple de moments de pratique en classe?

E. Encouragement/soutien pour transfert

8. Est-ce que ton enseignant-entraîneur t'a encouragé durant le semestre à utiliser en classe les habiletés de vie que tu as apprises en sport?

9. Est-ce que ton enseignant-entraîneur t'a félicité à certains moments durant le semestre pour avoir utilisé efficacement une stratégie d'habiletés de vie en classe ou en sport?

Facteurs psychologiques du modèle du transfert d'habiletés de vie

F. Satisfaction des besoins fondamentaux

10. Est-ce que l'approche utilisée par ton enseignant-entraîneur pour enseigner les habiletés de vie t'a permis d'avoir du succès à les utiliser de façon efficace?
11. Est-ce que ton enseignant-entraîneur t'a permis d'exercer un certain contrôle (de faire des choix), lorsqu'il t'enseignait des stratégies d'habiletés de vie?
12. Est-ce que ton enseignant-entraîneur te donnait des chances d'échanger des idées/stratégies avec tes coéquipiers/collègues pour réussir à bien les utiliser?

G. Confiance

13. Qu'est-ce que ton enseignant-entraîneur a fait pour augmenter ta confiance envers ta capacité à utiliser des stratégies d'habiletés de vie du sport à la classe ?

H. Conscience des possibilités de transfert

14. Est-ce que ton enseignant-entraîneur a fait des efforts afin de te conscientiser au fait que tu peux utiliser en salle de classe les stratégies d'habiletés de vie qu'il t'a enseignées en sport?
    a. Est-ce qu'il l'a fait individuellement ou en groupe?

I. Importance de l'apprentissage

15. Est-ce que ton enseignant-entraîneur a mentionné l'importance des habiletés de vie apprises pour bien réussir en classe? Peux-tu me donner des exemples?
16. Selon toi, crois-tu que certaines habiletés de vie apprises en sport étaient plus importantes que d'autres pour réussir en classe? Peux-tu me donner des exemples?

J. Conclusion

17. Au cours du dernier semestre, as-tu utilisé les stratégies d'habiletés de vie enseignées par ton enseignant-entraîneur dans d'autres contextes ? Si non, est-ce que tu planifies le faire ?
18. En finissant, est-ce qu'il y a quelque chose que tu aimerais ajouter? Quelque chose que nous n'avons pas discuté, mais que tu trouves important de partager?