

A CANADIAN SPORT SCHOOL MODEL:
AN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS UTILIZING SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

BY

PAMELA G. OKANO

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Master of Science

Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation Studies
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Manitoba

September 1994



National Library
of Canada

Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services Branch

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada

Direction des acquisitions et
des services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa (Ontario)
K1A 0N4

Your file *Votre référence*

Our file *Notre référence*

The author has granted an irrevocable non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of his/her thesis by any means and in any form or format, making this thesis available to interested persons.

L'auteur a accordé une licence irrévocable et non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de sa thèse de quelque manière et sous quelque forme que ce soit pour mettre des exemplaires de cette thèse à la disposition des personnes intéressées.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in his/her thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without his/her permission.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège sa thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

ISBN 0-612-13416-4

Canada

Name Pamela Okano

Dissertation Abstracts International is arranged by broad, general subject categories. Please select the one subject which most nearly describes the content of your dissertation. Enter the corresponding four-digit code in the spaces provided.

Physical Education

SUBJECT TERM

0523

SUBJECT CODE

U·M·I

Subject Categories

THE HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

COMMUNICATIONS AND THE ARTS

Architecture 0729
Art History 0377
Cinema 0900
Dance 0378
Fine Arts 0357
Information Science 0723
Journalism 0391
Library Science 0399
Mass Communications 0708
Music 0413
Speech Communication 0459
Theater 0465

EDUCATION

General 0515
Administration 0514
Adult and Continuing 0516
Agricultural 0517
Art 0273
Bilingual and Multicultural 0282
Business 0688
Community College 0275
Curriculum and Instruction 0727
Early Childhood 0518
Elementary 0524
Finance 0277
Guidance and Counseling 0519
Health 0680
Higher 0745
History of 0520
Home Economics 0278
Industrial 0521
Language and Literature 0279
Mathematics 0280
Music 0522
Philosophy of 0998
Physical 0523

Psychology 0525
Reading 0535
Religious 0527
Sciences 0714
Secondary 0533
Social Sciences 0534
Sociology of 0340
Special 0529
Teacher Training 0530
Technology 0710
Tests and Measurements 0288
Vocational 0747

LANGUAGE, LITERATURE AND LINGUISTICS

Language
General 0679
Ancient 0289
Linguistics 0290
Modern 0291
Literature
General 0401
Classical 0294
Comparative 0295
Medieval 0297
Modern 0298
African 0316
American 0591
Asian 0305
Canadian (English) 0352
Canadian (French) 0355
English 0593
Germanic 0311
Latin American 0312
Middle Eastern 0315
Romance 0313
Slavic and East European 0314

PHILOSOPHY, RELIGION AND THEOLOGY

Philosophy 0422
Religion
General 0318
Biblical Studies 0321
Clergy 0319
History of 0320
Philosophy of 0322
Theology 0469

SOCIAL SCIENCES

American Studies 0323
Anthropology
Archaeology 0324
Cultural 0326
Physical 0327
Business Administration
General 0310
Accounting 0272
Banking 0770
Management 0454
Marketing 0338
Canadian Studies 0385
Economics
General 0501
Agricultural 0503
Commerce-Business 0505
Finance 0508
History 0509
Labor 0510
Theory 0511
Folklore 0358
Geography 0366
Gerontology 0351
History
General 0578

Ancient 0579
Medieval 0581
Modern 0582
Black 0328
African 0331
Asia, Australia and Oceania 0332
Canadian 0334
European 0335
Latin American 0336
Middle Eastern 0333
United States 0337
History of Science 0585
Law 0398
Political Science
General 0615
International Law and Relations 0616
Public Administration 0617
Recreation 0814
Social Work 0452
Sociology
General 0626
Criminology and Penology 0627
Demography 0938
Ethnic and Racial Studies 0631
Individual and Family Studies 0628
Industrial and Labor Relations 0629
Public and Social Welfare 0630
Social Structure and Development 0700
Theory and Methods 0344
Transportation 0709
Urban and Regional Planning 0999
Women's Studies 0453

THE SCIENCES AND ENGINEERING

BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES

Agriculture
General 0473
Agronomy 0285
Animal Culture and Nutrition 0475
Animal Pathology 0476
Food Science and Technology 0359
Forestry and Wildlife 0478
Plant Culture 0479
Plant Pathology 0480
Plant Physiology 0817
Range Management 0777
Wood Technology 0746

Biology

General 0306
Anatomy 0287
Biostatistics 0308
Botany 0309
Cell 0379
Ecology 0329
Entomology 0353
Genetics 0369
Limnology 0793
Microbiology 0410
Molecular 0307
Neuroscience 0317
Oceanography 0416
Physiology 0433
Radiation 0821
Veterinary Science 0778
Zoology 0472

Biophysics

General 0786
Medical 0760

EARTH SCIENCES

Biogeochemistry 0425
Geochemistry 0996

Geodesy 0370
Geology 0372
Geophysics 0373
Hydrology 0388
Mineralogy 0411
Paleobotany 0345
Paleoecology 0426
Paleontology 0418
Paleozoology 0985
Palynology 0427
Physical Geography 0368
Physical Oceanography 0415

HEALTH AND ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES

Environmental Sciences 0768
Health Sciences
General 0566
Audiology 0300
Chemotherapy 0992
Dentistry 0567
Education 0350
Hospital Management 0769
Human Development 0758
Immunology 0982
Medicine and Surgery 0564
Mental Health 0347
Nursing 0569
Nutrition 0570
Obstetrics and Gynecology 0380
Occupational Health and Therapy 0354
Ophthalmology 0381
Pathology 0571
Pharmacology 0419
Pharmacy 0572
Physical Therapy 0382
Public Health 0573
Radiology 0574
Recreation 0575

Speech Pathology 0460
Toxicology 0383
Home Economics 0386

PHYSICAL SCIENCES

Pure Sciences

Chemistry
General 0485
Agricultural 0749
Analytical 0486
Biochemistry 0487
Inorganic 0488
Nuclear 0738
Organic 0490
Pharmaceutical 0491
Physical 0494
Polymer 0495
Radiation 0754
Mathematics 0405
Physics
General 0605
Acoustics 0986
Astronomy and Astrophysics 0606
Atmospheric Science 0608
Atomic 0748
Electronics and Electricity 0607
Elementary Particles and High Energy 0798
Fluid and Plasma 0759
Molecular 0609
Nuclear 0610
Optics 0752
Radiation 0756
Solid State 0611
Statistics 0463

Applied Sciences

Applied Mechanics 0346
Computer Science 0984

Engineering

General 0537
Aerospace 0538
Agricultural 0539
Automotive 0540
Biomedical 0541
Chemical 0542
Civil 0543
Electronics and Electrical 0544
Heat and Thermodynamics 0348
Hydraulic 0545
Industrial 0546
Marine 0547
Materials Science 0794
Mechanical 0548
Metallurgy 0743
Mining 0551
Nuclear 0552
Packaging 0549
Petroleum 0765
Sanitary and Municipal 0554
System Science 0790
Geotechnology 0428
Operations Research 0796
Plastics Technology 0795
Textile Technology 0994

PSYCHOLOGY

General 0621
Behavioral 0384
Clinical 0622
Developmental 0620
Experimental 0623
Industrial 0624
Personality 0625
Physiological 0989
Psychobiology 0349
Psychometrics 0632
Social 0451



Nom _____

Dissertation Abstracts International est organisé en catégories de sujets. Veuillez s.v.p. choisir le sujet qui décrit le mieux votre thèse et inscrivez le code numérique approprié dans l'espace réservé ci-dessous.



SUJET

CODE DE SUJET

Catégories par sujets

HUMANITÉS ET SCIENCES SOCIALES

COMMUNICATIONS ET LES ARTS

Architecture	0729
Beaux-arts	0357
Bibliothéconomie	0399
Cinéma	0900
Communication verbale	0459
Communications	0708
Danse	0378
Histoire de l'art	0377
Journalisme	0391
Musique	0413
Sciences de l'information	0723
Théâtre	0465

ÉDUCATION

Généralités	515
Administration	0514
Art	0273
Collèges communautaires	0275
Commerce	0688
Économie domestique	0278
Éducation permanente	0516
Éducation préscolaire	0518
Éducation sanitaire	0680
Enseignement agricole	0517
Enseignement bilingue et multiculturel	0282
Enseignement industriel	0521
Enseignement primaire	0524
Enseignement professionnel	0747
Enseignement religieux	0527
Enseignement secondaire	0533
Enseignement spécial	0529
Enseignement supérieur	0745
Évaluation	0288
Finances	0277
Formation des enseignants	0530
Histoire de l'éducation	0520
Langues et littérature	0279

Lecture	0535
Mathématiques	0280
Musique	0522
Orientation et consultation	0519
Philosophie de l'éducation	0998
Physique	0523
Programmes d'études et enseignement	0727
Psychologie	0525
Sciences	0714
Sciences sociales	0534
Sociologie de l'éducation	0340
Technologie	0710

LANGUE, LITTÉRATURE ET LINGUISTIQUE

Langues	
Généralités	0679
Anciennes	0289
Linguistique	0290
Modernes	0291
Littérature	
Généralités	0401
Anciennes	0294
Comparée	0295
Médiévale	0297
Moderne	0298
Africaine	0316
Américaine	0591
Anglaise	0593
Asiatique	0305
Canadienne (Anglaise)	0352
Canadienne (Française)	0355
Germanique	0311
Latino-américaine	0312
Moyen-orientale	0315
Romane	0313
Slave et est-européenne	0314

PHILOSOPHIE, RELIGION ET THÉOLOGIE

Philosophie	0422
Religion	
Généralités	0318
Clergé	0319
Études bibliques	0321
Histoire des religions	0320
Philosophie de la religion	0322
Théologie	0469

SCIENCES SOCIALES

Anthropologie	
Archéologie	0324
Culturelle	0326
Physique	0327
Droit	0398
Économie	
Généralités	0501
Commerce-Affaires	0505
Économie agricole	0503
Économie du travail	0510
Finances	0508
Histoire	0509
Théorie	0511
Études américaines	0323
Études canadiennes	0385
Études féministes	0453
Folklore	0358
Géographie	0366
Gérontologie	0351
Gestion des affaires	
Généralités	0310
Administration	0454
Banques	0770
Comptabilité	0272
Marketing	0338
Histoire	
Histoire générale	0578

Ancienne	0579
Médiévale	0581
Moderne	0582
Histoire des noirs	0328
Africaine	0331
Canadienne	0334
États-Unis	0337
Européenne	0335
Moyen-orientale	0333
Latino-américaine	0336
Asie, Australie et Océanie	0332
Histoire des sciences	0585
Loisirs	0814
Planification urbaine et régionale	0999
Science politique	
Généralités	0615
Administration publique	0617
Droit et relations internationales	0616
Sociologie	
Généralités	0626
Aide et bien-être social	0630
Criminologie et établissements pénitentiaires	0627
Démographie	0938
Études de l'individu et de la famille	0628
Études des relations interethniques et des relations raciales	0631
Structure et développement social	0700
Théorie et méthodes	0344
Travail et relations industrielles	0629
Transports	0709
Travail social	0452

SCIENCES ET INGÉNIERIE

SCIENCES BIOLOGIQUES

Agriculture	
Généralités	0473
Agronomie	0285
Alimentation et technologie alimentaire	0359
Culture	0479
Élevage et alimentation	0475
Exploitation des pâturages	0777
Pathologie animale	0476
Pathologie végétale	0480
Physiologie végétale	0817
Sylviculture et taune	0478
Technologie du bois	0746
Biologie	
Généralités	0306
Anatomie	0287
Biologie (Statistiques)	0308
Biologie moléculaire	0307
Botanique	0309
Cellule	0379
Écologie	0329
Entomologie	0353
Génétique	0369
Limnologie	0793
Microbiologie	0410
Neurologie	0317
Océanographie	0416
Physiologie	0433
Radiation	0821
Science vétérinaire	0778
Zoologie	0472
Biophysique	
Généralités	0786
Médicale	0760

Géologie	0372
Géophysique	0373
Hydrologie	0388
Minéralogie	0411
Océanographie physique	0415
Paléobotanique	0345
Paléocologie	0426
Paléontologie	0418
Paléozoologie	0985
Palynologie	0427

SCIENCES DE LA SANTÉ ET DE L'ENVIRONNEMENT

Économie domestique	0386
Sciences de l'environnement	0768
Sciences de la santé	
Généralités	0566
Administration des hôpitaux	0769
Alimentation et nutrition	0570
Audiologie	0300
Chimiothérapie	0992
Dentisterie	0567
Développement humain	0758
Enseignement	0350
Immunologie	0982
Loisirs	0575
Médecine du travail et thérapie	0354
Médecine et chirurgie	0564
Obstétrique et gynécologie	0380
Ophtalmologie	0381
Orthophonie	0460
Pathologie	0571
Pharmacie	0572
Pharmacologie	0419
Physiothérapie	0382
Radiologie	0574
Santé mentale	0347
Santé publique	0573
Soins infirmiers	0569
Toxicologie	0383

SCIENCES PHYSIQUES

Sciences Pures	
Chimie	
Généralités	0485
Biochimie	487
Chimie agricole	0749
Chimie analytique	0486
Chimie minérale	0488
Chimie nucléaire	0738
Chimie organique	0490
Chimie pharmaceutique	0491
Physique	0494
Polymères	0495
Radiation	0754
Mathématiques	0405
Physique	
Généralités	0605
Acoustique	0986
Astronomie et astrophysique	0606
Électromagnétique et électricité	0607
Fluides et plasma	0759
Météorologie	0608
Optique	0752
Particules (Physique nucléaire)	0798
Physique atomique	0748
Physique de l'état solide	0611
Physique moléculaire	0609
Physique nucléaire	0610
Radiation	0756
Statistiques	0463

Sciences Appliquées Et Technologie

Informatique	0984
Ingénierie	
Généralités	0537
Agricole	0539
Automobile	0540

Biomédicale	0541
Chaleur et thermodynamique	0348
Conditionnement (Emballage)	0549
Génie aérospatial	0538
Génie chimique	0542
Génie civil	0543
Génie électronique et électrique	0544
Génie industriel	0546
Génie mécanique	0548
Génie nucléaire	0552
Ingénierie des systèmes	0790
Mécanique navale	0547
Métallurgie	0743
Science des matériaux	0794
Technique du pétrole	0765
Technique minière	0551
Techniques sanitaires et municipales	0554
Technologie hydraulique	0545
Mécanique appliquée	0346
Géotechnologie	0428
Matériaux plastiques (Technologie)	0795
Recherche opérationnelle	0796
Textiles et tissus (Technologie)	0794

PSYCHOLOGIE

Généralités	0621
Personnalité	0625
Psychobiologie	0349
Psychologie clinique	0622
Psychologie du comportement	0384
Psychologie du développement	0620
Psychologie expérimentale	0623
Psychologie industrielle	0624
Psychologie physiologique	0989
Psychologie sociale	0451
Psychométrie	0632



A CANADIAN SPORT SCHOOL MODEL:
AN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS UTILIZING SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

BY

PAMELA G. OKANO

A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

© 1994

Permission has been granted to the LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA to lend or sell copies of this thesis, to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film, and UNIVERSITY MICROFILMS to publish an abstract of this thesis.

The author reserves other publications rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

Table of Contents

Abstract..... iv

Acknowledgements..... v

Chapter 1

 Introduction..... 1

 Need for the Study..... 5

 Statement of the Problem..... 6

 Purpose of the Study..... 7

Chapter 2

 Related Literature..... 8

 Role Strain and Human Energy..... 8

 Athlete Burnout..... 11

 The Canadian Elite Athlete..... 13

 The History of the Sport School Concept..... 15

 The Sport School System in Eastern Europe..... 17

 The Sport School System in Western Countries..... 21

 Theoretical Perspective..... 22

 The Social Exchange Theory..... 23

Chapter 3

 Methods..... 27

 Characteristics of the Study..... 28

 Procedures..... 31

 Sample..... 31

 Interview Technique..... 33

 Validity..... 36

Chapter 4

Results.....	38
Category 1: The Status of Elite Sport in Manitoba.....	38
Property A: A complete education as a goal for the elite athlete..	39
Property B: Support for the athlete and coach.....	45
Property C: Role conflict and holistic development.....	51
Property D: The value of sport.....	57
Summary.....	60
Category 2: The Canadian Sport School Model.....	62
Property A: Education and time management.....	65
Property B: Cooperation and the teamwork ethic.....	67
Property C: The feeder system and development of the elite athlete.....	75
Property D: The Canadian identity.....	78
Summary.....	80

Chapter 5

Discussion.....	83
Analysis through Social Exchange.....	83
Concept 1: Individuals enter into a sport school programme seeking some reward.....	84
Concept 2: Participation in a sport school programme is sustained if rewards are valued and evolved over time.....	87
Concept 3: Individuals will continue in a sport school programme if the other party reciprocates and provides rewards which are deemed fair in relation to others.....	89

Concept 4: The costs of involvement in a sport school programme do do not exceed the benefits.....	91
Concept 5: A sport school programme does not place one party in a power dependent relationship.....	93
Concept 6: The probability of receiving a desired reward is high.....	95
Summary.....	89
Implications.....	101
Recommendations.....	103
References.....	105
Appendix.....	112

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the desirability of a Canadian sport school programme as a solution to the various difficulties facing the Canadian elite athlete. Searle's (1990) concepts of social exchange was employed as the theoretical framework to establish desirability. Ten subjects, identified through purposive sampling as major stakeholders in a sport school model, were interviewed. Interviews were transcribed, coded, and inductively categorized according to emergent themes. Content analysis of the data showed that all stakeholders could individually benefit through their participation in a sport school by receiving potential social rewards.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the numerous individuals who have contributed to the completion of this Masters thesis. First, to my thesis committee, Dr. David Johns, Dr. Neil Winther, Dr. Mark Searle, and Dr. Cal Botterill, thank you for your guidance and advice with this project. Your encouragement to persevere until completion was greatly appreciated. I would also like to acknowledge the support of Dr. Wendy Dahlgren, my Pre-Masters advisor. Your vision and example provided the idea and gave me the confidence to pursue my dream.

To my mother Irene, thank you for instilling in me the desire to learn. You have always been my strongest ally, my most influential role model, and the type of person I would most like to become. I could not have completed this project without your support. To my brother Allan, thank you for continuing to ask me if I was done yet. You are a man of few words but those few words speak volumes. Thank you for your encouragement.

I cannot begin to express my gratitude to the members of Hinode Taiko who have become my extended family. You have given me spirit and soul through the taiko and this provided the balance in my life. Most importantly, you have taught me the real meaning of craziness.

Special thanks to a great number of family and friends that listened to my woes and worries throughout this project. You really have incredible patience and understanding to put up with me. Thanks to Florence Mitani, Connie Matsuo, Lucy Shimoda, Klara Kroupa, Dean Gillert, Shirley Okano, Witek Nowotynski, Janusz Rewis, Yoshitake Ogura, Misae Kubota, the Assiniboine Rhythmic Gymnastic Organization (ARGO's), the Manitoba Japanese Canadian Cultural Centre, and the many others I have forgotten to mention for your support.

**DEDICATED TO
RUSSEL SATORU OKANO**

I miss you, Dad.

**A CANADIAN SPORT SCHOOL MODEL:
AN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS UTILIZING SOCIAL EXCHANGE**

Chapter 1

Introduction

Destroy the roots of the healthiest plants, their heads will droop and die. Many excellent qualities of the mind have their roots, in fact, in the body; the summits which adorn the spiritual being, the mind, will wither, if we neglect the soil of these valuable plants, and thus injure their roots (Guts Muths, 1793).

As the founder of “natural education” methodology, Guts Muths promoted the overall development of youth. This style of development included the physical education as well as the mental education of youth. A complete education endured the physical strains or training which, in turn, led to a stronger and healthier mind. When both the physical and mental capacities of an individual became realized, then the education was completed. An education of only the mind would cause the youth to “whither” due to the neglect of the “roots” or physical well-being.

In recent years, the balance of education reflected in the philosophy of Guts Muths has often given way to highly specialized education for youth. It has become the common belief for the youth in recent past to focus solely on very specific academic education patterns in order to succeed. This is expressed in the degree of specialization of many career streams. Many university programmes

have been very narrow in their education of the student; recent technology often dictated extensive expertise of very precise and narrow fields. Children in the public and private school system learn early in their academic career to choose a specialty and to excel in that area.

The tendency to have children and youth specialize is also evident in sport which has often become very demanding with the identification of potential athletes early in life. If handled properly, this identification gives the opportunity for a long and successful career in sport for the athlete. Time is of the essence when it involves the development and training of future elite athletes. In identifying potential Olympic champions, the sporting community considers the time it takes to optimize development and maximize possibilities of reaching the Olympic podium. Considering a potential rhythmic gymnast who is identified at seven years of age, she has approximately seven years to attain international status and an additional four years to maintain or improve that status. This type of career spans a relatively short period in the lives of athletes.

Many Canadian athletes at the elite level consider their role equal to that of a full-time job (Broom, 1991; Beamish & Borowy, 1988). Canadian athletes, at the height of their athletic career, spend up to 40 hours a week training in their discipline. Competition at the international level means long hours of travel to foreign countries to compete against the best in the world. Once in a foreign country, the athlete frequently participates in many competitions in order to acquire as much experience as possible. For example, in order to compete with the best athletes in the world, a Canadian athlete may travel to Europe and stay there for one or two months. This allows the athlete to participate in the top

international competitions with many countries in close proximity to each other. This style of life may sound very glamorous but in actuality, it is very difficult and stressful for the athlete. It entails intense training hours, exhausting travel schedules, and many lonely hours in a hotel room. Beamish and Borowy (1988) reported that 84% of national team athletes travel with their national team for at least 21 days of the year; 38% of the athletes travel more than 50 days of the year; and 18% of the athletes are on the road for more than 100 days of the year. "These data indicate that, at a minimum, the majority of athletes are travelling for close to two months of the year while nearly a fifth are away for close to a third of the year" (Beamish & Borowy, 1988, p. 35).

The sense of responsibility that accompanies the role of elite athlete often comes at the expense of career development, social interaction, and family ties and represents a considerable sacrifice for the athlete. The difficulties are further compounded by the attempt to justify such an intense commitment to a short term career when education, job opportunities and the establishment of familial relations are compromised (Johns & Farrow, 1990).

The stress experienced by these athletes has often led to many problems, such as role conflict and athlete burnout. These indicators of negative stress can manifest themselves to affect all aspects of the athlete's life. When unsolved or incorrectly solved, the end result of an athlete's career can be an early retirement from sport and/or a difficulty in adjustment to life after sport. The loss of these athletes is great in terms of unfulfilled human potential and a lowered quality of our national team programmes (Feigley, 1984). Fortunately, these losses are not inevitable and, with proper intervention, can be avoided.

While recommended procedure states that intervention should be on an individual basis with the athlete (Feigley, 1984), many European, Australian, and Asian countries integrate programmes into their sport structure to aid in decreasing the role conflict and burnout experienced by athletes. One such programme is the sport school model of combining athletic and academic education. This concept is well established in the European, Australian, and Asian countries as both an educational programme and a training programme for elite and developing athletes (Broom, 1980; Treadwell, 1987; Zilberman, 1989). Sport schools employ or obtain the services of the top sport specialists to develop the best athletes in the world. At the same time, athletes pursue their academic education by combining their athletic training programme with a regular or modified school programme. "Programmes are structured to ensure that the youngsters who attend the sports schools can adhere to heavy training schedules, and at the same time obtain an education suited to their aptitude, interest and career objectives" (Broom, 1980, p. 8). Upon retirement from active competition, elite athletes are well prepared to pursue a career in another field. In addition to receiving an overall education to facilitate the return to more "normal" societal conditions, athletes are able to develop the social skills with other athletes who were also involved in the programme. With common situations being experienced by numerous athletes in the programme, it becomes easier for athletes to socialize with each other than with regular students in the public school system who have difficulty relating to some of the demands of being an elite athlete.

Need for the Study

While sport has increased in significance in modern society, the problems facing Canadian athletes who pursue excellence need to be addressed to ensure balanced development and success at the world level. In recent years, Sport Canada has viewed the results of these athletes as the primary criterion for future federal and provincial funding to sport programmes. In order to ensure continued funding to these programmes, the sport governing bodies need to develop support systems for these athletes which will aid them in dealing with the pressures of training and competition while maintaining the non-sport aspects of their life. Athletes who become national team prospects as early as junior high school require programmes which accommodate academic education and social interaction with the demands of international sport preparation. While the experience of international competition is for only a minute percent of the population (Johns, 1991), the consequences of long-term training and travel may lead to lower academic standing, no social contact, and decreased family life. The chronic stress which may result can lead to athlete burnout and eventual withdrawal from sport. If it is possible to reduce the conflict which exists as a result of being a high performance athlete, then such concepts as the sport school programme should be studied to assess their potential implementation into the existing Canadian sport structure.

Statement of the Problem

With the emergence of role conflict and athlete burnout as conditions affecting the performance of elite athletes (Feigley, 1984; Sack & Thiel, 1985; Fender, 1989; Cohn, 1990; Johns & Farrow, 1990; Johns, 1991), the necessity of developing support programmes to accommodate training has become increasingly apparent. Being an elite athlete "is for most people a full time occupation which permits little room for other activities, unless those activities are organized to fit around the main preoccupation in a sufficiently flexible manner" (Johns, 1991, p. 5). The difficulties faced by elite athletes who have sacrificed career development do not end at the conclusion of a successful athletic career. The suspension of other roles in an athlete's life severely affects the athlete upon retirement from their sport. Leaving the structure, discipline, and protection of the narrow training world may lead to even more conflict and problems as the athlete attempts to adapt to a career after sport.

To date, many of the athletes who participate in sport at the elite level are unable to take advantage of opportunities available to those who are not at the elite level. It is ironic that this situation has occurred as entry onto the "national team" should mean more opportunity for the athlete. Instead, athletes have often experienced conflict and burnout. The notion that sport provides quality opportunities for personal advancement may be in question.

This study deals with the perceptions, beliefs and opinions of people involved in sport at the national team level. To date, elite athletes who accept the

privileges of being national team members also accept demanding responsibilities with the consequence that many either withdraw from sport or suspended their normal career pursuits. This research focused on how certain stakeholders viewed the possibilities of eliminating these consequences through an alternative form of support known as a sport school. Based on the nature of the study, it may be possible to interpret the results within the context of social exchange theory.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to assess the desirability of a Canadian sport school programme as a solution to the various difficulties facing the Canadian elite athlete.

In order to examine the desirability of a Canadian sport school programme, the steps undertaken in this study are as follows:

1. To review relevant literature and social science theory,
2. To identify the major stakeholders in such a programme,
3. To interview the stakeholders in a structured interview,
4. To organize and interpret the data reported,
5. To discuss the conclusions arising from the study.

Chapter 2

Related Literature

Role Strain and Human Energy

Research into the area of role conflict and its effect on the elite athlete shows that role conflict is a potential problem facing a large portion of athletes (Sage, 1979; Coakley, 1982; Sack & Thiel, 1985; Johns & Farrow, 1990; Johns, 1991). In their study of role conflict in college basketball players, Sack and Thiel (1985) found that up to 50% of the Division I athletes reported feeling some measure of role conflict. The degree of role conflict is dependent however, on the amount of pressure the coach exerts on the athlete. The higher the demands for time, energy, and practice hours made by coaches, the more likely the conflict in roles. Sack and Thiel (1985) report that an athlete's high school academic background affects the response to role conflict in college. "It would appear that athletes with strong academic backgrounds are able to meet the demands of high performance sport in addition to doing an adequate job in the classroom" (p. 206).

The issue of gender difference is also an important variable in the role conflict that an elite athlete experiences. Johns and Farrow (1990) report that male and female elite athletes experience conflict based on their gender and the roles that each gender was expected to fulfill. The ethnographic study of elite athletes who were also parents reveals that the female athlete experienced more role conflict than the male based on the roles that she (as a female) was expected by society to fulfill. The "female subject was strongly influenced by the roles

which were rigidly ascribed.....especially those which have to do with the female's part in the ensuing nurturing period after childbirth" (p. 15). These roles governed by society lead to greater role conflict for the female athlete. The male athlete experiences less conflict due to the "greater tolerance, less family conflict or personal guilt" in assuming a sport role (p. 15).

Kahn et al., cited in Sack and Thiel (1985) established that role conflict occurred when someone with a given status was subject to contradictory demands from a variety of role senders, or when the roles associated with two separate statuses were in conflict. Johns (1991, p. 3) further defined role conflict as "the situation in which it is perceived that one role takes away from the fulfillment of another". While the definition of role conflict is quite straightforward, the literature on how increasing role acquisition affected the individual has sparked considerable debate (Johns & Farrow, 1990).

The accumulation of roles which any individual has experienced leads to what Goode (1960) first termed "role strain". "The individual is thus likely to face a wide, distracting, and sometimes conflicting array of role obligations.....role strain - difficulty in meeting given role demands - is therefore normal" (p. 485). Role strain is dependent on two primary factors, role overload and role conflict. Overload refers to constraints imposed by time while conflict refers to "discrepant expectations irrespective of time pressures" (Seiber, 1974). As the term role strain implied, Goode (1960) presented the assumption that multiple roles are a source of psychological stress and social instability (Sieber, 1974). Since Goode's (1960) viewpoint encompasses the general population, it would be expected that the "normal" role strain individuals endured leads to

overall social havoc and psychological dismay (Sieber, 1974). Obviously, this is not always true. Therefore, it becomes plausible to question the total validity of Goode's (1960) theory.

The concept of role strain (Goode, 1960) is based on the "scarcity" approach to time and energy that an individual possesses (Marks, 1977). In economic terms, energy can be related to supply and demand, that is, an individual is allocated a certain amount of energy and then is responsible to consume that energy. Consumption can be by expending, investing, or saving the energy depending on the activities and their priorities (Marks, 1977). By utilizing this approach, one can understand the role conflict which may result in the life of the elite athlete. The demands of the role of elite athlete become so great that the allocation of daily energy must focus solely on this role alone. The athlete does not have enough energy for the other roles in their life, such as student, friend, son/daughter. The solution to role strain, as Goode (1960) stated, is "to demand as much as he (or she) can and perform as little." The individual has to "move through a continuous sequence of role decisions and bargain, by which he (or she) attempts to adjust these demands" (p. 495). However, "no one can ever escape the role market" (p. 495). The strain of conflicting roles is a normal, continuous process by which each individual must learn to bargain their energy in the attempt to decrease (but never eliminate) the amount of strain.

Marks (1977) presents an alternate view to the utilization of human energy. The expansion approach to human energy was first provided by Durkheim (1953) who argued that social and varied involvements can lead to an enriched and vitalized individual. The theory of energy expansion sees the supply

of energy as abundant and expansible (Marks, 1977); the various role activities can produce more energy as well as drain. It becomes plausible to assume that involvement in a variety of roles produces energy for use by the individual. "Activity is thus necessary to stabilize the production of human energy" (Marks, 1977, p. 926). By utilizing this approach, any role conflict experienced by the elite athlete can be due to the fact that the athlete is isolating himself or herself in the one role (of athlete) and therefore is not deriving abundant reserves of energy from any other role. The athlete thus has too little energy to assume any other role.

In analyzing both theories of human energy, Marks (1977) proposes a reformulation which consists of four points: a) an individual decides how to use their energy; b) an individual may withhold the full flow of energy into a given role to free a portion of that energy for another role; c) an individual's stance toward their activity-cluster and not the draining of biological resources can lead to a feeling of energy loss in a role situation; and d) an individual has "abundant energy" for the roles to which he/she is highly committed and would have "little energy" for roles to which he/she is uncommitted.

Athlete Burnout

Freudenberger (cited in Fender, 1989, p. 63) defines burnout as "a state of fatigue or frustration brought about by devotion to a cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward". With chronic stress purported to be the cause of burnout (Fender, 1989), Smith (1986) parallels his cognitive/affective model of stress to athlete burnout. Stress, like burnout, is a

complex relationship between personal factors and situational demands. Any imbalance between situational demands and personal resources results in stress (Cohn, 1990; Smith, 1986). In reaction to the stress, an individual tries to alleviate with the situation by utilizing cognitive measures (coping strategies). When these cognitive measures are overloaded, physiological responses, such as fatigue and irritability, occur. In reaction to the combination of cognitive coping resources and physiological arousal, the final component of this complex interaction, behavioral changes, results. When an individual experiences the cognitive and physiological stress, behavioral reaction includes "rigid behavior, decreased performance, interpersonal difficulties, and eventually a withdrawal from sport" (Cohn, 1990, p. 97).

"Psychological burnout is a major problem confronting many high-level athletes and their coaches" (Feigley, 1984, p. 109). At the extreme levels, an athlete experiencing burnout will often retire from their sport before reaching their physical prime. Burnout is a progressive state, although symptoms can suddenly manifest themselves. Symptoms include psychological distress (loss of self-confidence and enthusiasm) and physical discomforts (fatigue, headaches, shortness of breath, weight loss or gain) (Feigley, 1984). Pierce and Stratton (1981) report in their survey of youth athletes (age 10-17) that as many as 44% responded that stress prevented them from playing to the best of their ability. A further 23% reported that this stress may have led to discontinued participation (Cohn, 1990). Gould et al. (1983) indicate that 53% of the junior elite wrestlers surveyed stated some source of stress due to competition. However, this was not conclusive for burnout as the remaining 47% reported that stress was not very

prevalent. Gould et al. (1983) conclude "there are major individual differences in relation to the frequency of sources of stress for young athletes" (Cohn, 1990, p. 96).

Many researchers agree that certain inherent characteristics make an individual more prone to burnout (Freudenberger, 1980; Feigley, 1984; Bunker, et al., 1985; Worchel & Goethals, 1985; Smith, 1986; Fender, 1989). Some of the characteristics include: perfectionism, orientation to please others, and a lack of assertive interpersonal skills. Susceptible individuals set high (and sometimes unattainable) goals, are generous to everyone (except themselves), and find it difficult to express negative feelings (Feigley, 1984). These characteristics, ironically, were the type that coaches found most desirable in their athletes (Feigley, 1984).

The Canadian Elite Athlete

To date, the problems facing Canadian elite athletes, such as role strain, role conflict, and burnout, have been dealt with on an individual basis. Athletes, along with their coaches and team psychologists, have tried to deal with these conditions on a one-to-one basis. The success rate of such a system has never been documented but it was safe to say that any success was dependent on the knowledge and skills of the athlete, coach, and team psychologist in this area. At best, the way in which these problems were handled was very isolated, and too dependent on a small number of people.

While centralized programmes in other countries have been developed to aid in decreasing the role conflict and burnout experienced by athletes, Canada, as

a nation, has never established a centralized sports school programme. Prior to this study, the High Performance Centre (HPC) training programme was the most comprehensive programme that Sport Canada had established. The HPC concept entails the regional centralization of training facilities in one sport. For example, in Canada, there are three High Performance Centres for Rhythmic Sportive Gymnastics. These Centres are located in Manitoba, Ontario, and New Brunswick. Athletics Canada has established six High Performance Centres for its Track & Field athletes. These are located in Victoria, Vancouver, Saskatoon, Winnipeg, Toronto, and Montreal. The locations of the High Performance Centres are dependent on the decision of Sport Canada and the national sport governing body for the sport in question.

Established shortly after the 1984 Olympics, the HPC concept gives authority to the provincial sport governing bodies (where the Centre was to be located) to establish these Centres with financial assistance from the federal and provincial government and private sector. Monies from Sport Canada are given to each Centre based on the number of athletes on the National Team for that given sport. While the concept of High Performance Centres seem to have merit, it has been met with mixed reviews. The concept itself does not give any stipulations on academic programming nor does it give it any consideration. Support systems set up in the HPC programme which aided in areas such as sport medicine, research, and specialty training are encouraged but receive limited financial support. The HPC format, in other words, addresses the training needs of the athlete without consideration for academic and character development.

Individual provinces reacted to the lack of a centralized sport school programme through the development of partnerships between schools, community level clubs, and provincial sport organizations. These partnerships lead to the creation of many private sport schools within various Canadian provinces. These community based sport schools were conceived and developed by individuals working in the school system who responded to the needs of the athlete (Government of Canada Fitness and Amateur Sport, 1992).

At the time of this study, there were 47 sport school programmes within Canadian provinces (Government of Canada Fitness and Amateur Sport, 1992). Each of these programmes consists of a modified academic curriculum along with various athlete support systems, and most are at the secondary school level. Each of these programmes falls into one of the following categories: a) a public school with coaching provided by local clubs, b) a public school with coaching provided by/in the school, and c) a private sport academy with coaching provided by the academy.

The History of the Sport School Concept

Sport has always been valued for the athletic victories of a given citizen. As with sport in ancient Greece where "cities gloried in the athletic victories of their citizens, rewarded the victors materially with large pensions and other benefits, honored them in legend, in the form of statues, and in some of the greatest poetry ever written" (Guttmann, 1978, p. 23), today's professional and amateur athletes have also been the subject for adoration, wealth, and literature. Where the victories at the ancient Olympic Games were of utmost importance to

Greek society, of even greater importance in today's society, until very recently, was the perceived success of political ideologies through sport. A gold medal at the Olympic Games was not only a success for the athlete but was often considered a victory for the country of the athlete and its political ideals. An attempt had been made to equate international success in sport with political superiority. Sport, as a result, became valued by society, not only for its effect on health and well-being, but for its power in international relations. Countries had sought various ways for their athletes to emerge victorious from international competition as an affirmation of the success of that country's ideologies. The outstanding successes of countries such as the former USSR and the former GDR during the 1950's through to the 1980's served as catalysts for the implementation of specialized training programmes for athletes (Broom, 1991). The sport school concept emerged as a direct result of these specialized training programmes. However, with the recent political developments in the former USSR and Eastern Europe, the fate of these sport institutions has been put into question. The degree of public support given by the citizens of the former USSR and Eastern Europe may not be sufficient to ensure the continued success of the sport school concept in its present form.

The sport school concept has been in existence for 60 years. The Soviets, due to their desire to enter international sport competitions, developed the first sport school in 1934 to aid in the training of their athletes (Zilberman, 1989). In order to develop international level athletes, the Soviet sport school system was responsible for the selection of the most talented children. These talented children were then exposed to the best sport specialists and coaches who

developed their programme. The athletes trained in the best sport facilities, and had access to sufficient funding to ensure longevity of the programme.

“One of the basic tenets of socialist education is that all children must be given every opportunity to develop their natural gifts” (Broom, 1980, p. 4). With this ideal, countries such as the former GDR, Poland, and then Czechoslovakia soon followed the USSR in developing their own sport school system. The central objective was that children with athletic potential could combine the standard academic curriculum with the intensive and time consuming sports training necessary to attain the higher levels of performance (Broom, 1980). The sport school system soon evolved into a pyramidal structure where the base of the pyramid was the novice athlete and the top of the pyramid was the elite athlete. As an athlete proceeded through the pyramid, the training intensity increased as did the level of competition.

The Sport School System in Eastern Europe

The sport school system in eastern European countries was protected in current laws which concern physical culture. In Poland, Article 8.1 of the “Physical Culture Act” stated that “youth that have particular sport talents and adequate health conditions can be educated in 1) sport classes; 2) sport schools; and 3) schools of sport mastership” (Anonymous, 1985). However the structure, the schools must have met the rules of the Minister of Education and Upbringing (Minister Oświaty i Wychowania) and the Chairman of the Main Committee of Physical Culture and Sport (Przewodniczący Głównego Komitetu Kultury Fizycznej i Sportu).

Sport and physical education in the former GDR was protected in the Constitution of the country as a right of each citizen. Article 25 of the GDR Constitution stated as follows:

All citizens shall have the right to participate in cultural activities. Under the conditions of the technological revolution and mounting intellectual demands, these are assuming growing importance. State and society shall encourage the participation of citizens in cultural activities, physical culture, and sport, in order to aid the comprehensive development of socialist personality traits and to ensure an increasing satisfaction of cultural interests and needs (Buggel, 1986).

The Youth Act of the GDR (Section 35) further protected the right of participation:

The readiness and initiative of younger people...to go in for sports shall be supported by officials of state and economy, by teachers and educators. Activities designed to promote physical culture and sport shall be included in annual and factory plans and in collective agreements of companies (Buggel, 1986).

The main principle guiding the GDR sport policy had been that of unity between three separate participation classes of school sport, mass fitness, and top-class sport. Each of these fields had, after several decades, achieved a level of cooperation with each other while retaining relative autonomy in each field.

Sport skill in Eastern Europe was fostered in the regular school system. Children started compulsory physical education classes in kindergarten (Buggel, 1986). The essential goal of these compulsory classes was to create conditions for universal physical development. Athletes who showed potential in these classes were then recommended by their physical education instructors for

enrollment in the specialized sport programme (Zilberman, 1989; Kudlorz, 1986; Buggel, 1986; Broom, 1991). In the former GDR, students were also identified for sport potential through the "Spartakiad movement" (Buggel, 1986). This movement was a nation-wide competition in a variety of sports for students involved in sport at the school and/or club level. Once identified and recommended, further assessment of the athlete was done by the sport school prior to entrance in the programme. The child must then pass these specific tests which determine sport potential and academic standards (Broom, 1980).

The Soviet sport school programme was divided into a hierarchy of three divisions. The Children and Youth Sport Schools were at the base of the pyramid and emphasized the preparatory and educational training of novice athletes in a multitude of sports. The second category of Specialized Children and Youth Sport Schools of Olympic Reserve had a similar structure as the first category except that this category specialized in one sport only. At the apex of the pyramid was the category of Schools of Highest Sport Mastery. This category only included the sport perfection groups and groups of highest sport mastery (Zilberman, 1989).

Like that of the Soviet sport school system, the Polish and East German sport school system developed into that of a hierarchy (Broom, 1980; Kudlorz, 1986; Ziemilska, 1989). In addition to training up to 40 hours a week, these elite athletes were also able to complete their academic education. Kudlorz (1986) stated however, that due to the intense practice schedule, academic certification took one additional year for most Polish athletes.

The sport school structure in these countries brought together the best available resources in sports talent, coaching, research, and facilities. With the prime objective being the establishment of world class athletes, the sport school system took the talent search throughout the country looking for potential athletes of all ages (to allow for late developers). Once identified, the athlete was aided by comprehensive support services which included not only intense athletic preparation but also basic education along with career development. These services were vital ingredients to the support given to the athletes during their athletic career (Broom, 1991).

The success of the sport school system in Eastern Europe could not go unnoticed. With 80% of the USSR elite athletes a product of such a system, the Soviets dominated international sport for several decades. As a country entering the Olympics only in 1952, the Soviets won the most medals in every Olympic Games except for 1968 Summer and 1980 and 1984 Winter Games. The former GDR, upon entering the Olympic Games as a separate country in 1968, advanced from 5th to 2nd in overall standing in 1976 (Summer Games) and maintained that position in 1980 and 1988 (Broom, 1991). However, with the recent political upheavals in the USSR and Eastern Europe, the fate of these sport institutions has become unknown. While political and economic changes take place, only time can indicate the status of these sport school programmes.

The Sport School System in Western Countries

The sporting success of the aforementioned countries had not gone unnoticed by Western society. France modeled their national sport programme on that of the eastern European countries. In 1974, France established a "sport-study" programme in high schools which enabled athletes to have access to top-level coaches. The programme soon led to the development in 1978 of the National Sports Institute (L'INCEP) located near Paris (Treadwell, 1987). Athletes were recommended to L'INCEP by national sport federations and must have passed certain test requirements prior to entry. Australia developed the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) as its centralized training programme for its elite athletes as a result of a study by the Ministry of Tourism and Recreation. Completed in 1981, the AIS was located in Canberra and staffed with the best sports scientists and sports medical personnel. This programme offered athletic training and academic education for those athletes of international potential. Great Britain, via the British Sports Council, established in recent years, over 80 "centres of excellence". These centres were funded without additional public expenditure and worked on a "consortium" concept (Broom, 1980). The resources of a number of schools, municipal recreation departments and any other relevant agencies were combined to give greater scheduling flexibility for the elite athlete.

Where, as Treadwell (1987) stated, the primary objective of the AIS is "Olympic domination", one of the objectives of L'INCEP was to aid in the preparation of the athlete for "life". All athletes received help in attending nearby universities or to find jobs if they had completed regular schooling. Any departing athlete, upon completing their athletic career was given assistance to resettle away

from the Institute (Broom, 1980). In Britain, the objective was similar to that of Australia; the specialized programmes strove for the development of the elite athlete with international status. Public schools such as Reeds, Lloyd, and Radley have been creating programmes specifically with the intent of producing a Wimbledon champion within the next ten years. Since 1983, the National Tennis Training Centre at Bisham Abby National Sports Centre had selected male athletes who lived together and participated in an academic programme combined with athletic training with national coaches (Broom, 1991).

Theoretical Perspective

With the development of a sport school system, there is a possibility that elite athletes can enjoy improved sport performance and decreased role conflict and burnout. The solution is complex, however, because the sport school concept entails more than just athletic participation. Coaches, administrators, government officials, and families of the athletes are all key role players in the success of an athlete and are vital to the sport school programme.

The benefits for the athlete in such a programme may not be obvious but the potential pay-offs for participation include increased sport performance, decreased role conflict, and an improved management of time to spend with friends and family. In addition, increased socialization possibilities and a better support system may help to produce the benefits of an improved transition to normal life beyond sport.

In the analysis of the data generated from the in-depth interviews with the numerous stakeholders who would be beneficiaries of the sport school, it was necessary to employ a social theory which considered the behavior and the motives of those involved. One such theory that may be useful for assessing the desirability of a sport school is social exchange theory.

The Social Exchange Theory

The evolution of social exchange theory can be traced back to Thorndike's (1932, 1935) work in the development of reinforcement theory and Mill's (1923) marginal utility theory (Searle, 1990). Turner (1986) traces the early influencers of exchange theory to a diverse mixture of predecessors ranging from Frazer's (1919), Malinowski's (1922), and Mauss's (1925) anthropological analysis of Australian and Western Pacific aboriginals to Pavlov's (1955) principles of conditioned response. Searle (1988) attributes the understanding of social exchange theory to contributions from a variety of disciplines including psychology, sociology, and economics. Johns, Lindner, and Wolko (1990) credited more recent development of social exchange theory to Homans (1961). Other influences to this theory include Blau (1964), Emerson (1972a, 1972b), and Coser (1977).

In explaining human nature, Blau (1964) refers to the "altruism" which pervaded social life. People, he states, wanted to benefit each other and reciprocate for any benefits that they received. However, Blau further states that this tendency to help others is "frequently motivated by the expectation that doing so will bring social rewards" (1964, p. 17). This "egoism" underlies the

“selflessness” of benefits so anxiously given by a person and becomes a basis for the development of the social exchange theory.

In its broadest sense, social exchange refers to the “voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring and typically do in fact bring from others” (Blau, 1964, p. 91). These returns or rewards, however, are not to be confused with economic exchange. Where economic exchange is the formal trade of specified obligations (i.e. pay \$100,000 and receive a house), social exchange is an unspecified social obligation. It encompasses the feelings of personal obligation, gratitude, and trust; economic exchange does not. In social exchange, “the specific benefits exchanged are sometimes primarily valued as symbols of the supportiveness and friendliness they express, and it is the exchange of the underlying mutual support that is the main concern of the participants” (Blau, 1964, p. 91).

The concepts which guide social exchange theory include the following:

- I. **Rationality:** if a certain behaviour elicits a reward, the more likely the individual will continue the behaviour (Blau, 1964; Turner, 1986; Searle, 1990).
- II. **Reciprocity:** individuals in a relationship will provide benefits to one another until reciprocal obligations are violated (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1972b; Turner, 1986; Searle, 1990).
- III. **Justice:** any reward and/or contribution to an exchange must be viewed by the individuals in the relationship as fair and equitable (Blau, 1964; Searle, 1990).

- IV. Marginal Utility: Blau, as cited in Turner (1986, p. 265), explains this concept as “the more a person has received a reward, the more satiated he or she is with that reward, and the less valuable are further increments of the reward.”
- V. Reward vs. Cost: Searle (1990, p. 9) explains this concept as “individuals will seek to maximize their gains and minimize their costs in the exchange relation.”
- VI. Power: an individual can increase the value of his or her contributing reward and minimize costs through the use of a power dependent relationship (Searle, 1990).
- VII. Reward Probability: any individual entering into a relationship must perceive a probability of receiving a valued reward (Blau, 1964; Searle, 1990).

Based on these concepts, Searle (1990) stated six characteristics of the social exchange theory. They are as follows:

1. Individuals enter into relationships seeking some reward.
2. Relationships are sustained if the rewards are valued and evolve over time.
3. Individuals will continue in the relationship if the other party reciprocates and provides rewards which are deemed fair in relation to others.
4. The costs of the relationship do not exceed the benefits.
5. The relationship does not place one party in a power dependent relationship.
6. The probability of receiving desired rewards is high.

The characteristics put forth by Searle (1990) have great implications to the stakeholders in the sport school programme. Regardless of their role in the programme, each stakeholder has to satisfy all of the above characteristics in order to support the programme. The social exchange theory provides the most appropriate basis for understanding the motivation for the stakeholders to desire and participate in a sport school programme. The sport school concept only works when all parties perceive relatively fair benefits. These benefits derive in large part from the process of exchange. All participants of a sport school programme assess the social cost of such a programme to the perceived benefits. The balance of cost versus benefits is an important characteristic of the exchange theory.

Chapter 3

Methods

All types of research, quasi-experimental, historical, descriptive, experimental, case-study, or ethnographic research, attempt to systematically collect data to improve understanding of a phenomenon. What differentiates these types of research is “the method employed at the tactical level (how to do it), and the assumptions made by the investigator at the strategic level (how one thinks about the world)” (Locke, 1989, p. 2). In choosing a method for a research study, the objectives of the study should determine the best way to answer the question. The method of inquiry should present itself as the most logical process to complete the study. Howe (cited in Picken, 1992, p. 28) stated “the continuum of choices is offered as a way to let the nature of the research question and the variables of interest determine the paradigm/methodology followed”. The objective of this thesis was to explore the desirability of a Canadian sport school programme as a solution to the difficulties facing the Canadian elite athlete. While role conflict and athlete burnout are suggested factors which affect the performance of elite athletes (Feigley, 1984; Sack & Thiel, 1985; Fender, 1989; Cohn, 1990; Johns & Farrow, 1990; Johns, 1991), and as structure of sport in Canada is different from sport in any other country, the research design of choice had to consider the beliefs and culture of the Canadian sport scene. Each participant in Canadian elite sport has developed their own “reality” of the world according to their experiences. Indepth interviews and content analysis constitute

as the best method for an exploratory study as they are designed to capture the essence of the multiple realities involved in this research question by openly dealing with the manifest and latent content of the data collected. This research design and process seems best suited to provide the information being sought as it considers the multiple perspectives of key role players in the elite Manitoba sport scene.

Characteristics of the study

Content analysis refers to the systematic process used to analyse any type of communication. Babbie (1992, p. 314) states that content analysis answers the question: "Who says what, to whom, why, how, and with what effect?" More specifically, "content analysis requires a considered handling of the *what*, and the analysis of data collected in this mode...addresses the *why* and *with what effect*" (Babbie, 1992, p. 314). Rosengren and Holsti, as cited in Lincoln and Guba (1985), describe content analysis as a strictly quantitative process utilizing empirical and statistical methods, however, Lincoln and Guba (1985) believe that content analysis has definite kinship with some components of the qualitative research paradigm. Among these similar components is the coding process of the textual data. Babbie (1992) describes manifest and latent content as two methods of coding the data. While manifest content relies on the empirical measures of specific indicators within the data, latent content relies on the underlying meaning or depth of the data. Wherever possible, both methods should be utilized to ensure the best interpretation of the data (Babbie, 1992).

The following seven characteristics provided a basis for the development of the methods utilized in this study. This framework reflects the integration of the quantitative and qualitative aspects of content analysis in order to fully explore the desirability of a sport school programme. The characteristics are as follows:

- Characteristic 1: The primary method of data collection was the researcher as instrument. Since reality is multiple, only the human is able to grasp and evaluate the meaning of different interactions.
- Characteristic 2: The use of intuitive or “felt” (tacit) knowledge is as important as the use of knowledge in language form. Tacit knowledge had to be utilized as many of the multiple realities could only be appreciated in this manner.
- Characteristic 3: The range and scope of the data was increased through the use of purposive sampling (selection of subjects based on their knowledge of elite sport). Purposive sampling is “used as a strategy when one wants to learn something and come to understand something about certain select cases without needing to generalize to all such cases” (Patton, 1980).
- Characteristic 4: Inductive analysis (the formation of raw or untreated units of information into categories) of the manifest and latent content led to the identification of multiple realities, utilized the researcher-respondent relationship, and

identified the mutually shaping influences. Two steps were followed in the development of categories. First, the initial raw data had to be unitized or coded into units which had similar characteristics. The next step was the organization of the units into categories that provided “descriptive or inferential information about the context or setting from which the units were derived” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Characteristic 5: The researcher was investigating the constructed realities of the respondents so it was of the utmost importance that the researcher validated the outcomes of the research with the respondent. In order to best represent the realities of the respondent, the researcher must have mutual consent as to the interpretation of the data.

Characteristic 6: Case study reporting was preferred over a technical report due to the thick description and adaptability of multiple realities, and it was best suited to demonstrating all of the mutually shaping influences present.

Characteristic 7: Broad application may not be possible due to the particulars of each individual investigation.

Procedures

Sample

The Canadian elite sport scene is a specific setting which does not involve the entire Canadian population. Purposive sampling, specifically choosing subjects based on their knowledge in an area, best suited this research design in order to derive the most comprehensive and relevant information. Subjects for this study were chosen for their involvement in the Canadian elite sport scene. All subjects were major stakeholders in a potential sport school programme and residents of Manitoba, due to the location of the researcher.

A total of ten subjects were chosen by the researcher for this study. Each of these participants fulfilled one of the roles of athlete, coach, parent, and/or administrator and was identified as a key stakeholder in a potential sport school programme. Some of the subjects were in more than one of the identified stakeholder roles, for example, one individual was in the role of coach and administrator so responses were from two viewpoints. The respondents were involved in at least one of three sports identified as High Performance Training Centres in Winnipeg and/or involved with the Manitoba Sport Directorate or Manitoba Sports Federation. The subjects were as follows (names are pseudonyms):

- 1) "Daniel" was a professional coach and former national team athlete in his chosen sport. Upon his completion of a successful athletic career, he entered into university to study physical education.

- 2) "Julia", an up and coming new coach, was a national team athlete for the latter five of her six secondary school years. Her travels as an elite athlete have taken her around the world more than a few times. She retired from competitive sport one year prior to this study.
- 3) "Albert", an administrator in his early forties, was also a national team coach in his chosen sport. In addition, he also served as a consultant to the training programmes of many athletes from different sports.
- 4) "Abby" was the parent of an identified high performance athlete. A school teacher by profession, she also sat on the Board of Directors of a provincial sport organization.
- 5) "Thomas" was a former national team coach who, at the time of the study, was a consultant with a local provincial sport organization.
- 6) "Sophia" was a former world champion turned professional coach. At the time of the study, she was completing the National Coaching Certification Programme Level 4 course.
- 7) "Nick", in his mid thirties, was a high performance coach in two other provinces prior to moving to Manitoba. His coaching experience has enabled his sport to increase the success of the athletes.
- 8) "Brian" has been involved in sport for over 25 years. He was first involved as an elite athlete who qualified for the Olympic Games, then as a high performance coach, and sport consultant and administrator. He was also a school teacher by profession.

- 9) "Robert", at the time of the study, was serving as a consultant and administrator for a sport umbrella organization. His vast experience with sport in Manitoba spanned over 30 years.
- 10) "Debbie" was a parent involved in high performance sport. For the past fifteen years, she has also been an international level official for her chosen sport.

Interview technique

As this study was the first to explore the sport school concept in Canada, the structure of the study was geared towards the generation of information. The technique chosen to discover this information was the interview process. Through the interview, subjects could reveal their perceptions by giving immediate feedback to the researcher. If necessary, the researcher could then probe further for clarification or for more precise information. Dexter (1970) defines the interview as a "conversation with a purpose". Interviews are usually characterized by: a) the degree of structure, b) the degree of overtness, c) the quality of the relationship between interviewer and interviewee.

The degree of structure refers to the focus of the interview. Basically, those interviews which are structured or have a framework to the questions posed, usually have the problem defined by the researcher prior to the interview (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The unstructured interview does not have the problem predefined. With regard to this research, the structure of the interview fit neither of the above extremes. Instead, a combination of the two was utilized; the respondents were encouraged to take some leadership to point out the key issues

involving role conflict and performance pressures based on their personal experience. However, in order to ensure the information obtained from the respondents focused on the study, some questions had been formulated prior to the interview to guide the direction of the topic (see Appendix A for an outline of the interview content).

The second characteristic of the interview involves the degree of overtness. At one extreme, the subject is not aware of the interview taking place which leads to some ethical implications. The other extreme entails the subject being fully cognizant of the purpose of the study and how the information derived from the interview will be used. In this study, the subjects were fully aware of the scope of the study, with any findings consensually validated with the researcher and subject prior to any conclusions being drawn.

The quality of relationship between interviewer and interviewee is the third characterization of an interview (Dexter, 1970). In this study, an attempt was made to establish the relationship between interviewer and subject as that of equal status and of equal participation. Massarik (1981) utilizes the term "depth interview" to define this type of interview. The interviewer, by being of equal status, is allowed to probe the subject further than in an interview where the roles were not equal.

Subjects were interviewed at least once within a five month period. Subjects chose the time and location of the interview which best fit their daily schedule. The first interview with each respondent lasted between one hour and one hour and a half and was recorded by tape. Subjects were asked for permission to utilize the tape recorder and were advised of the confidentiality of

the interview. Subjects were also advised of their right to end the interview at any time as well as their right to refuse permission to use the interview after completion. Each interview, once completed, was then transcribed and given to the subject to review and make further comments and/or changes. Subsequent informal interviews were conducted when more information was required. These informal interviews varied in length and time.

Data analysis

Inductive analysis, utilized in this study, can be described as the formation of raw (or untreated) units of information into categories (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Henderson (1991, p.92) states that, in inductive analysis, "the themes and patterns will emerge from analyzing the data rather than using a predetermined code". In developing the raw units of information gathered from the interview process into categories, two steps were followed. First, the initial raw data had to be unitized or coded into units which had similar characteristics. The transcribed interviews were reviewed by the researcher with key phrases and/or words highlighted that described certain "units" of insight. "These units are best understood as single pieces of information that stand by themselves, that is, that are interpretable in the absence of any additional information" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Each of the unitized data was re-read many times by the researcher to allow for re-occurring themes to emerge. The next step was the organization of the units into categories that provided "descriptive or inferential information about the context or setting from which the units were derived" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Validity

Since the content analysis in this study is presented in such an easily understood format, one question can be asked of the paradigm: how do we know it is the truth? This study pursued truth through the following criterion: credibility (internal validity), transferability (external validity), dependability (reliability), and confirmability (objectivity).

The credibility of this inquiry refers to the correct reporting of the “truth” or “reality”. Since reality is a multiple entity constructed by the subject, truth value is maintained if the findings of the inquiry are “credible to the constructors of the original multiple realities” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 296). The process of triangulation is one method of maintaining the credibility of the inquiry.

Triangulation refers to the use of more than one source of data to substantiate a researcher’s conclusion (Thomas & Nelson, 1990). Denzin, as cited in Fielding and Fielding (1986), identified four categories of triangulation include investigator, method, data, and theory. This study utilized three of the four triangulation categories, namely, investigator, data, and theory to establish credibility. Investigator triangulation was completed using a “within-method” approach (the same approach used more than once). Subjects were questioned in a semi-structured interview utilized for all respondents. Data triangulation refers to the data sources of the study. This study made use of this form of triangulation by interviewing multiple sources, for example, coaches, athletes, parents, and/or administrators. Theory triangulation refers to the use of literature to support or not support the findings of the study.

The transferability of information derived through the study was possible but was dependent on a variety of factors. In this paradigm, “at best only working hypotheses may be abstracted, the transferability of which is an empirical matter, depending on the degree of similarity between sending and receiving contexts” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 297). As with any type of research paradigm, it is impossible to compare “apples and oranges.”

The dependability audit was the method of choice to ensure dependability or reliability of the research process and outcome. An outside expert in qualitative methodology was asked to review the process of the study and to examine the product (data, findings, interpretations, and recommendations) to attest to the dependability of the inquiry. By examining the product of the inquiry, confirmability or objectivity was also established. Therefore, one audit could determine the value of two criteria in this study. The confirmability audit examined six categories of the product of inquiry. These included: raw data, data reduction and analysis products, data reconstruction and synthesis products, process notes, materials relating to intentions and dispositions, and instrument development information (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Chapter 4

Results

The following chapter organizes the data collected from the interviews into two categories. The first category sets out to describe the present status of elite sport in Manitoba, specifically, the problems in high performance sport as perceived by the respondents. The second category is divided into four properties which best illustrate the opinions of the respondents with regards to a Canadian sport school model.

Category 1: The Status of Elite Sport in Manitoba

This category reports what was seen by the informants to be the major obstacles to elite sport performance and how such hurdles had the potential to be solved by the individual sport organizations. Each of the reported obstacles and their resolution was based on the informant's experiences in elite sport. While each experience was reported on an individual basis, many shared the same characteristics and as a result, were divided into properties based on similarity. These properties were by no means mutually exclusive, rather each was largely affected by the other.

Informants were asked to express their opinions toward elite sport at the time of the study, specifically, their impressions as to the major hindrances to elite athletic performance. In addition, each respondent was asked to address the approaches taken by sport organizations to alleviate these hindrances.

Respondents were asked to describe these approaches and provide personal opinions as to their effectiveness.

Property A: A complete education as a goal for the elite athlete.

According to the respondents, a successful elite athlete would understand all the components necessary to achieve excellence. It was, therefore, vital to educate each athlete as to the sport specific requirements for successful training and competition. However, as Daniel, an elite level coach indicated, "few kids are realizing what and how they have to do it." Albert's comments were similar to those expressed by Daniel. He stated that the understanding of all the components of the training programme was critical to the overall understanding of being an elite athlete. His experiences in the Manitoba elite sport scene however, led Albert to describe a different scene for Manitoba athletes:

There's not enough understanding of the completeness of what it takes to be a high level athlete...athletes for example don't have a complete enough grasp of the physiology of why a programme has certain peaks and valleys and times (that) are demanding and times that are needed for recovery nor do they understand how the components support each other, how psychological plans...how their own vision or their own dream for their performance must be at the basis, must be the base for their physical training. If there's not that particular desire or that...image of what they want to be then the rest of their programme simply becomes a physical exercise and it can't be that.

While many athletes may possess a dream of becoming a success at their endeavours in the distant future, respondents indicated that the number of athletes who realize the necessary steps they must climb to achieve this goal appeared to be very small. This, according to the respondents, was partially due to the lack of

sport specific education that athletes received at the time of the study. Daniel illustrated:

Here they (the athlete) want to be successful but they just want to be successful, it's nothing else...I talk so many times with my players about that way and they want to be successful, they want to be rich but they don't know what (they're) supposed to do...

Albert's comments were similar to those expressed by Daniel and he further admitted that perceived coaching constraints may have been one of the reasons for the athlete's lack of a sport specific education. He explained:

First of all, it takes many years for them (the athletes) to understand all the components of really what they need and there's an aspect of education that is missing right now, for the coach is unable because of time constraints, financial constraints, to become the complete educator that the coach should be. So as a result, too often the coach can't impart even his or her vision to the athlete of what the future of their athletic career looks like. So there's mistakes made on both sides...

According to the respondents, the notion of preparation for high performance sport was not taught to and/or not clearly understood by the athletes. Regardless of the reason, respondents agreed that a sport specific education was a vital process in understanding all the components it would take to become an elite athlete. The components integral to a comprehensive education programme concerning sport include the physiological, psychological, technical, and tactical areas of sport. In addition to understanding these components, athletes also needed to know how to use them in a practical setting. Respondents indicated that athletes without this education and the knowledge of how to use it were confused and lost within their own competitive programme. Julia, a former elite athlete, recalled:

Then there was, I guess thinking about things too much, like when we had those mental seminars and whatever and then, I don't know, you'd go, like before the competition I'd start thinking 'well should I be doing this?', like should I be visualizing and then I'd do a competition without visualizing and I'd do really well so I'd try it next time and then it wouldn't work and then, you know, I was just thinking too much at the end. Like, the last year I was competing I just thought way too much, like you know, 'what if I don't do this?' and 'what if I don't do' (pause), I just wasn't thinking of my (competitions) really, I was just like, I wasn't going out and doing it, I was like, in (the competition) I was thinking like 'Oh my God, what am I doing, this is the hardest (part)!'

While Julia received some theory based knowledge as to the psychological preparation for competition, she did not receive any guidelines as to how to use this knowledge in a practical setting. When asked how the above dilemma was solved, Julia responded:

I just ignored them...I didn't really look for it (a solution), I found if I looked for it I'd think too much so I just let things happen (pause) honestly, I was just going, you know, I just tried like 'okay, be like a robot', that's what it was like. It'd be go and train, and then go to school and then come back and then train again. And I just tried not to think about anything...ignore them, I guess...I tried to stop thinking but (pause) I don't think I realized until after I quit what it was, what was wrong, like I know I was thinking too much, I was yelling at myself to stop, you know what I mean, like in my head, you know like 'STOP THINKING, JUST STOP' (emphasis added due to voice volume), you know? It was like I was going crazy or something.

During her competitive career, Julia did not receive the psychological support needed to cope and consequently experienced feelings of frustration and uncontrolled anger. These feelings were also evident during the interview process. Julia spoke vehemently about her experiences in elite sport and consequently her voice level rose often and her body movements became very

agitated during the interview. Julia continued to state that these emotions contributed to her decision to withdraw from the sport, a decision she immediately regretted:

I didn't (want to train and compete anymore) and then you quit and then you want to do it again, you know like, maybe I made a mistake, maybe I could have stayed in longer, maybe my back would have held out. I've wanted to go back so many times...

Julia's example illustrated one of the potential consequences of an incomplete sport specific education for elite athletes. While Julia's experience only involved one component of the sport specific education necessary for athlete success, the consequences affected her entire athletic career. Her early departure from sport may have prevented her from realizing her full potential as an elite athlete.

According to the respondents, elite athletes who experienced similar obstacles required individual solutions and the help of professional support. Athletes who did not have a complete understanding of the fundamental components of training and competition would eventually become disillusioned and unmotivated. Sylvia, an elite level coach explained by describing her experience:

Let's take Sandi (an athlete)...she realizes that she is supposed to go to the Olympic Games, she has the potential to go, she has the technique good enough, she has the routines done, she can do it, and only the problem is to lose the weight. She is supposed to lose six, seven kilos so it means twelve, fourteen pounds and she knows that, about a year we spent I don't know how much money. High Performance Centre paid for that specialist, nutritionist to go everyday for her, to talk about education, to prepare a special diet, and she had to do it, she never did it, she actually gain more

weight. Now she's still with those weight and because of the new rules at the (competition), they are going to suspend her and she knows that, she could place first and she would be out of the Olympic Team, she knows that and she's not losing any weight. Still, the competition is in two weeks, I don't know how she can lose fourteen pounds in two weeks. I don't really know and what the other problem (is), we talk, we talk, we have meetings, we have meetings with her and we decide to have every week meeting with her to discuss how the things are going and she is supposed to write down what she has been doing for the past week, what she is supposed to do for the next week also, based on what we decide so (pause) and she screw up already two meetings because she is not doing and she doesn't care (pause) and coming to the practice she is saying 'I want to be first' but she is not doing it out of the gym. Like, when she is seeing me she is ready to do it but after the practice everything is gone. Out of the gym, it's gone.

Sandi wanted to be a successful elite athlete but as Sylvia stated, she was only willing to work towards this goal during the training time. Weight control was the one hurdle Sandi needed to overcome to achieve her goal. Unfortunately, this aspect of her training took place outside of the training arena. In this example, the elite athlete may not have the motivation or may not have understood, as Albert stated earlier, "the completeness of what it takes to be a high level athlete." As Sylvia stated, Sandi was not willing or perhaps did not understand that being an elite athlete included more than just the training at a formal practice.

Robert, a sport consultant, provided another factor which may have also affected Sandi's athletic career. He indicated that the sense of empowerment or control over the elite athlete's own career was of equal importance to the elite athlete. He stressed the importance of this sense of control because at times, due

to a variety of reasons, the people involved in assisting the athlete in her or his athletic career could lose sight of the athlete's priorities:

You do tend to lose focus of the real needs of the athletes, they do think differently, they're in a different stage of their development and their priorities are a little different from us.

However, as Robert noted, athletes were not actively participating in the development of their careers: "I don't know if the athletes are entirely in charge of their programme or their destinies or their priorities." The Minister's Task Force on Federal Sport Policy (1992, p. 60) stated that athletes competing at the high performance level believed that they lacked "direct involvement in decisions that affect them." This task force elaborated further by explaining that some sport governing bodies did not encourage the involvement of their elite athletes in any kind of decision making due to the athletes' heavy training schedules. Many elite athletes disagreed with this excuse for lack of athlete involvement (Minister's Task Force on Federal Sport Policy, 1992). Robert stressed that athletes should be encouraged to develop a sense of control over their programme:

I think also that the athletes have to be participants in the whole process, I don't think that they can just lock into a programme and have everyone tell them this is basically how it is, this is the policy, this is the programme, this is the evaluation, this is the monitoring and I think the athletes, more and more, especially as they mature, have to be represented in the planning stage and the evaluation of a programme.

The assertions made by respondents concerning the athletes' lack of knowledge and the need for control point to the need for a complete sport specific education for the athlete. This education would include a comprehensive package

that would involve all the components integral to elite sport. According to the respondents, elite athletes needed a strong understanding of the physiological, psychological, technical, and tactical areas of sport as well as an understanding of how to apply this knowledge in practical settings. Respondents also indicated that the elite athlete's sense of empowerment and control over their own career was of great importance to the athlete's career. Athletes should have a sense of control over their competitive programme and be able to participate in the development of their athletic career.

Respondents' experiences in the Manitoba elite sport scene indicated a lack of a sport specific education for the elite athlete. The recent situation in Manitoba, according to respondents, did not provide an opportunity for elite athletes to learn and understand the sport specific requirements for successful training and competition. Respondents further expressed that without this understanding of the fundamental components of elite sport, athletes would become disillusioned and unmotivated towards their athletic career.

Property B: Support for the athlete and coach.

Throughout their careers, athletes would receive support from a variety of people with whom they came in contact. Support would include assisting the athlete in dealing with the pressures of elite sport, setting long range goals for competition, and determining short term goals and daily tasks which would aid in achieving long term goals. In addition, support would include assisting in the development of the athlete's personal values and life skills such as effective time management, improved self confidence, and a strong work ethic.

According to the respondents of this study, the support of the athletes throughout their career was a vital contribution to performance enhancement. However, the respondents suggested that ineffective support was being given to help the athletes at the time of the study and the performance level of the athletes was decreasing due to this lack of support. Albert explained:

I guess what hinders, what prevents athletes from becoming what they want to be (are) the resources that should be available to all of them, the professional support in all the areas necessary to produce good athletes, maybe not the word produce but to support good athletes.

Ideally, as Robert stated, resources, in the form of sport psychologists, nutritionists, etc., could expose the athlete to many important options at a time in the athlete's life when sport demands most of the athlete's attention:

That's (sport) a small part of their life but at that time, that particular time, it almost takes over their life...(they should) have laid out all the options in front of them at appropriate times as they go from development athlete to elite, and all the resources that are required to support them, those resources are definitely human resources.

The coach may be the one individual who spends the most amount of time with the athlete and, as expressed by Jack Donohue, former coach of the National Men's Basketball Team, their relationship provides a crucial form of support for the athlete. He stated that "athletes have to know you care before they care what you know" (Minister's Task Force on Federal Sport Policy, 1992). Thomas, a former elite coach, agreed and stated that it was vital for the elite athlete to perceive the coach's dedication to the athlete's career:

One of the most important things about athletes...elite athletes...is the perceived commitment (perceived by the athlete) of the coach to the task.

Dubin (1990, p. 508) emphasized the effect of the coach on the elite athlete's career:

It is impossible to underestimate the importance of the coach in the development of an athlete...the more intensive the training, the greater the opportunity for moulding the athlete's character and personal philosophy as it pertain(ed) to his or her athletic career. Elite athletes appear to cleave to their coaches as mentors, guardians, and, in some cases, almost as surrogate parents.

The Coaching Association of Canada and the Canadian Association of National Coaches also emphasized the effect of the role of the coach by stating that the coach's presence is a powerful constant in the athlete's life and "is a mentor and an educator...often spending more time with the athlete than the athlete's own parents do" (Minister's Task Force on Federal Sport Policy, 1992, p. 65). A powerful indicator of support from a coach was the quality of the time the coach spent with the athlete. This was not the time spent for training but rather time where the athlete had an opportunity to discuss personal problems, their opinions, and their own experiences which may or may not have been related directly to sport performance. Albert suggested:

The first way and the most effective way of supporting an athlete is to spend time with them and talking about what they can do to minimize the conflict in their lives if that's what in fact they want to do, and to listen to...them and to really...help them sort out what their goals are and what their values are in their life.

As Albert continued, he emphasized the importance of the coach becoming an effective listener:

So you try to counsel them in..two ways, you try to educate them through the counseling but you also try to become a strong, strong listener, not a reflexive listener, you just sit, you don't repeat the fact to them...'try to understand me, don't just try to hear me'...so that's what you have to work at.

According to the respondents, support from the coach must be consistent. This type of support from the coach would help to develop the athlete not only as a strong competitor in sport but would also help athletes discover and understand themselves in a broader context of life. Albert explained:

I think that if you have, if you give it time and...I don't mean six months, I mean a few years, if you are consistent with your athlete needs and counseling and if you see that as an underpinning for everything else they do, and understanding of themselves, and understanding of their life, then I think it becomes highly effective, you know, I'd say 90% effective, however, the other 10% is left to circumstance or fate or chance, whatever it's going to be but I believe if that understanding doesn't come about, that wrestling with your...with who you are and what you are doesn't come about, with(out) some guidance from the coach, then there's you know, 50% chance of success or less.

As Albert stated, the consistent time with the athlete was a necessary component to the coaching experience, without it, the success of the athlete's career came into question. At times, it may be expected of the coach to assume the role of the athlete's parent, teacher, mentor, and friend. However, as some respondents revealed, the situation for coaches may not have allowed for the full development of these expected roles. Instead, coaches like Albert were expected to fulfill other roles:

Right now I'm in the current position, far more time managing and administrating and counseling, which is not a bad thing in itself, it's part of the coaching fixture. However, the pure contact on the

field, coaching time is nowhere near as...long as the other hours are par, and maybe that's a little disproportionate.

The other roles of "managing and administrating" were considered important to the organization of the training programme. In this example, however, Albert spent most of his valuable energy on these roles, at the expense of the athletes:

If I had, at the end of the day when practice time occurs, if I had the energy I had at the first of the day when I'm doing the administrative, managerial, business skills, I would think there would be a greater benefit for my athletes...(to) be able to charge myself up to the same degree, some days I am, some days I'm not.

Respondents who were coaches indicated a difficulty with managing the time demands of their profession and expressed the need for the development of a support system for the coaches. As Robert explained, establishing the needs of the coaches and addressing those needs through a strong support system would assist the coach in the training of the athlete:

We have to listen to the coaches, I think coaches should be planning accordingly, shouldn't be just a sort of short term need kind of thing, it's a long term thing, what do I need as a coach or what do we as coaches need...to basically open and help coach an athlete better.

Robert also suggested that support for Manitoba coaches could come from the Coaching Association of Manitoba:

I would suggest that the Coaching Association of Manitoba would play a major role in determining what the needs of the coaches are, reaching consensus and establishing goals and objectives for coaches, on behalf of coaches...I see the Coaching Association of Manitoba playing a greater and greater leadership role in that area.

As the respondents indicated, support for the athlete was a vital factor in the performance enhancement of the elite athlete. Support for the athlete in developing personal life skills and competition skills was provided through a variety of people, however, respondents suggested that the coach was the one person who would spend the most amount of time with the athlete. In the coach/athlete relationship, the coach may be expected to fulfill many roles, such as parent, teacher, mentor, and friend, in addition to being a coach. Higgins, cited in Dubin (1990, p. 508) described the effect of the coach on an athlete:

I think coaching is probably, in the field of education, one of the most powerful influences possible...No where else in the whole area of education does anyone get into a relationship that can be as intense as high performance coaching where you spend a number of hours in a situation that is very emotional in the sense, there's a big commitment here and right after, the ultimate if you will, of which that human being is capable. So there is a potential for great influence and so the quality of the human being who's involved in the coaching process is everything.

Respondents emphasized the need for coaches to spend consistent time with the athlete, both in and out of the training environment. This time spent with the athlete, as respondents suggested, should be used to listen to the athlete, to develop an understanding of who the athlete is, and to help the athlete to understand who she or he is as an elite athlete and as a person.

At the time of the study however, respondents revealed that coaches found it increasingly difficult to adequately support the athlete at the level required. Manitoba elite coaches were also expected to contribute to the organization of the training programmes and many respondents indicated that, at times, this was conflicting with the support needed by the athlete. Respondents further suggested

that a support system for coaches could potentially help the coaches provide a greater support to the athletes.

Property C: Role conflict and holistic development of the athlete.

There's no doubt that sport has a meaning, purpose, and value that transcends the merely physical and that it is an important part of the culture of our society. It contributes so very much to the health and character of those who participate, arming them with essential tools that will help them meet the challenges that life inevitably presents. (Dubin, 1990, p. 500)

Dubin (1990) also suggested that when athletes retire, they should experience a sense of accomplishment, they have pursued and achieved some level of sport excellence and through this, have developed lifestyle skills which assist in their future endeavours. As respondents indicated, the achievements in the sporting arena and the development of lifestyle skills should have given the athlete a strong feeling that they were capable of attempting and succeeding in other endeavours. The model athlete, according to the respondents, was one who has the opportunity to take advantage of all sport had to offer and utilized these opportunities to develop their lifestyle skills through sport. Julia, a former elite athlete, stated her belief in the opportunities that sport offered:

I guess I was privileged because you'd see people who weren't in the sport and they're just fat...it's like they have no (life)...(they) just go and hang out at 7-Eleven.

In the opinion of Abby, a parent of a high performance athlete, the worst case scenario for any elite athlete was to be so "focused...on the pressures of training and competing" that, upon retirement from competitive sport, the athlete

then “wonders if their sport has gone into anything.” Abby continued by explaining that athletes should be able to utilize their sport opportunities to gain access to other opportunities:

I'd like to see them to be able to really excel academically and see that they have an interest in certain areas and have a future let's say, in university or wherever they can see themselves progressing...I think that that would be the strength of the whole situation because...you get a kid who's just spectacular, put a bad injury on that kid and they're finished...if the whole thing (their athletic career) has been tunneled in one direction, they're really in deep water but if they see 'hey, I'm a wonderful student, I'm already doing grade 8 and grade 10 English or whatever, I'm really doing well academically', they can just go back into their school system and not be behind but be ahead.

However, while it may be ideal for athletes to pursue other endeavours, respondents felt that the situation for some athletes tended to prevent this practice.

Abby stated her experience with this situation:

Fatigue is a problem at the end of the day because they (the athletes) get up first thing in the morning, go to school all day no matter whether it's fun, boring, whatever they do, plus they do sometimes very intensive gym programmes at school which the schools insist upon...and then they come to this (training), again give 110% and it's...a lot...they know that when (training) is finished they have to go home and do another hour of homework, it tends to slow them down because they just don't have all that energy.

Elite athletes, as expressed by Abby, lived a lifestyle which was very intense for a short number of years, demanding almost all of their energy and devotion. While this lifestyle provided many opportunities for the athlete, the intense commitment of the elite athlete lifestyle often conflicted with other roles

in their life. Albert illustrated his belief in the difficulty to balance all the commitments of an elite athlete's life:

It takes a very special person to balance their lives...there's very few of those but that's the ultimate and that's the ideal.

Kahn et al., as cited in Sack & Thiel (1985), established that role conflict occurred when someone with a given status was subject to contradictory demands from a variety of role senders, or when the roles associated with two separate statuses were in conflict. Elite athletes in this study, faced a variety of roles, each demanding their attention. The demands of each of these roles conflicted, leading to frustration and disappointment for the athlete as it became difficult to achieve success. Albert explained:

There's no doubt that there is, I guess the expression is, I don't know if it's role conflict but there is certainly several roles that all of them play, and although many of them profess that their focus is athletics sometimes it's not and they get frustrated and they get disappointed because they don't reach their (athletic) goals because they...also want to be strong students and so they should be. They also have family life and a social life they want to maintain and many of them have part-time jobs that's simply because not only do they want to have some extra money but they also want to have a sense of self worth, that they're contributing to their own life.

Role conflict, according to Brian, was presently a widespread problem within elite sport:

I would think that the biggest problem that most of the athletes have is the inability to focus on their sport due to outside pressures and requirements of society, i.e. having to make a living, attending school, those two factors particularly for the person that's still involved in the educational system, I think that's certainly unlike a European system where an athlete has some flexibility in their

programme...I think that's a big problem for a lot of our younger athletes.

Debbie expressed a similar viewpoint as Albert and Brian and explained further:

Depending what age they are, younger athletes will have trouble balancing between the kind of social life (pause), school, they are very high level in athletics, as they get older I think it becomes, finances become a major concern. Academics are also a concern because all those things fight for their time...well, they don't have enough time to sleep because they're doing homework and they're trying to see friends and they're obviously having to train. That will affect their health which then will affect their performance. The stress of not getting things done at school because they are usually high achievers will be very difficult for them too and will affect their performance because they're under stress.

In addition to the pressures described by Albert, Brian, and Debbie, elite athletes were also subjected to the demands of sport organizations. Hall, Slack, Smith and Whitson (1991) established that elite athletes who received financial support were also faced with meeting the contributing sport organizations rules and regulations towards the athlete's training and competitive programmes. For example, Sport Canada's Athlete Assistance Programme (AAP) provided a monthly stipend to elite athletes ranging from \$150 to \$650 per month, the amount varied according to the carding system of athletes. In return, athletes must sign a contract to ensure meeting the requirements set by Sport Canada. These requirements included mandatory training camps, compulsory competitions, random drug testing, and involvement in non-commercial promotional activities (Hall, Slack, Smith & Whitson, 1991). While this relationship appeared to fit the description of employer and employee, Hall,

Slack, Smith & Whitson (1991, p. 95) stated that “very few athletes have access to any means of expressing their views in a collective manner, and very few have input into decisions made by their national sport organization that directly affect them.”

Sport, instead of being viewed as opening a door to new opportunities, could be perceived by the athlete as a huge commitment which detracted or even prevented athletes from realizing other ambitions. Respondents identified this as an issue all elite athletes must address at some point in their athletic career:

The biggest thing that hits them (the athletes) is that they've got to make a...huge commitment in terms of elite athletics...I guess such a huge sacrifice in terms of what peers are achieving while they're immersing themselves in their goal, so they often miss part of life.
(Thomas)

Respondents indicated that prior attempts to relieve pressure included drastically changing the athlete's lifestyle to accommodate elite sport. As Brian stated, athletes were encouraged to drop all other roles of their life in order to compete:

Athletes have to take time off from (pause) particularly schooling and sometimes jobs. So it means that, depending on the age, and the (pause) how far along they are in their career, I mean it's real age dependent but it makes it very difficult particularly when you're coming into Olympic years, people need to travel, we've got kids that are out of the country right now training so everything else in their lives is on hold.

Many elite athletes, as Debbie explained, were quite willing to sacrifice other roles in their lives to pursue excellence in their chosen sport:

Elite athletes are willing to put everything on the back burner for their sport, you know, so they're willing and their parents may not be but they're willing to let their academic career slide a little bit in order to do the best they can in their sport but that could cause conflict between them and their parents.

When asked how she would deal with an athlete who was having difficulty coping with the demands of all the roles in his or her life, Debbie stated that, depending on the age of the athlete, she would encourage the athlete to drop other roles in order to pursue athletics:

If you're talking about an athlete who...if they're going toward a world championships and they're at that age where they're out of school...then I would maybe suggest to that athlete to hold off on their university career so they could achieve their goals athletically because they can always go back to university.

However, after a period of time this type of solution may have resulted in mixed emotions for the athlete. As Brian stated "I think there's probably a feeling of 'gee, I better get on with things'..." By encouraging athletes to postpone development of the other roles in their lives, respondents indicated that elite sport in Manitoba may have ultimately forced the athlete to leave elite sport prematurely. Brian continued to explain:

It's not a solution at all, it's just making do...what it does is it allows them to look at the short term, their short term goals (pause) their competitive goals (pause) but not their lifetime goals and in the longer sense, in a deeper sense, what it really does is it shortens their career because you just can't continue...to do those kinds of things, you can't prolong things over a long period of time. Very few athletes have the luxury of being able to say take a year out of their lives and you know, go away and travel or train in (pause) at the university level and above, I mean, that's very difficult to do, at the high school level, most of our athletes haven't been able to do it at all.

Ironically, as Brian continued to state, this solution may not have even helped to increase the performance level of the elite athlete during their athletic career:

Well, the reality is we just don't perform as well...we just...diffuse the pressure and lower the expectations.

Elite sport, according to respondents, offered many unique opportunities for the elite athlete. During the elite athlete's pursuit for athletic excellence, he or she should have been able to take advantage of opportunities to develop lifestyle skills that could assist the athlete in future endeavours outside of the athletic arena.

Respondents indicated that they were not able to utilize the opportunities offered by elite sport. Elite athletes found competing demands on their lives detracted from their focus on athletic excellence. Respondents expressed the difficulty of balancing these demands and illustrated that the solution to this problem was ineffective. In the respondents' experience, instead of attempting to balance the roles in their lives, elite athletes were encouraged to drop all other areas of their life to accommodate elite sport. This solution, respondents indicated, would ultimately force them to leave sport prematurely.

Property D: The value of sport.

Ideally, participation in sport should provide the athletes with skills that would help them for the rest of their life (Dubin, 1990). As Robert stated, skills and experience developed during an athletic career could contribute to a future career:

When Nancy (a former national team basketball member) left basketball she...went into another programme but she used all the skills that she learned in basketball...she has a lot of the qualities (and) a lot of the attributes that she developed in basketball and went off into the world of journalism...(she) realized sport is a vehicle...she took a lot of the skills (with her).

According to the respondents, the acquisition of skills and qualities, such as team-work, confidence, and concentration on task, however, was generally not appreciated by the general public as a benefit of elite sport participation. Nick, a high performance coach, attributed part of the problem to the public's seemingly disinterested attitude towards sport:

If you look at our society here in Canada, if they would cut off funding from sport altogether, who would complain? Other than the athletes for a little bit and then it's over with.

Respondents in this study indicated the need for coaches and athletes involved with elite sport to convince the general population, and to a large extent, the sport community, that other benefits could be derived from sport participation:

I think the biggest thing is the public, I mean the influencers got to have a better appreciation, we've got to promote the value of sport and the benefits of sport that can bring to society, that's absolutely critical (pause) absolutely critical. (Thomas)

However, as Thomas continued to explain, the benefits of sport participation must be continuously proven:

That's the major, major problem because after you do that (promote the value of sport)...now you got somewhere...(but)...you've got to verify it...you've got to move it, you've got to show it, you've got to demonstrate it.

Respondents indicated the belief that the number of medals or winners on the international podium appeared to be more visible and perhaps more important to the general public. Neron, cited in Dubin (1990, p. 503), stated "we have created a society where if you win, you are a hero, even a god. But if you lose, you are much more than a non-winner, you are a loser". This clear cut line between success and failure was unique to the elite sporting experience. As stated by Dubin (1990, p. 503), society did not "ask that young scientists all become Nobel Prize winners" yet we expected athletes to "win at all costs", so much so that it devalued all other benefits of sport. Society accepted that other benefits may be derived from becoming a "young scientist" (without winning the Nobel Prize) but did not accept that participation in elite sport (without winning the Olympic gold medal) could also provide other benefits for the young elite athlete.

The attention to sport by the mass media added to the expectation of athletes to "win at all costs" (Dubin, 1990). Elite athletes who succeed on the world stage were seen by the public as "heroes and gods" largely due to the mass media portrayal of the athlete. However, while the media made heroes from some of the top Canadian athletes such as Kurt Browning, Miriam Bedard, Sylvie Frechette, and Elvis Stoyko because of their international success, the international achievements of the majority of athletes were, to a large extent, unreported by the media (Minister's Task Force on Federal Sport Policy, 1992). The continued lack of interest by the media towards many elite athletes added a feeling of failure at the pinnacle of their career. As Thomas stated, the continued lack of interest by the media was very disheartening to the elite athlete:

(One Manitoba athlete) was sixth in the world...beat (the world champion) who's the Wayne Gretzky of skiing by 30 seconds and so what? Who knows about it? The media don't care cause the public don't care, who cares, I go coach, you go coach your face off, I mean who cares?

According to Dubin (1990), the general public had an unique viewpoint towards the definition of success in elite sport. Respondents also agreed that it appeared that the public equated success with medals. The mass media assisted in perpetuating this situation by giving an immense amount of media coverage to a small number of elite athletes. Respondents indicated the need to educate the public as to the other lifetime benefits of elite sport participation.

Summary of Category 1: The Status of Elite Sport in Manitoba

Participants in this study were asked to express their impressions of what they perceived to be the major obstructions to the development of elite athletes and how these hindrances were potentially solved by the individual sport organizations. Four properties emerged from these data:

(1) Education represented an obstacle to the performance of the elite athlete and was the first property to emerge from the informants' responses. The respondents suggested that a sport specific education failed to include all the vital components of the training programme and, as a result, athletes were not training to their full potential. This lack of sport specific knowledge, according to the respondents, may have left elite athletes feeling disillusioned and unmotivated towards their athletic career. A reason for this was provided by the respondents who indicated that athletes needed to feel a sense of empowerment over their life

both in and out of sport. Respondents suggested that this sense of empowerment was not evident among Manitoba elite athletes.

(2) Support for the athlete and coach was the second property to emerge from the data. Respondents indicated that support for elite athletes was vital to their development. The coach of the athlete probably spent the most amount of time with the athlete and could provide the strongest support system. Respondents expressed the importance of coach support because he or she could listen, develop a good understanding, and help the athlete develop a clear self awareness.

However, coaches who were respondents continued to be frustrated because they were unable to provide adequate emotional and educational support for the athlete due to other demands on their time.

(3) Role conflict, the third property emerging from the data, was identified by the respondents as a negative influence to the performance of the elite athlete. Respondents believed that elite sport should have provided unique opportunities and permitted the development of lifestyle skills which could have contributed to the future of the athlete. Instead, elite sport in Manitoba did not successfully facilitate development. Solutions which were attempted were viewed as inadequate and may have even accelerated the retirement of athletes long before they had realized their potential in the sport at the world level.

(4) Respondents expressed that the fourth property, the value of sport and the recognition for sport as a means for athletes to develop lifetime skills, was a recent problem for elite sport in Manitoba. The general public and the sporting community placed too much emphasis on winning and losing and this was detrimental to elite sport. Some of the respondents were also critical of the

apparent indifference by the public toward elite sport and stated that this was disheartening to the athlete. Respondents explained that the general community had to be reminded regularly of the benefits of elite sport participation in terms of its value to the individual athlete and to the community itself. Each sport should be designed so that an aspiring athlete not only benefits from the development of physical skills but also is able to benefit from a series of skills which spin off the competitive experience. Athletes should be able to retire from the sport and feel that the competitive experience was accompanied by the acquired ability to manage time, organize their lives, apply for a job, prepare for a degree in university, and live a well balanced life.

The general consensus of all respondents towards these four properties was one of frustration due to the limitations of being an active participant in elite sport in Manitoba. According to the respondents, there were no mechanisms in place to help athletes achieve excellent performances while living a normal life. During the interview process, respondents gave a clear indication of their frustration towards the obstacles facing elite athletes and a sense of hopelessness over their inability to effectively eliminate some of these hindrances.

Category 2: The Canadian Sport School Model

This category reflected the opinions of the informants in this study as to the potential development of a Canadian sport school model in Manitoba. During the interview process, respondents were asked to describe all the components of an ideal sport school in Manitoba and how they felt such a model would best

serve the interests of the athlete. The four ensuing properties of this category emerged from the data.

The International Charter of Physical Education and Sport provides a philosophical framework for the development of youth through sport and education (Minister's Task Force on Federal Sport Policy, 1992). This charter states that "...sport (is) not confined to physical well-being and health but also contribute(s) to the full and well-balanced development of human beings"(Minister's Task Force on Federal Sport Policy, 1992, p. 113). In accordance with this framework, respondents in this study indicated that the general principle associated with a sport school should be that high performance athletes who attend such an institution will be provided with an opportunity to acquire a well rounded education while they remain committed to high quality training. Albert explained:

There's no question that the idea of a sport school implies the idea of an opening up of experience to the athlete.

The emphasis and perceived benefits of the design of the curriculum of such a school placed academic preparation, specific knowledge of the sport, and a comprehensive scientific support alongside the provision of normal social interaction. Brian illustrated:

I would think there are other things that should be taught other than are in the (public school) curriculum. I think some things like sport psychology, nutrition, things of those nature are the kinds of things that should be in those programmes and information provided to athletes so that we're not just talking about turning out an athlete that's academically sound although I think that's really important but I think also that how to cope with the stresses of being an elite athlete at a young age.

Robert emphasized the importance of the notion of a “holistic” approach as an important benefit to an athlete attending a sport school:

As far as what I would think the most important parts the school would be...is just the holistic approach to developing the person, be it the student-athlete or athlete-student...I think the critical, the critical focus has to be on the entire person.

The development a sport school should also provide the athlete with an opportunity to live a diverse life where:

(They) don't get...caught up in the whole (sport) system 24 hours a day, that they have these options(s)...it's important that young people, through adolescence, have this time to go play and get out, play, park it or leave school and go to the community club or go to the library. (Robert)

As Abby illustrated, the essence of a balanced life where there was an opportunity to pursue other activities was important to the athlete and would enable them to reduce their daily stresses:

If you have a standardized (combined academic and athletic) programme it's like part of their day and then they have the whole evening free to do their homework, to relax, and then head into the day again.

With the emphasis of the holistic development of the athlete, the respondents provided what they perceived to be the benefits of a Canadian sport school model. The philosophical basis of enriching the life of an athlete by way of a holistic approach is outlined in the ensuing four properties of a Canadian sport school model identified by the respondents.

Property A: Education and time management.

A sport school model, according to the respondents, would provide an education suited to the needs of the elite athlete. In addition to the academic curriculum provided by the present public school system, a sport school would provide additional educational components for the athletes. According to Robert, the curriculum of instruction would include the overall structure and components of the Canadian sport system. As he explained, this type of education which also addressed the athlete as a person instead of an object will empower the athlete by placing their own athletic career in the context of the Canadian sport system:

I think that the athletes have to be more involved in the system not as objects so I would think that some type of training or education on the sport system would be very important so that they (the athlete) aren't seen as objects but that they are trained as to what the sport system is all about...so I would think it would be important to bring sport administration...coaching development, leadership development with the sport model focus.

According to the respondents, athletes who participate in elite sport may have special educational needs which require academic attention. However, elite sport may also provide educational opportunities for athletes which cannot be duplicated within the classroom setting. For example, athletes at an elite level of competition could learn about the politics, geography, history, and language of a particular country during their travels to competitions. Athletes who represent Canada overseas educate themselves through the experience of travel where they have the unique opportunity of living in other cultures and experiencing other customs. As Albert expressed, a sport school model would acknowledge this

special educational opportunity and provide the athlete with a unique opportunity of a deeper appreciation for other aspects of their total preparation:

There are all kinds of ways of knowing and learning things and athletes learn in different ways because of their exposure to the world and to competition and to...themselves (as) their own psychological and emotional exploration are much greater usually than the average student.

Due to the intensity, depth, and "lived" experience of high performance competition, respondents were of the opinion that adequate credit should be automatically given in lieu of certain identified courses. Abby, for example, expressed a desire to "take out gym class" altogether for the elite athlete while Albert explained a slightly different approach:

Athletic experience is valuable and...there's no reason...to think that an athlete couldn't receive credit for...their participation in sport...certainly the physical training would be their phys. ed. credit, could be their leadership credit, could be their health credit...could be a biology credit for that matter.

Respondents raised a concern over the question of time allotted to sport and academics. Certain respondents suggested that flexibility and the ability to prioritize the various roles at different time of the year was necessary. Robert explained:

I think there's a time...when athletics is very, very important during the year and there's a time when studies are more important.

Abby emphasized the importance of a sport school model to encourage the athlete to experience academic life along with athletic excellence:

So if the kids have the ability that they (the teachers) don't just do that standard little curriculum but they can help the kids to explore

and really enjoy their schooling so that it's not a case of 'okay, this is what we're going to do today so you can get to the gym' but to make the schooling a unique experience as well as the training a unique experience not one being weighted over the other.

A sport school model would assist in achieving "that balance for the athlete and (make) sure there aren't two things pulling on the athlete at once." As Nick explained, balance would be maintained by creative scheduling of the academic and athletic programmes:

Classes are scheduled so that they can practice, classes are scheduled around their traveling so they never really miss a class.

The respondents suggested that flexible programming in the sport school model would enhance sport performance by reducing potential conflicts, stressors, and by facilitating the travel arrangements necessary for international preparation. Brian illustrated:

It would allow...the athletes to do the work necessary particularly at that young elite level to be successful and it would...allow (travel) to training camps, winter training camps, things of that nature which right now are almost impossible for school age athletes to get to and yet which we know for international preparation can be really, really important.

Property B: Cooperation and the teamwork ethic.

In following the holistic philosophy of the sport school model, teamwork emerged from the data as a vital factor in the development of the athlete. As defined by Webster's New World Dictionary (1990), a team is "a group of people working or playing together...in a cooperative activity." The respondents believed the sport school setting would foster a sense of team effort and the

athlete would not only achieve individual success but also reach a much higher ideal. Robert illustrated:

People (should) understand they're part of the team and understand within that team what their role is but...they are part of something larger and all the staff people understand what the whole school's about, what the whole system's about...and the whole idea of what's best for the athlete.

Robert continued to explain that while the welfare of the individual was of the greatest importance, teamwork between the athlete, coaches, parents, teachers, and peers would also be one of the valued lessons of participation in sport:

The important thing is...the whole teamwork concept. I think one of the true values of people participating in sport is that they do learn...they are not an island to themselves, they are a part of the team.

Albert was optimistic that the performance level of the athlete would increase because of the sense of a team effort found in the sport school concept. However, he explained, this was not the only resulting effect:

Ideally you would want the athlete to...know not only do they have the support to make themselves better athletes in the physical sense...they have a team behind them that is simply not a clinical team but a team who has a real interest in who they (the athletes) are and that's what it comes down to.

Albert speculated that the strength of the team would also provide an elite athlete with a system of personal support that stretched beyond the boundaries of sport:

There's a deep personal attachment to the future of the athlete and there's a deep attachment by the athlete to the team members.

Based on the respondents' idea of a sport school model, those who would become increasingly influential in the athlete's career included the coach(es) in the athletic programme and the teacher(s) in the academic programme. The direction and balance of their influence would be particularly important in ensuring that the athletes meet their demands in an equitable manner. As Brian indicated, coaches and teachers would have to be aware of the demands of their respective interests on the athlete and learn to be sensitive to the potential conflict which could arise for the athlete:

Certainly the key will be to get educators that understand international sport. I think that's very important...to understand the demands.

Respondents emphasized the need for all personnel in a sport school to have a good understanding of the pressures of being an elite athlete. Resource specialists, according to the respondents, were vital components to a successful sport school because of their support of the elite athlete. Robert explained:

I can't see...an...athlete school or school sport system without resource people being there too. I mean it would be ridiculous just to have the academic and the sport side, you need to bring the third component in there.

These resource consultants offered expertise in specific components of the athletic training programme and, as respondents indicated, were to be a necessary feature in their idea of a sport school model. Robert anticipated "...an athlete centre, resource centre, nutritionists...sport psychologist, strength training, other resource people, I would see it..." while Brian "could...see the possibility of

having a very strong strength training facility and maybe even a rehab (rehabilitation unit) built into the (school)...”

While an essential component of a sport school programme, respondents explained that this type of support did not need to be on a full time basis:

They (the resource specialists) may not be full time staff at this type of school but...they may come in as resource people into the system and at least be available for counseling or for training.
(Robert)

While respondents indicated that it was common for resource specialists to work only with the athletic preparation for training prior to competition, in a sport school setting this component would be helpful in teaching the athlete how to maintain a balanced lifestyle. Brian explained:

I think that a sport school with instructors that are familiar with (the stresses of high performance sport) would be certainly a much better situation...I think counseling maybe not even in a class basis but...you'd need to have an advisor on some basis...a lot of resources should be available...to the school.

The respondents expressed a belief in a combined effort by a strong support team would be the most beneficial for the athlete. Respondents also indicated that a multi-sport environment could also provide a strong base of support for the athlete. Nick demonstrated:

You've got to do it with other sports. I think it would be better...you've got (to) set up and combine different sports...in a school. You've got to do it with other sports. I think it would be better.

Respondents indicated that the inclusion of a number of different sports would provide a unique team support to the athlete. Since all the students

involved in a sport school programme would be participants in high performance sport, they would find other athletes experiencing similar struggles in other disciplines who could sympathize and/or empathize with one another. Julia observed:

I think if...they'd just build a sport school for all sports...that definitely...would help the athlete, it would really help. You'd be with other athletes...it's good to have (friends from other elite sports)...because you can compare things and stuff.

The team support among athletes of different disciplines could serve to decrease the pressure of high performance sport. Abby illustrated:

It (the sport school) will...facilitate in their schooling and take the pressure off and...it would be with other kids in the same situation and they would be more likely to be more focused with kids that share the same experience, the highs and the lows would be there where they wouldn't be with everybody else. I mean, it's kinda hard to tell a friend who's into painting her fingernails different colours how tough it was when you really screwed up the competition and you were out of the medals and everything else. The reality check isn't there.

While each athlete would derive support from their peers, respondents indicated that other participants in a sport school could also benefit from the inclusion of many sports. As Nick demonstrated, the interaction and sharing of knowledge and experience between sports could serve to improve the training and competitive programmes for all athletes involved:

You need, in wrestling...that agility that gymnasts use, you need the aggressiveness that football uses, you need some of the throws that judo uses. (With) judo, same thing, they need that aggressiveness or the ground wrestling...to help them, and that toughness...the gymnasts (need) our motivation and stuff like that...with football, their movement and strength and

endurance...can come from wrestling. So these guys can all be integrated together...you...could just sort of feed each other.

Respondents indicated that the sense of teamwork which a sport school would provide has the potential to improve the quality of training for the athlete. Each athlete would be in a position to receive a broad range of coaching and performance enhancement ideas which are available from a team of sport and academic specialists. This, according to Nick, would empower the athlete to grow and develop:

I think that's best because if you stick to one (person), and say 'okay, he's going to work everything, you have to do everything he says', then you're limited to his abilities...I always push onto our athletes to take what fits into your style from anyone who can help you.

According to the respondents, a sport school model would provide a teamwork ethic which would enable the athlete to continue academic study while pursuing athletic excellence. All respondents agreed that the coach(es), teacher(s), resource specialists, and peer athletes would play a significant team role in the development of the athlete. However, respondents were not in agreement as to the level of involvement of the parent in the team development of the athlete in the sport school model. Albert expressed that while parents are presently not very involved in their child's athletic career, a sport school model would enable the parents to play a more active role:

I think the idea too that would happen in the (sport) school is that it would include parental involvement where currently most of our sports don't accept parents (pause) bake a cake, make a sandwich, sell some raffle tickets or drive kids to an event, that is not the kind of inclusion you need so I think that the idea of the school

would allow parents to become involved in a more intimate way and so they should.

On the other hand, other respondents indicated a contrary opinion of parental involvement. Daniel suggested that parents should not be participants in their child's athletic career and this would allow for a greater independence of the athlete. He stated that parents should refrain from involvement:

...not because they don't like their kids and they don't want to spend the time with them, it's just for (a) better education ...that's the good opportunity for independence.

Abby also cautioned against parental involvement in a sport school but for a different reason. As she explained, parents who financially support a sport school could interfere with the objectives of the school:

When you have parents in a situation where they have financial control of any kind, they start to demand things and you don't want that. I would sooner see it run by experts who really know what they're doing, they're not feeding one kid above another that sort of thing that it's the same for everybody and that it's good for everybody. And so for that reason I don't see the parents doing anymore than saying 'yes, I want my child to attend' ...after they're in here, they're ours...anywhere a parent pays money they figure that they can say 'I'm paying for that coach, she can't do that' and that's not what you want. You have to have a system that is run by people that know what's going on.

Some respondents indicated that the teamwork ethic also included how a sport school programme integrated with the general community. According to these respondents, it was important to remember that a sport school model should be compatible with the entire sport system. Support from the community would be, according to the respondents, crucial to the success of the sport school model. In order to receive this support, the sport school would have to present itself as a

programme which is worthy of the public's financial and resource involvement. Respondents indicated the necessity for a sport school to promote the value of the programme to the public. As Nick explained, this could be assisted by the implementation of an awareness programme:

If we (a sport school) were to introduce something like...some sort of awareness programme or education in the theory of sport to everybody, then maybe there might be some appreciation for what we do.

To avoid conflict when developing a sport school model, the existing programmes in the sport community should also be considered. Leagues in the Manitoba High School Athletic Association are presently very successful and this, according to Brian, would have to be respected by a sport school:

I don't think these (elite athletes in the sport school) would compete for the school (in the high school league)...I think that would be detrimental...to the acceptance from the sport community.

As he further explained, a sport school which does not respect the community programmes would not succeed:

I mean 'alright, we're going to have this highly elite school and we're going to play basketball', well bingo...everybody who can afford to and wants to go to...be a part of a winning team would highly (want) to send (their) kid there. Well, you're going to have a hard time...finding competition and...being accepted by the community.

Nick expressed his agreement with this statement and further suggested that a sport school programme should avoid any sport which is in the high school league:

We don't (want to) interfere with what the high school association is doing...we have to look at...other...sports...and not affect or hinder...the high school association athletics. Then we...won't get any resistance or any daggers tossed at us from high school athletics or the other sports cause...they still have to have their competitions.

Property C: The feeder system and the development of the athlete.

Most of the respondents interviewed agreed that a sport school would contribute significantly to meeting the needs of young people who have the potential to perform at the elite level at a time in their lives when educational, developmental, and social demands also converge. The method of identification for sport potential within developing athletes however, varied between the informants and the sports with which they were involved. Nick emphasized the participatory aspect of a sport school as the main criteria for admittance of developing athletes:

I'd start off first by their (the athlete's) choice...yeah, to get started, I guess.

Once a sport school was at a capacity level, criteria for admittance would then be implemented. This lead Nick to have some concerns:

I guess if it fills up real quick, depending on the size of the school, you may have to set some standards...as it became more popular then you would have to set both academic and athletic standards, and with each sport you would have to limit number per sport...that doesn't sound good...(or) too positive - 'limit'.

Julia expressed the need for a different approach and indicated that each athlete should be evaluated prior to their admittance to a sport school programme. This would then identify the athletes with the most potential for sport excellence:

I guess they could test, or have testing before, kind of like an admittance...(or) exam...to get in for the younger kids. I see it like that...for the talented people with potential.

Debbie expressed a similar view as Julia and suggested a very strict evaluation process was a must for any sport school programme:

The selection criteria would have to be so, so stringent that it would be only those athletes that had the ultimate potential.

Other respondents expressed a different opinion from Nick, Julia, and Debbie. Robert simplified the admission process by deferring the responsibility and allowing the specific sports to “target the athletes...(to) bring them to the school.” Whatever the identification process, however, respondents agreed that athletes should be targeted to enter the sport school at an age when they would be at the physical and psychological developmental stage of their respective sport. However, as respondents elaborated on the chronological age at which athletes should enter a sport school programme, it became evident that each respondent had different opinions. Regardless of age of entry, respondents explained that a sport school programme should provide complete support for potential elite athletes from the developmental stage to the elite stage of their career. Athletes who enter the school at the developmental stage, according to the respondents, would first participate in a general and diverse training programme. Albert illustrated:

They should (do other events), all track and field events as well as other events, they should be in the swimming pool, they should be in the gymnastics room, they should be playing soccer.

This type of training, as Albert expressed, would then allow the athlete to develop into a stronger elite athlete:

They should have an understanding of what their body can do in many areas and that idea of variety and that challenge will make them better athletes in whatever sport they do.

Nick observed that it would be important for the developmental programme to be geared to the age and level of ability of the athlete while still enabling the athlete to progress:

At the elementary level, it would be mostly games, skill games...for body awareness...balance development, strength development...they'd be games so that they're fun...and then without them realizing it, they're learning skills that...will become automatic for them...junior high, they start learning the...actual...skill...and (it's) easy because...it's part of their games...high school...they're strictly...elite training.

The coaches responding to that aspect of the sport school expressed similar opinions when it came to the question of specialization and broad based skill development. As Albert explained, the programme just prior to the elite level would introduce options for the athlete to consider which would aid in the decision for sport specialization:

I think that it'll have to be some exposure to this systematically in the early teen years, 13 to 16, there should be some exposure with many options and then maybe stronger choices will have to be made when an athlete is 16, 17, 18, meaning they don't have to say 'I've focused the next 8 years on the 100 metre sprint for the Olympics in' (pause) wherever it's going to be but there should be some...narrowing of fields...in other words, 'I'm going to be a sprinter, a jumper, and a hurdler, I'm going to try to ace three events as opposed to all the events'.

Albert's more liberal view of the sport school suggested an athlete centred approach where the selection of sport would not be established prior to entry. By encouraging the athlete to make his or her own decision regarding their sport

specialization, the athlete would feel a sense of ownership and commitment to the decision. The control over this kind of decision, as Robert explained, would be crucial to the philosophy of a sport school programme:

What you hear in some (former) Eastern European systems where the elite athletes, just through their basic skills are weeded out when they're five or six and...then mainstreamed, well that's sort of got the connotation of saying 'well geez, individual choice and freedom isn't there' but if you can ensure that the athlete comes to the system through their own knowledge and volition, why not...have an athlete go in there as a generalist and then choose their sport.

Property D: The Canadian identity.

All of the respondents in this study indicated varying knowledge of a number of sport schools in the world today and were positive about the placement of a sport school within the Canadian sport culture. Some respondents enthusiastically suggested the sport school should be modeled after "the Swedish" or "the Bulgarians" since, as Nick stated, "the kids were doing well academically and doing well athletically." Other respondents cautioned however, as Daniel demonstrated, against taking the "already complete model" of the sport school.

According to these respondents, the consideration of the unique North American culture and lifestyle would be vital to the development of a successful sport school model in Canada. Prior to the political upheaval in Eastern Europe, some respondents believed the sport school systems in these countries were superior. Albert demonstrated the change in the respondents' opinions:

I think many of us in the West are convinced that the (former) East German model is a good one, I'm not really so sure, especially for our North American way of thinking.

To merely duplicate a successful sport school which operated in another country would not guarantee success in Canadian society. Daniel suggested that "always when you are doing something you have to...take the...specific culture or system of the particular city or country." Nick also agreed that the importance of Canadian expertise in a sport school model in Canada would be essential and he was "not a believer in bringing in foreigners to do something that Canadians can do."

Nick continued to suggest that Canadian culture, values, practices, and beliefs would not only be important in the development of a sport school concept, it would also be vital to consider in the training programme of the elite athlete. Coaches who understand the pressures of being a Canadian elite athlete would best be able to support the athlete:

Our guys (Canadian coaches)...know our customs and language and everything like that. I mean, that what we were finding, they brought a Russian, they brought in a Yugoslavian, no a Hungarian in Guelph, in Hamilton they got a Russian there helping them. They (foreign coaches) know their stuff but they come from completely different societies. We had that Russian over in Montreal, his team did an exodus, they walked out on him. These guys (foreign coaches) come from different systems where their incentives are a little different...I wouldn't bring in those guys to coach.

Summary of Category 2: The Canadian Sport School Model

Respondents in this study were asked to identify what they believed to be the components for a successful Canadian sport school model. Four properties which characterize the components emerged from the interview data. In addition to these properties, respondents indicated that a general principle of a holistic approach to development of the athlete would be vital to the success of a sport school model. The emphasis of a sport school model would be to develop the athlete as a person first. In other words, a sport school model would enable the athlete to pursue other aspects of their life, such as an academic education and social interaction with peers, while remaining committed to elite level athletic training.

(1) Respondents indicated that education, the first property of a sport school model, would have to be suited to the needs of an elite athlete. Components which address the issues of sport and elite competition would be an addition to the public school curriculum. Respondents also expressed a need for a sport school to recognize the education athletes receive through their training and travels as an elite athlete. Credits could be given to the athlete in lieu of certain identified courses. Flexible scheduling would also be a necessary component of a sport school model. Respondents explained that a programme which was adaptable to both the academic and athletic demands of the athlete would best serve the interests of the athlete.

(2) In keeping with the overall principle of a holistic approach to the development of the athlete, respondents indicated the need to provide a strong

teamwork ethic for the athlete in a sport school programme. This second property of a sport school model would provide a system of personal support for the athlete and would assist the athlete to achieve not only individual athletic success but also personal success outside the athletic arena. A sport school programme, according to the respondents, would include a strong team of educators and resource staff who understand the demands of international sport. The teamwork ethic would create an environment where sharing of knowledge between sports and support among athletes across different disciplines would improve the quality of training for the athletes. Respondents were unable to agree on the role of the parent within the sport school model. Some respondents were enthusiastic for the parents to become more involved in their child's athletic career. Other respondents suggested that parents would become less involved. Respondents recognized the need for a sport school model to be compatible with the general sport system within the community. Programmes which would be part of a sport school model should not conflict with the programmes offered in the community. Respondents believed that support from the community would be crucial to the success of a sport school model.

(3) A sport school model, according to the respondents, would include a strong development and feeder system. The system, the third property of a sport school model, would provide a general training programme for those athletes who show potential as an elite athlete. Respondents, however, could not agree on the method of identifying potential elite athletes but all were of the same opinion as to the generalized approach to their development. Athletes would then be able to make their own decision regarding their sport specialization.

(4) It was important, according to some respondents, to develop a sport school model which reflected Canadian culture and social values. This final property of a sport school model would be vital to consider in the training programme of the elite athlete. Respondents felt that the pressures of being a Canadian elite athlete were unique and coaches who understood these pressures would best be able to support the athlete.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Analysis through Social Exchange Theory

Theory, as defined by Orenstein (1985), provides a basic structure which “guides the investigations of an individual on a sociological quest.” Specific to this study, social exchange theory provided a framework to investigate “social reality in terms of processes of exchange encounters between individuals” (Orenstein, 1985). Homans (1961) described social interaction as an exchange or “rewards”, each person attempts to minimize the costs (the effort expended to receive the reward) and maximize the profits (the received rewards minus the cost). In social settings, rewards constitute anything of social value and include such social values as prestige and support. By employing social exchange, it is possible to describe how potential stakeholders perceive the costs and benefits from a Canadian sport school model in the Manitoba sport community. It is also possible to describe the principle of such a model in terms of particular exchanges made by members as they try to minimize social costs and maximize social profits. The application of social exchange theory in this study provides an effective theoretical model to aid in the exploration of a Canadian sport school model in the Manitoba sport community.

As Orenstein (1985) suggests, the purpose of a theoretical perspective is to locate the data generated through detailed study in such a way that it contributes to the understanding of human behaviour in a systematic fashion. The data in this

study were framed in the theoretical perspective of social exchange for two reasons: (1) The data generated in the study could be viewed as a process of change for the individuals who seemingly exhibited a belief that the creation of a sport school, based on a certain model proposed by them, would best serve the interests of athletes. (2) Those who espoused the virtues of a sport school for athletes also had significant benefits to gain themselves and were willing to contribute what they believed others perceived to be valuable in exchange for cherished social rewards.

Searle's (1990) six theoretical concepts of social exchange were utilized in this study to provide the framework for determining what potential stakeholders perceived to be the benefits of a Canadian sport school programme. The following discussion addresses each concept within the context of a sport school programme.

Concept 1: Individuals enter into a sport school programme seeking some reward.

Each respondent in this study indicated an altruistic reason for the development of a sport school, namely the "holistic" development of the athlete as a person. Within the social exchange framework however, each individual must have perceived a high potential for receiving a reward which was deemed important enough to warrant their participation.

As stated by the respondents, the most important aspect of a sport school programme would be the development of a well rounded athlete. This, according to them, would in turn assist in increasing the performance level of the athlete

within his or her chosen sport. Brian, for example stated “we have to provide the opportunities for the young people to get an education and pursue excellence.” A sport school programme is seen by the respondents as a means of pursuing this stated goal. However, the ensuing reward, which appears to be in the best interests of the athlete, also appears to benefit each of the respondents in terms of reflected glory.

The competence of the coach, who is given the responsibility for developing the athlete, is reflected by the achievements of the athlete. A sport school programme which is projected as a method of improving athlete performance then can serve to increase the status of the coach. A coach who develops an athlete to Olympic level of competition is perceived by the sport community and the general public as an effective and successful individual. This higher prestige awarded to the coach leads to further opportunities perhaps through the acquisition of more athletes, a promotion, more prestige, and/or more money.

Abby, a parent of an elite athlete, stated that her primary reward for her child’s participation in a sport school programme was to decrease the stress and pressure her child felt as an elite athlete. She explained:

I think it would reduce the amount of stress of training in an elite sport at a high level when they’re so young and it will also facilitate in their schooling and take the pressure off and...the best part is if you’re going to buy into that and you’re going to let your child train at that level it would be with other kids in the same situation.

While parents, such as Abby, showed genuine concern for their child’s involvement in elite sport, they anticipated that they would benefit from their

child's participation in a sport school programme by way of reflected glory. Any mother or father of an athlete who is involved in a sport school programme and is successful at the national or international level could be viewed by peers and the general public as a successful person and perhaps even as a more effective and competent parent. A sport school programme which could potentially increase the performance level of the athlete may indirectly provide confirmation of the parenting ability of the elite athlete's parents.

The development of a sport school programme in a community can also provide potential rewards for those working in the public sector. Support by government agencies and officials for a sport school programme can aid in affirming the government's ability to provide services which meet the community's needs. Any success of an athlete participating in a sport school programme endorsed by the government will also reflect on the success of the government. Not only will the government be seen by the general public as striving to meet the community's needs but when athletes are successful, the government will also be considered by the public as doing an effective job. A sport school programme which the government endorses can be seen as achieving their mandate of increasing performance levels of elite athletes. A positive public view of the government can result from a successful sport school programme. This potential reward will possibly provide enough incentive for the government to enter into a sport school programme.

Concept 2: Participation in a sport school programme is sustained if the rewards are valued and evolve over time.

As stated by Searle (1990), the longer an individual participates in a programme, the less likely it is that the original rewards will be sufficient to sustain motivation and participation. Rewards must come at varying rates and once achieved, other rewards will be sought. A sport school programme will need to provide ongoing rewards for each of the stakeholders in order to ensure continued commitment.

The opportunity to pursue excellence in elite sport while obtaining an academic education will provide an initial reward for the athlete. The results of this opportunity, such as completing an education, empowerment, and social interaction, can provide evolving and ongoing rewards for the athlete. These goals will not be attained at one point in the athlete's career rather they will be a progressive challenge to the athlete as she or he grows and matures. Robert stated that "ultimately, human growth is really what sport's all about." The education that will enable the athlete to compete at an elite level during their athletic career also will equip the athlete with skills that will help in their future pursuits in life. Human growth is an ongoing goal which will develop throughout the entire lifetime of the athlete. Elite sport can provide experience which may assist in this development and as stated by the respondents, is a "vehicle" to life achievements for the athlete. This, as illustrated by Albert, is not only a primary reason for continued involvement by the athlete but also for ongoing participation by all stakeholders:

What attracts me to it (the sport school) is two things...my ego is tied up in the accomplishment of the athlete...there's no greater reward in coaching than seeing an athlete grow...that's pretty exciting. I don't just mean on the playing field, I mean their insides...who they are and their understanding of what they can do for the world.

Stakeholders, such as Albert, share a genuine interest in the personal development of the athlete. While this apparently altruistic goal of assisting in the growth of the athlete is exhibited through the informants' responses, other unmentioned rewards for participation in the sport school can also be derived to benefit the individual needs of each stakeholder. Individual rewards for coaches such as Albert, can include the ongoing benefit of personal and professional growth from continued participation in a sport school. The concept of teamwork in a sport school programme will encourage the sharing of expertise between the coaches, teachers, sport science experts, and also between the sports involved in the programme. This can evolve into a unique situation where each staff member will acquire a vast library of international sport expertise. Each person and each individual sport training programme can benefit greatly from the constant access to knowledge that is "on the cutting edge of the world sport scene." The utilization of this knowledge will possibly serve to enable the coach, teacher, and sport science expert to excel in their job performance and will appear to benefit each on an individual basis.

The accumulation of knowledge, in turn, can assist in the development of further athletes in a sport school programme. With a feeder system established within the programme and by pooling the already available human resource and expertise needed for international success, it appears that a sport school

programme can develop a steady stream of elite athletes who will be technically, physiologically, tactically, and psychologically strong. With future funding dollars dependent on the present performance achievements of the elite athletes, continued success of Manitoba athletes can provide a guarantee of continued funding for elite sport, an ongoing and continued reward for all stakeholders in a sport school programme.

Concept 3: Individuals will continue in a sport school programme if the other party reciprocates and provides rewards which are deemed fair in relation to others.

As in any relationship or business venture, each person involved expects to invest something which they alone can contribute and in return they expect to receive some of the credit for its success. Similarly, in a sport school model, each stakeholder in the programme would be expected to contribute with the expectation that some benefits, both material and social, would be generated.

At its most simple level, a sport school programme would be a relationship between the user of the programme (the athlete) and the provider of the programme (the financial and philosophical backers). Each stakeholder would commit to this programme if they were convinced that potential rewards were possible. For the athlete, the sport school programme would provide a holistic education while enabling the pursuit for sport excellence. Robert, a government official, expressed commitment to the sport school model due to the potential for such a programme to meet the needs of the athlete and the sport community:

The way (this department) works is that the initiatives...come out of the sport community...if the need is there...yeah...I would think that (this department) (would support a sport school programme), our history is to get involved, both from a human resources-consultative basis as well as ultimately financially.

While Robert's statement indicated an understanding for the needs of the community, it also may have provided an individual reward for Robert because it established accountability for the government agencies to the public. Dubin (1990, p. 507) presented the Canadian view towards sport as "the opportunity for athletes to reach their full potential as human beings - and achieving their optimum level of sporting excellence is but one aspect of this potential." In stating his support of a sport school with a "holistic" development model, Robert appeared to be doing an effective job as a government representative as he not only agreed with Dubin's presentation of society's philosophy towards sport, he was also serving the needs of a public. For Robert, perceived job effectiveness by the public would be an important reward for his support of a sport school programme.

At the present time, scheduling of the elite athlete's academic and athletic programme follows a more rigid guideline which is set by separate parties. For example, the academic portion of the athlete's schooling must conform to the guidelines set by the provincial ministries of education and the particular school that the athlete attends. Very often, this may entail a full day of attendance (Monday to Friday) at school from September to June with July and August off. Athletic training and competition scheduling must conform to a separate provincial sport governing body. The athletic scheduling may, at times, conflict with the academic scheduling. According to the respondents, the athlete may

often be torn between his or her academic and athletic programme. A sport school programme which emphasizes the “holistic” development of the athlete would be able to combine the two, presently separate, bodies which govern the academic and athletic programme to provide a complete programme which fits the individual athlete’s needs.

Parents who encourage the participation of their child in the sport school programme may also be able to facilitate their own lifestyle and the pursuit of other endeavours within the family unit. A sport school model that encouraged the “holistic” development of the athlete would also include the relationship with the family as part of that development. In recognizing the importance of the family unit for the athlete, a sport school setting could provide benefits such as increased time for the athlete to spend with his or her family through flexible scheduling of an athlete's academic and athletic programme. Abby, as a parent, expressed the need for the athlete to have “time off” even if it was “to just sit and watch TV.” In emphasizing the need for relaxation time for the athlete, Abby was also facilitating the potential of increased family time for the athlete. This could be perceived as a valuable reward to a parent of an elite athlete.

Concept 4: The costs of involvement in a sport school programme do not exceed the benefits.

Within this concept, stakeholders in a sport school programme “seek to minimize their costs and at the same time maximize their returns” (Searle, 1990, p. 288). For the stakeholders, the costs that are incurred or expected as a member of the school could be expressed through the amount of time and energy expected

to participate and produce the desired rewards. Prior to commitment to a sport school programme, each stakeholder must assess the balance of cost and benefit.

Robert explained:

The (Manitoba) Sports Federation, Sport Directorate and the sports would have to sit down and say 'how important is this?'...I think everyone understands that there's a greater cost in a higher level of athletics or sport...and the cost/benefit would have to be taken into consideration but that's understood.

Respondents indicated a belief that there are financial resources available but it is necessary to justify the allocation of these funds to the sport school programme. While acknowledging the need to promote the benefits of the programme, respondents did not feel this to be a restraining factor to the implementation of the programme. Albert explained that "it's just a matter of someone with a strong enough vision...a tough enough hide (skin) and enough tenacity to put a programme like this together." Respondents felt that the benefits or rewards of implementing a sport school programme would justify the cost. Albert continued to state the importance of the financial stakeholders of the sport school model to recognize the altruistic values of the programme:

I would hope that (there is) major corporate support from businesses who have some sense of community obligation...(and) a vision for...how important sport is in our world...that would be terrific.

In stressing the value of sport as a prime motivation for corporations to participate in the sport school model, Albert also illustrated an understanding of the necessity to demonstrate some individual rewards for corporations by stating the possibility of "(having) a corporate name or names attached to a sport

school.” In return for their financial support, corporations may seek to receive some benefits such as promotion of the company name. It would appear that a sport school model with elite level athletes who compete all over the world could provide a large amount of promotion for any corporation. This may serve as a strong motivator for financial involvement from private interests.

Concept 5: A sport school programme does not place one party in a power dependent relationship.

The implication of this concept is that power and its distribution among the stakeholders would be a motivating factor for participation in the sport school model. A continued imbalance of power could lead to a withdrawal from a sport school programme. Participants from all sides of this programme would have to feel they had equal power in the decision making process. Stakeholders would withdraw if there was a perception of lack of control and input into the programme.

Within the sport school model discussed by the respondents, the concept of athlete empowerment emerged as an important factor in the “holistic” development of the athlete. Robert stated “that the athletes have to be participants in the whole process”, this would enable the athlete to have equal input into their own athletic and academic programme. It appears that this sense of control over their participation in the sport school programme would provide a beneficial reward for the athlete.

The concept of teamwork also appeared to add to the balance of power within a sport school relationship as each stakeholder in the programme would

feel that they are an equal contributor to the success of the athlete. Teamwork would possibly allow a stronger programme to be implemented for each athlete while the recognition of the success of the programme would be given to each individual on the team. On the other end of the spectrum, the responsibility for any disappointments or unsuccessful endeavours within a programme would be dissipated throughout the membership. This would possibly provide a sense of safety for the stakeholder.

A sport school programme which emphasized, as respondents indicated, the "holistic" development of the athlete would require contributions from most stakeholders. In order to have the programme work to enhance the athlete's performance level, each stakeholder would have to provide input to the athlete's programme. For example, the planning of a one year programme for one elite athlete would require input from the athlete, coach, teacher, and sport governing body. The sport governing body would be able to provide information on the competition schedule for the year. The coach and teacher would need to give input on the best way to accomplish the athletic and academic goals for that particular year. The expert advice provided for the athlete would enable the athlete to make what he or she feels to be the best overall programme for that year. Each of these stakeholders would possibly feel that they were contributing to the sport school programme.

Respondents in this study did not give a consistent description of the role of the parent in a sport school setting. Some of the respondents favoured a lesser involvement of the parents while others were hopeful that parents would be able to take a more active stance towards their child's athletic career. The

inconsistency of the responses appears to indicate that the parent could possibly be placed in a power dependent situation. As indicated in Concept 1, parents would have the potential to receive rewards through participation in a sport school programme but without a more precise description of role expectation, parents may feel they would not have equal power in the decision making process of a sport school programme.

Concept 6: The probability of receiving a desired reward is high.

Individuals involved with a sport school programme must believe that the reward sought will materialize within a reasonable amount of time before commitment to the programme is given. In this study, respondents expressed their confidence in the potential for athlete success through a sport school programme. Julia stated that the development of a sport school model would “really help the athlete” to excel in both sport and academics. Her comment is one example of the stakeholders’ support of a sport school programme.

While all respondents indicated a belief that athlete success within a sport school programme would be highly probable, this agreement is also indicative of a perception for receiving personal rewards as part of the athletes’ success. Albert, for example, expressed his support of a sport school programme and added that “what we could do is...capitalize and make strong in the sports we do well.” He continued to state that “there’s no point of us venturing into new areas that we know nothing about.” While these statements appeared to support the athlete through the stated emphasis towards excellence, they also may have included potential rewards for Albert as a coach. By supporting the inclusion of

sports with a proven record of success, Albert could have increased the potential for the success of the sport school and its athletes. As stated earlier, any success for the athlete is reflected on the competence of the coach and Albert, as a coach, could be in the position to receive some of the reflected glory. This may be perceived as an important reward for Albert.

Summary of the analysis

As illustrated through Searle's (1990) six theoretical concepts of social exchange, it appears that each stakeholder involved with a sport school model could potentially benefit from the programme. Respondents indicated that the sport school model could facilitate the "holistic" development of each athlete by providing the opportunity to pursue sport excellence while continuing academic education. While this belief is verbally expressed by each respondent, the social exchange theory provides the framework to suggest that these individuals also have significant benefits to gain through the sport school programme and are willing to contribute to the programme in order to receive those rewards. Stakeholders agreed to articulate their hopes and dreams for a sport school as well as their potential contribution to such a programme. In return, each stakeholder expected to receive varying amounts of social benefits. While genuine concern for the elite athlete was expressed by the subjects, their responses during the interview process also revealed that when given the chance to express what they felt to best assist elite athletes, respondents anticipated direct or indirect social rewards in return. It would appear from the research that individuals are prepared to donate ideas and support for a sport school programme for elite athletes only if

they believe that such efforts of generosity will, in turn, reward them with social benefits.

Once the elite athlete has been identified, the model of the sport school is designed to improve their athletic performance. Respondents constructed the sport school model in their own minds which suited what they saw as the best situation that would potentially meet and, most importantly, improve the quality of their daily life. Subjects in this study appeared to favour a sport school programme for the following reasons:

(A) Education and time management: Respondents expressed confidence that a sport school for elite athletes would provide an academic curriculum which addressed the sport specific components necessary for elite competition and would acknowledge the unique educational opportunities gained through high performance sport. Flexible scheduling and effective time management of the athlete's programme would also assist in reducing role conflict.

(B) Teamwork ethic: According to the respondents, a sport school model with a strong sense of teamwork between coaches, teachers, and resource staff would give the athletes a solid base of support from the time they entered a sport school programme to their departure. Respondents also indicated that a sport school programme with a wide range of sports would allow for sharing knowledge common to all sports as well as providing a sense of mutual support and respect among the athletes. The role of the parents in a sport school model was undecided among the respondents. Some of the respondents expressed the need for parents to become more involved in their child's athletic career while other respondents indicated that parents should become less involved. Respondents

recommended a sport school model which would be compatible with the general sport system and the community. To avoid conflict when developing a sport school programme, respondents recommended that existing programmes in the sport community should be considered and respected.

(C) Development/feeder system: Respondents were confident that a sport school model would provide a system that would identify potential elite athletes, assist in their athletic development, and provide an opportunity for elite competition.

(D) The Canadian identity: Some of the respondents suggested that a sport school model should reflect the culture, social values, and lifestyle of Canada. They explained that it was vital for coaches, teachers, and resource staff to understand the pressures of being a Canadian elite athlete.

By supporting the sport school model, it appeared that government agencies may benefit in two ways. First, sport excellence would possibly lead to the continued allocation of funds to the agencies. Second, a sport school model appeared to serve the best interests of the public. In recent years, the federal government alone has contributed over \$70 million a year of public funds for sport (Hall, et. al., 1991). This money is allocated to the sport governing bodies based on two criteria, first, the number of registered competitors in the sport in Canada, and second, the high performance ranking of the sport at the Olympic or world championship level (Dubin, 1990). The federal and provincial governments along with the sport governing bodies each rely heavily on the results of the athletes for the provision of public monies for future projects within each sport. It appears that a sport school programme which may develop

Olympic level and world class athletes can be seen to potentially provide larger monetary rewards for government agencies.

Public funds are given to sport governing bodies to provide programming for its citizens. In receiving these funds, sport is "legally and morally charged with an obligation to serve the public good" (Minister's Task Force on Federal Sport Policy, 1992, p. 139). This obligation incorporates many aspects including the "development of Canadian youth" (pg. 139). Robert stated that support from sport governing bodies for a sport school programme must come out of "need", both from the sport community and the public at large. This viewpoint fulfilled the accountability of government agencies to the public by serving what appeared to be the needs of the community. In essence, a sport school programme would not only provide a "holistic" education for the athlete but would also provide evidence of sport governing agencies serving "the public good."

All of the respondents in this study who were coaches or parents within elite sport expressed the desire for the implementation of the sport school model which would serve, in their view, the best interests of the athlete. Brian stated that for the parents who are concerned about "the kids that are playing way above their heads...a school like this could provide the kind of flexibility to allow a kid to play...and still be in high school." Abby, as a parent, expressed her support of the sport school because it "would reduce the amount of stress of training...and it (would) also facilitate in their schooling." Brian also suggested that coaches support the sport school model because "it would allow them to train their athlete, (and) for their athletes to do the work necessary...at that young elite level to be

successful.” These comments were representative of the kind of support and desire which the respondents displayed for the principle of a sport school.

Within the context of social exchange, each parent or coach expressed his or her support for the sport school model and was willing to contribute to its implementation with the expectation of receiving desired personal rewards. Each respondent expressed genuine concern for the athlete’s development through their support for the programme, as illustrated by Brian and Abby. Each respondent appeared to align themselves in order that they could potentially enjoy certain specific and personal benefits. For the coach, he or she could receive an increased level of prestige. For the parent, increased time for family activities as well as reflected glory could provide a strong motivation for participating in a sport school programme. In the analysis however, the inconsistent descriptions as to the role of the parent in a sport school programme could lead to a power dependent relationship for the parent. The continued imbalance of power for the parent could lead to a withdrawal of parent support and participation in a sport school programme.

Implications

The ten subjects chosen for this study provided a great deal of data as to their perception of the elite sporting scene in Manitoba. While each subject related separate, individual experiences in sport, many of the characteristics of their experiences were quite similar. It became apparent that many of the subjects were encountering the same experiences.

The general concensus of all the subjects towards the existing hindrances to athlete performance in elite sport was one of frustration. While the subjects acknowledged the problems they have experienced in elite sport, the frustration appeared to be geared towards the inability to solve these problems. The solution to these hindrances appeared to be out of the hands of one individual, rather the hindrances seemed to be indicative of the present elite sport system. The study consistently revealed that when athletes became involved in elite sport, the responsibilities seemed to outweigh the privileges due to the way the sport at the elite level was organized. The present system, as described by the respondents, did not provide the components deemed necessary to the success of the elite athlete. The overall frustration experienced by the subjects seemed to arise from the inability to fix the elite sport system in Manitoba. As a result, respondents in this study felt that they were involved, as expressed by Searle (1990), in a power dependent relationship. This perception of lack of control, power, and input into the present elite sport system perhaps is a leading cause of the sense of exasperation felt by respondents.

A Canadian sport school model was considered, by the respondents, to be a system which could provide the necessary components to meet the needs of the

elite athlete. Since it appeared that the recent problems with elite sport dealt with the system utilized at that moment, subjects may have viewed the establishment of a sport school as a way to restructure the elite sport system. Perhaps the development of a sport school model would provide a means for the stakeholders to have power over their elite sport experience, an important social exchange feature which, to date, appears to be absent.

Subjects were quite positive about the benefits which could be derived by athletes through participation in a sport school programme. In particular, subjects believed that holistic development of the athlete would be achieved through the overall holistic emphasis of the programme. However, it is possible to suggest that a sport school programme could be potentially seen as not providing a holistic education for athletes since such a programme would require athletes to spend the majority of their time with other athletes. It is plausible to interpret the removal of these elite athletes from their present academic school to a sport school programme as a further isolation from society.

It is interesting to note that responses from subjects during the interviews indicated genuine concern for the welfare of the athlete and rarely a direct mention of the need to increase the number of gold medalists in international competition. All respondents expressed their personal frustration with the elite sport system and indicated the need for a better arrangement for the elite athlete. However, by being proactive in improving the elite athletes' lives on a daily basis, respondents were hopeful that improved sport performance would result. Respondents constructed an idealized sport school model which best suited what they saw to be the needs of the athletes, primarily, improved quality of daily life.

This, in turn, would assist the athletes in improving their athletic performance and, as demonstrated by the analysis of the data, provide valued social rewards at a minimum social cost for all involved.

Recommendations

It is important to remember that this study, while generating a great deal of data, dealt with potential social rewards within a sport school programme. This study did not consider the exchange of financial obligations within a sport school setting. While it appears that most stakeholders have a desire to participate in a sport school setting and could receive potential social rewards for their participation in such a programme, it is impossible to assume the stakeholders' position on the financial obligations of such a programme from the data produced in this study. The financial reality of the Manitoba elite sport system may possibly decide the future of a sport school programme within the province.

It was beyond the scope of this study to pursue the financial implications of a sport school programme within Manitoba. However, since it is apparent that the ten respondents in this study expressed a desire for a sport school programme within the Manitoba elite sport structure, further study of this concept should be pursued. Among the issues to be explored include the desirability of a sport school programme by other participants in Manitoba elite sport, the financial expectations of the programme, and the various possible models within the existing provincial educational system. For example, should a sport school programme be developed within the public school system versus the private

and/or parochial school system? This issue was not addressed within this study. Further investigation should review existing specialty programmes that provide opportunities to pursue excellence, not only in sport but also in the arts. One example to consider is the Royal Winnipeg Ballet Professional School. This is a programme developed, organized, and implemented within the existing Manitoba educational system and may possibly share some of the basic components expressed within this study as necessary for a sport school programme.

Based on these points, the following recommendations are suggested for further study:

1. To expand the investigation of the desirability of a sport school programme within Manitoba to include more participants involved at the national and international level.
2. To examine existing Manitoba programmes that share common goals with a sport school model, for example, the Royal Winnipeg Ballet Professional School.
3. To explore the best possible sport school model within the existing Manitoba public, private, and parochial educational systems.
4. To investigate the financial implications of a sport school programme and to assess the financial feasibility of the Manitoba elite sport community to develop, implement, and provide ongoing financial support of a sport school programme.

References

- Anonymous. (1985). Ustawa z dnia 3 lipca 1984 r. o kulturze fizycznej. Kultura Fizyczna, 1-2, 1-4.
- Babbie, E. (1992). The Practice of Social Research, Sixth Edition. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Beamish, R. & Borowy, J. (1988). Q. What Do You Do For A Living? A. I'm An Athlete. Kingston, Ontario: The Sport Research Group.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). Exchange and Power in Social Life. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Broom, E. (1991). Lifestyles of aspiring high performance athletes: A comparison of national models. Journal of Comparative Physical Education and Sport, XII(2).
- Broom, E.F. (1980). Meeting the educational and sporting needs of the elite young athlete: A comparison of national organizational models, ERIC.
- Buggel, E. (1986). The development of sport in the German Democratic Republic: 1950-1985. In E. Broom, Clumpner, R., Pendleton, B. & Pooley, C. (Eds.), Comparative Physical Education and Sport (pp. 37-53). Champaign, Illinois: Human Kinetics Inc.
- Bunker, L.K., Rotella, R.J., & Reilly, A. S. (1985). Sport psychology. Ann Arbor, MI: McNaughton & Guinn Inc.
- Coakley, J. (1982). Sport in Society, St. Louis: C. V. Mosby.

- Cohn, P. J. (1990). An exploratory study on sources of stress and athlete burnout in youth golf. The Sport Psychologist, 4, 95-106.
- Coser, L. A. (1977). Masters of Sociological Thought (Revised edition). New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
- Coser, L. A., et al. (1982). Sociological Theory: A Book of Readings (5th edition). New York, NY: Macmillan Publishing Co.
- Dexter, L.A. (1970). Elite and specialized interviewing. Evanston, Illinois: Northwestern University Press.
- Dubin, C.L. (1990). Commission of Inquiry into the use of drugs and banned practices intended to increase athletic performance. Ottawa, ONT: Canadian Government Publishing Centre.
- Durkheim, E. (1953). Sociology and Philosophy. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Emerson, R.M. (1972a). Exchange theory, Part I: A psychological basis for social exchange, In M.Zelditch, J. Berger & B. Anderson (Ed.), Sociological Theories in Progress. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Emerson, R.M. (1972b). Exchange theory, Part II: Exchange relations and network structures. In M.Zelditch, J. Berger & B. Anderson (Ed.), Sociological Theories in Progress. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Farrow, A.J. (1988). The world of a high performance female athlete: An ethnography. Unpublished thesis, University of Manitoba.
- Feigley, D.A. (1984). Psychological burnout in high level athletes. The Physician and Sportmedicine, 12(10), 109-119.
- Fender, L.K. (1989). Athlete burnout: Potential for research and intervention strategies. The Sport Psychologist, (3), 63-71.

- Fielding, N.G., & Fielding, J.L. (1986). Linking Data. Beverly Hills, CA:SAGE.
- Glaser, B.G., & Strauss, A.L. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research. New York, NY: Aldine de Gruyter.
- Glaser, B.G. (1978). Theoretical sensitivity. Mill Valley, CA: The Sociology Press.
- Goode, W.J. (1960). A theory of role strain. American Sociological Review, 25, 483-396.
- Gould, D., Horn, T., & Spreeman, J. (1983). Competitive anxiety in junior elite wrestlers. Journal of Sport Psychology, 5, 58-78.
- Government of Canada Fitness and Amateur Sport (1992). National Workshop on Sport Schools: Report on Proceedings. Unpublished report.
- Guts Muths, J.C.F. (1793). Gymnastik Fur Die Jugend. Schnepfenthal.
- Guttman, A. (1978). From Ritual to Record: The Nature of Modern Sports. New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Hall, A., Slack, T., Smith, G., & Whitson, D. (1991). Sport in Canadian Society. Toronto, ON: McClelland and Stewart Inc.
- Henderson, K. A. (1991). Dimensions of Choice: A Qualitative Approach to Recreation, Parks, and Leisure Research. State College, PA: Venture Publishing Inc.
- Homans, G.C. (1961). Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms (Original edition). New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Homans, G.C. (1974). Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms (Revised edition). New York, NY: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

- Howell, M.L., & Howell, R.A. (1985). History of Sport in Canada. Champaign, IL: Stipes Publishing Company.
- Johns, D.P., & Farrow, A.J. (1990). Gender differences in role accumulation and role conflict in parent athletes. Denver: Unpublished presentation.
- Johns, D.P., Lindner, K.J., & Wolko, K. (1990). Understanding attrition in female competitive gymnastics: Applying social exchange theory. Sociology of Sport Journal, 7, 154-171.
- Johns, D.P. (1991). Understanding the problem of role accumulation and conflict in national team athletes. Science Periodical on Research and Technology in Sport, 11(4).
- Kudlorz, P. (1986). School sport in Poland from the 1950s to the 1980s. In E. Broom, Clumpner, R., Pendleton, B., Pooley, C. (Eds.), Comparative Physical Education and Sport (pp. 139-148). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics Inc.
- Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1985). Naturalistic Inquiry. Newbury Park, CA: SAGE Publications Inc.
- Locke, L. (1989). Qualitative research as a form of scientific inquiry in sport and physical education. Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 60(1), 1-20.
- Marks, S.R. (1977). Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time and commitment. American Sociological Review, 42, 921-936.
- Massarik, F. (1981). The interviewing process re-examined. In J.R. Peter Reason (Ed.), Human inquiry: A sourcebook of new paradigm research. New York, NY: John Wiley.
- Mill, J.S. (1923). Principles of Political Economy. London: Oxford University Press.

- Ministers' Task Force on Federal Sport Policy (1992). Sport: the way ahead.
Ottawa, ON: Minister of Supply and Services Canada.
- Morrow, D., Keyes, M., Simpson, W., Cosentino, F., & Lappage, R. (1989). A Concise History of Sport in Canada. Toronto, ON: Oxford University Press.
- Mott, M. (1989). Sports in Canada. Toronto, ON: Copp Clark Pitman Ltd.
- Orenstein, D.M. (1985). The Sociological Quest: Principles of Sociology. St. Paul, MI: West Publishing Company.
- Patton, M.Q. (1980). Qualitative evaluation methods. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Picken, K. (1992). The meaning of leisure to native Manitobans: A case study of South Indian Lake. Unpublished thesis, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, MB.
- Pierce, W.J., & Stratton, R.K. (1981). Perceived sources of stress in youth sport participants. In G.C. Roberts, and D.M. Landers (Eds.), Psychology of motor behavior and sport - 1980 (pp. 116). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Sack, A.L. & Thiel, R. (1985). College basketball and role conflict: A national survey. Sociology of Sport Journal, (2), 195-209.
- Sage, G. (1980). The collegiate dilemma of sport and leisure: A sociological perspective - a reaction. In G.H. Sage (Ed), Sport and American Society: Selected Readings (pp. 203-210). Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.
- Schutz, A. (1967). The phenomenology of the social world. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press.
- Schwartz, H., & Jacobs, J. (1979). Qualitative sociology: A method to the madness. New York, NY: The Free Press.

- Searle, M.S. (1990). Propositions for testing social exchange theory in the context of ceasing leisure participation. Leisure Sciences, 13, 279-294.
- Searle, M.S. (1988). A Test of the Efficacy of Social Exchange Theory Through an Examination of Municipal Recreation Directors and Advisory Board Members. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Maryland.
- Seiber, S.D. (1974). Toward a theory of role accumulation. American Sociological Review, 39, 567-578.
- Smith, R.E. (1986). Toward a cognitive-affective model of athletic burnout. Journal of Sport Psychology, 8, 36-50.
- Sulisz, S. (1986). Z rozważan nad systemem kształcenia uczniów uzdolnionych ruchowo. Kultura Fizyczna, 5-6, 11-15.
- Thomas, J.R. & Nelson, J.K. (1990). Research Methods in Physical Activity (Revised edition). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics Publishers, Inc.
- Thorndike, E.L. (1932). The Fundamentals of Learning, New York, NY: Teacher's College Press.
- Thorndike, E.L. (1935). The Psychology of Wants, Interests, and Attitudes. New York, NY: D. Appleton.
- Treadwell, P. (1987). Giftedness and sport in schools - a comparative perspective. British Journal of Physical Education, 18(2), 55-58.
- Webster's New World Dictionary. (1981). A. Morehead & L. Morehead (Eds.). Markham, ON: Signet.
- Winther, N. (1991). A Review of Qualitative Research Methodologies. Unpublished manuscript.

- Worchel, S., and Goethals, G.R. (1985). Adjustment: Pathways to personal growth. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Zeigler, E.F. (1988). History of Physical Education and Sport. Champaign, IL: Stipes Publishing Company.
- Ziemilska, A., Mazur, A., & Skowronski, W. (1989). Warunki i organizacja wstepnego szkolenia sportowego. Kultura Fizyczna, 9-10, 5-9.
- Zilberman, V. (1989). Preparatory training groups. Base of the Soviet sport school pyramid. Journal of the International Council for Health, Physical Education and Recreation, 25(3), 28-32.

Appendix

The Interview Outline

1. Ask permission to record the interview.
2. Inform the subject as to his/her rights.
 - (a) Confidentiality
 - (b) Right to refuse to answer
 - (c) Right to stop the interview at any time
 - (d) Right to refuse permission for use of the interview at any time
3. Sport experience at the time of the study.
 - (a) what does the subject perceive to be the major hindrance to athlete sport performance
 - (b) ask the subject to elaborate as much as possible
 - (c) how does the subject deal with the identified hindrances
4. Sport school concept
 - (a) introduce the concept as “something that combines academics and athletics”
 - (b) ask the subject to develop a sport school model that he/she perceived as ideal without any concerns for financing.
 - (c) ask the subject for clarifications on his/her descriptions
 - (d) is this a realistic situation in sport at the time of the study
 - (e) would the subject commit to the sport school programme if it became a reality