

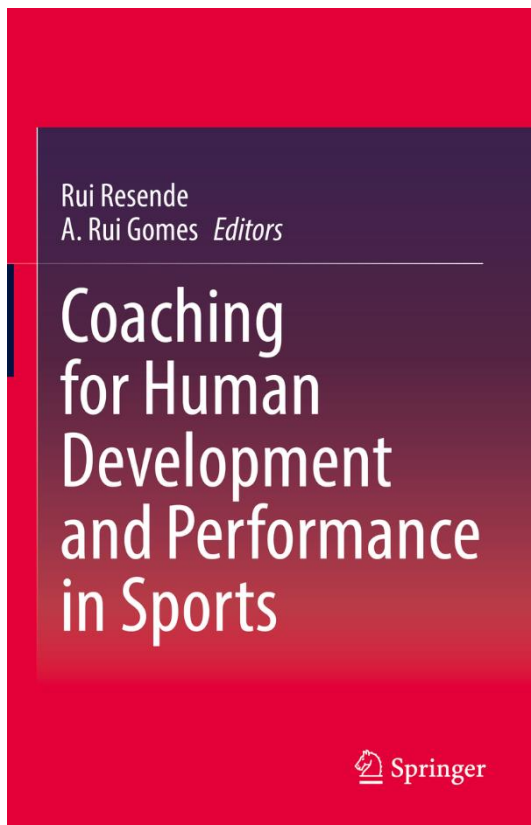
Working paper

Citation of this chapter:

Gomes, A. R., & Resende, R. (2020). Coaching life skills to young athletes in sport participation situations. In R. Resende & A. R. Gomes (Eds.), *Coaching for human development and performance in sports* (pp. 199-223). Lausanne: Springer.

Versão original:

<https://www.springer.com/gp/book/9783030639112>



Contact

A. Rui Gomes

University of Minho. School of Psychology. Campus Gualtar. Braga. Portugal.

rgomes@psi.uminho.pt

Abstract

This chapter is dedicated to analyze sports participation as an alternative to traditional sports for young athletes. Sports participation is directed for individuals interested in benefiting from formal training that stimulates the pleasure and challenges of sports, stimulates learning and developing of life/sports skills, stimulates the benefits of being physically active, and that are not necessary interested in sports for competition purpose. Despite the interest of generalizing sports activity, there are few findings about the relevance of developing sports participation training programs as an alternative of organized sports for youth and recreational sports for adults. In this chapter, we propose the organization of sports participation programs by considering the framework of life skills as a possibility to set the purpose and activities of participation sports. In order to fulfill this goal, we must first present the definition of sports participation, then we will discuss the relation between sports and life skills. Finally, we present a theoretical proposal of life skills applied to sports participation, presenting as framework the example of youth sports. We finish the chapter by reflecting on conditions that can stimulate social recognition of sport programs as a useful proposal to youth athletes.

Keywords: Sport leadership; Sport participation; Coaches; Sport coaches; Young athletes; Life Skills.

Coaching Life Skills to Young Athletes in Sport Participation Contexts

Imagine two boys, Arthur and Peter, who started playing volleyball at school at the ages of nine. A couple of years later, they decided to start practicing volleyball in a more organized way and both joined a local club and started playing there. The fact that their parents were able to take them to practice helped the decision to join. After three years, Peter quit the team because it was taking up too much of his time. As much as he enjoyed playing, the time consumption was too much for him. Peter never returned to organized sports or other forms of exercise. He started to smoke at 17 and his healthy lifestyle was not the same as before. He experienced increased weight and started to become overweight. Peter later built a family, had a regular job, and never had major health complications. His doctor warned him several times to be more active and careful with his eating habits. One day, Peter suffered a stroke at the age of 53. Fortunately for him, it was not severe enough to cause definitive damage. After receiving medical advice, Peter went to the gym to start rehabilitation with a trainer. It was at that time Peter met his old friend, Arthur. Arthur told Peter that he played volleyball in the second national league until he was 35. After that, Arthur began participating in sports on a regular basis. This included beach volleyball and soccer two times per week besides the cardiovascular training three times per week. Because of all these sports activities, Arthur is in shape and has strong physical health. After meeting his old friend, Peter wondered why he felt so differently about his friend, and Arthur wondered what happened to Peter's physicality and health. Given the opportunity to play sports in a different way, Peter's lifestyle would have most likely been much different. Throughout this chapter, we will defend that sports participation can represent a possibility to prevent negative effects of dropout, sedentary lifestyle, and poor habits of life (as was the case of Peter). Conversely, we will defend that sports participation can reinforce positive effects of sports and contribute to feelings of positive functioning and personal competence (as was the case of Arthur).

Conceptual and Empirical Findings about Sports Participation

Sports participation does not have a clear description. If we consider the International Sport Coaching Framework terminology (ISCF, 2013), sports participation "defines the roles taken on by the coaches according to levels of competence and responsibility and the populations they serve (coaching domains) in participation sport and performance sport" (p. 12). ISCF also consider the role definition from the coach status, meaning fulltime payed, part-time payed, and volunteer involvement.

The definition of ISCF reinforces two distinctive types of sport engagement, one that highlights involvement and enjoyment, and the other that considers the high performance of sports. This spectrum also considers that athletes can change between the several subdivisions set in sports for children, adolescents, and adults considering that sporting pathways are individual, context specific, and non-linear in nature (ISCF, 2013). The performance sport pathway is evident, considering competition and sports achievement as requirements as athletes get older, establishing a bottleneck when they arrive to adult performance sports (Figure 1).

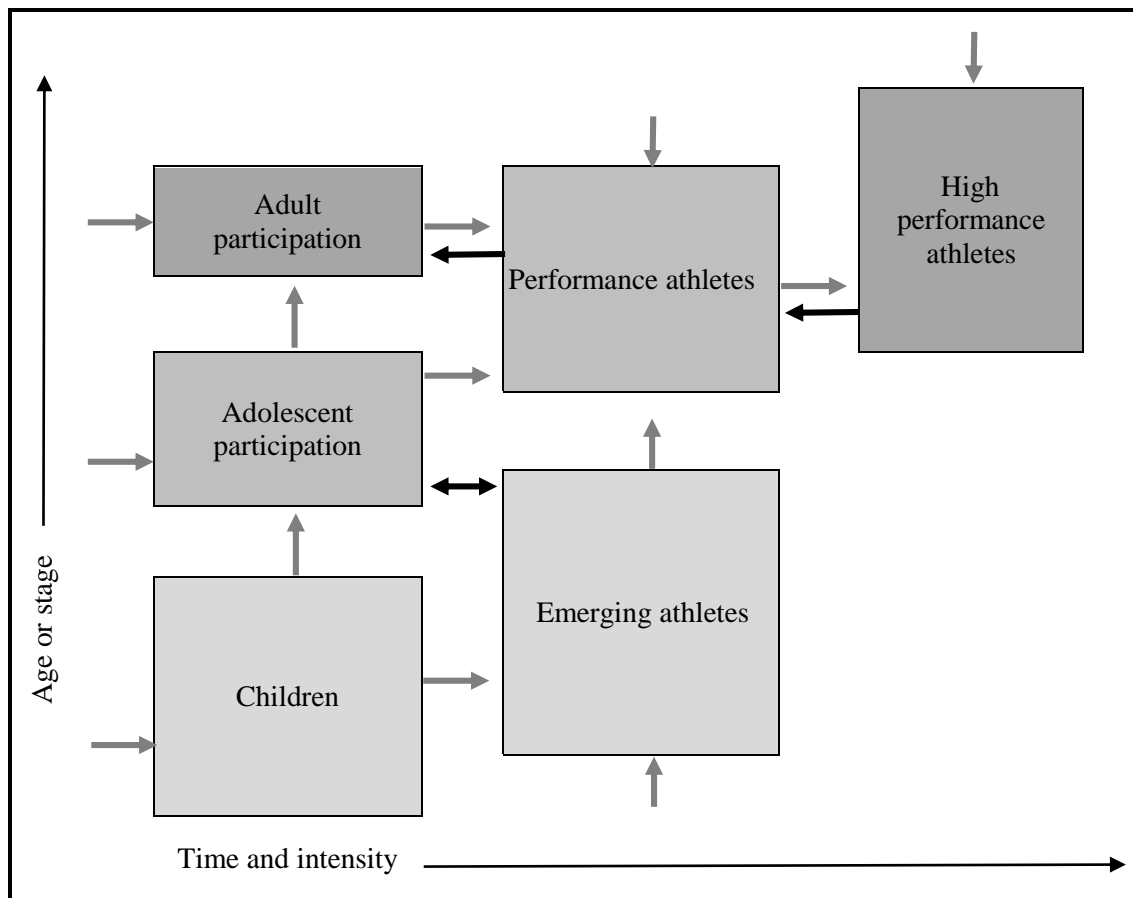


Figure 1. **Sports Participation Spectrum** (ISCF, 2013, p. 20).

However, what happens to athletes who dropout or change sports engagement when competition is not a focus of interest? What happens to athletes that, despite the interest in organized sports for competition purposes, do not have the opportunity to continue their careers as performance athletes? In our perspective, the alternative for all of these athletes can be sport participation.

Figure 2 presents our understanding of sports participation. In the figure, our perspective points to a definition of sports participation. It reinforces the philosophy and goals of sports participation, distinguishes sports participation from organized and recreational sports, and argues what can be the surroundings of sports participation.

What is sport participation?

Sport participation is a structured activity, directed by graduate coaches, that offers intrinsically motivated opportunities to individuals interested in benefiting from formal training that stimulates the pleasure and challenges of sports, the learning and developing of life and sports skills, and the benefits of being physically active.

Sports Participation is for everyone who wants to do sports for a variety of reasons, not necessarily related to competition or being better than others.

What are the goals (or philosophy) of sport participation?

The central goal of sport participation is promoting active participation and opportunities to the widest possible audience (Wicker, Hallmann, & Breuer, 2012); the participation should stimulate the pleasure and challenges of sports, the learning and developing of skills related to sports, and the lifetime benefits of being physically active.

The philosophy of sport participation sustains on a “athlete centered perspective” by promoting active participation and equal sport opportunities for all individuals interested in sports.

How different is sport participation from organized sports?

Sport participation is similar to organized sports by including formal and structured sports activities delivered by a graduate coach; however, it differs by the fact that it is not developed for competition purpose being instead directed for all individuals interested in participating in structured programs of sports activity.

How different is sport participation from recreational sports?

Recreational sports are informal sports (Jeanes, Spaaij, Penney, & O’Connor, 2018) with some type of physical activity that is not regular in nature and that can happen in different places and environments. This activity can be more or less organized but normally it does not need a coach as responsible to define and conduct the sport program.

Sport participation is done on a regular basis, typically during a season and it is directed by a coach who leads and takes responsibility for the training process.

What is the age range of sport participation?

The sport participation spectrum can be very wide. However, the onset of sport participation should be the infancy and adolescence period because for some children and teenagers organized sports do not represent an interesting and positive experience.

Who is responsible for the sport participation programs?

The application of sport participation programs should be directed by certificated coaches; however, schools, sports clubs, local recreational clubs, and national agencies of sports represent some of the major promoters of sport participation.

What types of sports are practiced in sport participation programs?

All sports can be included.

Final reflection**Is sport participation about winning? Is it about competing for winning purpose?**

Sport participation is about improving and experience positive emotions of sports practice; competition is not forbidden but it does not represent the main purpose of sport participation programs.

Figure 2. **Understanding Sport Participation.**

Sports participation can lead to very interesting results in society. We may assume that most athletes (from different ages) may be interested in alternatives for performing sports that can be intrinsically motivating, that takes place in a healthy environment and that can be a lifelong project. The assumption is to use sport as an educational tool (Wright, Jacobs, Ressler, & Jung, 2016) that foster positive human development, particularly for youth people (Zuzanek, 2005) not interested in organized sports for competition purposes. Finding alternatives to these traditional forms of organized sports is important due positive benefits of sports and exercise. Several studies support the relevance of sports in facilitating human integration (Nanayakkara, 2016) and as a platform of significant learning experiences (Super, Wentink, Verkooijen, & Koelen, 2017). However, Collins (2010) refer that in “England approximately 61% of men and 71% of women over the age of 16 failed to meet the minimum adult recommendation for physical activity (p. 373)”. This is a main concern for politics and decision makers. Governments included in EU (EU, 2014; Eurostat, 2018) and outside EU, as Australia (Australian-Government, 2018; Sotiriadou, Quick, & Shilbury, 2006) and Canada (2012) are using sports and physical activity as useful activities to improve health, well-being, and social cohesion among citizens. As recognized by the United Nations (ONU, 2003), sports can stimulate core principles of human beings. These principles include tolerance, cooperation, respect, discipline, confidence, and effort. Aligning with these principles, sports participation implicates changing the goal from competing for winning purpose (competition centered perspective), to promoting active participation and equal sport opportunities for all individuals interested in sports (athlete centered perspective). Sport participation should be dedicated to developing skills in a variety of sport activities and should promote the lifetime benefits of being physically active. This urges to educate and professionalize coaches to organize sport programs that fit the purposes of sport participation. This is critical because coaches can make the difference between athletes having a positive or negative experience due to their participation in sports (Lefebvre, Evans, Turnnidge, Gainforth, & Côté, 2016). Keeping in mind the main purpose of sports participation (develop the skills of those interested in sports), we will explain what we mean by “skills” (using the concept of “life skills”) and we will give particular focus to youth sports because it may represent the outset of sports participation. This does not mean that sports participation is only for children and adolescents; we believe that sports participation may begin at an early age but can continue along human development.

Sports and Life Skills

Sports represent an extraordinary context to learn and develop life skills. In a changing environment, developing personal tools to be able to meet the challenges of everyday life is very significant.

What are Life Skills?

Jones (this book), argues that life skills are still not well defined. There are many definitions as there are potential life skills. This is quite interesting because we have already substantial evidence about life skill training programs impact on youth development (Brown & Fry, 2014; Danish, 1996, 1997; Gomes & Marques, 2013; Hardcastle, Tye, Glassey, & Hagger, 2015) without having an agreement of what life skills are. Danish and colleagues understood life skills in a broad perspective: “those skills that enable individuals to succeed in the different environments in which they live, such as school, home and in their neighborhoods” (Danish, Taylor, Hodge, & Heke, 2004, p. 40). Gould and Carson (2008, p. 60) sustains that life skills in sports are “those internal personal assets, characteristics and skills such as goal setting, emotional control, self-esteem, and hard work ethic that can be facilitated or developed in sport and are transferred for use in non-sport settings”. World diffusion of life skills mean that they are recognized as important to promote human development. Specifically, for the World Health Organization (2003) life skills are the skills people must have to cope with the demands and challenges of their day-to-day life. These skills increase the possibility of healthy and productive lives. Finally, Jones argues that life skills are acquired through practice to help display competence in socially valuable tasks that predicts similarly useful functions within or across life domains.

In our perspective, life skills encase human potentialities that can be stimulated through systematic training or that are developed "implicitly" from people's everyday experiences, allowing human adaptation to changing events. This definition of life skills sustains in three aspects: (a) a broad understanding of life skills, from intellectual, cognitive, motor, and physical abilities because all of them are reactive to human learning and all of them can have major impact on human adaptation to changing events; (b) life skills can be learned and acquired by exposing the individual to systematic training or by providing the adequate opportunities of learning; although research did not dedicated

efforts comparing both sources of life skills learning, there is substantial evidence about the positive impact of intervention programs of life skills (i.e., systematic training) (see Nasheeda, Abdullah, Krauss, & Ahmed, 2018); and (c) the statute of life skills is only achieved when they contribute to human adaptation to changing events. This relation between life skills and adaption to change is important because it provides usefulness to life skills. Thus, we should clarify the concept of adaptation to change. We understand adaptation to change as the efforts assumed by the person when confronted with one or more events (of internal or external nature) that produces a disruption in the habitual pattern of human functioning, and that are assumed in order to restore or stimulate human functioning (Gomes, 2014). The restoration or improvement of human functioning is achieved when the efforts (both at cognitive and behavioral levels) derived from life skills produce desirable effects on dealing with the changing event. However, it is possible that cognitive and behavioral effects do not always produce desirable effects on dealing with the changing event; this means that the individual does not always possess the necessary life skill for that specific event or do not always use proper life skill according the specific constrains of the changing event. In sum, life skills assume meaning when they contribute to human adaptation to change and because we are adapting to change throughout our lives, life skills are useful along the life cycle.

Types of Life skills

Danish et al. (2004) differentiated behavioral (communicating effectively with peers and adults), cognitive (making effective decisions), interpersonal (being assertive), intrapersonal (setting goals), and even physical (e.g., taking the right posture) life skills. This is a very useful life skill categorization, but it may not capture the broad classes and impacts that life skills produce on human functioning.

In our perspective, the determination of life skills should consider the typology and functionality of life skills (see Figure 3). The typology includes intellectual life skills related to abstract thinking (as is the case of solving problems), cognitive life skills related to applied thinking (as is the case of setting goals to stay motivated), motor life skills related to executing simple and complex tasks (as is the case of coordinating hands and arms while driving), and physical life skills related to execute simple and complex tasks (as is the case of walking for 30 minutes in order to active an healthy condition). The functionality indicates the levels of application and use of the life skill, varying in a

continuum of personal and interpersonal life skills. For example, staying motivated, organizing time, and managing stress are typical life skills assumed at a personal level, regardless the possibility of being used in interpersonal relationships (for example, being part of a team in a stressful situation). On the other hand, communication, leading others, and team work are typical life skills assumed at an interpersonal level regardless the possibility of being used as a personal relationship (for example, using positive internal dialogues when executing team tasks). These two types of typology and functionality are useful to determine the areas of life skills, training, and the expected levels of impact produced on human functioning.

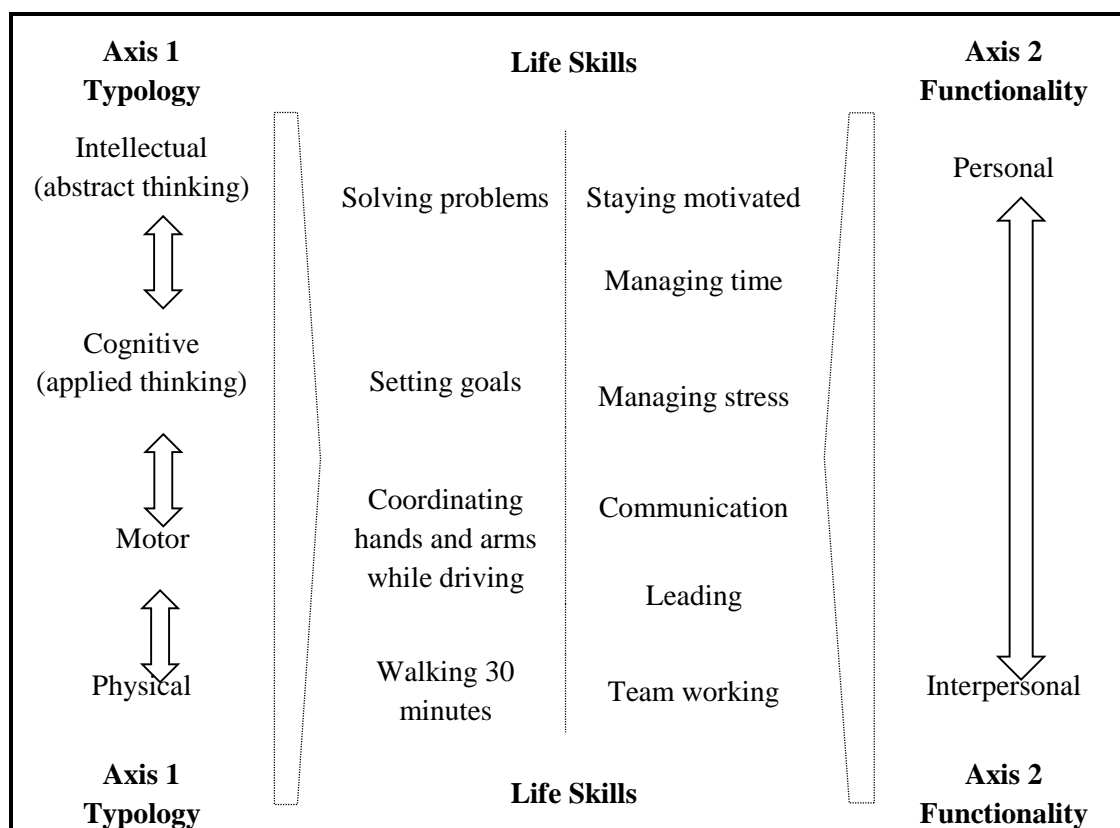


Figure 3. **Understanding Life Skills: Typology and Functionality.**

Life Skill Acquisition Stages

Life skills can be learned throughout our lives when confronting changing events or they can be trained by using Life Skills Training (LST) programs. In this last case, LST should be implemented in four stages:

- (1) **Motivation.** Stimulate the participants' interest in the LST and in the training program itself (e.g., what are life skills, what specific life skills are include in the program,

what is the typology and functionality of the life skill, what are the applications of the life skill to specific and general life domains of the LST participants, major advantages of participating in the LST program).

- (2) **Learning.** Transmit information about the life skills of the LST program and internalization of the life skill in the mental and behavioral repertoire of each participant (e.g., what are the components and characteristics of the life skills included in the LST, what information and knowledge is particularly useful in order to assume and become an expert in using the life skill, assuming the relevant tasks implicated in the life skill).
- (3) **Automatization.** Stimulate the utilization of the life skill in one specific life context of the participants (usually the one where the LST occurs).
- (4) **Transference.** Stimulate the utilization of the life skill in more than one situation of the same life context of the participants, or in more than one life context of the participant.

Principles of Life Skill Training

Introducing the life skill in cognitive and behavioral repertoire of participants in LST programs is possibly the most challenging factor of the life skills intervention. It is fundamental that stages of life skill acquisition occur, and that transference is successfully achieved. This progress of acquiring the life skills is facilitated when LST programs are implemented by using three principles of life skill training.

- (a) **Integral impact of training** (integrality principle). Teaching life skills should spread effects on human functioning on both axis of typology and functionality of skills. This means that acquiring life skills to deal with changing events is stimulated when the LST programs impacts multiple types of human development (intellectual, cognitive, motor, and physical) and distinct levels of human functioning (personal to interpersonal). The integrality principle of training conceives human development as a whole and as a unit, opposing the Cartesian dualism to nondualistic philosophical frameworks (Mehta 2011). It is evident that some life skills stimulate specific types, and levels, of human functioning. Learning and applying life skills is a multiple experience that evokes and stimulates thinking processes, thoughts and cognitions, emotions, physical and motor reactions, and acting on the changing event.

- (b) **Gradual impact of training** (graduality principle). Teaching life skills stimulates them according to the four stages of LST acquisition (e.g., motivation, learning, automatization, and transference). As long as participants progress in the four stages of the LST programs they improve in knowledge and ability, until a point where the skill is part of automatic routines assumed by the participants in multiple life contexts. In this sense, it is fundamental to apply the graduality principle to LST programs by designing activities that fulfill the four stages of training.
- (c) **Individual impact of training** (individuality principle). Teaching life skills is improved when it is adapted according to the specific stage of development and skills of participants in LST programs. Adaptation (i.e., individualization) is particularly important when life skills are trained in groups of participants, which is the most frequent option when compared with individual intervention. This implicates that participants in LST programs should have the opportunity to simulate specific activities until a level where they acquire knowledge and ability to assume the life skill. LST programs should be designed in terms of activities and time that allow each participant to successfully proceed in the four stages of life skill acquisition (e.g., motivation, learning, automatization, and transference).

Variables that Influence Life Skill Acquisition

Variables that influence LST programs may be divided among internal and external and both deserve equal attention when designing, implementing, and evaluating the intervention on life skills. Internal variables include demographic characteristics of participants (e.g., age), physical and health status (e.g., motor development), and psychological and emotional abilities and traits (e.g., personality, maturity, openness to new experiences). External variables include situational circumstances where participants are involved (e.g., influence of role models, social support, peer influence, community opportunities for LST), and socioeconomic conditions where participants are included (e.g., financial living conditions). Internal and external variables determine the life skills of participants before the LST intervention, moderate the effectiveness of the LST intervention, and are cumulative with the LST programs in terms of effects produced in the participants.

Efficacy of Life Skill Training

Determination of efficacy of LST is decisive in order to prove the personal and social relevance of stimulating life skills. The efficacy of LST depends on having different indicators suggesting the same pattern of results. Using multiple measures in order to test the LST programs will give a broad and specific vision of effects produced on human functioning. We believe that, at least, four indicators should be considered when testing the efficacy of LST programs:

- (a) **Subjective learning acquisition measures.** Indicates the learning and utilization of life skills included in the LST program (ex: training the life skill of motivation should produce positive effects on the perception of motivation of the participants).
- (b) **Subjective experiential measures of wellbeing.** Indicates alterations in psychological constructs associated with the LST program (ex: training the life skill of motivation should produce positive effects on the individual's commitment to a given area or task).
- (c) **Subjective outcome measures.** Indicates the perceived changes on human functioning by the participants associated with the LST program (ex: training the life skill of motivation should produce positive effects on the perception of achievement of relevant personal goals).
- (d) **Objective outcome measures.** Indicates the effective changes on human functioning by the participants associated with the LST program (ex: training the life skill of motivation should produce positive effects on the amount of time dedicated to relevant tasks and on the number of tasks produced by the participant).

Life Skills Acquisition: A Theoretical Proposal

The Life Skills Training Efficacy Model proposes an understanding of major factors that can influence the efficacy of life skills training. Three sets of factors influence the training efficacy: (a) the need for designing LST programs by stages, (b) the need of respecting the principles of life skill training, and (c) the need of considering internal and external variables of participants in the LST programs when designing, implementing, and evaluating the life skills interventions. These factors correspond to three hypotheses about the efficacy of LST programs:

1. The efficacy of LST programs increases if the intervention includes four stages of life skills acquisition (i.e., motivation, learning, automatization, and generalization) compared to programs that do not incorporate these stages.

2. The efficacy of LST programs increases if the intervention respects the principles of life skill training (i.e., integrality, graduality, and individuality) compared to programs that do not incorporate these principles.
3. The efficacy of LST programs is maximized or minimized (i.e., moderate) by internal and external variables of the participants included in intervention program.

Figure 4 presents the Life Skills Training Efficacy Model, emphasizing the importance of the variables described above. It is proposed that efficacy measures should be collected before and after intervention (in this last case, at least at the end of intervention and in a follow-up period); the program has higher chances of efficacy if it is implemented in four-stages of intervention and according principles of training, and that internal and external variables of participants influence all of the process of LST. In sum, adaptation to change is increased when individuals use life skills to deal with the constraints of the event (that can have more or less relation with an external situation); this increase of impact on the changing event is maximized when LST programs respects stages, principles, and internal and external variables of life skills.

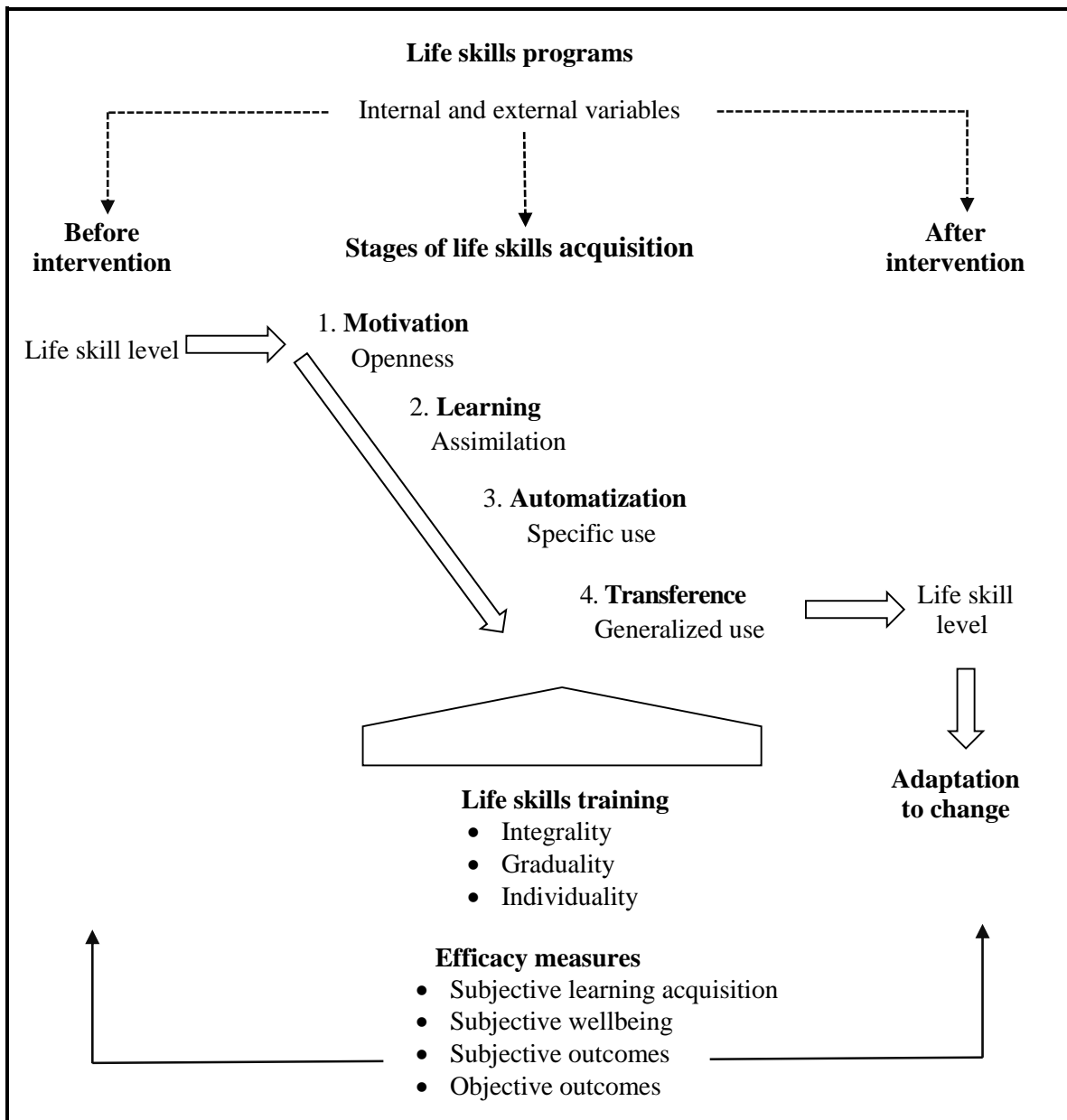


Figure 4. **Life Skills Training Efficacy Model.**

Youth Sport Participation: An Opportunity to Life Skills Training

Teaching life skills to young athletes represents a meritorious goal of sports programs. However, some constraints exist when this training occurs in sports organized events for competing purposes. The first, and most obvious, is that coaches may feel pressure to prepare athletes to compete instead of preparing athletes to learn and enjoy sports as a long-life activity. Coaches may have difficulties to organize training plans for all athletes, giving them similar opportunities of learning sports (life) skills. Some evidence suggests that problems related to sport specialization, overtraining, choking under pressure, and even burnout happens to young athletes (for a review, see DiSanti &

Erickson, 2019) which may be interpreted as dysfunctionalities produced by traditional sports. For example, sports specialization of young athletes in order to accelerate sport success is related to several problems, as overuse injuries (Hall, Foss, Hewett, & Myer, 2015), psychological need dissatisfaction (McFadden, Bean, Fortier, & Post, 2016), burnout (Strachan, Côté, & Deakin, 2009), less connection with community (Strachan et al., 2009), and less involvement in organized sports as adults (Russell, 2014).

This indicates that youth sports programs do not necessarily represent a fertile environment to life skills learning. This can be an opportunity to develop youth sports participation programs and an opportunity to relate sports participation to learning life skills. Life skills training may sustain and give purpose to sports participation programs, as an alternative perspective of youth development. By thinking that life skills can be understood in terms of typology and functionality (see Figure 3) and can be trained by stages (see Figure 4), coaches may design sports participation programs in order to develop athletes' life skills by correctly using the principles of training life skills. Coaches are much more prepared to stimulate physical and motor skills than cognitive and intellectual skills, as proposed on the typology axis. This reinforces that sports programs should include other professionals from social and human sciences (as is the case of sport psychologists) besides the coaches, in order to set up training activities that potentiate multiple areas of human development. In the next section, we analyze how coaches can organize sports participation programs, taking into consideration the goal of stimulating life skills.

Coaching for Sport Participation

Sports participation for athletes not interested in traditional sports organized for competitive purpose is a very challenging topic for coaches. The alternative that we suggested in this work is organizing sports participation as a fertile field to teach life skills. In this section, we provide some indications to organize positive activities to athletes included in sport participation, taking as background the Life Skills Training Efficacy Model.

Life Skill Acquisition Stages for Sport Participation

Athletes participating in sports need to be coached as their peers participating in sports for competition purpose, but not by using the same strategies and goals. Because of that, coaches need to rethink their ideas and principles of coaching (philosophy),

methodologies and plans of action (practice), and goals (criteria) when designing the training process. This triple relation between philosophy, practice, and criteria (e.g., leadership cycle; see Gomes, this book) should consider the stages of life skills training.

Stage 1 of life skills acquisition is challenging for coaches because they have to motivate athletes (and themselves) about the relevance of doing sports for fun, leisure, health, and self-improvement among other related factors. For coaches of traditional sports, the process of training is designed to better prepare athletes for competing. For sports participation coaches, the training process should be organized for other purposes not related to beating other opponents. The alternative implicates that coaches assume a coaching philosophy related to the development of athletes' skills. This would be the main purpose of sports participation coaches: create condition for sports development of athletes in order to stimulate an intrinsic interest of continuing sports along athletes' lives. For sports participation coaches, sports development should be understood in a broad sense, focusing on improvements in social, mental, physical, technical, and tactical abilities that can maximize the chances that sports (and latter exercise) are assumed as a regular routine of athletes. In order to reach this goal, in Stage 1 of skills acquisition, coaches have to motivate athletes for sport participation. This includes discussing motivational topics of what life skills can be learned by athletes (i.e., choice), what level of effort is needed to acquire the skills (i.e., intensity), and what type of obstacles and problems can occur during the learning process (i.e., persistency). This process is well accomplished when athletes develop a personal meaning for sports that is mainly intrinsic and personally challenging, not from competing in order to be ranked by their abilities and success.

Stage 2 of life skills acquisition is dedicated to learning the concepts and behaviors associated with the sports skills that athletes will acquire. For coaches, this a *technical* stage due to their ability to teach the skills and how they should be executed. Thus, *knowing what* and *knowing how* are the two main topics of this stage. For participation athletes, this stage may fulfill major parts of their expectations to do sports because they may be interested in *knowing how to play sports* regardless of their final *comparative expertise of executing* the skill. This process is successful when athletes incorporate their cognitive and behavioral repertoires to the skill, and manifest intensity in the learning process, despite their level of execution can be considered inferior or superior when compared with other athletes.

Stage 3 of life skills acquisition increases the challenge of sports learning by automatizing the skills in the cognitive and behavioral repertoires of athletes. The goal is repeating the skills until a level of expertise is achieved that transmits maximum effort and ability of each athlete. Please note, the goal is not becoming an expert when compared with other athletes, the goal is becoming an expert considering the abilities and efforts made by each athlete in previous executions and actions. For coaches, the challenge is to create the best training conditions that can stimulate the abilities of each athlete. At this stage, the training principle of individualization may become crucial in order to stimulate the strengths and potentialities of each athlete. This process is learned when athletes automatize the skill in their cognitive and behavioral repertoires and manifest persistency when facing obstacles during the learning and execution process.

Stage 4 of life skills acquisition maybe somewhat confusing when compared with traditional sports. In this case, the sports skills automatized in training sessions are stimulated in terms of transference by mainly using the competition setting. For participation sports, competition is not established in the same way. In fact, competition may not occur at all. In this case, coaches may have to find other sports situations and life contexts where athletes can use and apply the sport skills. For example, coordination skills learned in one specific exercise of training may be transferred for other skills implicated in other exercises or, in a broader sense, to life contexts as is the case of driving a bike and then driving a car. When coaches include competition in their coaching plans, they must establish other goals for athletes beyond winning or beating opponents. This is a crucial aspect in order to differentiate participation sports from traditional sports and to prevent the same negative effects that can turn competition into a non-interesting activity for participation athletes (ex: pressure to win, not playing most of the time, adjusting to negative expectations of adults, among others). Thus, for participation athletes, competition may not occur or, if it occurs, it should have other purpose beyond winning. This process is learned when athletes transfer the skill automatized in different exercises or tasks of sports (and life) and manifest the same levels of intensity and persistency in order to execute the learned skill well.

Principles of Life Skill Acquisition for Sport Participation

Organizing life skill training for sports participation implicates using the three principles of life skills training: (a) integral impact of training (integrality principle),

gradual impact of training (graduality principle), and individual impact of training (individuality principle).

(a) Integrality principle. Training life skills for sports participation should produce multiple impacts on athletes' development, such as, sports skills (technical and tactical), physical skills (motor coordination and physical condition), psychological skills (cognitive and emotional), and social skills (communication and leadership). For sports participation, this principle implicates that coaches think the training process is stimulating skills related to competition by shifting their analysis to think how they can attribute new meanings to sports that motivate athletes not concerned with achieving sports competition success. The alternatives should be integrated in the training plan designed by the coach to participation athletes. For example, the mottos of "developing and improving new abilities" or "executing tasks in different ways" (technical and tactical), "challenging the limits" (physical condition), "thinking positively and experience new sensations" (psychological), and "stimulating the team to their best executions" are starting points that can give a specific purpose to the coaching process of sport participation.

(b) Graduality principle. Training life skills for sports participation should recognize the gradual development of athletes' skills, according the four stages of LST (i.e., motivation, leaning, automatization, and transference). Stage 1 of life skills acquisition is particularly important when athletes need to comprehend the advantages of learning the skill, being discussed motivational topics of choice (i.e., why to choose the specific skill), of intensity (i.e., level of effort to dedicate in the learning process), and persistency (i.e., tendency to maintain efforts when facing obstacles and problems during the learning process). Stage 2 of life skills acquisition is particularly important when athletes begin the learning process, analyzing their actual execution by comparing their previous execution. The focus is on the process of executing the skill in order to stimulate the acquisition and the demonstration of the sport skill. Stage 3 introduces performance criteria to skill training by comparing the actual performance of athletes with their previous performance, meaning that acquisition is now related to the *success* on demonstrating the skill. Finally, Stage 4 extends effectiveness criteria by comparing levels of personal performance with other indicators of performance (as for example opponents' performance). For sports participation, this last stage is different by not comparing the performance among athletes in sport participation

contexts (the idea is not “beating” or “competing” against others, as it happens in traditional youth sports); the alternative may be testing the skills in different training situations or even in other life contexts (i.e., how good is the athlete in transferring the skills to other situations similar but not equal to the one she/he had acquired the skill).

- (c) **Individuality principle.** Training life skills for sports participation should be customized to the specific abilities and expectations of athletes and should include specific training activities for each athlete. The individualization is crucial for coaches of sports participation. Since the beginning, they know that these athletes do not necessarily want to compete against other athletes. They aren’t interested in social recognition of sport success. By removing these habitual sources of motivation, coaches may increase the interest of sports by providing athletes equal and individualized opportunities of learning and improving skills. Because coaches are not pressed by competition and by the need of achieving success, they may have the opportunity to give a central role to the ability of each athlete to learn the proposed skills. By learning and executing the skills the best they can, athletes may perceive sports participation as the ideal context to do and enjoy sports.

In sum, sports training should be integral, gradual, and individualized in order to stimulate and develop sports (i.e., life) skills, especially for the case of young athletes of sports participation contexts.

Variables that Influence Life Skill Acquisition for Sport Participation

Internal and external variables of participants in LST programs may influence the efficacy of learning and acquisition of life skills. There is not abundant literature about the influence of these variables on LST efficacy (for a review, see Jones & Parker, 2014). However, coaches should consider the influence of these variables when designing, implementing, and evaluating the LST provided to athletes. Let’s take the example of maturity and complexity, perhaps two major factors that coaches consider when defining training plans for their athletes.

Maturity can be defined as the personal ability to assume a certain skill in a specific moment and context, and that influences readiness for action and final performance. The maturity depends of the emotional predisposition (i.e., levels of self-confidence and motivation) of the individual to learn and assume the skill (psychological maturity), and

of the technical predisposition (i.e., levels of competence and knowledge) of the same individual to learn and execute the skill (technical maturity). The principles of life skills training can be used in order to adjust the LST program to the levels of athletes' maturity, as follows:

(a) Integrality of LST should augment as athletes augment their levels of maturity.

Coaches may have opportunity to introduce the life skill in one specific context or situation, and only when athletes assume automatization and transference of life skill in the specific situation, coaches should introduce new situations and contexts. For example, teaching basketball player's free throws may first imply to simulate the correct corporal position and associated movements implicated until the shot. Coaches should provide athletes feedback about their execution. Next, coaches may provide feedback about efficacy of execution, and finally, coaches may introduce stress factors (as audience, for example) in order to test the athletes' ability to execute under pressure. By introducing the stress factors only when athletes achieved some maturity on the task (sport life skill), coaches may now use this example to discuss with athletes how they can manage their tension when they are stressed out in other basketball scenarios and even in their lives (psychological life skills).

(b) Graduality of LST should diminish as athletes augment their levels of maturity.

Coaches should augment the time and efforts dedicated to each stage of LST when athletes demonstrate lower levels of maturity. Then, augments of athletes' maturity can diminish the time dedicated to each stage of LST.

(c) Individuality of LST should augment in the following situations: (i) when coaches have distinct levels of maturity on their teams, they should provide athletes the necessary adaptations in the LST (this is most applied to collective sports' coaches), (ii) when coaches have distinct levels of progression in the LST by the athletes; and (iii) when coaches want to stimulate higher levels of expertise in LST of athletes that already learned and acquired the standard levels of execution but they are interested in optimizing their use of the life skill until a point of less interest for the rest of athletes composing the LST.

Complexity refers to specific demands and particularities that characterize the learning and acquisition of the life skill that influences readiness for action and final performance. Complexity can constraint the development and execution of LST

programs, and should also consider the levels of maturity of athletes. Once again, the principles of LST can be used in order to adjust the training plan to the complexity of the life skill and also to the athletes' maturity, as follows:

- (a) Integrality of LST should decrease as the complexity of the life skill increases, until a point where levels of maturity allows increases of integrality and complexity. Coaches may have advantages in decreasing the integrity of training for complex life skills, and only when athletes assume higher maturity on the life skill is the moment to increase both integrality and complexity.
- (b) Graduality of LST should augment as the complexity of the life skill increases, until a point where levels of maturity allows decreases of graduation and increases of complexity. Graduation needs to augment (i.e., giving more time and training activities for the four stages of LST) for complex life skills, and can diminish as long as athletes demonstrates ability to assume the life skill.
- (c) Individuality of LST should augment as the complexity of the life skill increases, until a point where levels of maturity allows decreases of individualization and increases of complexity. Individualization is more complex than integrality and graduality, because it has the potential to remain important for longer periods of time despite the maturity of athletes. Normally, we can expect that increases of complexity request higher individualization, until a point where maturity decreases the need of individualization. However, even when athletes assume higher maturity (i.e., become more competent and even experts) they still may have the need for individualization in order to maintain, or ameliorate, their levels of execution. This is quite evident for high performance athletes and, in the case of sports participants, athletes can also expect to assume higher standards of execution on the proposed sports activities.

Figure 5 represents the relations between the principles of life skill acquisition and the maturity of athletes and complexity of life skills.

Maturity				Complexity			
****	++++	+	++++	****	+	++++	++++
***	+++	++	++	***	++	+++	+++
**	++	+++	++	**	+++	++	++
*	+	++++	+	*	++++	+	+
Maturity				Complexity			
	Integrity	Graduality	Individuality		Integrity	Graduality	Individuality
							I Individuality
	Principles of life skills training				Principles of life skills training		

Figure 5. Life Skills Training Principles versus Maturity and Complexity.

Considering the three principles of sports training (integrality, graduality, and individuality), and the relation between skill complexity and maturity, coaches need to establish the effectiveness criteria of their work with athletes.

Efficacy of LST Training for Sport Participation

Coaches of athletes in sport participation contexts need to define the efficacy of their work, as their colleagues of other sport contexts. When it comes to life skills, efficacy measures can be collected from four sources: (a) subjective learning acquisition of life skills (perception of learning the life skills by the participants in the LST program), (b) subjective wellbeing (changes on psychological wellbeing perceived by the participants in the LST program), (c) subjective outcomes (changes on human functioning perceived by the participants in the LST program), and (d) objective outcomes (effective changes on human functioning assumed by the participants in the LST program). Coaches may apply these measures in order to evaluate the efficacy of teaching life skills to athletes. The choice of measures should consider the typology and functionality of life skills. For example, the training of physical or cognitive life skills can implicate selecting distinct measures of subjective learning acquisition; measures of physical activity may be related with perception of strength or endurance of doing training (or life) activities; and

measures of cognitive activity may be related with perception of ability to set goals in order to stay motivated in sports (and even in life).

The selection of efficacy measures depend on effectiveness criteria used by coaches to monitor the success of their work with athletes. Coaches for athletes in sports participation should first recognize the need of finding other effectiveness criteria beyond competing and winning competitions in order to fulfill the expectations and needs of athletes. How does one determine the effectiveness criteria for coaches of athletes that are in sport participation? This is a complex question. One possibility is distributing these criteria along the four stages of life skills acquisition.

Stage 1 of motivation intends to stimulate the will of athletes to start the life skills acquisition; effectiveness is achieved when athletes are open (or interested) to learn and acquire the life skill. In this way, effectiveness criteria can be related to athletes' readiness for starting life skills training in terms of choice (i.e., why to choose the specific life skill), of intensity (i.e., level of effort to dedicate in the learning process of the life skill), and of persistency (i.e., tendency to maintain efforts when facing obstacles and problems during the learning process of the skill). Stage 2 of learning intends to stimulate cognitive and behavioral assimilation of the life skills; effectiveness is achieved when athletes understand key aspects of life skills and are able to execute the life skills. In this way, effectiveness criteria can be related to athletes' improvement of life skills execution by comparing their previous use of the life skill (i.e., process of execution). Stage 3 of automatization intends to stimulate the correct use of the life skill in a specific life context (for the sports case, the automation of life skill will be related to sports tasks); effectiveness is achieved when athletes are able to correctly use the life skill in the trained situation. In this way, effectiveness criteria can be related to athletes' effects of using the life skill in the selected situation, comparing their actual performance versus their previous performance. Finally, stage 4 of transference intends to stimulate the correct use of the life skill across distinct life context or across distinct tasks or situations in the same life context (for the sports case, the automation of life skill may occur when athletes use the life skill in other contexts of living or when they use the life skill in other sport tasks); effectiveness is achieved when athletes are able to correctly use the life skill in distinct sport or life situations. In this way, effectiveness criteria can be related to athletes' effects of using the life skill in multiple situations, comparing their actual performances versus previous performances (the use of plural here is intentional). Figure 6 summarizes the

relation between the efficacy of life skills training and the stages and effectiveness criteria of LST programs.

Efficacy measures	×	Subjective learning acquisition	Subjective wellbeing Subjective outcomes Objective outcomes	Subjective wellbeing Subjective outcomes Objective outcomes
Effectiveness criteria	Readiness Choice, intensity, and persistency	Process Actual execution versus previous execution	Specific performance Actual performance versus previous performance	Multiple performance Actual performances versus previous performances
Levels of incorporation of the competence	×	×	×	4 Generalized utilization
	×	×	3 Specific utilization	✓
	×	2 Assimilation	✓	✓
	1 Openness	✓	✓	✓
Stages of life skills acquisition	Stage 1 Motivation	Stage 2 Learning	Stage 3 Automatization	Stage 4 Transference

Figure 6. **Efficacy of Life Skills Training: Relation with Stages and Effectiveness Criteria.**

Considering these four areas of effectiveness criteria (that corresponds to distinct efficacy measures), the question is how can they be applied by sport participation coaches? When we think about athletes in sports for participation purposes, the focus is on intrinsic aspects of training than on extrinsic aspects related to sports success derived from competing with other athletes. Thus, coaches may have to establish effectiveness criteria that fulfills motivation and expectations of sport participation athletes. The main challenge for coaches is how to turn the sports an rewarding experience for athletes not

interested on competition for comparative processes, and how to design sports activities that can, indeed, fulfill the four stages of skill acquisition. Figure 7 provides an example of an adequate attitude and motivational focus of a sports participation athlete through the four stages of life skill acquisition. As can be seen, the focus is on challenging personal and sport abilities of the athlete, and on providing the athlete the necessary opportunities to improve. This example reinforces the need to clarify the particularities of sports for participation purpose and the implications for coaches. We address this question in the next topic of this chapter.

Stages of life skills acquisition	Athlete discourse
1. Motivation	<i>I always liked football. However, I was not good enough in my previous club, so I had to leave; but I like to play! I want to play! Winning or not; competing or not, I just want to play!</i>
2. Learning	<i>Kicking penalties was always stressful for me... Since I failed a penalty kick in my previous club, I had no more opportunities to score penalties. Now I have the opportunity. The coach is training all of us to score penalties.</i>
3. Automatization	<i>It is quite interesting that I also have to assume the role of goalkeeper in order to better understand how goalkeepers think when they have to defend a penalty. I am improving my ability in penalties. I understand better what I have to do in order to be successful.</i>
4. Transference	<i>I am now much calmer and concentrate when shooting the penalty. I learned that if I am concentrated in my abilities, I have a better chance of success in football but also in other daily tasks, as for example, doing tests at school.</i>

Figure 7. Stages of Life Skills Acquisition: Example of a Football Player of Sport Participation.

Philosophy of Sport Participation: Implications for Coaches

Coaching for sport participation should have specific implications on coaches' education and practice. The topic of coach education is addressed in other chapters of this book and is not a central question of our chapter; however, it should be said that curriculum of coach education is much more dedicated to subjects and disciplines related to training youth and adult athletes to compete than on topics of sport participation as an alternative to traditional sport programs. This should deserve the attention of scholars and researchers dedicated to coaching education. Figure 8 presents some of the main aspects

that characterize sports participation and that should deserve the attention of coaches. By accepting these principles of sports participation, coaches should act accordingly and define plans of training that fulfill the central goal of sports participation: provide unique and positive sport opportunities that significantly contributes to athletes human functioning and developing or, as said before, that increase their ability to deal with changing events in an effective way.

<p>1. Every athlete is important and unique.</p> <p>Implications</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Coaches should treat every athlete equal in terms of their importance for the team and for the sports; it is the individuality of each athlete that matters, not the coaches perspectives of what should be a “good” or “competitive” athlete. ○ Of course, coaches do not establish equalitarian relations with each athlete (and that was even undesirable) but they need to reinforce the will of each athlete to practice sports the best they can.
<p>2. Every athlete deserves the opportunity to fulfill their expectations and goals.</p> <p>Implications</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Coaches should understand the desires, needs, and expectations of each athlete. They should not impose their goals for athletes, especially the ones related to competition and sport success. ○ Of course, coaches may have not the possibility to incorporate all the expectations in training (especially if they work with collective sports), but they should establish specific periods of training where each athlete may feel their expectations are taken into consideration.
<p>3. Every athlete’ improvement is a significant improvement.</p> <p>Implications</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Coaches should recognize the multiple improvements of athletes and should reinforce every progression made by the athletes, regardless of the level of personal or interpersonal expertise achieved by the athletes.
<p>4. Every athlete should be stimulated in multiple life skills.</p> <p>Implications</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Coaches should provide athletes multiple exercises and activities that do not only develop skills for a specific sport, but they should encourage and include athletes in their training programs for other sports and activities that allow them to develop physical and motor skills and, if intentionally possible, psychological and social life skills.
<p>5. Every athlete needs opportunities to develop.</p> <p>Implications</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Coaches should evaluate the athlete’s abilities and areas of improvement; then, they have to establish plans of training that include opportunities of learning and progress for all the athletes.

Figure 8. **Philosophy of Sport Participation: Implications for Coaches.**

<p>6. Every athlete needs feedback.</p> <p>Implications</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Coaches should provide specific and utilitarian feedback to each athlete in order to augment the chances of progression; there are multiples forms of feedback (verbal, nonverbal, written, video analysis, etc.) that should be adapted by coaches according to their training plans and the characteristics of athletes.
<p>7. Every athlete can succeed.</p> <p>Implications</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Coaches should equalize success and the positive attitude of athletes towards sports and to the improvement of their sports/life skills.
<p>8. Every athlete, if competing, needs opportunities to play.</p> <p>Implications</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Coaches should not design competition the same way as traditional sports; competition can occur from multiple perspectives (ex: comparing previous performance with actual performance) and from multiple indicators beyond winning and losing (executions correctly assumed, efficacy of motor behaviors, fair-play behaviors, tolerance and recovery from errors, team cohesion, communications of behaviors among teammates, etc.).
<p>9. Every athlete should be enthusiastic about a healthy lifestyle after sport participation.</p> <p>Implications</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Coaches should recognize and stimulate the desire of athletes to maintain sports in their daily routines when they become adults; “sports for life” should be the motto.
<p>10. Every athlete should be trained by coaches that are motivated for sport participation.</p> <p>Implications</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Coaches should comprehend and accept the differences between participation sports and traditional sports and should act accordingly in an enthusiastic and motivated way.

Figure 8 (cont.). **Philosophy of Sport Participation: Implications for Coaches.**

Key Points

Sports participation can be an interesting alternative to traditional sports because not all athletes want play sports for competition purposes, and not all athletes have the right opportunities in traditional sports to develop skills. This is a main concern because there is advantages in having children and teenagers involved in sports in order to develop their skills to stimulate their will to stay active throughout their lives. Stimulating youth to continue sports in order to automatize a healthy life style may also be a profitable social policy due to the costs on the health care systems of treating diseases that results from poor life habits. Sports participation imposes itself; we just need to go to public parks or sports grounds to see so many youth playing sports without adult supervision for hours with high levels of dedication and motivation. This indicates that sports participation represents an opportunity to provide positive and useful activities for a significant number

of potential athletes. However, the organization of sports participation should not follow the same logic and rules of traditional sports. Sports participation needs to assume the specific purpose of providing athletes the conditions to develop their skills at their own rhythm. In order to achieve this purpose, some conditions may increase the development of sports participation:

- (a) Sport participation has to become an education area for coaches and other professionals involved in this activity, not only at universities, but also along their careers in sport participation. This will increase the interest of coaches, athletes, parents, policy makers, and other individuals about the benefits of sports participation.
- (b) Sports participation needs coaches with the right vocational attitude, meaning they should be intrinsically motivated to orientate athletes that do not have competition as their main interest.
- (c) Sports participation athletes need to be educated and trained according to the philosophy of this type of sports; sometimes athletes know what they do not like (i.e., competing, social pressure to succeed), but they do not necessarily know that sports participation may be an interesting alternative for them.
- (d) Sports participation needs adults (parents, managers, policy makers) that comprehend the specificities of this type of sport, and that genuinely support young athletes in their choice for sports participation.

Conclusion

Sports participation has a lot of potential. Not all athletes are interested in traditional sports, some like sports as a non-competitive activity. Sports participation can represent an interesting alternative for this population, but it needs to establish a theoretical and methodological background that can educate interested adults in developing sports participation programs. It is a complex, but fruitful, project to concretize; it just needs the interested adults and the curious athletes. Let this fascinating journey begin!

References

- Australian-Government. (2018). *Sport 2030*. Canberra: Australian Government.
- Brown, T. C., & Fry, M. D. (2014). Evaluating the pilot of strong girls: A life skills/physical activity program for third and fourth grade girls. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 26(1), 52-65. doi: 10.1080/10413200.2013.778913

- Canada. (2012). *Canadian Sport Policy - 2012*. Retrieved from http://sirc.ca/sites/default/files/content/docs/pdf/csp2012_en_lr.pdf
- Collins, M. (2010). From 'sport for good' to 'sport for sport's sake' – not a good move for sports development in England? *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 2(3), 367-379. doi:10.1080/19406940.2010.519342
- Danish, S. J. (1996). Interventions for enhancing adolescents' life skills. *The Humanistic Psychologist*, 24(3), 365-381.
- Danish, S. J. (1997). Going for the goal: A life skills program for adolescents. In G. Albee, & T. Gullotta (Eds.), *Primary preventions works* (pp. 291-311). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Danish, S. J., Taylor, T., Hodge, K., & Heke, I. (2004). Enhancing youth development through sport. *World Leisure Journal*, 46(3), 38-49.
- DiSanti, J. S., & Erickson, K. (2019) Youth sport specialization: A multidisciplinary scoping systematic review. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 37(18), 2094-2105. doi:10.1080/02640414.2019.1621476
- EU. (2014). *White paper on sport*. Retrieved from http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/education_training_youth/sport/135010_en.htm
- Eurostat. (2018). *Statistics on sport participation*. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Statistics_on_sport_participation.
- Gomes, A. R. (2014). Positive human functioning in stress situations: An interactive proposal. In A. R. Gomes, R. Resende, & A. Albuquerque (eds.), *Positive human functioning from a multidimensional perspective: Promoting stress adaptation* (Vol. 1, pp. 165-194). New York: Nova Science.
- Gomes, A. R., & Marques, B. (2013). Life skills in educational contexts: Testing the effects of an intervention programme. *Educational Studies*, 39(2), 156-166. doi: 10.1080/03055698.2012.689813
- Gould, D., & Carson, S. (2008). Life skills development through sport: Current status and future directions. *International Review of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 1, 58-78.
- Hall, R., Foss, K. B., Hewett, T. E., & Myer, G. D. (2015). Sport specialization's association with an increased risk of developing anterior knee pain in adolescent female athletes. *Journal of Sport Rehabilitation*, 24(1), 31-35.

- Hardcastle, S. J., Tye, M., Glassey, R., & Hagger, M. S. (2015). Exploring the perceived effectiveness of a life skills development program for high-performance athletes. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 16*, 139–149. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2014.10.005
- ISCF. (2013). *International Sport Coaching Framework: Version 1.2*. Leeds Beckett University: Human Kinetics, Champaign, Illinois, United States.
- Jeanes, R., Spaaij, R., Penney, D., & O'Connor, J. (2018). Managing informal sport participation: Tensions and opportunities. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics, 11*(1), 79-95. doi:10.1080/19406940.2018.1479285
- Jones, M. I., & Parker, J. K. (2014). Life skills programs: What makes them work? In A. R. Gomes, R. Resende, & A. Albuquerque (Eds), *Positive human functioning from a multidimensional perspective* (Vol. 2, pp. 15-36). New York: Nova Science Publishers.
- Lefebvre, J. S., Evans, M. B., Turnnidge, J., Gainforth, H. L., & Côté, J. (2016). Describing and classifying coach development programmes: A synthesis of empirical research and applied practice. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, 11*(6), 887-899. doi:10.1177/1747954116676116
- McFadden, T., Bean, C., Fortier, M., & Post, C. (2016). Investigating the influence of youth hockey specialization on psychological needs (dis)satisfaction, mental health, and mental illness. *Cogent Psychology, 3*(1), 1157975. doi: 10.1080/23311908.2016.1157975
- Mehta N. (2011). Mind-body dualism: A Critique from a health perspective. *Mens sana monographs, 9*(1), 202-209.
- Nanayakkara, S. (2016). Human integration through Olympism education: A pragmatic engagement of youths in a war-torn society. *Sport, Education and Society, 21*(4), 623–643. doi:10.1080/13573322.2016.1159956
- Nasheeda, A., Abdullah, H. B., Krauss, S. E., & Ahmed, N. B. (2018). A narrative systematic review of life skills education: Effectiveness, research gaps and priorities. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth, 24*(3), 362-379. doi: 10.1080/02673843.2018.1479278
- ONU. (2003). *Sport for development and peace: Towards achieving the millennium development goals. Report from the United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Sport for Development and Peace*. Retrieved from

http://www.un.org/wcm/webdav/site/sport/shared/sport/pdfs/Reports/2003_interagency_report_ENGLISH.pdf:

- Russell, W. D. (2014). The relationship between youth sport specialization, reasons for participation, and youth sport participation motivations: A retrospective study. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 37(3), 286-305.
- Sotiriadou, K., Quick, S., & Shilbury, D. (2006). Sport for 'Some': Elite versus mass participation. *International Journal of Sport Management*, 7, 50-66.
- Strachan, L., Côté, J., & Deakin, J. (2009). "Specializers" versus "samplers" in youth sport: Comparing experiences and outcomes. *The Sport Psychologist*, 23(1), 77–92.
- Super, S., Wentink, C. Q., Verkooijen, K. T., & Koelen, M. A. (2017). How young adults reflect on the role of sport in their socially vulnerable childhood. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health*, 11(1), 20-34. doi:10.1080/2159676x.2017.1361468
- WHO, World Health Organization (2003). *Skills for health: Skills-based health education including life skills: An important component of a child-friendly/health-promoting school*. Geneva: World Health Organization. Retrieved from <http://www.who.int/iris/handle/10665/42818>
- Wicker, P., Hallmann, K., & Breuer, C. (2012). Micro and macro level determinants of sport participation. *Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal*, 2(1), 51-68. doi:10.1108/20426781211207665
- Wright, P. M., Jacobs, J. M., Ressler, J. D., & Jung, J. (2016). Teaching for transformative educational experience in a sport for development program. *Sport, Education and Society*, 21(4), 531–548. doi:10.1080/13573322.2016.1142433
- Zuzanek, J. (2005). Adolescent time use and well-being from a comparative perspective. *Loisir et Société*, 28(2), 379-423. doi:10.1080/07053436.2005.10707688

Note: The authors wish to express their gratitude to Andy Gillham for his helpful comments on earlier versions of this chapter.