UK YOUTH SPORT COACHES AND COACHING EFFICACY: AN EXPLORATION INTO THE PERCEIVED DEVELOPMENT OF COACHING ABILITY

MATTHEW FIANDER

A thesis submitted to
The University of Gloucestershire
in accordance with the requirements of the degree of
Master of Science by Research
in the School of Sport and Exercise

September 2013

Abstract

The current study has three purposes. Firstly, to explore coaches' perceptions of their abilities in leading athletes to success and what experiences have influenced their perceived competence (or game strategy efficacy). Secondly, to investigate the relationship between winning and development within the developmental youth sport context. Lastly, to discover whether the conclusions from previous studies apply to youth sport coaches within the UK. A new methodological approach called interpretive description was applied to gather data. Interpretive description is an approach that is characterised by creating meaning (knowledge) through the interchange between researcher and participant and extending a form of understanding that is of practical importance to the applied disciplines (Thorne, 2008). Data obtained highlighted sources and outcomes of coach efficacy within the UK developmental youth sport context, which both supported previous findings and identified novel features specific to this context. Also, results demonstrate coaches' views on the relationship between winning and success is within this context, which challenges common notions surrounding the concept. Future research efforts should seek to build upon the current research to improve coaches', sport programmers and researchers' understandings of the relationship between the UK developmental youth sport context and coaching efficacy.

Author's Declaration

I declare that the work in this thesis was carried out in accordance with the regulations of the University of Gloucestershire and is original except where indicated by specific reference in the text. No part of the thesis has been submitted as part of any other academic award. The thesis has not been presented to any other education institution in the United Kingdom or overseas. Any views expressed in the thesis are those of the author and in no way represent those of the University.

Signed...

Date...

Contents

List of Tables and Figures

Tables

Figures

Chapter 1 - Introduction

The Physical Activity Task Force (2002) highlighted the important role that coaches play in the performance of sport (Department of Culture, Media and Sport, 2002) and in the wider social agenda of healthy living within the UK (Physical Activity Task Force, 2002). The recommendations made are to develop coaching to a professional level by investing in coaching and coach education (Department of Culture, Media and Sport, 2002). As coaching is seen to be highly dynamic and complex (Cushion, Armour, & Jones, 2003), these recommendations seem to be running parallel with current research (Wright, Trudel, & Culver, 2007), which states that coaches need to develop a wide range of skills and knowledge for their important role (Cushion et al., 2003). Currently, coach education provision in the UK is jointly offered by national governing bodies and Sports Coach UK (Nash & Sproule, 2011). To improve the standardisation and transferability of skills between National Governing Bodies, as well as the evaluation of coaching competency, the UK Coaching Certificate was introduced in 2002. The UK Coaching Certificate initiative has created nationally recognised, consistent, standards for levels one to four of coaching, which relate to the function of the coach (Coaching Task Force, 2002). Each level demonstrates a coach's ability to progress from such requirements as assisting more qualified coaches in Level One, to creating, implementing and analysing long-term coaching programmes in Level Four (Sports Coach UK, 2007). Although researchers (e.g., Werthner & Trudel, 2006) have suggested that coaches value day-to-day learning experiences in the field to a greater extent than formalised learning, initiatives such as the UK Coaching Certificate are still significant in producing competent coaches by creating a consistent and accredited coach qualification system (Coaching Task Force, 2002). However, although reports have shown positive results for the UK coaching certificate within certain sports (ASA, 2008), further research is required to establish its impact upon coaching knowledge, practice and the athletes experience (Nelson & Cushion, 2006).

Formal learning opportunities have a number of advantages, such as being packaged, having access to experts, prescribed assessment procedures, quality assurance measures, and recognition of achievement (Lyle, 2002; Mallett, Trudel, Lyle & Rynne, 2009). However, the same formal learning opportunities have been reported as lacking in content and meaning, and limited individualism (Mallett et al., 2009) and as a result, Cushion and colleagues (2003) suggest that if imaginative, dynamic, and thoughtful coaches are to be developed as a result of formal coach education programs then the content knowledge delivered must be widened beyond the "usual suspects" (i.e., the content

knowledge that has traditionally informed coach education programs; p. 216). However, just over half of the 1.11 million individuals undertaking coaching in the UK actually have a coaching qualification (North, 2009) which creates an uncertainty about the quality of the sporting provision being undertaken (North, 2010). The majority of coaching qualifications held are level one or two (North, 2009). This is acceptable for coaches who are assisting more qualified coaches, as in level one, but these coaches would not be qualified to create, implement and analyse long-term coaching programmes, as in level four (Sports Coach UK, 2007). Still, the lack of qualified and educated coaches working with youth athletes in the UK is concerning (Anderson, 2005; North, 2010) especially when youth athletes consider their coaches to be "experts" (Conroy & Coatsworth, 2006). If coaches are to play their crucial role in the talent development process (Henriksen, Stambulova & Roessler, 2010), then they need to acquire the relevant informational support (e.g., physical and psychological training) highlighted as essential for child athlete development (Côté, 1999). If youth sport coaches do not have extensive formal training or highly structured work environments that would demonstrate how they should frame their roles (Gilbert & Trudel, 1999), they are left on their own to construct their approach to coaching. For example, some coaches may place greater importance on winning and technical skill development, while others may be more concerned with fun and social development (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b). This therefore means that the number of responsibilities youth sport coaches are expected to accept (e.g., teacher, motivator, strategist, counsellor, organiser, character builder; Feltz, Chase, Moritz & Sullivan, 1999; Gould, 1987; Myers, Feltz, Maier, Wolfe & Recklase, 2006) may not be fully embraced.

Governali (1972) highlighted 40 years ago, coaches are under pressure to produce a winning team. Even if coaches have a fair play ethic and a developmental philosophy, if their team is not winning, then they will often find themselves out of a job because winning percentages are frequently used as an indicator of coach effectiveness (Horn, 2008). This is a trend that encompasses a number of sports throughout history (Abbey-Pinegar, 2010; Aghazadeh & Kyei, 2009; Cumming, Smoll, Smith & Grossbard, 2007; Fountain & Finley, 2011) and is also engrained in the thought process of coaches whereby coaches (especially male coaches) tend to identify producing winners as their top priorities (Kavussanu, Boardley, Jutkiewicz, Vincent & Ring, 2008). Although winning is an important part of youth sports, in the developmental context winning should be seen as a consequence of the athlete's physical and psychological development and not the primary focus of athlete involvement (Martens, 2004; Smith & Smoll, 2002; Thompson, 2003). What is more, this could create a conflict of interest for developmental coaches. Trudel and Gilbert (2006)

highlighted three specific sport coaching contexts[1]; recreational, developmental, and elite. The developmental coaching context includes a more formal competitive structure and an increased commitment from athletes and coaches compared to the recreational context. It is also considered by some to be the primary context for talent identification to elite levels of sport performance and coaching (Côté, Baker, & Abernethy, 2003). Unfortunately, a limitation of the current literature base on coach development is the under representation of studies on youth sport coaches operating in developmental coaching contexts, compared with studies on elite/professional coaches. Athletes will move from developmental contexts into elite contexts; so it is important to understand the nature of effective coaching and coach education in both developmental and elite coaching contexts (Wright et al., 2007). In addition, most of the research on developmental coaches is limited to high school coaches in the United States (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006). Although studies using participants from both the United States and the UK have revealed similar results (Boardley, Kavussanu & Ring, 2008; Marback, Short, Short, & Sullivan, 2005;), in areas such as coach efficacy (Feltz et al., 1999), there is simply not enough research to state that results from one cultural context apply to the other.

As the literature in coaching science continues to grow (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004a), researchers that examine, amongst others topics, coach efficacy (Feltz et al., 1999) have emerged. Feltz and colleagues (1999) defined coaching efficacy as the "extent to which coaches believe that they have the capacity to influence the learning and performance of their athletes" (p.765) and consists of four dimensions: motivation, technique, character building and game strategy efficacy. Motivation efficacy is the confidence coaches have in their ability to affect the psychological skills and motivational states of their athletes. Technique efficacy is the belief coaches have in their instructional/diagnostic skills. Character building is the confidence coaches have in their ability to influence a positive attitude towards sport in their athletes. Lastly, game strategy efficacy is the confidence coaches have in their ability to coach during competition and lead their athletes to a successful performance. The common notion in sports is that success equals winning and failure equals losing (Cumming et al., 2007) which can therefore put pressure on coaches to

---

[1] Although the coaching contexts used in the present study are those outlined by Gilbert and Trudel (2006), the author acknowledges the work of Côté, Young, North, & Duffy (2007) and the Developmental Model of Sport Participation (DMSP). However, the author chose to adopt Gilbert and Trudel's (2006) description of coaching contexts because the work of Côté and colleagues (2007) is regarded as a coaching model. More specifically, a psychological based framework where athletes progress from the sampling phase to either to investment or recreation stage (Bailey et al., 2010). The author therefore felt that it would be inappropriate to adopt the DMSP to describe coaching contexts.

win in competition (Schroeder, 2010). However, as previously highlighted, winning should not be the primary focus of athlete involvement in developmental level sport. Interestingly though, Feltz and colleagues (1999) reported that coaches with higher efficacy won more games than their low efficacy counterparts. The reasons for this included; effective instruction, good decision making and strategy formulation, and effective motivation and attitude instruction. Yet "winning" was the only performance indicator used in this study, again highlighting the significance of scoring more points than an opponent. Feltz and colleagues (1999) did however suggest that future research should use multiple performance indicators, including team and individual performance statistics and performance improvement measures of athletes. Furthermore, in their study, Chase, Feltz, Hayashi, and Helper (2005) reported that player development was the most often cited source of coach efficacy. However, the participants used in this study were high school coaches from America which again brings to light the need for further research if the results are to apply to coaches within the UK. Feltz and colleagues (1999) also proposed that the four dimensions of coaching efficacy are influenced by one's past performance and experience (e.g., coaching experience, coaching preparation, previous won-lost record), the perceived ability of one's athletes, and perceived social support (e.g., school, community, and parental support). The authors suggested that coaching efficacy has an influence on one's coaching behaviour, player satisfaction of the coach, the performance of one's athletes (as measured by winning percentage in their study), and player efficacy levels. In addition, Feltz and colleagues (1999) developed the Coaching Efficacy Scale to measure the multidimensional aspects of coaching efficacy which provided a framework for studies to be linked to a number of theory based external variables including, but not limited to, coaching behaviour (Feltz et al., 1999; Sullivan & Kent, 2003) and coach education (Malate & Feltz, 2000).

Although, as highlighted above, there are issues surrounding coach education, the programs have been found to increase perceived coaching efficacy (Malete & Feltz, 2000) and decrease burnout (Frey, 2007). However, as formal education programs do not fully meet the learning needs of coaches (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006); the development of coaches and coaching knowledge has received increased attention in recent years (Erickon, Bruner, MacDonald, & Côté, 2008). Despite the reported issues, results from studies on American high school and volunteer coaches (Malete & Feltz, 2000) and Canadian novice coaches (Campbell & Sullivan, 2005) indicate that coach efficacy increases as a result of completing a coach education course. However, all dimensions of coach efficacy increased in Canadian novice coaches but mainly game strategy and technique efficacy increased in American

high school and volunteer coaches suggesting that sources of coach efficacy may be more important at different levels of coaching (Feltz, Short, & Sullivan, 2008). These results reflect other findings (Vargas-Tonsing, 2007), specifically on youth sport coaches, whereby formal education programs are viewed as a critical path of a coach's growth and development. Although these results are important for furthering current understandings in the literature base, they are limited to participants in countries such as America and Canada, prompting the need for research to be conducted on coaches based in the UK. As coach education has been found to be a source of coach efficacy, coaching behaviours have been reported as outcomes of coach efficacy (displayed in the model of coach efficacy). For example, studies indicate that more efficacious coaches demonstrated significantly greater praise and encouragement behaviours, and significantly less training and instruction behaviours than their low efficacy peers (Feltz et al., 1999; Sullivan & Kent, 2003; Sullivan, Paquette, Holt, & Bloom, 2012). As coaches' behaviours can powerfully influence a child's experience in sport (Smith & Smoll, 1990), understanding the relationship between coach efficacy and coach behaviours becomes apparent. However, as highlighted with the coach education/efficacy literature, the number of studies investigating the link between coach behaviours and coach efficacy are small and limited to American or Canadian participants that again emphasises the need for studies to be undertaken within the UK.

Coaches need to develop a wide range of skills and knowledge to prepare them for an increasingly important role (Cushion et al., 2003). Although coach education is widely offered (Nash & Sproule, 2011), an alarmingly high number of 'coaches' fail to have the necessary qualifications for the job (Anderson, 2005; North, 2009; North, 2010). These coaches also fail to profit from the potential increase in coach efficacy as a result of completing formal coach education courses (Malete & Feltz, 2000; Campbell & Sullivan, 2005) that could affect player satisfaction (Campbell & Sullivan, 2005). This issue is further emphasised when developmental coaches are in charge of nurturing youth athletes at a stage which some consider the primary context for talent identification to elite levels of sport (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006). The assumption is that coaches are "experts" in their respective sports and are psychologically prepared for the demands of coaching (Marback et al., 2005). Hence, if developmental coaches are amongst those who may lack valuable skills and knowledge required to lead their youth athletes to success, such as physical and psychological training (Côté, 1999), then it is the athletes who could be detrimentally affected. Therefore, as the confidence coaches have in their own abilities is an important and often overlooked attribute within sport (Marbeck et al., 2005), the purpose of this study is to explore coaches' perceptions of their abilities in leading athletes to success and

what experiences have influenced their perceived competence. Also, within the definition of game strategy efficacy, the term "successful performance" (Feltz et al., 1999, p. 766) may be associated with winning as previously demonstrated. In contrast, many youth sport coaches focus on the socialisation and fun aspects of sport more than winning (Lesyk & Kornspan, 2000; Martens & Gould, 1978; McCallister, Blinde & Weiss, 2000). In line with previous calls that sources of coaching efficacy may be more important at different levels of coaching (Feltz et al., 2008), a secondary purpose of the present study is to investigate the relationship between winning and development within the developmental youth sport context. Finally, as the vast majority of the limited number of studies surrounding coaching efficacy at youth sport level are focused in America (Feltz, Hepler, Roman, & Paiement, 2009) or Canada (Sullivan et al., 2012), a third purpose of this study is to contribute to the literature base itself and to explore whether conclusions from previous studies apply to youth sport coaches within the UK.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review

Around £450 million will go to sports governing bodies between 2013 and 2017 for their 'whole sport plans.' Around 60 per cent will benefit young people aged 14-25 so that sports are completely focussed on helping to drive a sporting habit for life. The remaining 40 per cent will be aimed at the rest of the population.

This is a direct quote taken from a note released by the UK coalition Government in January 2012 outlining Jeremy Hunt's (the then Secretary of State for Culture, Olympics, Media and Sport) strategy for funding national governing bodies. But what does this mean for coaches?

The 'whole sport plan' mentioned above allows for £450 million to be invested in 46 national governing bodies of sport between 2013 and 2017 to meet their targets. But what are the actual targets?

The targets set out are as follows:

- Grow (the number of 14-25 year olds participating in sport once per week)
- Sustain (the satisfaction of the quality of this sport experience)
- Excel (relates to the size and/or quality of the overall talent pool)

But again, what about coaches? Surely if the above targets for athletes are to be met, a number of competent, confident coaches must be established? Athletes do not develop alone. They need guidance from a significant other (i.e., a coach) who has the confidence to successfully apply the correct knowledge, skills and abilities to appropriately develop their athletes.

Yet, in Sport England's performance review for national governing bodies during 2011-12 (Sport England, 2012), how many times was the quality, quantity, and provision of coaching (or even the word 'coach' for that matter) referred to? Nine. How many sports mentioned coaching out of the 46? Six. As such, there seems to be a disproportionate focus on 'the athlete' compared with 'the coach'. It is like someone is trying to build a house by only concentrating on 'the bricks' and ignoring the all-important 'foundations'.

The question then remains, how can the government plan to improve sporting participation, quality, and quantity (the 'grow, sustain, excel' targets) without first establishing competent, well-educated, supported coaches who are confident in providing quality coaching for their athletes?

The current study has three purposes. Firstly, to explore coach's perceptions of their abilities in leading athletes to success and what experiences have influenced their perceived competence (or game strategy efficacy). Secondly, to investigate the relationship between winning and development within the developmental youth sport context. Lastly, to discover whether the conclusions from previous studies apply to youth sport coaches within the UK.

2.1 - Definition of Effective Coaching

Although there has been over three decades of research within coaching, there is still a lack of clarity when defining coach effectiveness within the coaching process (Côté & Gilbert, 2009; Lyle, 2002). Côté and Gilbert (2009)[2] suggest that effective coaching is: "the consistent application of integrated professional, interpersonal, and intrapersonal knowledge to improve athletes' competence, confidence, connection and character in specific coaching contexts". Côté and Gilbert (2009) identify three common variables within a number of conceptual models that have emerged from different theoretical perspectives that underpin this definition, namely, coaches' knowledge, athletes' outcomes and, coaching context. Given the centrality of these three variables and their applicability to the present study, this is the definition of 'coaching' which this work adopts. Within Feltz et al.'s (1999) original paper, there is a relationship between coaching efficacy and coach effectiveness which is demonstrated through the constant use of the term 'effective'. For example, "coaches are concerned with the learning and performance of their athletes and to be effective, must perform multiple roles" and "coaches rely on their education, preparation, and experience to be effective" (p.765). Such statements provide further endorsement of the definition offered by Côté and Gilbert (2009).

2.2 - Definition of Coach Efficacy

Feltz, Chase, Moritz, and Sullivan (1999, p. 765) defined coaching efficacy as "the extent to which coaches believe they have the capacity to affect the learning and performance of their athletes". Performance, in this sense, is also meant to include the psychological, attitudinal, and teamwork skills of athletes. Developed from Bandura's (1977; 1986) self-efficacy theory, Denham and Michael's (1981) multidimensional model of teacher efficacy, and Park's (1992) scale of coaching confidence, the conceptual model of coach efficacy (see Figure 1) comprises four dimensions which are: game strategy efficacy,

---

[2] Although I have referenced the work of Côté and Gilbert (2009) for a definition of coaching and the coaching contexts outlined by Gilbert and Trudel (2006), I acknowledge the work of Côté, Young, North & Duffy (2007) and the Developmental Model of Sport Participation.

motivation efficacy, teaching technique efficacy, and character building efficacy. These dimensions are influenced by one's past experience and performance (e.g., coaching experience, coaching preparation, previous won-lost record), the perceived skill or talent of one's athletes, and perceived social support (e.g., school, community, and parental support). Consequently, coach efficacy would then have an influence on one's coaching behaviour, player satisfaction with the coach, performance of the athletes, player behaviour and attitude, and player efficacy levels. (Feltz et al., 1999).

2.3 - Self-Efficacy

The most important piece of work Feltz and colleagues (1999) used when developing coach efficacy was Bandura's (1977: 1986: 1997) theory of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined as the belief one has in being able to execute a specific task successfully (e.g., a kicker in rugby kicking a conversion) in order to obtain a certain outcome (e.g., self-satisfaction or coach recognition). Since the publication of 'Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change' (Bandura, 1977), over 60 research articles have been published on self-efficacy related particularly to sport performance (Moritz, Feltz, Mack & Fahrback, 2000). More specifically, research has focussed on athletes (Singleton & Feltz, 1999), teams (Bandura, 1997), and coaches (Feltz et al., 1999).

2.3.1 - Self- Efficacy Theory

Originally developed within the framework of social cognitive theory, self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) was originally applied to clinical psychology, however, it has since been applied to other domains of psychological functioning including sport and motor performance (Feltz, 1988). Bandura (1986) stated that self-efficacy beliefs are not judgments about one's skills, objectively speaking, but rather about one's judgments of what one can accomplish with those skills. These judgments are a product of a complex process of self-appraisal and self-persuasion that relies on the cognitive processing of diverse sources of efficacy information (Bandura, 1990). Feltz and Lirgg (2001) discussed these sources which are categorised as past performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and psychological states (Bandura, 1977, 1986), with others later adding separate categories for emotional states and imaginal experiences (Maddux, 1995; Schunk, 1995).

Bandura (1997) has suggested that performance accomplishments have proved to be the most influential sources of efficacy information because they are based on one's own mastery experiences. He stated that one's mastery experiences affect self-efficacy

beliefs through the cognitive processing of such information. If one has repeatedly viewed these experiences as successes, self-efficacy beliefs will increase; if these experiences were viewed as failures, self-efficacy beliefs will decrease. Focussing on successes should provide more encouragement and enhance self-efficacy more than focussing on one's failures. In addition, disappointments after easy successes and intensifications after failure are common sequences in competitive struggles. Instead, the continued setting of challenging goals and the positive reactions to substandard performances help to elevate the intensity and level of motivation (Bandura, 1997; Feltz & Lirgg, 2001).

Feltz and Lirgg (2001) described the influence of past performance experiences on self-efficacy beliefs which is also dependant on a number of aspects, including, the perceived difficulty of the performance, the effort expended, the amount of guidance received, the temporal pattern of success and failure, and the individual's conception of a particular "ability" as a skill that can be acquired versus an inherent aptitude (Bandura, 1986; Lirgg, George, Chase & Ferguson, 1996). Bandura (1986) also argues that different efficacy values are obtained from different performance accomplishments. For example, performance accomplishments on difficult tasks, tasks attempted without external assistance, and tasks accomplished with only occasional failures carry a greater efficacy value than tasks that are easily accomplished, tasks accomplished with external help, or tasks in which repeated failures are experienced with little sign of progress (Feltz & Lirgg, 2001).

Feltz and Lirgg (2001) also suggest efficacy information can be derived through a social comparison process with others. This process is observing the performance of one or more other individuals, noting the consequence of their performance, and then using this information to form judgements about one's own performance (Maddux, 1995). Although vicarious sources of efficacy information are thought to be generally weaker than performance accomplishments, its influence on self-efficacy can be enhanced by a number of factors. For example, the less experience people have had with performance situations, the more they will rely on others in judging their own capabilities. Bandura (1997) has also suggested that self-modelling affects performance through its impact on efficacy belief. Self-modelling consists of the individual repeatedly observing the correct or best parts of his or her own past performance, and using that as a model for future performance (Dowrick & Dove, 1980; Feltz & Lirgg, 2001).

Persuasive techniques are also used by coaches, managers, parents, and peers in attempting to influence an athlete's self-perceptions of efficacy (Feltz & Lirgg, 2001). These

techniques include verbal persuasion, evaluative feedback, expectations by others, self-talk, positive imagery, and other cognitive strategies. Like vicarious sources of efficacy information, persuasive sources are also likely to be weaker than those based on one's accomplishments. For example, individuals tend to avoid challenging activities in which they have been persuaded that they lack the capabilities or they give up quickly. For that reason, it is harder to instil strong beliefs of self-efficacy by persuasory means only. Efficacy information can be obtained from a person's physiological state or condition. Physiological information included autonomic arousal that is associated with fear and self-doubt or with being psyched-up and ready for performance, as well as one's level of fitness, fatigue, and pain (in strength and endurance activities; Feltz & Lirgg, 2001).

In addition, Schunk (1995) has suggested that one's emotional state (which is similar to physiological state) can be an additional source of information in forming efficacy perceptions. He proposed that emotional symptoms that signal anxiety might be interpreted by an individual to mean that he or she lacks the requisite skills to perform a certain task which, in turn, influences efficacy judgements. Furthermore, Maddux (1995) introduced imaginal experiences as a separate source of efficacy information (which Bandura (1997) refers to as cognitive self-modeling or cognitive enactment). People can generate efficacy beliefs by imagining themselves or others behaving successfully or unsuccessfully in anticipated performance situations (Feltz & Lirgg, 2001).

2.3.2 - Self-Efficacy Research in Sport

A number of studies have focussed on the self-efficacy beliefs of athletes. Feltz and Lirgg (2001) reviewed 24 studies which they suggested that overall, results have shown self-efficacy to be a reliable predictor of sport performance and useful in combination with other cognitive and training variables in accounting for performance variance. Moreover, scholars have studied the relationship between a group's collective confidence and its performance (Bandura, 1997; Feltz & Lirgg, 2001). However, most recently to emerge are studies investigating the efficacy beliefs of coaches, or coach efficacy (Feltz et al., 1999).

2.4 - Coach Efficacy

Using Bandura's (1977; 1986) self-efficacy theory, Denham and Michael's (1981) multidimensional model of teacher efficacy, and Park's (1992) scale of coaching confidence, Feltz, Chase, Moritz, and Sullivan (1999) developed a model of coaching efficacy (see Figure 1) that included coaching-specific sources of efficacy as well as the effects or outcomes of coaching efficacy and the Coaching Efficacy Scale. Feltz and colleagues (1999, p. 765)

defined coaching efficacy as "the extent to which coaches believe they have the capacity to affect the learning and performance of their athletes". Performance, in this sense, is also meant to include the psychological, attitudinal, and teamwork skills of athletes.

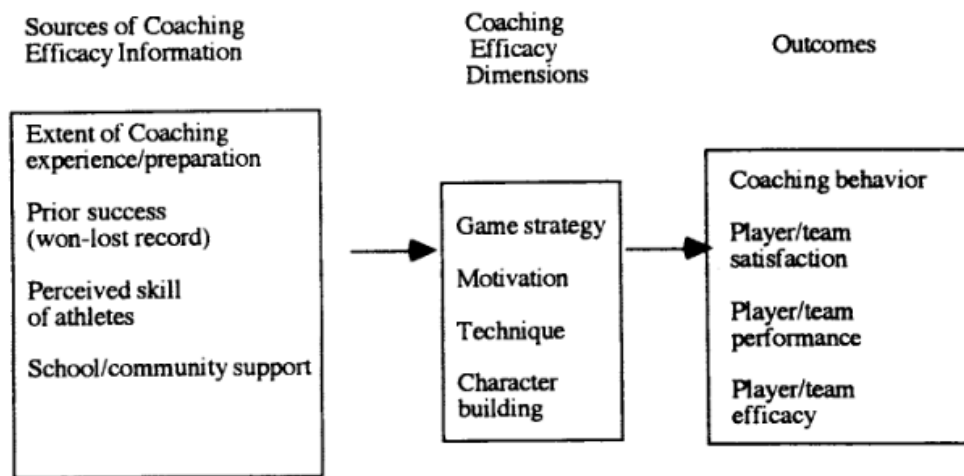| Sources of Coaching Efficacy Information	Coaching Efficacy Dimensions	Outcomes
Extent of Coaching experience/preparation Prior success (won-lost record) Perceived skill of athletes School/community support	Game strategy Motivation Technique Character building	Coaching behavior Player/team satisfaction Player/team performance Player/team efficacy

Figure 1. Conceptual model of coaching efficacy (Feltz et al., 1999)

The conceptual model of coaching efficacy consists of three major components: (1) the sources of coaching efficacy information, (2) the dimensions of coaching efficacy, and (3) the outcomes of coaching efficacy. The Coaching Efficacy Scale comprises four dimensions which are: game strategy, motivation, teaching technique, and character building. Game strategy efficacy is the confidence coaches have in their own ability to coach during competition and lead their team to successful performance. Motivation efficacy is the confidence coaches have in their ability to affect the psychological skill and states of their athletes. Technique efficacy is the belief coaches have in their instructional and diagnostic skills. Character building efficacy is the confidence coaches have in their ability to influence the personal development of and positive attitude toward sport in the athletes. These four components were devised as the result of a 5-week seminar involving 11 coaches who had varying levels of coaching experiences and were graduate students in sport psychology. A framework for group discussions on the key components of coaching efficacy was developed by reviewing the National Standards for Athletic Coaches (National Association for Sport and Physical Education, 1995), Park's (1992) exploratory factor analysis of coaching confidence, and the coaching education literature. The findings of this search highlighted a repeated emphasis on coaching competency in teaching, discipline, tactics and strategy, motivation, character development, training and conditioning, and communication. From the subsequent discussions with the 11 coaches, these dimensions

were reduced to the four (i.e., game strategy, motivation, teaching technique, and character building). These dimensions of coaching efficacy are influenced by one's past experience and performance (e.g., coaching experience, coaching preparation, previous won-lost record), the perceived skill or talent of one's athletes, and perceived social support (e.g., school, community, and parental support). Consequently, coaching efficacy would then have an influence on one's coaching behaviour, player satisfaction with the coach, performance of the athletes, player behaviour and attitude, and player efficacy levels. (Feltz et al., 1999).

This conceptual model of coaching efficacy and the Coaching Efficacy Scale provided a framework for studies to be linked with a host of theory based external variables, such as coaching behaviour (Feltz et al., 1999; Sullivan & Kent, 2003), coach education (Malete & Feltz, 2000), team winning percentages (Myers, Vargas-Tonsing & Feltz, 2005), player improvement (Chase, Feltz, Hayashi & Helper, 2005), playing experience (Sullivan, Gee & Feltz, 2006), imagery (Short, Smiley & Ross-Stewart, 2005), leadership style (Sullivan & Kent, 2003), and team efficacy (Vargas-Tonsing, Warners & Feltz, 2003). However, the authors considered the model to be a preliminary "that probably contains fewer sources, dimensions, and outcomes of coaching efficacy that may actually exist" (Feltz et al., 1999, p. 767). As such, Myers, Wolfe and Feltz (2005) provided an investigation of the psychometric properties of measures derived from the Coaching Efficacy Scale and concluded that (a) there were problems with the rating scale categorisation structure, (b) there was limited discriminant validity among game strategy efficacy and technique efficacy, (c) the operational definition for each dimension should be reconsidered, (d) several items needed to be revised and/or dropped, and (e) the resultant measures were relatively imprecise (Myers, Chase, Pierce & Martin, 2011). As a result, the Coaching Efficacy Scale II-High School Teams was put forth by revising the Coaching Efficacy Scale in account with previous research. However, it has been noted that the Coaching Efficacy Scale II-High School Teams should be used for its intended population, which is not youth sport coaches. Instead the original Coaching Efficacy Scale should continue to be used for research within this population until a suitable replacement is available (Myers, Feltz, Chase, Recklase, & Hancock, 2008). This however could imply that the use of the Coaching Efficacy Scale within research surrounding youth sport coaches is inappropriate, creating uncertainty about the findings from studies using the Coaching Efficacy Scale.

Feltz, Hepler, Roman and Paiement (2009) took these concerns on board when using the Coaching Efficacy Scale in their study of volunteer youth sport coaches. The

authors noted that "it is important that confirmatory factor analysis be conducted on the Coaching Efficacy Scale using volunteer youth sport coaches to determine if the instrument is appropriate for them" (p. 27). The main purpose of this study, however, was to examine the sources that volunteer youth sport coaches used to inform their coaching capability beliefs. The findings suggested that both coaching and playing experience were strong and consistent predictors of coaching efficacy. This supports results from previous studies with coaches from high school and small colleges (Feltz et al., 1999; Markback, Short, Short & Sullivan, 2004; Myers et al., 2005; Sullivan et al., 2006). Yet in contrast to these studies, perceived athlete improvement, athlete support and perceived internal support (from athletes and parents) were strong predictors of coaching efficacy in volunteer youth sport coaches. These results mirror suggestions from Feltz and colleagues (2008) that different sources of coaching efficacy can vary due to coaching levels but further research is needed to substantiate this claim.

In response to issues regarding utilising the Coaching Efficacy Scale with youth sport coaches, Myers et al., (2011) proposed the Coaching Efficacy Scale II-Youth Sport Teams. The development of the Coaching Efficacy Scale II-Youth Sport Teams was "congruent with relevant research, was guided by content experts, and represented substantial revision to the Coaching Efficacy Scale via revision to the Coaching Efficacy Scale II-High School Teams" (p. 799). However, a relatively new proposal, the Coaching Efficacy Scale II-Youth Sport Teams needs further development which may facilitate much needed research with youth sport coaches that examine coaching efficacy (Myers et al., 2011; Myers et al., 2008). Although some studies have focused on coaching efficacy and youth sport coaches (e.g., Chow, Murray & Feltz, 2009; Feltz et al., 2009; Kowalski et al., 2007), none have attempted to utilise and refine the components that make up the Coaching Efficacy Scale II-Youth Sport Teams (e.g., game strategy efficacy).

2.4.1 - Game Strategy Efficacy

As noted earlier, youth sport coaches play a vital role in the teaching of such foundational aspects as fundamental skills, strategies, and sportsmanship. Consequently, the importance of understanding coach-related factors in youth sport is clear (Feltz et al., 2009) when facets such as coach efficacy can affect the sport experience of coaches and their athletes (Feltz et al., 1999). Yet, despite its potential very little attention has been applied to researching coaching efficacy at youth sport level. However, there has been a call to examine and refine the, albeit small, amount of literature in this area (Feltz et al., 2009). Most of the studies on coaching efficacy are conducted with coaches from high

school and small colleges but it has been highlighted that some sources of coaching efficacy may be more important at different levels of coaching (Feltz et al., 2008).

Game strategy efficacy is defined as 'the confidence coaches have in their ability to coach during competition and lead their team to a successful performance' (Feltz et al., 1999, p. 766). The term "successful performance" within sport might seem associated with winning but in contrast many youth sport coaches focus on the socialisation and fun aspects of sport, more than winning (Lesyk & Kornspan, 2000; Martens & Gould, 1979; McCallister, Blinde & Weiss, 2000). This subtle and complex relationship is an area that has yet to be explored and could produce important results regarding not only the experiences and perceptions of game strategy efficacy in youth sport coaches, but also the refinement of the dimension itself. Research that reported on game strategy efficacy found that coaches' playing experience was a unique and significant source of game strategy efficacy (Sullivan et al., 2006), which was consistent with Feltz and colleagues (2009) study with youth sport coaches. In the latter study, playing experience also predicted technique efficacy. The authors' rationalization for this is youth sport coaches have relatively less coaching experience than high school and college coaches (Myers et al., 2005) and therefore it would make "sense that they would use playing experience to provide the sport-specific knowledge of the skills, rules, vocabulary, and strategy of how the game is played" (p. 37). Playing experience may well be masked as coaching expertise so coaches may be relying on their own experiences as "accepted knowledge" rather than on actual pedagogy (Rushall, 2004). Even if it does make sense, this interpretation (to my knowledge) has not been the focus of any study so this may or may not be the case. In addition, results from studies focussing on gender differences within coaching efficacy (Lee, Malete & Feltz, 2002; Marback et al., 2005) revealed higher game strategy efficacy for male coaches compared to female coach. One explanation that has been offered for this finding may be the different views reported by male and female coaches as to what it takes to be a good coach. More specifically, male coaches tend to identify producing winners as one of their top priorities (Molstad, 1993) and therefore they may spend more of their time developing their skills to lead their athletes to winning performances (Kavussanu, Boardley, Jutkiewicz, Vincent & Ring, 2008).

2.5 - Shortcomings of Coach Efficacy

There are a number of studies that suggest coach efficacy is an important variable in coach effectiveness (Kavussanu et al., 2008), athletic performance, effective coaching behaviours (Feltz et al., 1999), team satisfaction, winning percentages for men's teams

(Myers et al., 2005) and perceived leadership behaviours (Sullivan, Paquette, Holt & Bloom, 2012). However, given the definition of coach efficacy (i.e., "the extent to which coaches believe they have the capacity to affect the learning and performance of their athletes"; Feltz et al., 1999, p.765) it may be that a coach's perception does not translate into changes in athlete behaviour (i.e., they believe they can affect behaviour but in reality they cannot). Although coach efficacy is an important aspect of coaching because of the relationship it has with a number of important external variables (e.g., coach effectiveness; Kavusannu et al., 2008), one must be careful not to suggest that it has a direct, causal relationship with the actual learning and performance of athletes.

2.6 - Coach Learning and Coach Efficacy

The purpose of coach learning in the UK is to acquire and display a minimum level of competency, to the relevant governing body of sport, by demonstrating requisite and standardised knowledge to work effectively as coaches at the level for which they have been prepared (Cushion et al., 2010). However previous researchers have suggested that current formal education programmes do not fully meet the learning needs of coaches (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006). For example, although formal learning education acquisition experiences relate to an increase in perceived coaching efficacy (Malete & Feltz, 2000) and decreased burnout (Frey, 2007), they are not sufficient to ensure holistic coach development. National coach certification systems continue to be dominated by classroom delivery and a didactic style of pedagogy (Mesquita, Isidro, & Rosado, 2010). As such, the development of coaches and coaching knowledge has received increased attention in recent years (Erickon, Bruner, MacDonald & Côté, 2008). In particular, types of learning sources and environments coaches should and do use (e.g., informal, non-formal and formal methods) have received greater attention (Nelson, Cushion & Potrac, 2006; North, 2010). However, research in this area is often focused on specific coaching contexts, such as elite coaching in the UK and development coaching in North America (Cushion et al., 2010), and fails to study how coaches extract and utilise information from these learning sources and experiences (North, 2010).

Results from studies investigating how elite or expert coaches develop their knowledge (Fleurance & Cotteaux, 1999; Gould, Giannini, Krane & Hodge, 1990; Irwin, Hanton & Kerwin, 2004; Jones, Armour & Potrac, 2004; Salmela, 1996) indicate a disparity among the coaches concerned as to the perceived importance of formal coach education programmes in their development of knowledge. With regards to high school and volunteer coaches, Malete and Feltz (2000) found increases in coach efficacy following

participation in a coaching education programme. Yet this improvement was not equally effective across all dimensions. For example, game strategy and technique efficacy showed the strongest increase. On the other hand, a closer look at the participants of this study revealed that over half of the control group were college students with an average of 1.25 years' experience. When this is interpreted in light of Burden's (1990) suggestion that professionals attain the stabilisation period of their development after five years of experience, it may seem inappropriate to use participants with low levels of experience. The instrumentation used in this study was the original coaching efficacy scale developed by Feltz and colleagues (1999). However, Myers and colleagues (2011) have since developed a modified version, the Coaching Efficacy Scale II-Youth Sport Teams, to be used specifically with youth sport coaches. Therefore, suggesting the claims made by Malete and Feltz (2000) need further investigation using the modified Coaching Efficacy Scale II-Youth Sport Teams.

The results that emerged from Malete and Feltz (2000) are supported through a study using a heterogeneous sample of Singapore coaches whereby Lee et al. (2002) reported higher game strategy and technique efficacy for certified coaches compared to uncertified coaches. Lee and colleagues (2002) reported higher game strategy efficacy for male coaches compared to female coaches. Again, however, the authors used the original coaching efficacy scale and not the modified version developed specifically for youth sport coaches (again this study was completed nine years before the modified coaching efficacy scale was developed). In addition, as Marback and colleagues (2005) discussed the differences in the Singaporean and American cultures, these results need to be further investigated using participants from the UK. Despite these findings, Campbell and Sullivan (2005) actually found that Canadian novice (less than three years' experience) coach's efficacy increases in all aspects as a result of completing a coach education course, not just game strategy and technique efficacy. However, the authors of this study asked participants to complete the coaching efficacy scale immediately after complete a level one theory course offered by a national coach education provider. Although this offered interesting results, it does not allow novice coaches the chance to utilise the information learnt in the real world. If the authors had taken another data set at this point, then results could have shown the true effects of a coach education course on coach efficacy in reality. Although all these results are extremely important for understanding the relationship between coach efficacy and coach education, these studies are limited to American, Canadian and Singaporean coaches so further research is needed to apply them to youth sport coaches within the UK.

There is an agreement that other learning opportunities, such as playing experience, mentoring, and discussions with foreign coaches, play a significant role in coach learning. Yet the importance placed on each less formal learning opportunity varied from coach to coach. These results are echoed in a number of more recent studies (e.g., Abraham, Collins, & Martindale, 2006; Erickson, Côté & Fraser-Thomas, 2007; Lynch & Mallett, 2006; Reade, Rodgers & Hall, 2008; Reade, Rodgers & Spriggs, 2008b; Williams & Kendall, 2007) whereby formal coach education courses, mentoring, clinics/seminars, interacting with other coaches, observing other coaches, sport scientists, and print/electronic materials were all sources for coaching learning opportunities. Overall, these studies have shown that learning to coach in the elite or expert context is a complex process that requires a mixture of formal and informal learning opportunities, not just strictly through formal education courses (Lemyre, Trudel & Durand-Bush, 2007). Although there is an agreement that coaches value learning opportunities outside of formal education courses (e.g., Cushion, Armour & Jones, 2003), to my knowledge no study has investigated the direct relationship between these less formal learning opportunities and coaching efficacy.

Studies reveal that youth sport coaches (both recreational and developmental) use roughly the same learning sources as elite or expert coaches, with the exception of sport scientists which they could not afford (Lemyre et al., 2007). It might then seem appealing to see these results and assume that they are the best coaching practices for all coaching contexts (Avard, 1995; Côté, Samela, Trudel, Baria & Russell, 1995). This view was reflected in many coach education programmes through the novice-expert continuum whereby it was thought that every coach would accumulate the same coaching concepts to progress (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006). However, within the UK this view was challenged by scholars (e.g., Abraham & Collins, 1998; Douge & Hastie, 1993; Gilbert & Trudel, 1999). The current coach education program in the UK (Lyle, 2002) offers specific courses to different groups of coaches to fulfil their needs, allowing coaches to specialise in a particular context (Lemyre et al., 2007) For example, I undertook a coaching course in rugby league which was centred around the coaching of young, grass roots athletes rather than the elite. However, there was no discussion about how I would develop as a coach (i.e., knowledge acquisition and application); it was purely about the development of the athletes, which left me less confident regarding my skills and abilities as a coach than I would have hoped. Therefore, the diverse learning situations of developmental coaches are just as important to study as those of elite or expert coaches (Schinke, Bloom & Salmela, 1995). Despite this, there is still an under representation of studies on developmental coaching contexts compared with

elite or expert coaches. Most of the research on developmental coaches is limited to high school coaches in the United States (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006), emphasising the need for more studies within the UK. As athletes will be moving from developmental contexts into elite contexts, it is important to understand the nature of coach learning not only in the elite or expert context, but also the developmental context (Wright et al., 2007).

2.7 - Coaching Behaviours and Coach Efficacy

Coach behaviours can exert a powerful influence on children's experiences in sport (Smith & Smoll, 1990). Research in this area has shown a direct link between coach efficacy and coaching behaviours with different samples and measures of coaching behaviour (Feltz et al., 1999; Myers et al., 2005; Sullivan et al., 2012; Sullivan & Kent, 2003). For example, Feltz and colleagues (1999) found with a heterogeneous sample of 517 high school coaches that previous experience, success, and community support were significant predictors of coaching efficacy, especially game strategy and motivation efficacy. A number of primary outcomes of coaching efficacy emerged including coaching behaviour, player/team satisfaction with the coach, player/team attitude, and player/team efficacy. More specifically, Feltz and colleagues (1999) discovered that more efficacious coaches demonstrated significantly greater praise and encouragement behaviours, and significantly less training and instruction behaviours than their low efficacy counterparts. However, recognising the limits of a single investigation, Feltz and colleagues (1999) also recommended that further research be undertaken to validate the preliminary findings surrounding this topic. Responding to this call, Sullivan and Kent (2003) sampled 224 university coaches to further these results. Although the Feltz et al. (1999) study focused on American high school coaches, Sullivan and Kent (2003) demonstrated that the Coaching Efficacy Scale is generalisable to university coaches both within the United States and Canada. Sullivan and Kent (2003), in asking their participants to compare themselves to their perceptions of what would be their ideal coach, revealed that as coaches were more confident in their roles as motivators and teachers of technique, they engaged in their ideal behaviours (i.e., positive reinforcement) to a greater extent. Interestingly, even though the above studies reported similar findings, they were attained using differing procedures. Although Feltz and colleagues (1999) used an objective measure of coaching behaviour, Sullivan and Kent (2003) used a measure of coaches' self-perception of coaching behaviour which therefore suggests the different methods have complimented each other.

Although these studies were important in developing the link between coach efficacy and coaching behaviours, there was a lack of research surrounding this area at

different levels of sport (e.g., youth sport) which was highlighted (Feltz et al., 2009). Recently, Sullivan et al. (2012) have focused on this gap through their study of the relationship between coaching context and perceived leadership behaviours in youth sport with America and Canada. The authors reported parallel results with previous studies on the subject and therefore provided further support for perceived coaching behaviours "by establishing it within youth sport" (p. 130). However, as stated above, all three studies are either conducted in the United States, Canada or both. Although there might be some similarities in results from these two countries and the United Kingdom, it cannot be assumed and therefore research within the UK is needed.

2.8 - The Modern Day Coach

The task of the coach has changed considerably over the past twenty years, which has been put down to the professionalization and commercialization of many major sports. Yet while developments in sporting performance have been attributed to innovations in sport science, technological advances, training systems and nutritional analysis, little attention has been given to the coach. This holds true within the UK where, although the coach has a crucial role to play, much of the emphasis is placed on the performer. As a result, the role of the coach is a somewhat murky area to define (Nash, Sproule & Horton, 2008). Despite this, it is acknowledged that coaches need to be experienced, knowledgeable and educated individuals in order to meet the needs of those in sport at all ages and stages (Weiss & Fretwell, 2005).

Nowadays, the joint aims of coaching are lifelong participation and competitive success (Nash et al., 2008). But if these aims are to become a reality then more attention must be focused on the work of coaches during the initial introduction of basic skills to encourage the later development of higher-order skills, such as decision making and problem solving (Jowett, 2008; Morales, 2006). However, as Governali (1972) highlighted 40 years ago, coaches are pressured to produce a winning team. Even if coaches have a fair play ethic and a developmental philosophy, if their team is not winning, then they will often find themselves out of a job because winning percentages are often used as an indicator of coach effectiveness (Horn, 2008). This is a trend that is encompasses a number of sports today (e.g., Abbey-Pinegar, 2010; Aghazadeh & Kyei, 2009; Cumming, Smoll, Smith & Grossbard, 2007; Fountain & Finley, 2011). To add to this, the role of a youth sport coach is complex and likely to vary within different contexts. Gilbert and Trudel (1999) found that North American youth sport coaches typically do not have extensive formal training or highly structured work environments that would demonstrate how they should

frame their roles which means they are on their own to construct their approach to coaching. For example, some coaches may place greater importance on winning and technical skill development, while others may be more concerned with fun and social development (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004b). However, Orlick and Botterill (1975) stated that youth sport coaches in Canada must consider more than physical skill development as part of their role and accept a number of responsibilities, such as teacher, motivator, strategist, counsellor, organiser, and character builder (Feltz et al., 1999; Gould, 1987; Myers, Feltz, Maier, Wolfe & Recklase, 2006).

Whatever role a coach takes, Csikszentmihalyi, Rathunde and Whalen (1993) revealed that they are arguably the most crucial environmental catalyst in the talent development process, becoming more prominent as a child progresses and develops and providing informational support in the form of physical and psychological training (Côté, 1999). This becomes even more important when it is understood that modern day coaches' behaviours can exert a powerful influence on children's experiences in youth sport (Sullivan et al., 2012). For example, coaching behaviours can positively influence children's self-esteem, the degree of enjoyment they experience and their desire to continue to participate in sport (Conroy & Coatsworth, 2006; Smith, Zane, Smoll & Coppel, 1983; Smoll, Smith, Barnett & Everett, 1993). However, poor coaching behaviours have also been associated with coaches being distracting, engendering self-doubt, demotivating and dividing the team (Horn, 2008). Coaches therefore play a central and delicate role in youth sport coaching. As coaching behaviour has a direct link with coaching efficacy (Feltz et al., 1999), it is an important and appropriate area of study.

2.9 - Conclusion

By reviewing the extant, relevant literature on coaching efficacy and coaching development, I have shown that the following gaps in the literature exist. Firstly, there is a under representation of studies on youth sport coaches (Wright et al., 2007) which includes studies on coach efficacy and the relationship between development and winning at the development level. This disproportionate research focus seems even more alarming when 80% of coaches within the UK coach children (North, 2009). Also, to date, a number of studies have been conducted on coaching efficacy within the United States or Canada which has provided a conceptual model of coaching efficacy (Feltz et al., 1999) and a number of links theory based external variables. As such the literature base is expanding regarding coaches' efficacy sources and outcomes. However, to my knowledge, only a small number of studies researching coaching efficacy have been conducted with participants

from the UK, Even though there may be similarities, this cannot be assumed and therefore a larger literature base for coaching efficacy sources and outcomes for coaches in the UK is needed.

The task of the coach has changed considerably over the past twenty years (Nash, Sproule & Horton, 2008). The modern day coach is torn by the pressure to produce a winning team. Even if coaches have a fair play ethic and a developmental philosophy, if their team is not winning, then they will often find themselves out of a job because winning percentages are often used as an indicator of coach effectiveness (Horn, 2008). As such, the role of a youth sport coach is complex and likely to vary within different contexts. However, whatever role a coach takes, Csikszentmihalyi et al. (1993) revealed that they are arguably the most crucial environmental catalyst in the talent development process. This holds true especially as it is recently understood that modern day coaches' behaviours can exert a powerful influence on children's experiences in youth sport (Sullivan et al., 2012). Therefore, understanding youth sport coaches behaviours and philosophy's is of key importance. By conducting a in depth qualitative investigation into the how developmental youth sport coaches learn game strategy efficacy I seek to address several of the aforementioned gaps in the literature.

Chapter 3 - Methodology

The current study has three purposes. Firstly, to explore coaches' perceptions of their abilities in leading athletes to success and what experiences have influenced their perceived competence (or game strategy efficacy). Secondly, to investigate the relationship between winning and development within the developmental youth sport context. Lastly, to discover whether the conclusions from previous studies apply to youth sport coaches within the UK. In recent years, the theoretical basis for qualitative inquiries in the applied health sciences has grown exponentially providing a more comprehensive and thoughtful body of work. As there is less constraint on these inquiries from journal and grant-panel reviewers who are unfamiliar with qualitative logic, there is more freedom to develop inductive designs within a wide range of methodological approaches (Thorne, Kirkham & O'Flynn-Magee, 2004). As a result, interpretive description (Thorne, Kirkham & MacDonald, 1997) has emerged within the health sciences. Interpretive description is an approach that is characterised by creating meaning (knowledge) through the interchange between researcher and participant and extending a form of understanding that is of practical importance to the applied disciplines (Thorne, 2008). Originally designed for and by nursing practitioners in the 1990s, interpretive description is a response to the imperative for informed action against the quantitative scientific approaches, which were insufficient for answering some of nursing's theoretical and practical questions, and the qualitative approaches, derived from other disciplines, that struggled to meet the unique demands of researchers (Thorne et al., 1997). As a result, interpretive description has found a place within the qualitative research methodologies alongside various other less prescriptive qualitative descriptive methodologies (Sandelowski, 2000) and also into areas such as sport, exercise and physical activity (e.g., Clark, Spence & Holt, 2011; Holt, Kingsley, Tink & Scherer, 2011).

3.1 - Interpretive Description

Dzurec (1998) stated that since traditional science orients itself toward the shared components of experience, it permits searching for population patterns, correlations, and tendencies among aggregates and therefore redirects focus away from a sense of individuals in context. For this reason, the popularity of qualitative research approaches within health sciences can be attributed to the increasingly confident critique of the limits of traditional science for developing the kinds of knowledge that are required for practice (Thorne et al., 1997). Gilbert and Trudel (2004a) show this trend in coaching science research, which has been overwhelmingly guided by a positivist epistemology, yet in recent

year's qualitative researchers have assumed a more prominent role. Gilbert and Trudel (2004a) suggest that this may be down in part to the calls made by researchers to conduct more qualitative research in sport and exercise sciences (e.g., coaching).

Pioneering qualitative researchers were reluctant to align themselves with descriptive scientific methods so they sought to locate their science within the legitimised philosophical and methodological projects of other disciplines (Morse, 1994a; Thorne, 2008). These qualitative researchers generally associated themselves with three disciplines for epistemological credibility: the phenomenological project within philosophy, the grounded theory project within sociology, and the ethnographic project within cultural anthropology (Thorne, 1991). However, in keeping with the disciplinary projects for which they were invented, phenomenology, grounded theory, and ethnography developed complex procedural rules regarding the use and application of their various approaches to inquiry. Therefore, rigid attention to methodological tradition became a primary hallmark of credible qualitative science and was also regarded as essential for rendering qualitative work meaningful within the larger academic health research context (Thorne, 2008) and therefore sport science research. Although this proved useful for some clinical questions, scholars began to find their inquiries inhibited by the dictates of the original disciplinary projects (Johnson, Long & White, 2001) and found themselves pushing at the edges of the methodological limits (Thorne, 1991). Some health researchers, in an attempt to search for methodological variance, went further afield to disciplines that held fewer governing rules, such as narrative inquiry, autoethnography, ethology, and case analysis. However, when used in an applied discipline context, these diverse approaches fell short in the same way as the traditional disciplines because the assumptions about knowledge and its creation were not applicable and sometimes contradictory to, scholarship in the applied context (Thorne, 2008).

Inevitably it became apparent that none of these approaches were compatible with the pragmatic demands of the applied disciplines, especially as it is almost impossible to suspend action until the issue under investigation is fully understood (Thorne, 2008). Predictably, scholars began explicitly articulating and implicitly adapting distinct methodological approaches designed to fit the kinds of complex experiential questions that they and other applied health researchers might be inclined to ask (Thorne et al., 2004). However, there was concern that studies would not maintain a set of standards and blur the distinctions between qualitative approaches or what some label "methodological slurring" (Baker, Wuest & Stern, 1992; Morse, 1989). Methodological slurring occurs when

there is no "degree of congruence between the research question (i.e., a researcher's assumptions about the nature of reality and how one might know reality) and the methods used to address the question" (Suddaby, 2006, p. 636). Although this concern may be a product of an obsession about methodological integrity, qualitative researchers were still encouraged to make explicit departures from the traditional disciplines and begin to name distinct methodological approaches so as to begin the process of legitimising them within the health discipline (Thorne et al., 1997). Thorne and colleagues (1997) addressed this by developing a noncategorical, highly interpretive approach that requires explication of theoretical influences, and an analytic framework that locates the interpretation within existing knowledge. As interpretive description is not guided in the form of one of the known qualitative methodologies, it is in danger of being labelled a generic qualitative research approach (Caelli, Ray & Mill, 2003) or a form of descriptive qualitative research (Sandelowski, 2000) and while these types of studies are needed within qualitative research, there are issues relating to the question of how to evaluate a qualitative study that does not associate itself with the traditional approaches (Caelli et al., 2003).

3.1.1 - Strengths and Limitations of Interpretive Description

In contrast to the murky territory of generic and descriptive qualitative research, interpretive description provides explicit philosophical underpinnings and a coherent and accessible logic to orient the design and implementation of an inquiry while establishing criteria for assessing rigor (Hunt, 2009). Within the texts published by Thorne and colleagues (Thorne et al., 1997; Thorne et al., 2004; Thorne, 2008), key questions regarding its philosophical alignment and epistemology commitments have been addressed while also guiding researchers with regards to areas of flexibility, specific considerations and strong suggestions for design choices and essential parameters for this methodology. On the other hand, interpretive description is a relatively new methodology and despite these texts researchers, especially within non-nursing disciplines (Teucher, 2011), have a scarcity of other resources for guidance (Hunt, 2009).

Central to interpretive description is the creation of a form of understanding that is of practical importance to the applied disciplines with an explicit relationship to a "pragmatic obligation" (p. 227) whereby researchers using this methodology must recognise that their findings might be applied in practice, even before there are "proven" (Thorne, 2008). To accomplish this, Thorne and colleagues (1997; 2004; 2008) provide a rationale for accounting for individual cases whilst identifying common experiences through patterns and variations that are made accessible in a way for practitioners. This

underlying pragmatism has not only gained popularity within nursing but other non-nursing researchers have begun to expand on its potential to address practice problems across the applied disciplines (Clark et al., 2011; Holt et al., 2011; Oliver, 2012). Although this concept suits the applied disciplines greatly, it leads into an issue regarding the amount of interpretation the researcher is developing which, when completed poorly, can limit the usefulness of the research findings and their practical application (Hunt, 2009). Consequently, the research outcomes would be less likely to inform and contribute to the advancement of knowledge within a particular domain so the researcher has to take risks in creating comprehensive interpretations of data (Morse, 1994a). However, in their second text Thorne and colleagues (2004) developed the analytic structures and provide further clarity for the logic, rationale, mechanisms and inductive approaches to interpretive description.

Within both qualitative and quantitative research areas, the matter of bias has been addressed in different ways. While quantitative researchers claim complete objectivity to their research, it is more complex for qualitative researchers. Unlike some qualitative methodologies that require the researcher to bracket preconceptions (Ray, 1994), interpretive description explicitly accounts not only for individual biases but disciplinary biases too (Thorne et al., 1997). Researchers are encouraged to complete thorough reflexive memos and to return to participants with provisional findings, which can increase rigor and trustworthiness (Sandelowski, 1986). Thorne and colleagues (1997) suggest that certain steps should to be taken for assuring that "the researcher bias or overenthusiasm has not systematically skewed the findings of the study" (p. 175) through repeated interviewing, with the same participants, which can create conditions whereby early conceptualisations are challenged through a different analytic lens. However, Morse (1994b) stated that the researcher is driving the interpretation, not the data or the study participants. Therefore, returning to participants could be fruitless to the final conceptualisations because they would be questioning the researchers' interpretations and not what was originally said. Instead, early conceptualisations, representing the entire sample rather than any individual participant, were brought to participants for their critical consideration and perspectives (Thore et al., 1997). As mentioned earlier, studies can be seen as credible if the research process, including biases, are made visible and transparent which is something Thorne and colleagues (1997; 2004; 2000; 2008) stress. For example, Thorne (2000) has encouraged researchers to articulate their findings in such a manner that the logical processes are accessible to the reader, the relation between the raw data

and the conclusions about the data is explicit, and claims made about the data set are rendered credible and believable.

3.1.2 - Philosophical Alignment

Despite concerns regarding the lack of epistemological and methodological grounding (Caelli et al., 2003) and "methodological slurring" (Morse, 1989), Thorne et al. (2004) states that "with a philosophical alignment with interpretive naturalistic orientations, interpretive description acknowledges the constructed and contextual nature of human experiences that at the same time allows for shared realities" (p. 5). Key axioms of naturalistic inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) provide philosophical underpinnings for interpretive description research designs, including: (a) there are multiple constructed realities that can be studied only holistically (e.g., Nelson et al., 2006). Thus, reality is complex, contextual, constructed, and ultimately subjective; (b) the inquirer and the "object" of inquiry interact to influence one another and co-construct or socially construct knowledge and, therefore, the knower and the known are inseparable; and (c) no *a priori* theory could possibly encompass the multiple realities that are likely to be encountered, instead theory must emerge or be grounded in the data. These ideas represent the epistemological foundation of interpretive description and although data collection and analysis procedures may differ between studies, these philosophical underpinnings ensure a coherence that distinguishes it from the inconsistencies of underlying assumptions characteristic of "methodological slurring" (Thorne, 2008; Thorne et al., 2004).

Closely linked to epistemology (i.e., the nature of knowledge) is ontology (i.e., the nature of the reality in which this knowledge exists) and axiology (i.e., the role of researcher values in the scientific process). Within interpretive description, the ontological assumptions suggest we must acknowledge participative reality-subjective-objective reality (i.e., participation forms the reality) that is co-created, shared, complex, multiple and contextual (Ponterotto, 2005). Unlike some qualitative methods that require the researcher to bracket preconceptions (Ray, 1994), within interpretive description it is acknowledged that 'it is the researcher who ultimately determines what constitutes data, which data arise to relevance, how the final conceptualisations portraying those data will be structured, and which vehicles will be used to disseminate the findings' (Thorne et al., 2004, p. 12). Therefore, it is essential to recognise that the researcher's values and lived experiences are intricately linked to the research process (Ponterotto, 2005).

Although not explicitly stated, interpretive description is closely linked with pragmatism. This is demonstrated in the overall goal of interpretive description (i.e.,

creating meaning [knowledge] through the interchange between the researcher and the participant whilst extending a form of understanding that is of practical importance to the applied disciplines: Thorne, 2008). Similarly, the intent of pragmatism is to apply knowledge to practical life settings with the purpose of improving the world (Maines, 1997). Since health, sport and exercise research have historically been affiliated with the application at the level of intimate individual experience, this "pragmatic obligation" is key to an interpretive description research design (Thorne, 2008).

3.1.3 - Theoretical Scaffolding

In contrast to the phenomenological framework that requires the researcher to make every effort to set aside preconceived ideas before entering the life world of another (Husserl, 1931), interpretive description requires 'sufficient grounding in the discipline to be able to discern its scope and boundaries, its angle of vision on problems of concern, and its philosophical underpinnings in relation to what constitutes knowledge' (Thorne, 2008, p. 67). Therefore, instead of requiring a formal conceptual framework, "theoretical scaffolding" (Thorne, 2008) constructed on the basis of critical analysis of the existing knowledge base represents an appropriate platform on which to build an interpretive description design (Thorne et al., 1997). Such a framework will drive the sampling, design (May, 1989) and analytic decisions, however, early conceptualisations will typically be challenged throughout the research process. Yet if the theoretical scaffolding is allowed to overwhelm the data collection and analysis processes, the overall research outcome could be in danger of becoming nothing more than a glorified content analysis (Thorne et al., 2004). In general, if the research findings are too similar to the theoretical scaffolding then it might just be a reflection of the researchers poor attempt to ask good questions and generate useful conceptualisations about the data which offer minimal, if any, new evidence about a phenomenon (Kearney, 2001). Therefore, the intellectual task of the researcher is to engage in a logical debate between theory and data that allows the theoretical scaffolding to be challenged and changed by the logic of the data (Thorne et al., 2004).

Originally labelled "analytic framework" (Thorne et al., 1997), theoretical scaffolding has two critical elements: (1) a review of literature; and (2) an explicit statement of the theoretical position of the researcher. Part one of my theoretical scaffolding can be read in the literature review and part two can be read below. The review of literature allows the reader to become familiar with and draws conclusions about the phenomenon under study by providing insight as to who has already studied it, how they

have gone about it, what problems they came across, and what sorts of conclusions have been made so far. The second element is a hallmark of qualitative research. In general, if ideas, thoughts, perspectives, or personal experiences are going to influence the research in any way then it is always best to explicitly state them so that they can be appropriately managed and accounted for (Thorne, 2008).

3.1.4 - Theoretical Position of the Researcher

As a researcher, my personal approach involves a constructivist theoretical orientation where knowledge is co-constructed (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This is because, in my opinion, knowledge is subjective and unique with every individual voice needing to be heard and not clustered together into objective groups. I have come to this understanding through my education at both undergraduate and postgraduate level. For example, I successfully completed 'research methods' modules, a 'postgraduate enquiry' module and an undergraduate dissertation that all required an understanding of a constructivist epistemology. I have also experienced both playing sport and coaching sport. These experiences have taught me that coaching, from a player and coach perspective, has a number of issues that need research attention. For example, as a player, I was not aware of how much influence my behaviour may have had on my coaches. Furthermore, as a coach, I felt as if I was not given the proper education on what may or may not affect my confidence. I have opinions, ideas and beliefs from both perspectives and when reading the literature surrounding these areas I can see gaps and inconsistencies that the author believes can be plugged through sound qualitative research. One specific issue I have with a lot of research in these areas is that of practical importance, or lack of, whereby the author thinks it is the duty of the research to translate their findings into something that can be used by the coaching population with ease. With regards to the present research, I have experience both negative and positive aspects when it comes to self-efficacy at both player and coach level. For example, as a player I had the unfortunate experience of a dislocated shoulder which stopped me playing for 18 months. During this time, and once I had begun playing again, my self-efficacy was extremely low which had a dramatic effect on my performance and behaviour. This experience (and more) led me to become interested in self-efficacy and I found it to be an important research topic. From reading the literature on coach efficacy I have an understanding of the theory and realised that the literature base needs expanding. Although both my personal experiences and readings have shaped my position on the subject of coach efficacy, as with interpretive description, I have left myself open to challenge and change my original conceptualisations as the study goes on. I first

came across interpretive description when a supervisor advised me to read Thorne (2008) to see whether or not I felt it was an appropriate methodology for answering my research questions. As I have a large amount of experience as both a player and coach, using methodologies I had previously adopted (i.e., Phenomenology) seemed inappropriate as I felt it would not be feasible to bracket my preconceptions (Ray, 1994). Therefore, I felt interpretive description, a methodology characterised by creating meaning (knowledge) through the interchange between researcher and participant and extending a form of understanding that is of practical importance to the applied disciplines (Thorne, 2008) was appropriate. One of the main reasons why I decided to utilise interpretive description is the idea that any piece of research utilising this methodology should be available for practical use within its applied discipline. In my opinion, not enough research translates across to youth sport coaches which is surprising as nearly 80% of coaches in the UK coach children (North, 2009).

3.2 - Participants and Sampling

Once the initial steps have been made, the researcher will need to begin to make concrete and explicit decisions about the study design as a lot of conceptual and intellectual work goes into the early planning stages for an interpretive description research project. As the foundation of interpretive description is the smaller scale qualitative investigation, such studies are usually built upon relatively small samples (Thorne et al., 2004). However, in most instances there will not be access to the theoretical whole "population" who have encountered the phenomenon being studied. Therefore, the researcher must select a subset and rationally justify why the sample is worth investigating and estimate what angle of opinion or perspective they are likely to be privileging or silencing (Thorne, 2008). Despite this, no research participants can ever represent the essence of a single variable and none other, therefore, misinterpretations of the contributions of individual participants can be fatal to the credibility of the data (Thorne et al., 1997).

As subjective material is key to interpretive description research, Thorne (2008) describes the goal of data collection is "figuring out an appropriate and defensible means by which to get as close to that subjective experience as you reasonably can so that you have a high probability of being able to access the kind of material that will allow you to answer your research question" (p. 125). As with other qualitative research, interpretive description contents that people who have lived with certain experiences are the best sources of expert knowledge about those experiences (Morse, 1989a). However, not all

people who have such experiences make good research participants and data sources (Morse, 1989b). For example, although some participants can be articulate, thoughtful, and eager to share, others can be more concrete and more comfortable with events rather than interpretations. Also, it is recognised that some participants can weave their recollections of subjective experience into their life narrative with can take an infinite number of themes and can be almost impossible to distinguish from the shared component of a subjective experience (Thorne et al., 1997).

Most qualitative research relies upon either purposive or theoretical sampling to identify which people or situations will become the central focus of the study (Kuzel, 1999), which is consistent within interpretive description research (Thorne et al., 2004). Purposive sampling is a technique in which the settings and specific individuals within those settings are recruited because they are willing to offer insight into an experience that could ultimately improve understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. As this technique identifies the main groupings or conditions needed to investigate a specific phenomenon, it can demonstrate credibility to the intended audience in the eventual findings (Thorne, 2008). Theoretical sampling, derived from grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), explicitly builds the sampling strategy from the evolving theoretical variations that emerge from the data as the study is being conducted. A key element of theoretical sampling is the idea of maximal variation whereby emerging themes and patterns are challenged by seeking out specific types of individuals or settings to distinguish what is emerging as anomalous or simply an unexplained characteristic of the current sample (Thorne, 2008).

The wide scope of qualitative enquiry presents the researcher with a number of choices regarding sampling. Selecting specific techniques can therefore be a somewhat daunting task, especially because often, there is no single, universally accepted 'correct' option (Draper & Swift, 2011). Within the methodology of interpretive description, samples are purposively and often theoretically generated, reflecting an awareness of expected and emerging variations within the phenomenon under study. Qualitative research samples are often small because the sample does not need to be large enough to support statements of prevalence or incidence since these are not the key concerns with qualitative research. This is concurrent with interpretive description research as such studies are built upon relatively small samples (Thorne et al., 2004). The basic principle of theoretical sampling is to select cases or case groups according to concrete criteria concerning their content which in this study, as the introduction

suggests, is developmental youth sport coaches. Trudel and Gilbert (2006) have provided a number of characteristics that describe the developmental sport-coaching context that was used as the sampling criteria in the current study, including;

- A formal competitive structure
- An increased commitment from athletes and coaches
- A stable relationship between athletes and coaches
- Athletes are selected based on skill tryouts
- Specialised sport-specific training for athletes
- Considered by some the primary context for talent identification to elite levels of sport performance

Individuals who were involved within the context described above for at least five years were then approached to take part in the study. Given that Burden (1990) suggested that professionals attain the stabilisation period of their development after five years of experience, this seemed appropriate for a minimum level of experience. Within the current study, a total of ten participants were interviewed (see Table 1). The sample consisted of participants currently either working or volunteering in a developmental youth sport club where a number of athletes regularly participated. The participants also had at least two years (and as much as eight years) practical experience of working within this context and had all undertaken formal education courses offered by their respected sporting governing bodies. Participants were purposively sampled based on the context in which they coached in (i.e., developmental), the amount of practical coaching experience they had (i.e., at least two years), what formal education courses they had undertaken (i.e., at least the minimum standard offered from their national governing body), and their willingness to partake in the study, in order to gain insight into the shared experiences of coaches within this specific context. All participants were approached by myself via email (see Appendix 1) and were invited to take part in the study. They were sent an initial information sheet (see Appendix 2) which briefly explained the purpose of the study and what their involvement would entail. Once participants agreed to take part, a convenient time and place was agreed for me to meet the participant to conduct the interview.

Table 1. Summary of participants

Participant	Age	Gender	Ethnic Background	Sport(s)	Coaching Experience	Qualification(s)
Coach 1	27	Male	White British	Rugby League	10 years	UKCC Level 2, RFL Level 2
Coach 2	58	Male	White British	Rugby League	37 years	RFU Level 2, FA Level 1, Swimming Level 1, AGA Coach, RFL Level 2
Coach 3	34	Male	White British	Rugby League/ Rugby Union	14 Years	RFU Level 3, RFL Level 2, currently undertaking RFL Level 3, A1 Qualified, CSLA, PGCE
Coach 4	32	Male	White British	Rugby League	12 years	RFL Level 2, Currently undertaking RFL Level 3
Coach 5	30	Male	White British	Karate	17 years	Level 2 NGB Award, Sport UK Work Shops, Sport UK Talent Breakfasts, PGCE
Coach 6	59	Male	White British	Football	15 years	FA Level 3
Coach 7	22	Male	White British	Football	6 years	UEFA B Goalkeeping, UEFA B Outfield, FA

Participant	Age	Gender	Ethnic Background	Sport(s)	Coaching Experience	Qualification(s)
						Youth Module 3
Coach 8	44	Male	White British	Rugby Union	14 years	RFU Level 3, Swimming Level 2, UKSCA Accredited S&C Coach
Coach 9	33	Male	Asian Caribbean British	Rugby Union	13 years	RFU Level 2, Currently undertaking UKCC Level 3
Coach 10	32	Male	White British	Football	10 years	FA Level 2

Once all ten interviews were completed, transcribed and analysed, a suitable level of data saturation had been reached. Data saturation is an end point whereby a thorough understanding of the phenomena under study is achieved (Kuper, Lingard & Levinson, 2008). Data saturation, introduced with grounded theory, has been appropriated by other qualitative approaches but unfortunately with limited discussion of its meaning (Caelli et al., 2003). Hence, within the context of the current study, once new participants no longer elicited trends or themes not already raised by previous participants, saturation had been reached and data collection ceased (Kuper et al., 2008).

3.3 - Procedure

For creative researchers within interpretive description there are in fact infinite possibilities for data collection (Thorne, 2008); however, studies often use such methods as interviews, focus groups, participant observation, and documentary analysis (Thorne et al., 2004). Deciding on which of these methods to utilise depends largely on a critical analysis of what is available to the researcher, what the nature of the information will likely be (e.g., strengths and limitations), and how much credibility it can offer as a foundation for findings that might derive from it (Thorne, 2008). Data collection methods derive logically from specific research questions, informed by the framework of what is already known about the phenomenon from a range of sources, and various options for these aspects are

understood as consistent with the objectives of interpretive description (Thorne et al., 2004).

As the current research is studying the meanings and subjective perceptions of coaches, it is appropriate to adopt the method of interviewing, a view that is consistent with previous literature within sport using an interpretive description methodology (Clark et al., 2011; Holt et al., 2011). Using interviews, qualitative research can help us understand the process by which events and actions occur (Strean, 1998). Semi-structured interviews were used because they allowed the use of an interview guide so that the interview can be structured while allowing the participants to move the interview in the direction they choose (Holt et al., 2011). A semi structured interview (see Appendix 3) was appropriate in this study because questions from an interview will launch discussion but it will not provide sufficient data for analysis. Instead, follow-up questions and the use of probes will be utilised to keep the participants talking to help them reveal their meanings and perceptions behind the area of interest (Fear & Chiron, 2002). Each participant was interviewed once with the option of second and third interviews if more data or clarification of concepts was required. The interview questions were devised from reading relevant literature in order to develop an appropriate data set whereby data analysis can occur. Before the final research questions were determined, a pilot study (Coach 1) was conducted to test whether or not the research method and instruments were appropriate (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). The interview lasted 60 minutes which gave the researcher the opportunity to analyse the questions used both in real time and afterwards via listening to the recording and reading the transcript. Data from this pilot study was included in the overall data set as the questions were the same during subsequent interviews. However, during the iterative cycle of data collection and data analysis, some interview questions were refined and changed (see Appendix 4) to challenge emerging concepts (Thorne et al., 1997). For example, the participants views on success.

The interviews themselves were conducted at locations predetermined by the participants to suit their convenience and comfort. As Lincoln and Guba (1985) identify with naturalistic inquiry, the knower and the known are interactive and inseparable. Therefore, it is important to establish a relationship between participant and researcher through building comfort, trust, and rapport. On arrival, a preliminary discussion was held to inform the participants of what would exactly happen over the course of the interview, its relevance to the research study, to gain informed consent (see Appendix 5), to provide assurance of full confidentiality and anonymity, reassure

their right to cease from the study at any time without penalty, and to answer any questions the participants may have. The interviews were digitally recorded and lasted between 30 and 75 minutes (see Table 2). However, due to time constraints, one interview only lasted 15 minutes. Yet the data obtained was still included in the study because it offered important insights to the area under study.

Table 2. Summary of Interview Length

Participant	Total Interview Time (minutes)
Coach 1 (pilot)	60
Coach 2	75
Coach 3	46
Coach 4	42
Coach 5	35
Coach 6	39
Coach 7	15
Coach 8	37
Coach 9	35
Coach 10	38

To begin with, questions were asked to attempt to relax and build a rapport with the participants whilst also trying to encourage them to begin discussing their experiences. Questions asked included: "What kind of playing career did you have?" "What were your best moments?" "What coaching philosophy do you employ to your athletes?" Following these, questions were then directed towards the purpose of the study (i.e., to explore coaches' perceptions of their abilities in leading athletes to success and what experiences have influenced their perceived competence). These included: "How do you manage your athletes during a game/match?" "What strategies do you take to maximise your athletes' strengths during a game/match?" "What are you like at making decisions under pressure?" "How do your athletes react to your decisions?" "Does this affect your confidence?" "What else affects your confidence?" Once data analysis had begun, questions were added to further explore emerging patterns and themes. An example question is "How would you define success as a coach?" When participants responded to all these questions, probes such as "Can you give me an example of that?" and "How did that affect your confidence?" were used to keep the participants talking. During each interview, I was aware of my own bias and

decided, when appropriate, to open a discussion regarding my own opinions. However, this was never done *before* the participants gave their own opinion which avoided the participant simply copying my own opinions. Each interview was transcribed verbatim immediately after each interview to allow for the iterative data analysis process to happen (see section 'Data Analysis' for further explanation). I took notes while transcribing each interview to highlight initial concepts that warranted further investigation. This is a technique called memoing that is encouraged not only in interpretive description (Thorne et al., 1997) but also in qualitative research (Birks, Chapman & Francis, 2008). Birks and colleagues (2008) suggest that taking notes, or memoing, allows the researcher to "immerse themselves in the data, explore meanings that this data holds, maintain continuity and sustain momentum in the conduct of research" (p.69). This was also done while reading and re-reading the transcripts so as to build on the initial concepts previously highlighted, both of which informed any new questions in subsequent interviews.

3.4 - Data Analysis

Although it is seen as the most difficult aspect of the research process, generating new constructions through data analysis is also the most crucial element in producing a credible interpretive description study (Thorne, 2008). In keeping with the qualitative tradition, interpretive description uses an inductive rather than deductive analysis technique. The latter technique and pitfalls, such as content analysis, premature coding and complex coding systems, can privilege superficial understandings at the expense of deeper and more meaningful understandings whilst also overwhelming the researcher to the point that inductive interpretation becomes almost unthinkable (Thorne et al., 1997). These problems have been associated with an over emphasis on the technical rather than the theoretical or epistemological aspects of the methods employed (Lowenberg, 1993). Parallel to all interpretive research processes, data collection and analysis within interpretive description inform one another iteratively and, therefore, the shape and direction of the inquiry evolves as new possibilities arise and are considered. The researcher must remain sceptical of initial conceptualisations and begin to use data collection as a way of challenging, rather than reinforcing, these notions. As a result, the researcher needs to search out alternative linkages, exceptional instances, and contrary cases to broaden conceptual linkages. In other words, the researcher must engage in dialectic between theory and data that allows *a priori* theory to be changed by a coherent, logical and rich interpretation (Thorne et al., 2004). For example, a common concept within

sport is 'success equals winning' (i.e., scoring more points than an opponent) and 'failure equals losing' (Cumming, Smoll, Smith & Grossbard, 2007). However, when discussing what success meant to him, Coach 4 stated that 'success would be lads progressing on to the next level'. Within this quote the idea of success had no reference to points scoring or winning games. As a consequence, the notion that success may not purely be about scoring more points than an opponent was highlighted and challenged in subsequent interviews and data analysis.

Although there are a range of analytic strategies available from the bodies of methodological literature in which interpretive description derives, the precise methods described by, for example, ethnography, grounded theory or phenomenology, are not specifically designed to be used within interpretive description and are therefore unlikely to be fully sufficient in answering research questions. Instead, a rigorous analytic process is adopted to carefully navigate within and beyond the original theoretical scaffolding so as to fully engage the processes of inductive reasoning and conceptualising an ordered and coherent final product (Thorne et al., 2004). Morse (1994b) described a number of steps in the analytic process within an interpretive study which comprised comprehending data, synthesising meanings, theorising relationships, and reconceptualising data into findings (see Table 3).

Table 3. Example of Analytic Process

Quote (Coach 6): ...and let them get on with it. so I think I've got a lot more confidence...I think as my abilities as a coach has got better and I think I'm a much better coach than I used to be uhh as I progress umm I think I have much more confidence in the guys who are playing the match than I did have before...does that make sense? Yeah so I tend not to try and influence or be a part of it in a big way, I just think 'right let them do it, they know what they're doing let them get on with it'	
Comprehending data	There are five important parts to this quote: (1) the perception of his abilities improving, (2) his confidence increasing as his abilities improve, (3) more confidence in his athletes, (4) he is not trying to influence the game as he used to and as a result, (5) lets his athletes get on with it.
Synthesising meanings	As the perception that he is improving as a coach increases, his confidence in his own

	abilities and his athletes' abilities also increases. As a result, he reduces the amount of influence he tries to exert onto a match.
Theorising relationships	There is a relationship between the coaches' confidence and the attempted influence on a match.
Reconceptualising data into findings	As a coach's confidence in his own abilities increases, he releases the amount of control he perceives himself to have.

Morse (1994b) also suggests that it is essential for the researcher to recognise that they are driving the interpretation, no matter how participatory and collaborative the method is, neither the data nor the study participants have their own "voice". Needless to say, it is ultimately the researcher who decides what constitutes data, which data is relevant, how the final conceptualisations will be structured, and how these will be presented (Thorne et al., 2004). As mentioned earlier, the technique of memoing (Birks et al., 2008) was employed to determine what data is meaningful. By using memos, data was sorted into themes that were less rigid that traditional coding structures (Thorne, 2008). This enabled the researcher to put forward a number of themes that could be explored, challenged and conceptualised. In addition, within the current study and as with many qualitative analytic strategies, an approach called constant comparative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was adopted. Although originally developed for use within the grounded theory methodology, the concept involves taking a piece of data (i.e., one interview, one statement, one theme) and "comparing it with all others that may be similar or different in order to develop conceptualisations of the possible relations between various pieces of data" (Thorne, 2000, p. 69). As the present study is focussed on creating knowledge that is interpretive, this analytic strategy is appropriate because it allows the researcher to develop ways of understanding human phenomena within the context in which they are experienced (Thorne, 2000). Consequently, as with all qualitative research, the researcher must be honest and prudent (Emden, Hancock, Schubert, & Darbyshire, 2001) and take a risk by committing to, and taking ownership of, interpreting the data in the analytic process (Sandelowski & Barosso, 2002). However, this dependence on interpretation does mean that an interpretive description study cannot claim 'facts' but rather 'constructed truths' (Thorne et al., 2004) because "no set of standards against which we measure our procedures and outcomes can fully account for the notions of truth or even

representativeness within the real world, or ensure complete confidence that any research findings are indeed entirely valid" (Thorne, 2008, p. 229).

3.5 - Methodological Rigour

As with all qualitative methods, issues of rigor and credibility are at the forefront in an interpretive description study so the worth of the final outcomes are not simply based on the researchers claims (Thorne & Darbyshire, 2005) and there have been certain steps taken throughout the research process to ensure there is a quality to the procedures and outcomes (Thorne, 2008). Some researchers refer to an 'audit trail' whereby sufficient information about the decisional processes (i.e., the logic in which the data exists in the way it does and the analytic process) that were made during the research process are provided as a requisite to the credibility of the study (Thorne, 2008). A number of guides have been created to assist this process by presenting a number of attributes such as trustworthiness and transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). However, presenting such attributes has been highlighted as quite meaningless (Long & Johnson, 2000; Sandelowski, 1993). Rather, the "credibility of the findings will derive largely from the way the specific analytic decisions are presented and contextualised within the larger picture" (Thorne et al., 2004, p. 15). It has been suggested that credibility occurs when the research process, especially the analytic process, and all its complexities are made visible and transparent while articulating an openness that acknowledges a certain hesitance regarding the final research outcomes (Caelli et al., 2003; Emden & Sandelowski, 1999). In their original paper on interpretive description (Thorne et al., 1997), Thorne and colleagues highlighted the issue of bias. They suggested that "attempts to eliminate all biases are naïve" and recommend that the researcher "explicitly account for the influence of bias upon the research findings as much as possible" (p. 175). The easiest biases to challenge are causal assumptions (i.e., predictors used to develop recommendations and solutions; Brookfield, 1995) by rigorously challenging the decision-making process to uncover the assumptions and biases that control the decision-making process. For example, having been involved in sport for a number of years where the philosophy was 'success equals winning', the author began by assuming that my research participants would adopt a similar set of values. During data collection and analysis, however, the author came to challenge his own assumptions as what was beginning to emerge from respondents in terms of value structures was different. More specifically, the author had identified a key assumption within his own bias but did not fully account for the impact it could have on the study itself because the assumption was left out (unconsciously) of any questioning on the subject of

'success equals winning'. Yet with the inclusion of an audit trail (Thorne, 2008) and constant comparison analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), the author was able to identify these biases and therefore not allow them to compromise the research.

Furthermore, while conducting another piece of research with a sample which were again extremely similar to the author (i.e., rugby player), biases were challenged through conducting a number of interviews, analysing these interviews and holding critical discussions with another author working on the study. This process was on-going over a number of months and gave the author an opportunity to understand and expose the key biases that could have had an influence of the current study. The identification and exposure of biases is also outlined within Hermeneutic phenomenology (Heidegger, 1962) whereby one needs to become aware as possible and account for unavoidable interpretive influences. The argument being that all understanding is connected to an individual's background or historicality (Laverty, 2003). Subjective biases on the part of the researcher may also be imbedded in practical disciplines which may, in turn, influence the kinds of questions that the researcher may ask, the way in which they are asked, and the methods that are used. For example, researchers adopting interpretive description as a methodology acknowledge that the contexts which both the participants and the researcher occupy are important in creating meaning (knowledge; Thorne, 2008). Although this may raise concerns regarding the objectivity of the claims made, it is the visibility and transparency of the processes that provides credibility (Caelli et al., 2003; Emden & Sandelowski, 1999).

3.6 - Ethical Considerations

Ethical approval for the current study has been obtained from the University of Gloucestershire ethics panel. Before the participants took part, they were made aware of the research objectives and informed as to the rationale for the study itself and were allowed to ask any questions they had. The participants were also guaranteed full confidentiality and anonymity and reminded that they are taking part in this study voluntarily and able to cease taking part, without penalty, at any time. As all the participants were all over the age of 18, then voluntary, informed content could be obtained. The data collected complied with the Data Protection Act (The National Archives, 2011) and was kept in a locked room at all times. Only when the participants were comfortable with contributing to the study and felt that everything had been explained to their satisfaction, did the interviews commence.

Chapter 4 - Results

The current study has three purposes. Firstly, to explore coaches' perceptions of their abilities in leading athletes to success and what experiences have influenced their perceived competence (or game strategy efficacy). Secondly, to investigate the relationship between winning and development within the developmental youth sport context. Lastly, to discover whether the conclusions from previous studies apply to youth sport coaches within the UK. Data highlight sources and outcomes of coach efficacy within the UK developmental youth sport context, which both supported previous findings and identified novel features specific to this context. Results demonstrate coaches' views on the relationship between winning and success is within this context, which challenges common notions surrounding the concept. Using the sources and outcomes identified (see Table 4 for a list of sources and outcomes with inclusion criteria and examples), results are first summarised and presented as two, fictional coaches; John, who has high game strategy, and Andrew, who has low game strategy efficacy. The rationale behind this is to stay true to Thorne's (2008) original definition of interpretive description. More specifically, extending a form of understanding that is of practical importance to the applied disciplines which is in this case, coaches. I chose two examples to demonstrate the extremes of coaches that are in high and low game strategy efficacy. There are so many degrees of game strategy efficacy that sit between 'high' and 'low' that it would be impossible to present all of them so these two examples are offered to demonstrate the differences between coaches that are high and low in game strategy efficacy and not the infinite possibilities in between. In addition, by presenting a summary of the results to coaches as two fictional coaches, it is also presented as a bricolage (Denzin, 2003; Kincheloe & Berry, 2004; Steinberg, 2011). Kincheloe, McLaren and Steinberg (2011) suggest that bricolage "implies the fictive and imaginative elements of the presentation of all formal research" (p.168). Results are then displayed in Figure 2 to offer the reader the chance to see all the sources and outcomes of game strategy efficacy that emerged from data analysis. Following this, presented are the individual sources and outcomes with examples from the raw data so the reader can follow my interpretations.

4.1 - John

John is high in game strategy efficacy. He is a 34 year old youth sport coach working in the development context. He has a level two qualification in his sport while working on his level three and as such, believes he has a high level of *knowledge*. These qualifications have been obtained over a 14 year coaching career. Together with his long,

established playing career, he believes he has a large amount of *previous experience* that contributes to the confidence he has in leading his athletes to what he refers to as, *success*. However, in this sense, *success* challenges the common notion of simply scoring more points than an opponent, or, winning. Although John felt that winning was still important, he valued athlete development more (which is what he calls *success*).

Throughout his coaching career, John has received various amount of *acknowledgement* from sources such as his athletes, peers and community, which has added to his game strategy efficacy. The degrees of this *acknowledgement* ranges from a simple "thank you" from one of his athletes to his entire community backing him when times were hard and he had a rift with his employers (i.e., club director) at his club. Another long term contributor to John's game strategy efficacy is the *results* he has witnessed first-hand. More specifically, *results* in this sense relate to visually observing the outcome of an aim or a goal which is more often than not his athletes executing a skill, showing understanding of why they are doing it or simply developing as athletes.

John has had a number of affiliations over the years but the two most significant to contribute to the confidence he has in leading his athletes to success are his *relationships with athletes* and his *relationships with peers*. Both these relationships are multidimensional in nature which means that athletes and peers can have an effect on coaches' confidence and vice versa. During his time as a coach, John's game strategy efficacy has been increased as a result of the support and positive feedback he has received from his peers. Although the same has increase in his game strategy efficacy has happened from his relationships with his athletes, he feels more of an increase in game strategy efficacy from the support and feedback from peers. The increases in John's game strategy efficacy in these relationships are from actual encounters with his athletes and peers. However, John's *self-image* affects his game strategy efficacy through his perception of himself or how he believes his athletes and peers perceive him. In this sense, John perceives himself as a good coach who is able to lead his athletes to success and believes his athlete and peers feel the same way.

As a result of John's high game strategy efficacy, he has two specific coaching behaviours. Firstly, John has come to realise that not everything within his sport and his team can be influenced by him. For example, during a game John does not try to influence the referee, instead, he leaves his athletes to win the game for themselves because he is confident that he has prepared his athletes to succeed. John gives his athletes a lot more independence (i.e., independent learning) when it comes to their own training and has

actually decided to accept influence (i.e., feedback from athletes) from the athletes themselves rather than trying to control every aspect of their development. In addition to *releasing control*, John's high game strategy efficacy has allowed him to practice *self-evaluation*. This means that when something has gone wrong with his athletes' performances, John has chosen to reflect, evaluate and change his own strategies and tactics rather than blaming the athletes themselves. In other words, John has the confidence to change the way he is leading his athletes to success, rather than sticking to a coaching practice that is not showing the results he wants and blaming his athletes for the lack of success.

4.2 - Andrew

Andrew is low in game strategy efficacy. He is younger than John at 25 and has been coaching in the developmental youth sport context for six years, eight less than John. Andrew has not had an illustrious playing career (i.e., short and at amateur level) which, when combined with his limited amount of coaching experience, has led him to believe he has only a small amount of quality *previous experience*. Andrew holds a level two qualification. He is not pursuing any higher levels or any other qualifications. Although he believes he has some level of *knowledge*, because he does not feel it is that high, he questions himself on the decisions he makes which contributes to his low game strategy efficacy. However, even though Andrew is not hugely confident in leading his athletes to *success*, he holds the view that *success* is about the development of his athletes and not just about winning games.

During Andrews's coaching career, he has rarely had any *acknowledgment* from his athletes and peers which has added to his low game strategy efficacy. Andrew has seen some *results* (i.e., visually observing the outcome of an aim or a goal) but not as many as he would have hoped. Throughout his coaching career, Andrew has had a number of relationships with *athletes* and *peers*. However, most of these have not always been positive. Andrew has not received the support and feedback from his peers, athletes and club that he would have liked which has lowered his game strategy efficacy. Also, as a result of poor *relationships with peers*, his *self-image* is particularly negative. In particular, he feels that his peers judge him when they watch him and talk behind his back (even though there is no proof of this) which causes him to question the ability to lead his athletes to *success.*

A consequence of Andrew's low game strategy efficacy is that he behaves in certain ways relating to his coaching. Andrew feels that it is not enough to simply prepare his

athletes to succeed through training and matches during a season. He feels he needs to try and influence (or perceive to influence) as much as he possibly can. For example, he shouts at referees and opposition players and coaches to try and influence their decisions to suit him. Andrew believes he must not *release control* of any aspect of his sport and his team which includes mapping every aspect of his athletes' development (i.e., taking away their independence). In addition, when something goes wrong with his athletes' performance either in training or during matches, he immediately blames them. For example, if his athletes fail to perform a drill as he would like, Andrew would blame them rather than being *self-evaluative* and analysing his own coaching practices.
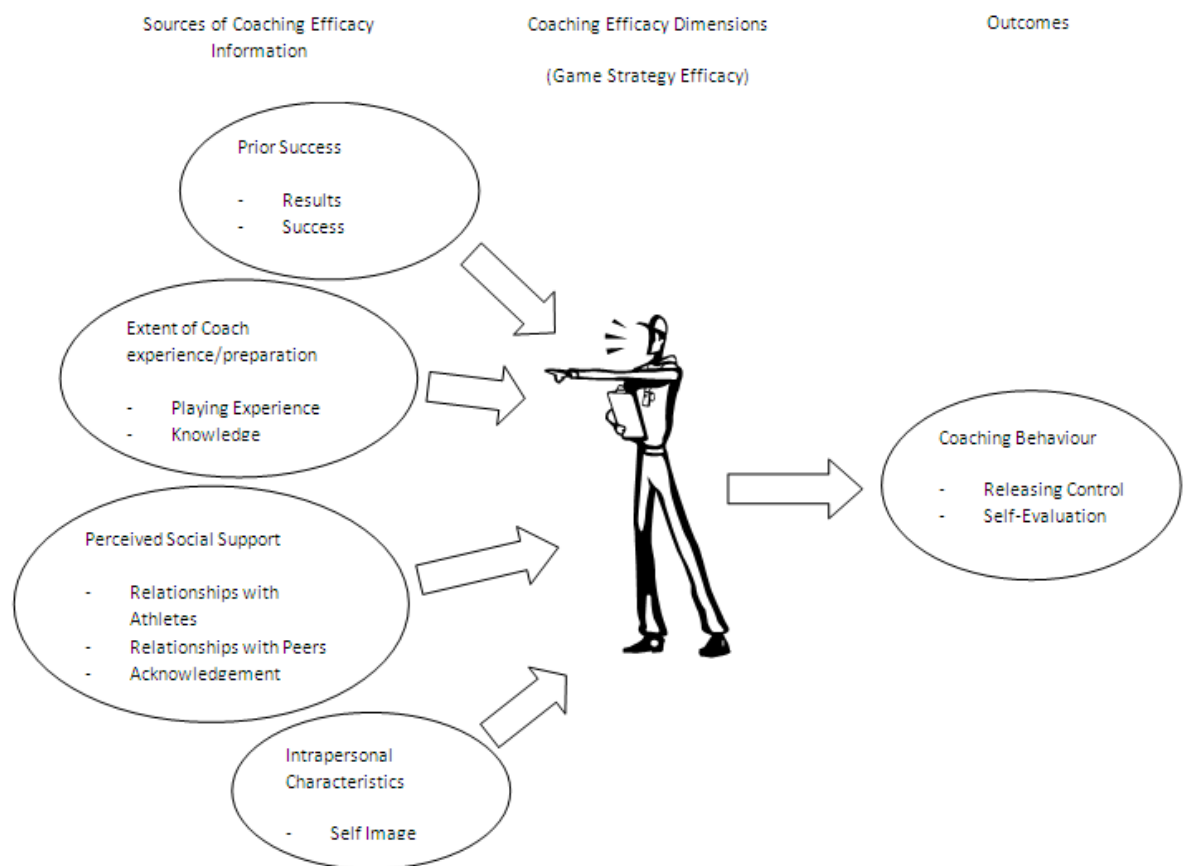

Figure 2. Summary of Results

4.3 - Sources of Game Strategy Efficacy

A number of sources of coaching efficacy emerged from the data that both support previous findings and highlight novel conceptualisations (see Table 4). As demonstrated above with John and Andrew, these are sources of both high and low game strategy efficacy.

4.3.1 - Success

> *Inclusion criteria: A process that is inherently enjoyable and fun, which leads a demonstration of the acquisition and development of knowledge or a new skill.*

The primary purpose of this study was to explore coaches' perceptions of their abilities in leading their athletes to success and what experiences have influenced their perceived competence. Therefore, it was important to explore coaches' views and descriptions of what "success" means to them. Although this result fits into the 'prior success' source of coach efficacy in the original model (Feltz et al., 1999), the descriptions of success are both quite different and should therefore be kept separately until further research can investigate which description is more appropriate. To begin with, questions asked within the first three interviews made no specific mention of "success" or its definition. However, patterns began to emerge that required me to question what exactly coaches meant when discussing "success". When asked about his coaching philosophy (Q: What coaching philosophy do you try and employ to your athletes?), Coach 1 explicitly states his version of winning, yet it is not in the traditional sense:

> [3]48-22 [losing score]...you get beat by that score, you think "oh that must have been horrible" but if you've picked up something in your game which you never learnt before and you've picked up something that's gunna make you a better player and something that's gunna make the game more enjoyable to you, that's a win.

When asked about the debate around 'winning versus developing players' in the developmental context (Q: It's just interesting in your context as well, the development context, is there's that contradiction of winning and have to win every time compared to developing players and...), Coach 1 gave examples of players that had progressed to higher levels of sport under his guidance:

> I love doing the development side of stuff. I'd rather...like one of the proudest things in terms of coaching, it wasn't winning the stuff that we did last year...it's actually the likes of [name] and [name] and who else was there? [name] played for us and trained a couple of times...who else is there? [name] and [name] I think they're gunna go onto [club name]. It's seeing them guys, taking them from one year, like [name] especially because sure he's got a natural talent, couple of fine

---

[3] Please note all indented paragraphs are direct quotes from the participants.

tweaks into his rugby league game and he's playing semi pro in one year of rugby league.

The above statement clearly shows that this coach is proudest when players are moving on to higher levels than he is currently coaching at, not winning. However, it would be interesting to investigate whether or not he concentrates on these players more than others who may not be immediately progressing (Millar, Oldham & Donovan, 2011). When probed further on the examples above (Q: So you take more satisfaction out of that [developing players] than winning?), the coach gave himself an ultimatum which reflects his interests:

Yeah if someone turned round to me and said 'you can win every game' or they turned round to me and said 'you can win a couple of games but everybody turns in week in week out and they enjoy it, everybody takes something from it that they enjoy and they can look back on'…I'm happy with that.

Although the coach suggests winning is not that important to him, in his ultimatum, winning is still an option on both sides. Therefore, it would be interesting to see whether or not he still felt like this when his team was not winning.

Coach 2 supported this latter view when he suggested that, although still important, winning is a by-product of enjoyment and core skills (Q: Do you think those [playing] experiences have shaped your coaching?): "Obviously then winning and it's not that I don't think winnings important but I don't think you can win if players don't enjoy it and if they don't have the core skills." Furthermore, while stating his coaching philosophy (Q: What coaching philosophy do you try and employ?), the coach backed up this concept: "So for kids it's enjoyment but it's getting the you know, skill levels up." Within this coach's philosophy, it seems like he has prioritised the development of core skills and enjoyment over winning. While discussing the concept of having no scores within games (Q: Would it be fair to say that within the development context, it would almost in your eyes rather be better if there was no scores in games?), Coach 3 openly stated that it "would be brilliant." He gave an example of when the score line became less important than developing his athletes' weaker skills:

Right, well a good example of…my director of rugby, my lads were playing against a side, really close competition and I told them I don't want you to kick anything at goal…but we're not taking any 3 points…because that's

one player, who's gunna kick at goal and he will...he might develop his kicking but as a group you're not gunna develop as players, you're not gunna develop in game situations and our weakness at the moment is not being able to put a pattern together or put a series of plays together that, where you're weak at pass and catch isn't strong, lets practice that, let's not practice one lad on the pitch kicking...and when I got back my coach went, my director went "but you've gotta win, you've gotta win" and I went "why? I'm the only person who's gunna remember that game"...and the only reason why I'll remember it is because of this...I'd probably forgotten about it if I hadn't actually thought about what he said, he went "you've gotta win, take the three" and I was like "no...that's not developmental for them."

This specific example suggests that this coach not only states that score lines are less important than player development, but he actually practices it. This means he is not just suggesting he values player development over winning without actually doing it. Coach 3 also felt that there should be rewards for success on both teams, not just the victors:

I think you need to reward for success...so...umm...I know what you mean [no scoring games] but there does need to be some sort of reward for success but I think that rewards for success should be on both teams.

Although what this coach describes seems like more of an aspiration rather than something he currently practices. Coach 4 was the first interviewee to be specifically asked his views and opinions on the definition of success (Q: How would you define success as a coach?) to which he replied: "success would be lads progressing on to the next level...umm so it's more of a long term sort of success." This concept of developing their athletes to higher levels of sport was consistent across all the subsequent interviews when asked the same question. For example, Coach 10 discussed tracking his athletes' progress and using what standard they achieve as a gage of success:

I would look at the individual player umm how they've developed umm I would look at whether they were fortunate to go into the professional or the non-league umm non-league game as such. I would see their development as a player as success, that's how I would gage it...rather than umm a whole team success more than anything so even though it is a

team game, you would probably look at those individual players and if possibly you had I don't know, seven players called up for a county squad, I would see that as a success. I would look to more than being successful than to...umm you're winning five trophies in one year and what have you uhh I see it slightly differently possibly.

Although this coach saw players progressing as a success, it would be interesting to see if he saw players not progressing as a failure however this topic is too large and delicate to be the subject of a simple probe. Although he may be likely to state that is not the case, it would still be interesting to find out his views on this. Coach 7 also spoke about improving his athletes to a higher standard but he added improving individuals in general would constitute as a success:

Seeing your athletes progress...umm...I don't think it maybe needs to be...seeing someone coming through a system and then playing professionally, I think maybe if you've made a difference to that individual umm...so if you've seen someone come in, you've stared working with them and they're not so good but then you've worked with them and they've progressed and they're now a good player, I think that's a success. But then obviously you've got your success of working with someone who, maybe they go through to get a professional contract and then maybe progress into international and then obviously that's a massive success.

Unlike Coach 10, this coach describes how not only does he consider players progressing to higher levels as a success, but also players improving in general which suggests that he focuses on all of his athletes development and not just the high achievers. This description of all his players' improvement and two different types of success is reiterated by Coach 8:

For me coaching at development it is...whether, really whether I can significantly improve a player. Now you know that might be getting, we get a huge kick if we can get [name] into England under 18s or England under 20s umm same with [name]. But obviously they're a very small percentage, so even the boys below that if I can get players umm...from the college to get into the [club name] first team, that's a very high standard, that's national league rugby and for me that's a success. Umm...if I see some of my boys from the development second team playing for the fourths on Saturday, that gives me a buzz as well because

they're still playing rugby. It means they've enjoyed it when they've been coaching and they wanna carry it on and that's...that's a big part of my role at [college name] as well, it's to make sure whatever the standard the boys keep playing...there's obviously, there's a big attrition rate of guys in their late teenagers that drop out of the sport. So, all of those things really...difficult to define one of those but all of those I would consider a success.

In addition to the above statements, Coach 9 supported Coach 8's concept that continuity was also important for his success as a coach which suggests that athlete burnout (Harris & Watson II, 2011) is an issue he wishes to try and fix:

Umm...basically continuity, so if players leave here and quit playing rugby then that's not successful. If they leave here and they carry on playing until they, you know, they stop because of injury or they stop because of work or whatever reason, you know they finish their career, that's success. So as long as they leave here and they carry on playing rugby, they're taking away the stuff that we taught them, then that's a success.

4.3.2 - Playing Experience

Inclusion criteria: Playing experiences that have a direct, or thought to have a direct, effect on perceived coaching knowledge which in turn affects coaching skills, methods, styles, behaviours and/or future practices

The coaches' playing careers seemed to have a direct effect on their current coaching skills, methods, practices and behaviour. Simply having a number of positive experiences let the coaches to believe they are coaching the correct way. Most notably, negative experiences led coaches to do the exact opposite on the justification that they did not enjoy it or think it was right (Gearity & Murray, 2011). Although not part of Feltz and colleagues (1999) source of coach efficacy 'past experience', this result suggests that playing experience should be part of that source. When asked if their playing career directly affected their coaching, the majority of coaches agreed that it did (Q: How has your playing career affected your coaching?). Coach 3 suggested his coaching ethos is similar to his playing ethos:

Uhh...yeah massively yeah, I don't know whether its affected it...well...umm...but because it was from a very personal point of view...how I wanted to be treated and how I felt and I was quite different from a lot of people...so maybe I don't know

whether that's how everyone wants to be treated if you know what I mean? Because I was quite a selfish, not selfish, I was quite sort of...independent. Umm and maybe that's how I coach. I want them to be independent and I want them to be...self-sufficient.

Equally, Coach 5 and Coach 7 said their playing career allowed them to find out what they do and do not like as athletes. Coach 5 said:

Yeah I would say it's definitely informed me, it's let me know what I like and don't like as an athlete but also its allowed me to try different things because I've had lots of exposure to different coaches, try things and see if they work and I know if they work for me.

Coach 7 said: "In terms of...knowing...how players sort of react to certain things. So I know if when I was playing and I didn't like doing something and I asked them to do it, that I would get the same sort of response as how I was when I was sort of playing." Some of the coaching practices (i.e., what coaches do: Cushion, Armour & Jones, 2003) used by the coaches were a direct result of having negative experiences as players. The coaches therefore did not want to recreate that for their current athletes. For example, while an athlete, Coach 1 described seeing a young coach cry because he lacked practical experience (Q: What do you think of the classroom, theory based nature of coaching programmes and coaching awards?): "I've heard them referred to as text book jockeys and I've seen a lad cry when he's called that." As a result, he believes he needs this practical experience to be an effective coach:

It's difficult because you have to...you still have to relate to players. And if you can't relate to a player because you've, everything you know about the game is been done through reading text books and watching videos...you don't know what they're like in that position, you don't know how its gunna feel.

He added (What do you think it [practical experience] helps?):

Umm like I said, just relating to the people that you're coaching...to be able to relate to people, you'd say like "I've been in your situation, I know how it feels". It sort of makes...you tend to get slightly better responses than "you do this" "why?" "Page 62 of this book told me that you have to, that I have to tell you to do that."

This coach went on to describe how he transfered his experiences from playing to coaching and vice versa in order to direct his athletes in an appropriate way, suggesting he used his mastery experiences (Bandura, 1977) as coaching knowledge (Rushall, 2004).

While discussing performing his coaching drills himself, he said (Q: Would you say that they're quite important experiences for coaches to have, playing, doing the drills themselves, having the experience of other people coaching you and picking that up?):

Yes...yeah definitely because if you didn't have experience doing it as a player...it's difficult to transfer it over, you can give the best technical advice in the world but if you've never done it yourself or you've never had to do it yourself...you don't know what that feels like. I'm in a pretty lucky position where I've played a few games after coaching...you sort of apply what you think you know and you may be coaching them to do something, you then go and try and do it yourself like I said in a real time situation and you'll find out "you know what that doesn't actually work" or "that doesn't work for me" and you see people that are similar to you and you'll say "I can understand why they don't do it now because it doesn't work for them". So I think I'm lucky that I can kind of transfer the skills between the two and can take stuff from playing and take it back to coaching and take stuff from coaching and take it into playing, so I think I'm pretty lucky in that respect.

Coach 8 described his hatred of doing the same drills in training over and over as a player and how he had changed this in his own coaching practices (Q: Do you think its [playing career] affected your coaching in any way?):

Umm...I liked...too...try and make my sessions enjoyable, I like variety...umm...so even though we might be working on different things like obviously with rugby handling is massively important...so we'll produce lots of little games and drills, different ones for handling. For example, if we want to focus on...certain aspects of playing, run conditioned games, we'll try and change them up a bit so the boys aren't "oh it's the same thing" because that's what I hated...umm...as a player, turning up on a Tuesday or a Thursday and just running the same things all the time...so...that umm is how it affects me.

Negative experiences shaping subsequent practices is something that has received research interest in areas such as sport (Gearity & Murray, 2011), and also relates back to Bandura's (1977) suggestion of the influence of past performance experiences on self-efficacy. The following quotes back up this research and suggest that youth sport coaches go through the same process. Coach 5 remembered when he competed and had feelings towards a coach who was not in control (Q: When maybe you're under a bit of pressure as a coach in match situations, how do you feel you are at making decisions?):

Umm...I think quite good actually. I think because I'm...I'm very much aware that if I was on the mat and I looked back to my corner and someone was you know in a state, how that would make me feel so I think sometimes its keeping it internal and manifesting calm.

In addition, Coach 9 remembered back to his playing days and how he was poorly managed as a player which, as a result, made him very aware of player management as a coach (Q: How do you think those [playing] experiences helped your coaching?):

Umm good as in knowing how...to manage players a bit better, I didn't really sort of think I was perhaps managed...having known what I know now in the academy and how we do stuff, things were done a lot different then because, like now it's more about player development rather than when I was in the academy it was more about winning games and playing as a squad and stuff like that. Whereas now we have much more focus on like here for example we'll do an hour of weights and conditioning and then we'll do skills and sort of...unique skills and other rugby stuff outside for an hour as well. We'd use the gym, we'd do everything but it was more like training for the game on the weekend rather than developing to get a contract or something like that.

4.3.3 - Relationships with Peers

Inclusion criteria: Any situation in which a coach's confidence in their own abilities is affected or their behaviour is influenced by the behaviours and actions, both real and perceived, of a peer

An interesting theme to emerge from the data was the effect peers (in this sense, peers, sometimes referred to as colleagues, are considered to be fellow coaches and/or employers which are sometimes coaches themselves) can have on coaches' confidence in their own abilities and their behaviour. This is closely linked to Bandura's (1977) vicarious source of efficacy information, social comparison. However, the current results extend this beyond social comparison as Bandura (1977) described it to include the influence of the behaviour and actions of peers. In addition, this is a novel result that can be included in Feltz and colleagues (1999) model of coach efficacy within the source 'perceived social support'. Coach 3 suggested that although he might be affected by his athletes, his peers also knocked his confidence (Q: It seems that maybe with yourself it's just not the case, it's the peers rather than the players):

Yeah probably...I'd agree with that. Obviously I'm not completely you know...stone wall to players I'm sure I do react sometimes...but I would say as a whole, no it doesn't really happen to me...in terms of knocking my confidence...its more peer related.

He went on to give examples of how peers have affected him, such as becoming more vocal on the pitch side, which is interesting because that is behaviour which he was not comfortable with (Q: Does it make you nervous when they're going on to the pitch and you know you're not on the pitch and you can't...?):

Little bit concerned over the last two years that I've become more shouty on the side lines...umm and I think that was feedback I had from my...umm...colleagues...that I wasn't passionate enough and I've sort of gone...like too far I think I'm...now shouting at people, I never used to do that, I was quite laid back, because they fed back to me that I was too laid back and I was like "oh, ok, gotta get your players up for it" but I dunno, maybe I've listened to that too much I think.

While talking about instances that directly affected his confidence, he gave an example of being in a competitive coaching environment where he was not comfortable (Q: What kind of things affect your confidence while you're coaching?):

Other people judging me...other coaches, my peers affect me...so being around people who I feel are looking over and say "what's he doing?"...massively...always being judged, players don't bother me that much...because ultimately I've got the confidence to know what I'm talking about.

Later, he added:

A knock in my confidence is other people...judging me...who are peers...so other coaches, and I think that stems from sadly my experience at [club name]...which...well sorry, previous coaching experience...which was...uhh in an environment where it was very competitive and there's a lot of back stabbing umm and I'd be coaching with a college and I could see other coaches sat on the hill laughing and...I heard them slating the other coaches behind their back when I was in that environment so for me it just went visa vi, they're probably doing the same when I'm not around and that really knocked me...and so I feel that now whenever anyone's watching, like I get nervous...and knocks my confidence.

These experiences led this coach to be very passionate about being confident in his own abilities as a coach and to ignore peers who may have previously affected him (Q: If someone after this asked what we spoke about and you could pick one thing that was most important to you, what would you pick out?): "Stop giving a shit about what peers think of me maybe but...have the confidence in my own ability." However, if this coach was to ignore his peers all the time, he may begin to mistake constructive feedback for contempt. Coach 10 also spoke about his experiences with other coaches judging him but suggested that over time he has become more confident in his own abilities which have allowed him to coach for as long as he has (Q: Is that a view [constantly needing to learn] that you had or didn't have when you first started coaching? Or is that something that you've sort of realised and bought into?):

> I think I've more realised and bought into it over the years because I think there's been times where, especially in the early years when I felt...you question yourself, you feel like coaches are putting...you know not pressure on you, other peer coaches, but you feel that they're judging you and watching you straight away umm...and...I think over a period of time, you gain your own confidence in...and you realise, especially through watching football that everybody's got their own individual style and you've got to have confidence in what you believe in, in your strategy, I'm not saying you won't make mistakes and you won't learn along the way but as long as you have confidence and belief in what you're trying to do, I think that will set you a long way.

As this quote demonstrates, this coach took a while to learn that everyone has individual coaching styles which boosted his confidence in his own. This is a potential advantage of mentoring (Jones, Harris & Miles, 2009) in the early stages of a coach's career to assure them of issues such as forming individual coaching styles. Another coach who had similar experiences is Coach 4. He explicitly stated that his peers, sometimes unknowingly, affected his confidence (Q: What other things do you think affect your confidence both negatively and positively?):

> Comments from peers, just little comments they might not even think...you know...they might not even think that they're making, they might just think it's fun...they might think it's...for what of a better word banter and it can knock you.

He also gave an example of peers affecting his confidence in a competitive environment (Q: Yeah and one thing that does seem to crop up a few times that isn't

actually in the literature is that other coaches and other peers affecting people confidence):

> Yeah massive, of course it is hugely. Like I said here we've got...twenty...four coaches all sat in a room from fourteen different sports and yeah you feel like there's...you know it's a competitive environment.

He added:

> Again I think it's the environment, I think it's the...you know surrounded by people who are...you know you come in and people are like "oh did you win?" Or...you know no one at home asks me whether my team won or in my personal like no one's asks me whether I won or I lost this or with [team name] or with [team name] or whatever, it's just not, because it's not on the radar but here there's always like "oh did you win?" "We beat [team name] for the rugby union" or "we beat [team name] for the football, how did you do?" "Oh we got beat" and that's...it's that pressure, it's that peer pressure on the coaches I suppose in different sports.

However, he did suggest that if he were a better coach than his peers, he would not feel the pressures he spoke about before. This suggests that he was influenced by his social environment which links into Bandura's (1986) reciprocal determinism theory. This is loosely included in the original model of coach efficacy (Feltz et al., 1999) but further research is needed to determine how much competitive environments can affect a coaches game strategy efficacy. (Q: So its maybe almost... being able to sort of, maybe this is a bit of a strong word but control the team and control the environment): "I've just nailed it on the head there, I'm pretty confident...that I'm better than that coach so that to me would give me confidence you know." Coach 10 reflected this view when he discussed situations where he felt less confident because he was less qualified than his peers. He revealed that his perception of the higher qualification against his own became a concern while he was coaching alongside them which again suggests that mentoring (Jones et al., 2009) would help these less qualified coaches feel more comfortable around higher qualified coaches (Q: As a coach, what else do you think affects your confidence in your own abilities as a coach?):

> Umm personally for me, I look at the qualifications route. I look at umm...because I would like to be obviously you'd like to progress more and more through the qualifications and be the highest qualified coach that you possibly could be. Umm

I feel that when you...when you see other coaches and they're highly qualified and you're not as qualified as them, I find that will affect confidence umm...I think that's an issue as such because you watch their sessions where they've been to...say for example a UEFA A training session or you know one of the highest qualifications and you can see that they're delivering good sessions whereas you're delivering more basic sessions because you've not got the higher qualifications as such as they have...so I feel that that is possibly what would affect my confidence.

When probed further about this topic, he gave two examples of when this situation both positively and negatively affected his game strategy efficacy, the first positively affecting him:

Umm just if I'm doing a coaching session and...because say if we have two or three coaches umm...from the academy umm we've been given a group of twelve players or fourteen players or whatever it might be...I set up my session and then maybe the other two coaches set up a session as well, yet again, I have confidence in my session and what I'm doing but I will always overlook and think "yeah I like the way he's done that" you know the confidence of them having a higher qualification thinking "oh yeah I would like to do that." So that's the kind of scenario that I feel that I'm kind of looking over and thinking "yeah that's a good idea, that's a good one" and just learning from that and it's been like that in games...there's the scenarios that I feel anyway...has affected my confidence.

(Q: Out of everything we've spoken about today, what would you pick out as being the most important to you?):

Umm...I would say in all honesty, it's probably more...like I feel, possibly because I've not got the qualifications, slightly inferior qualification wise to people and peoples more experience I would say. You'd also feel that they've been coaching for, I dunno twenty or thirty years, they've got umm a number of different experiences over those years, they've seen a lot more football, coached a lot more football than I have and I think that those two would be the real key umm ones that would affect my confidence personally

Coach 2 went further than other coaches and stated that a coach directly undermining him negatively affected his game strategy efficacy (Q: So what kind of things knock your confidence? What kind of things make you feel uneasy?): "I think you know

when you've agreed things with other coaches and then within minutes they're almost undermining what you're trying to do." In addition, Coach 10 spoke about experiences when coaches have attempted to directly affect his confidence to try and gain a possible advantage (Have you had any experiences surrounding other coaches and peers and things that have affected your confidence?):

> Definitely uhh I think whenever you're involved in umm coaching, especially as a...it's when youth football gets competitive I would say. A lot of coaches try and be...I would say quite strong psychologically, possibly question you're team, question the way that you're doing things umm...so there is a big emphasis there on...not just trying to umm not trying to put you down but trying to put you off your game and stuff like that and trying to...they want every advantage possible so that they can win that game. So...I feel there is a lot of that that still goes on in sport.

These are examples of peers negatively affecting game strategy efficacy which seemed to be consistent across almost all the participants. However, Coach 8 spoke about peers boosting his confidence in his abilities (Q: What else knocks or boosts your confidence in a coaching situation?):

> Obviously how other people perceive you or you know maybe other coaches...maybe...the like the elite coach department at [club name] how they view me or how I perceive that they view me, its gunna affect my confidence umm the opportunities that arise, you know so like [name] is the academy manager and he shows a lot of confidence in me and that boosts my confidence.

Coach 9 also said something similar (Q: You've got other coaches around you, does that affect your confidence at all?):

> If I do something and he says "I really, really like that" you know it does make you feel good that you're actually, because sometimes you'll bring something brand new to what we're doing and you know you've youtubed it or you'll sort of you know you'll think "actually I could do that, I could do it differently for my lads". So we're always bringing in something new to the lads, we're always trying to change things a little bit for them and keep it interesting. So if uhh you know [name] or [name] says you know "I really like that", it does make you feel good about yourself like...you're doing the right thing.

Later, he suggested that direct contact with peers was not the only way that his confidence would be affected. While discussing a troubling period whereby he was almost fired from his coaching position, other clubs wanting him affected him too (Q: Over the course of your coaching career, have different things affected your confidence at different times?):

> Umm I got approached by four other clubs to like go be their head coach, so obviously that...that makes me feel good as well that you're kind of wanted or you're respected in your field that other clubs saying "well if they don't want you we'll have you" so that does affect you definitely.

Although there seems to be a disproportionate amount of negative experiences with peers, there does seem to be instances where peers positively affect a coach's game strategy efficacy. It may be an issue with culture or a win at all costs attitude that may be causing this disproportion but further research should be undertaken in this area as there does seem to be benefits with peer interaction.

Table 4. Summary of sources and outcomes of game strategy efficacy for UK developmental youth sport coaches

Theme	Theme inclusion criteria	Exemplar quotes from coaches
Sources		
Acknowledgement	A situation where coaches confidence in their own abilities is boosted from external feedback or recognition	Coach 1: "Acknowledgement, that's...just to be acknowledged...sometimes that's all you need...just to be told "you know what...thank you." Just thank you from time to time does wonders for some people."
Knowledge	Where any level of knowledge is perceived to affect the coaches confidence in their ability to coach effectively	Coach 4: "Uhh in certain environments it [where he feels he knows less than other coaches] has done in the past yeah. You know in a performance environment within umm...rugby league at times it does knock you, it doesn't knock me down here [his coaching environment] because I know more about rugby league than anyone else in the building do you know

Theme	Theme inclusion criteria	Exemplar quotes from coaches
		what I mean?"
Playing Experience	Playing experiences that have a direct, or thought to have a direct, effect on perceived coaching knowledge which in turn affects coaching skills, methods, styles and/or future practices	Coach 3: "Of course I care about winning, probably compared to...the majority of the population but compared to people in sport I'm not that bothered. And that came from my own personal playing, if I lost I wasn't devastated...if I played well because my position might have been better...if I played shit then I would be gutted and I'm the same with my coaching, if the boys play crap I'm...like "guys you know what are we gunna do about this, I've seen you play well, you can play well, what happened?" and try and analyse...but if they played well and they lose...I'm pleased with them because they're playing what we want and they're playing the style that we want."
Relationships with Athletes	The perceived effect that managing athletes effectively and athletes behaviour has on a coaches confidence in their skills and abilities	Coach 5: "Well I think if a fighter, if I wanted to speak to a fighter maybe pre or post and they didn't maybe want to acknowledge what I had to say to them...you know I think that would be you know I would feel that I've lost...the fighter lost confidence in me."
Relationships with Peers	Any situation in which a coach's confidence in their own abilities is affected or their behaviour is influenced by the behaviours and actions, both real and	Coach 8: "Obviously how other people perceive you or you know maybe other coaches...maybe...the, like the elite coach department at [name] how they view me or how I perceive that they view me, it's gunna affect my confidence. Umm the opportunities that arise, you

Theme	Theme inclusion criteria	Exemplar quotes from coaches
	perceived, of a peer	know so like [name] is the academy manager and he shows a lot of confidence in me and that boosts my confidence."
Results	A situation whereby the coach can visually see the direct result of an aim or goal they had previously decided upon	Coach 9: "Yeah, I mean things that really boost my confidence are...you know seeing things that we've taught them when they do it in a game or out on the training park. You know execution of skills or you know understanding of what they are doing and why they are doing it."
Self-Image	The way in which a coach believes they are being perceived by their athletes and peers within their coaching context	Coach 4: "Umm...no, I don't think it [lack of playing career] affects my coaching. I think it affects the perception of my coaching, of other people."
Success	A process which is inherently enjoyable and fun that leads to the demonstration of the acquisition and development of new knowledge or a new skill which in turn boosts a coaches belief in his or her own skills and abilities	Coach 7: "Umm...seeing your athletes progress...umm...I don't think it maybe needs to be...seeing someone coming through a system and then playing professionally, I think maybe if you've made a difference to that individual umm...so if you've seen someone come in, you've stared working with them and they're not so good but then you've worked with them and they've progressed and they're now a good player, I think that's a success. But then obviously you've got your success of working with someone who, maybe they go through to get a professional contract and then maybe progress into

Theme	Theme inclusion criteria	Exemplar quotes from coaches
		international and then obviously that's a massive success."
Outcomes		
Releasing Control	Where the coach begins to accept that some aspects of sport are outside their control and begin to empower their athlete's to be more independent while beginning to take influence from the athletes themselves	Coach 6: "Let them get on with it. so I think I've got a lot more confidence...I think as my abilities as a coach has got better and I think I'm a much better coach than I used to be uhh as I progress umm I think I have much more confidence in the guys who are playing the match than I did have before...does that make sense? Yeah so I tend not to try and influence or be a part of it in a big way, I just think 'right let them do it, they know what they're doing let them get on with it'."
Self-Evaluation	Any performance situation whereby something goes wrong (with regards to their athletes performance) and the coach chooses to reflect, evaluate and change their own strategies and tactics, rather than blaming the athletes themselves	Coach 5: "And it was a silly mistake. However that silly mistake had happened before you know so...from what we had done, I clearly hadn't reinforced that enough or I had and it hadn't worked so I have to change my tack on it and then it's not just then about me because they need to change or they wouldn't move any further. So I think it's about what you do with it as opposed to...you don't take it personally, you've just gotta come back, reflect on it and make it right next time."

4.3.4 - Acknowledgement

Inclusion criteria: A situation where coaches' confidence in their own abilities is boosted from external feedback or recognition

Coaches suggested that if they were acknowledged as doing a good job then their confidence in their abilities and skills would increase. This loosely relates to Bandura's (1977) suggestion that persuasive techniques from significant, credible others can influence self-efficacy. Although Bandura (1977) hypothesised that coaches are trustworthy persuaders, the following quotes suggest that peers, supporters, a group of athletes and occasionally an individual athlete can boost coaches' self-efficacy. Further research is needed to investigate whether or not this should be added to the original source of coach efficacy 'perceived social support' (Feltz et al., 1999). When asked about things that boost his confidence (Q: What else do you think boosts a coaches self-confidence?), Coach 1 said that even the smallest acknowledgement would boost his confidence within himself:

> Like others look for a claim outside of the game or outside of the club...if it comes it's nice...don't get me wrong I enjoy, if I had a good work and somebody says "cracking job"...all I need. I don't need a ten page write up in the paper or you know what I mean? I don't need my own article, I don't need this, that and the other but if somebody looks at me, smiles and gives me a nod...just say "good job"...I'm happy with that...is that...yeah that's a boost in self-confidence...so it's not just, feedback from outside is another thing that helps...so I've just...yeah feedback.

Coach 1 reinforced this view by adding: "Acknowledgement, that's...just to be acknowledged...sometimes that's all you need...just to be told 'you know what...thank you.' Just thank you from time to time does wonders for some people." He also suggested that for him there were two different types of acknowledgement, the first being internal feedback, whereby the coach himself acknowledges that he is happy with what occurred and the second, acknowledgement from an external source:

> So you've got your internal stuff where stuff goes well for yourself and you're happy with that and you're happy with the way it's gone...and then you've got your outside stuff where like I said, anything from a nod and a smile to...to your own TV show.

However, the idea of internal feedback did not emerge explicitly in other interviews. On the other hand, acknowledgement from external sources, namely athletes, was brought to light later in the interview (Q: It's just interesting in your context as well, the development context, is there's that contradiction of winning and have to win every time compared to developing players and...): "Its seeing guys go on and then they can look back in 40 years' time, if they make it pro...they can look back when they're old and say where did you start the game? And it's like...that's pretty good. I love that sort of thing." When discussing his confidence at athletes talking about their development (Q: One of the things I'm most interested in is the contradiction between...developmental coaches at that level and then winning) Coach 3 said: "He was gunna go 'I was developed well at that college'." What is interesting about these quotes is the suggestion that the boost in game strategy efficacy is immediate yet not guaranteed given the extremely low rate of players actually progressing to the highest level in their respected sport (Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2006). This seems like an extremely important area of research given that game strategy efficacy (and coach efficacy in general) could be increased simply by the perception of acknowledgement. While talking about the physical developments his players gain while being coached by himself (Q: In the literature success generally means results and winning but it seems like in these sorts of contexts, like the developmental context, those same terms are used and it seems like it shouldn't be), Coach 8 also spoke about social development of his athletes being noticed by others:

> I've had quite a few boys that we've worked hard on their fitness and they've bought into it and...you know you see them and think "fucking nice body" umm you know [athlete name] you know I saw him and fucking hell...you know you think that's great, you're a part of that umm...umm...because that gives that person confidence...you know what I mean, it's as much about developing the person as well. I wouldn't want any...you know for a player to come down here and for people to say "he's a fucking arrogant prick" you know...I want them to say "well he's a decent person and the rest of them like him."

Again this kind of acknowledgement is not immediate but it seems far more likely as it is only regarding the physical and social development of his athletes, not the progression into higher levels of sport. On the other hand, Coach 4 stated that athletes immediate responses to his decisions boosted his confidence (Q: Coaching that way and having the athletes react well to your decisions and when you're talking to them and things, is that something that does boost your confidence or doesn't affect it?): "Yeah it

does help my confidence I suppose yeah you know if players react well and they tell you that they like that or they like this then that is obviously a boost to your confidence yeah."

Coach 9 gave an example of when he was highly confident coaching a team but almost lost his position which negatively impacted his confidence and the acknowledgement from his players, support staff within the club, the local community and other clubs helped him through the difficult time. Interestingly, although it was his employers that wanted to terminate his job, the support he gained from those around him trumped his employers' lack of confidence in him (Q: Over the course of your coaching career, have different things affected your confidence at different times?):

> Yeah massively, I got uhh basically we won the league this season at [club name] so we got promoted from south west one to national three south west, two days later the club sacked me. So obviously...having won the league and having all this like euphoria and everything to then two days later to be pulled into the office and for them to say "oh we're not gunna renew your contract, basically gunna look elsewhere" and it dents your confidence massively. But then the flip side of it was all the players then said they'll all walk out of the club if I'm not reinstated, so they've had to reinstate me and so obviously that...you know you go from a low point in your confidence to then thinking "well hang on, I haven't done anything wrong" everyone was saying "no, we'll support you" and everything. There was a massive thing in the local press and everything with people blogging and all this sort of stuff.

He went on to say:

> It was quite a low point but then the players rallying around and people at the club rallying around to get me back in there because they want me there makes you feel actually...a bit more worth about yourself. Umm I got approached by four other clubs to like go be their head coach, so obviously that...that makes me feel good as well that you're kind of wanted or you're respected in your field that other clubs saying "well if they don't want you we'll have you" so that does affect you definitely.

4.3.5 - Knowledge

Inclusion criteria: Where any level of knowledge is perceived to affect the coaches' confidence in their ability to coach effectively

Acquiring knowledge (in this sense, knowledge refers to learning relevant coaching information from significant others, such as formal education courses and other coaches, as described by the coaches themselves) and being able to use this knowledge was something that coaches identified as contributing to their confidence. This result also fits into Feltz and colleagues (1999) original source of coach efficacy, 'past experience'. Coach 6 suggested that throughout his coaching career he had changed as a result of undertaking formal coaching courses (Q: Do you think you're playing career affected your coaching career?):

> Uhh yes I think it [playing career] did yeah. I mean, I suppose the philosophy of football was similar to when I played to when I first started coaching but I think I've sort of changed my style of coaching quite considerably since I've progressed from level two to level three you know to doing level four. I've changed the way I coach.

He also added that these formal coaching courses had improved his level of knowledge which in turn made him a better coach (Q: How do you think you've become a better coach?): "I think my knowledge has got better as I've gone through levels two, three and into four. I've done a lot more courses and I've watched other people." Although this is encouraging for formal education providers, Coach 10 spoke about how his confidence levels increased after completing formal coaching courses but not because of the actual content. Instead, he suggested, it was a chance to network with other coaches which in turn affected his confidence (Q: when you maybe completed these courses, did you feel more confident as a coach after you'd done it or not at all?):

> I always feel more confident once I've gone in to the courses because there are a number of different coaches there with a lot of different knowledge and I feel that whatever course you go on you will always learn from other coaches, it's a fantastic tool to have to be able to see and I think you learn an awful lot from these coaches.

Formal education providers may want to investigate the effect on coaches' confidence from integrating networking or mentoring into the courses they offer. Going back to Coach 6, he added that his coaching style (i.e., the distinctive aggregations of behaviours that characterise coaching practice: Lyle, 2002) changed because his knowledge

improved (Q: Why do you think your coaching style changed?) "Umm...I got older, I got wiser". He gave an example of this (Q: You sort of mentioned there the players, they just thought "oh he's just gunna shout again", do you think the players reacting to how you were dealing with them is something that maybe made you think about how you dealt with them?):

> I think it was also the realisation that it doesn't work, not all the time. If you're using it all the time it just washes over their heads and therefore it's an ineffective way of communicating and I think I just sat back and thought as I got wiser and I think as my knowledge as a coach has increased, I think I've sat back and thought "no that's not the way to do it."

This quote suggests that this coach's practices may be developed on more of a 'trial and error' basis which is something formal education providers may want to investigate further. In addition, he felt that constant knowledge improvement and humility were important characteristics of a good coach:

> I think when you first start you copy from guys that you've...you know
> that have coached you in the past but then I think you develop your own
> style of coaching and I think you develop your own philosophy and I
> think you start changing things and I watched drills and I think "yeah
> that's good I could use that but..." and I change them so I've developed
> my own style of coaching and I think I've adapted uhh and I think the
> other thing I do is I've learnt and I'm still learning all the time and I think
> that as a coach is really, really important and I think once you start
> thinking "I'm the finished product" then I think it's time to go because I
> think if you're coaching what you coached last season, you're not a good
> coach.

Coach 10 supported this view when discussing his opinion that all coaches need to constantly be learning for the benefit of their athletes (Q: Do you think the view of constantly needing to learn is important for a coach?):

> I think it's essential for every coach to you know embrace new ideas because, as an
> athlete you'll know, there's always new technology coming out, there's always
> new...just say for example the last twenty years, the diet, the hydration, the
> umm...warm up, cool down, stretching, all sorts of things like that have come more
> into the sport that I'm involved in football umm...the type of trainings changed, the

intensities changed, everything's changed, now if you're stuck back thinking like when I first started out I knew everything about football, then I wouldn't lasted very long in the coaching industry. I would have been moved out very quickly, but I think you need to embrace new ideas, I think you need to umm don't need to stand still in my opinion you know because it moves on so quickly, we've just got to look at technology all round to see how quickly it moves on so yeah you need to embrace new ideas and you need to believe you're going to improve every day. I can't understand coaches who think they know everything at present and don't want to learn I think that's quite...in a way it's sad because they're not going to improve themselves.

The thoughts reflecting the need to constantly improve knowledge is again encouraging for providers of continued education courses in coaching. Rather than opinion of Coach 6 about coach education improving his confidence, Coach 1 gave examples of how he tested his knowledge by completing his coaching sessions himself to see if they were too difficult, in which case, he changes them (Q: The way that you played and the way that you've brought up with different coaches around you, different environments, do you think that changes the way you coach, yourself?):

I'm starting now to do some of the training sessions myself to see if they're too difficult and if I can't do them, or if I you know if it's way too much for me then I won't expect players to do it.

He also added that being in the position where he could try his sessions out for himself gave him confidence in what he is doing (Q: Do you think that by doing the skills yourself, it gives you the confidence to able to then coach them to your athletes?):

Yes...yeah, like I say, I'm in a pretty lucky position where I've played a few games after coaching...you sort of apply what you think you know and you may be coaching them to do something, you then go and try and do it yourself like I said in a real time situation and you'll find out "you know what that doesn't actually work" or "that doesn't work for me." So I think I'm lucky that I can kind of transfer the skills between the two and can take stuff from playing and take it back to coaching and take stuff from coaching and take it into playing, so I think I'm pretty lucky in that respect.

This coach seems to be suggesting that as long as his mastery experiences of completing certain skills are successful, then his self-efficacy beliefs in being able to coach

those skills increase (Bandura, 1977). This idea runs parallel with Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory and Feltz and colleagues (1999) subsequent coaching efficacy notion. It is therefore not surprising this coach linked a lack of knowledge with poor coaching, which he experienced (Q: Where you said you'd come to sessions and you'd be pissed off...do you think that's when your self-confidence rubs off in your coaching and do you think it rubs off on the athletes?): "But you throw out there and say 'oh I'm asking you to do this' 'why' 'oh I don't know just do it'. People aren't receptive to that...because that's a lack of knowledge as well...and yeah I have had that before, don't like it at all." However, this same coach suggested that having experience of playing the game was not a necessity for new coaches which seemed to contradict some of his earlier statements. It seemed that what he was trying to suggest was that playing experiences are not necessary because you can still perform the skills when you are a coach. It is also worth noting this coach has a limited playing career himself (Q: Do you think that's important for new coaches? Experiencing it themselves and finding out what works, what doesn't, what's wrong, what's right): "Simple answer yes...but it doesn't...it's not a necessity. It helps you but it's not...it's not absolutely vital. You don't have to of played the game to be able to coach it...but it helps."

Coach 4, however, suggested that acquiring knowledge actually helped him to feel comfortable in his coaching environment because he felt he knew more than everyone else which may be a form of social comparison (Bandura, 1977) (Q: Does that [his knowledge level] sort of knock you in any way?):

> Uhh in certain environments it has done in the past yeah. You know in a performance environment within umm...rugby league at times it does knock you, it doesn't knock me down here because I know more about rugby league than anyone else in the building do you know what I mean?

4.3.6 - Relationships with Athletes

Inclusion criteria: The perceived effect that managing athletes effectively and athletes behaviour has on a coaches confidence in their skills and abilities

Unfortunately, any relationship coaches have with their athletes is not included within the existing coach efficacy model (Feltz et al., 1999). However, it could be included by expanding the source 'perceived social support' which also contributes to Erickson and colleagues (2011) multidirectional view of influence. Coaches felt that managing their athletes effectively was of vital importance for getting anything beyond correct. Coach 2

stated (Q: Of everything we've talked about today, what would you pick out as being the most important?):

> To me, if you don't manage who you're coaching then it's not gunna work is it? I don't actually think there's anything more important than that because if that's not done right and if it's not done critically...and if you don't get that right, I don't think you can get anything else right.

While talking about instances that affect his confidence, Coach 5 suggested that if the relationship between him and his athlete has broken down, he would feel as if he had lost that athlete (Q: What would you say for yourself is something that would affect your confidence the most, either negative or positive?):

> Well I think if a fighter, if I wanted to speak to a fighter maybe pre or post and they didn't maybe want to acknowledge what I had to say to them...you know I think that would be you know I would feel that I've lost...the fighter lost confidence in me.

However, despite these views of individual athlete management, Coach 1 suggested the opposite. He stated that he deals with his athletes as a whole and not on an individual basis (Q: How do you manage your athletes during competition or during a season?): "You have to do what's right for the...for the whole, you can't just deal with an individual." Coach 7 spoke about being honest and humble but on an individual basis (Q: How do your athletes react to your decisions?):

> I think if you're honest with them...instead of saying 'look everyone's not doing this' if you sort of say 'ok I've done the wrong thing here I should've maybe done this' I think they respond better because everyone's human and we all make mistakes.

While discussing his athletes' attitude towards his coaching direction, Coach 8 suggested that when athletes were willing to get on board, his confidence is boosted. However if his athletes refuse to buy into what he is trying to do, surprisingly his confidence is not dented. Instead he works out different ways of getting his point across which suggests that he has high game strategy efficacy that one individual cannot reduce (Q: As a coach, does that [players buying into what he's doing] boost your confidence when stuff like that happens?):

> Undoubtedly boosts your confidence umm...yeah I think when players don't, it doesn't necessarily dent your confidence. Sometimes that particular player...umm

has got their own agenda umm maybe it's about them as opposed to the team and they'll carry on doing what they were doing irrespective of what you tell them uhh and they're the most difficult players to...to manage and try and improve. So...yeah if they don't react to what you've told them...it won't necessarily dent your confidence umm but you might have to re-look at how you're trying to get that message across, show them on the video for example like "this is why I want you to do this."

Coach 9 supported this idea of relating to athletes on their level to get his point across (Q: That relationship with your athletes, does that affect your confidence?):

You know if you know you got a couple players that...you know are difficult to manage and they do think you know, they come about quite a bit to be fair, is you have to try and find their level.

To add to this, this coach suggested that when he makes a decision, as long as he can justify it to his athletes then his relationship with them will be fine. (Q: When you're making those sorts of changes [substitutions] and affecting athletes, how do they react to your decisions?):

Umm...you get a mixed bag I mean not everyone likes every decision you make, if you sub someone off they don't necessarily like it or understand why you've done it but if you can explain to them why you've done it or...you know...justify every decision you make then people will understand it.

This is a view that Coach 1 and 4 also agree with which suggests that coaches not only think about the way their instructions and decisions will be received by their athletes, but also the athletes responses in turn have an effect on the coaches game strategy efficacy. Coach 1 said (Q: How do your athletes react to your decisions?):

Umm...luckily, positive...positive reactions, even if they don't agree with it...they'll ask a question, if I can answer the question, that's that whole second guessing myself and being prepared for question...I can have a positive answer waiting. Same as I've played a guy this week on the wing who has played centre for the three years that he's played the game and he said "well why did you put me on the wing?" And I had an answer and he was like "oh...fair enough." And then the captain asked, luckily enough asked me the same question...told him the exact same thing and he was pleased with the answer.

Coach 4 said:

> Umm...yeah pretty well, no one's...very rarely...umm...one of my strengths come
> in, a real strength of mine is my ability to sort of I've got a very personable
> relationship with them so actually if I do pull them off for some reason then they
> you know they might not be happy with it, I can tend to you know if I explain
> myself they'll tend to be yeah fine.

4.3.7 - Results

Inclusion criteria: A situation whereby the coach can visually see the direct result of an aim
or goal they had previously decided upon

While discussing situations that affect the coaches' confidence, almost all the
coaches described seeing the results of an aim or goal they had as something that would
boost their confidence in their coaching abilities. This is a result that can be included
within Feltz and colleagues (1999) source of coach efficacy, 'prior success'. While
discussing anything that affects his confidence, Coach 4 began to describe his experiences
of seeing the results he wanted to (Q: What other things do you think affect your
confidence both negatively and positively?):

> Umm...I think getting success can build you up, I think you know getting...you
> know achieving what you want to achieve can affect your confidence positively
> umm...I think uhh...actually seeing a progression in your athletes affects your
> confidence massively umm...you know when...individuals and teams when they
> perform...you know my confidence goes through the roof and my ego goes
> through the roof.

He went on to give a specific example:

> [It's] seeing someone come from there to there...and there'll be improvement,
> that to me is a massive, that's a massive boost to my confidence and ego. Like
> with [team name], I'm a highly, highly, highly confident coach because I've taken
> them from...you know...nothing in terms of in a team they were just like here's
> the ball, run it in, here's the ball, run it in and you know some games they'd win
> and some games they'd lose and that would be on the basis of how poor the
> opposition were or how good the opposition were. Whereas actually now, they're
> a team that can actually make decisions that can affect the impact of a game and
> if they lose a game it's their fault do you know what I mean? And that to me...you
> know I know what I've done there is really, really, really good.

While discussing his athletes, Coach 4 also illustrated how his confidence is affected by his athletes not performing how he would like them to (Q: Would it [losing games] knock your confidence at all?): "It's actually more of a performance thing for me actually I'm not so worried...I start questioning my own, my confidence goes and I start questioning my own coaching when they perform really poorly."

This concept on athletes performing how coaches' want them to, which is usually well, could be related to the mastery experience in Bandura's theory of self-efficacy (1977). More specifically, if coaches repeatedly saw their coaching efforts as successes through the athletes' successful completion of a skill, there efficacy should then increase. This became a pattern across other coaches, for example, Coach 2 said (Q: When things like that happen, like the team playing well, does that boost your confidence as a coach?): "Ohh...it's a special feeling it really is." Coach 1 gave a similar example (Q: What else do you think boosts a coaches self-confidence?): "For me I like it when stuff goes well...if stuff goes well that you've planned and you've done...you can do that countless times over." Coach 9 explicitly stated that seeing skills he taught his athletes being performed boosted his confidence (Q: Do things like that [skills taught being used] boost your confidence as a coach?):

> Yeah, I mean things that really boost my confidence are...you know seeing things that we've taught them when they do it in a game or out on the training park. You know execution of skills or you know understanding of what they are doing and why they are doing it.

Likewise, while discussing decision making under pressure, Coach 3 spoke about the negative aspects of his players not performing as he would like (Q: When you're making decisions under pressure, teams losing or player aren't doing what they're supposed to be doing, so maybe you're under a bit of pressure to do something and make those decisions, how do you think you deal with that?): "I don't react as well as I'd like perhaps when we're not performing, rather than winning or losing, if that makes sense?" Similarly, Coach 7 suggested related issues to players not performing as he would like (Q: What else would affect your confidence in that [coaching] context?): "Not doing well I suppose, players not developing how you want them too."

4.3.8 - Self-Image

Inclusion criteria: The way in which a coach believes they are being perceived by their athletes and peers within their coaching context

The way in which coaches either perceive themselves or how they believe others (athletes and peers) perceive them seemed to affect their confidence in their coaching skills and ability. This can be seen as a type of social persuasion (Bandura, 1977), namely, self-talk. However, the coaches may not have the appropriate knowledge to use this to their advantage but this is an area that needs further investigating. This is also a result that is not currently included within Feltz and colleagues (1999) model of coaching efficacy. Coach 3 began by speaking about how he had become more vocal on the pitch side. This was something he wanted to avoid doing but he believed his athletes now saw him as a very vocal coach because of an encounter on a tour (Q: How do you think you're athletes react to you now, now you're shouting?):

> They [his athletes] take the piss out of me...they have...on tour, one of them went "oh have you seen his impression of you?" And I went "oh my god!"...and I was like, in my head I was like...it was funny with the boys and I've got a good relationship with them like I said I've built up that rapport, but ultimately this is what they saw me like and I was like "I'm not like that, never have been."

This view of how his athletes and peers perceive him having an effect on his confidence was also highlighted by Coach 4 but without the actually encounter with his athletes. While discussing his lack of playing experience having an effect on how his athletes and peers perceive him (Q: Would you say your playing experiences or lack of playing experiences affected your coaching?), he said: "Umm...no, I don't think it [lack of playing career] affects my coaching. I think it affects the perception of my coaching, of other people." Continuing the discussion of his athletes' and peers perception of him for his lack of playing experience (Q: Does that [athlete's perception of him] knock you in any way?), he added:

> I was coaching, there was this coach development camp that was run alongside national camp with the under 16s, [team name] 16s and that...there you feel a little bit like...yeah people probably are judging you on the fact that they don't know who you are and you've never played any sort of level.

He reiterated this comment when talking about athletes reacting to his decisions (Q: Having the athletes react well to your decisions and when you're talking to them and things, is that something that does boost your confidence or doesn't affect it?):

> When I started out as a coach I was obsessed with this idea of actually "no I'm a coach" and "no one's better than me" but actually the more I've been around ex professionals who coach, there is a certain something that they have umm...but I don't think it, I wouldn't say it inherently affects my ability to coach. It might affect some of my understanding and it might affect the...uhh the willingness of the people around me to listen to what I'm saying.

Coach 10 backed up the view that a prosperous playing career has an effect of the way his athletes perceive him (Q: When you first made that transition, do you think having that playing career behind you helped your confidence when you first started?):

> I think so, although its slightly daunting initially to stand out in front of...you know fellow players or...umm youngsters as such...you get a lot of respect from actually being a player I think and people know what you've done as a player.

Interestingly though, at no point in the above comments was this coach actually speaking to any of his athletes or peers about their perception of him. This coach has actually formed an opinion of how his athletes and peers perceive him without finding out exactly what they think. This can be related to what Horn (2008) suggested, specifically, interpretations of behaviour can be more important that the behaviour alone. However, the current result is more to do with the perception of opinions rather than behaviour so further research is needed.

4.4 - Outcomes of Coach Efficacy

As well as sources of coaching efficacy, two outcomes of coaching efficacy emerged from the data (Table 4). These results provide insight into UK developmental youth sport coaches' behaviours.

4.4.1 - Releasing Control

Inclusion criteria: Where the coach begins to accept that some aspects of sport are outside their control and begin to empower their athlete's to be more independent while beginning to take influence from the athlete themselves

As a result of coaches having high game strategy efficacy, some coaches began to release control of their coaching to their athlete while at the same time accepting that

some things within sport were outside their control. It was also witnessed that the same did not happen when the coaches were low in game strategy efficacy. Some coaches began to suggest that some aspects of coaching and sport were outside their control which in turn had no effect on their confidence. For example, while talking about managing his athletes during a game (Q: During a game how would you manage your athletes?), Coach 6 said:

> [I] let them get on with it. So I think I've got a lot more confidence...I think as my abilities as a coach has got better and I think I'm a much better coach than I used to be uhh as I progress umm I think I have much more confidence in the guys who are playing the match than I did have before...does that make sense? Yeah so I tend not to try and influence or be a part of it in a big way, I just think "right let them do it, they know what they're doing let them get on with it."

Likewise, while discussing whether or not he gets nervous at not being able to help his athletes while they are performing (Q: Does it make you nervous when they're going on to the pitch and you know you're not on the pitch and you can't...?), Coach 3 said: "No...no control...attribution theory...no control, doesn't matter what I do, they'll go on and do it and ultimately, like I said before, it's not that important." This idea of having no control was again discussed by Coach 6 when discussing playing better opponents (Q: They [coaches] use that playing experience in the coaching experience and then they develop more as coaches and become like yourself, confident in their own abilities to say "well I've given you the tools to do it, go out and do it. If you don't then it's not a reflection on me and it doesn't knock me, it's you..."):

> But if the team you are playing against are better, there's nothing you can do about that at all and that doesn't affect my confidence and you can...you know I call on my experiences and you know the coaching ability and I know I'm gunna have my team organised offensively and defensively whatever system we play, 4-3-3, 4-5-1,whatever it is uhh...we'll be organised, but if the guys you're playing against are technically better and tactically just as good, you're gunna lose, there's nothing you can do about that.

Coach 8 also said something comparable when discussing his experiences with coaching teams that struggled to field enough athletes (Q: Do you think the way in which your confidence is affected has changed over your coaching career?):

That wouldn't affect my confidence too much because I'd look at the personnel I was working with and say "well you know, you can only do so much with what you're kind of working with."

What related all the above quotes was all the coaches were high in game strategy efficacy which in turn meant they were able to accept that they could not influence everything within their sport. Coach 2 stated that his confidence is not affected by his athletes asking him if they can do something a different way (Q: So what kind of things knock your confidence? What kind of things make you feel uneasy?): "If players say 'can we do it another way' and that happens at the [name] and that doesn't hit my confidence." Similarly, while discussing how he has become a better coach (Q: How do you think you've become a better coach?), Coach 6 suggested that by listening more to his athletes, it has made him a better coach. He gave two examples of when this has happened, firstly he said:

I listen more, I'm not as uhh you know I think I was one of these guys "that's the way you play it, that's my way I'm doing it"...I sit down and listen, I listen to the players much more than I ever used to. I listen to the captain, the guy umm [name] uhh who's just left, we sat down for the last two or three years when he was captain and I'd say "what do you think about this?" "What do you think about that?" "What do you think about him?" "This is the starting line-up I'm thinking about, would you go along with that?" So I'm much more...listen to other people and...I just think I'm a better coach.

Secondly, while discussing the changes he has gone through during his coaching career, he said (Q: So do you think there's almost stages where you go through as a coach when you first start, things like that might knock your confidence but then as your experience and knowledge goes up you become more confident in yourself so other things don't knock you):

Yeah definitely, I don't get...like when that guy said it didn't affect us nicely but it didn't affect us when [name] said "you subbed too early" "ok I subbed too early" and no, it doesn't knock your confidence at all but it would have when I was younger definitely...and I probably would not have accepted it, I would have told him "listen I'm making the decisions, I do the tactics, you do the playing" I don't do that anymore but I would have 20 years ago, I would have really, really gone to town on it.

Both Coach 4 and 8 actually spoke about their coaching practices and philosophies and how they give their athletes a lot more freedom to do what they like during games. For example, while talking about his coaching philosophy (Q: What kind of coaching philosophy do you try and employ to you athletes?), Coach 4 said:

> I think it's about allowing players to an extent to find their umm own way of doing things and you know umm I'm not going away from being very technical and very focussed on it so it's more sort of letting them play and letting them experience.

> Asked the same questions, Coach 8 said: "Umm...well my philosophy on this...umm...is to really try and give them a lot of freedom so we play a fairly basic game plan in which they're allowed to go out and express themselves." However, further research would be needed to investigate whether or not this release of control was attributed to an increase in game strategy efficacy or a number of aspects. On the other hand, despite these views of releasing control, Coach 4 suggested that not having control of a situation actually made him less confident in that environment which suggests there is a relationship between efficacy and control but again this will need further research (Q: So its maybe almost... being able to sort of, maybe this is a bit of a strong word but control the team and control the environment and...):

> Yeah makes a massive difference as to whether you're...yeah because if you're...if it's an environment that you're not in control of or it's an environment that you don't understand as well then you're obviously gunna be less confident you know.

4.4.2 - Self-Evaluation

Inclusion criteria: Any performance situation whereby something goes wrong (with regards to their athletes performance) and the coach chooses to reflect, evaluate and change their own strategies and tactics, rather than blaming the athletes themselves

When discussing athletes' poor performance or when something goes wrong, rather than blaming the athletes themselves, coaches tended to look at themselves to reflect on what happened and change the situation themselves. These coaches seemed to have high game strategy efficacy which meant they were able to be more self-evaluative of their own coaching. Coaches who seemed to be low in game strategy efficacy did not discuss being self-evaluative. Coach 9 described a previous experience whereby something went wrong that he had been working on with his athletes but rather than blaming his athletes, he decided to re-think his tactic and come up with a different solution (Q: What would you say as being something that would knock your confidence?):

If you're not getting the end result, you've tried to do something and they're just not able to do it, they're just not able to execute it then that does knock your confidence because you sort of have to think "ok, I'll have to go back to the drawing board, I 100% thought that was gunna work and it didn't." So you've got to just go back and re-build and come up with some different solutions.

Coach 5 spoke about previous experiences regarding self-evaluation, he discussed his methods of dealing with athletes that don't respond to his advice because they are unprepared (Q: Does it knock your confidence at all when they're not responding as well or is it sort of more...they're just not prepared enough?):

What it [non responsive athletes] would say to me is that actually the way that I delivered that, the way that I've been coaching them in that respect hasn't worked. Or it has worked to a certain extent and I need to modify it so I need to take value from it because at the time they're not gunna take any from it.

He went on to speak about an example of this when during a match, his athlete had made a mistake that had been made before:

It was a silly mistake. However that silly mistake had happened before you know so...from what we had done, I clearly hadn't reinforced that enough or I had and it hadn't worked so I have to change my tack on it and then it's not just then about me because they need to change or they wouldn't move any further. So I think it's about what you do with it as opposed to...you don't take it personally, you've just gotta come back, reflect on it and make it right next time.

He then went on to discuss his evaluation of the situation:

If I haven't pushed them hard enough in training and they snap in the event up there, maybe that's me because I haven't pushed them hard enough and I haven't been able to make an assessment of if they're ready for that.

This coach was high in game strategy efficacy and was able to discuss a specific example of when he was self-evaluative. Coach 3 actually gave an insight into what processes he goes through during this process by describing his thought process. Interestingly his efficacy is not affected by the poor performance of his athletes, instead, he decides to be self-evaluative (Q: When you're putting in all the preparation, they're reacting well, they're doing everything you want them to and then they go out and perform badly on the pitch, does that knock you personally?):

No I think it [poor performance from his athletes]...from my perspective I think it's a psychological thing because I know they can do it, so I've got to find a way of bringing them...back into...that game, realistic, sorry game realism sense because I know they can do it, I've seen them before if that makes sense? So for me I'm going "well its nothing that I haven't done, it's nothing that they haven't done, they've trained really hard, they're doing really well, I'm really impressed with how they're playing. However it's not translating onto the pitch so therefore...there's something that I need to find out to help that."

4.5 - Results Summary

Results support previous findings and add novel concepts in both Feltz and colleagues (1999) work on coach efficacy and Bandura's (1977) work on self-efficacy. In addition, results highlight coaches' perceptions of success which challenges previous conceptions. The results that the author felt were most important to coaches were success, playing experience and relationships with peers. Interesting though, none of these results support Feltz and colleagues (1999) original model of coach efficacy, they are in fact novel conceptualisations that can be added to the model. However, further research is needed to investigate each individual results and its appropriate addition to the model of coach efficacy. Although not as important, a number of results also emerged that both supported the original model of coach efficacy (i.e., knowledge and results) and added novel conceptualisations (i.e., relationships with athletes, acknowledgement and self-image). Lastly, two outcomes of coach efficacy emerged from the results, releasing control and self-evaluation.

Chapter 5 - Discussion

The current study had three purposes. Firstly, to explore coaches' perceptions of their abilities in leading athletes to success and what experiences have influenced their perceived competence (also known as game strategy efficacy). A number of themes emerged from data analysis that demonstrated several sources and outcomes that coaches perceived as being crucial to gaining confidence in their own abilities and skills in leading their athletes to success. The second purpose of the current study was to investigate the relationship between winning and development within the developmental youth sport context. Questioning on this relationship resulted in responses expected from the author. However, more interestingly, results from indirect and direct questioning on the coaches definition and perceptions of "success" highlighted differences to the common notion of the term. Lastly, the third purpose of the current study was to discover whether the conclusions from previous studies apply to youth sport coaches within the UK. Although results supported findings from previous studies, also found were novel concepts regarding the sources and outcomes of UK developmental youth sport coaches' confidence in leading their athletes to success.

One of the most interesting results to emerge from this study was the coaches' own definition, views and perceptions of "success". The common notion within sport is success equals winning (i.e., scoring more points than an opponent) and failure equals losing (Cumming, Smoll, Smith, & Grossbard, 2007). Admittedly, the author came into this study with the same view and expected coaches to couple success with winning. However, what came out of the interviews was very different. After the first three interviews, the author began to see a pattern emerging surrounding the coaches perception of what success meant to them. While transcribing and analysing the interviews, the author was asking such questions as "What is 'winning' to developmental youth sport coaches?" and "Are coaches looking to score actual points or to develop their athletes?" and "What does the term 'success' mean to the coaches?" As a result, coaches described their version of success which challenged the common notion. A theoretical framework concerned with individuals' conceptions of what it means to be successful is achievement goal theory (Nicholls, 1984). Two different ways of defining success and constructing one's level of competence, called ego involvement and task involvement, are identified within achievement goal theory. Individuals who are ego-orientated strive to outperform others or to do better than others with less effort and, as a result, are concerned with demonstrating normative competence. On the contrary, task-oriented individuals focus on

self-improvement and effort in mastering a task while their perception of competence is self-referenced. Fundamental to achievement goal theory is the motivational climate which Ames (1992) suggests is a situational variable created by influential persons (e.g., the coach) that moderates the influence of individual goal orientation.

When questioned on the definition of success, all the coaches described someone who is task-orientated. They would describe coaching situations where they promoted a task-involving climate that "emphasises effort, cooperation, learning, improvement, social relations, and a positive approach to mistakes viewed as naturally associated with the learning process" (Bortoli, Bertollo, Comani & Robazza, 2011, p.172). It is worth noting at this point that all the coaches felt winning was an important part of youth sport, any other view would be naive (Bortoli et al., 2011), but they all explained how is was not the most important objective which is consistent with the literature (Martens, 2004; Smith & Smoll, 2002; Thompson, 2003). One coach gave an example of when he reduced the ultimate importance of winning relative to other prized participation motives (in this case, learning and improvement) which in turn created a task-involving climate (McArdle & Duda, 2002; Smoll & Smith, 2006). Coaches' descriptions of success also corresponded with scholars' calls to move away from the "win at all costs" attitude (e.g., Smith & Smoll, 2012) that encompasses players, coaches and parents alike. These findings put forward the need for the definition of game strategy efficacy (i.e., the confidence coaches have in their ability to coach during competition and lead their athletes to a successful performance) within the developmental youth sport context to be further clarified as the term "successful performance" may be misleading. Therefore, the author believes the game strategy efficacy within the developmental youth sport context should be defined as: the confidence coaches have in their ability to create and maintain a task-oriented environment for their athletes where winning is viewed as secondary to the athlete's physical and psychological development. Although this definition may offer clarity, further studies are needed to support and, if necessary, refine it.

Not all coaches, however, gave detailed descriptions of experiences that demonstrated they were creating a task-involving climate. Coaches who gave detailed descriptions tended to be more experienced in developing young athletes and had coaching environments that supported player development. Although these coaches may have simply been more articulate regarding their experiences, the author felt as if the coaches who were poorly descriptive in their experiences may have been giving false answers to give the impression that they were creating task-involving climates. At this point

it is worth remembering that this is the authors interpretation, however, this is an issue previously highlighted by Curtis, Smith and Smoll (1979) who noted a consistently low correlation between coaches' observed and self-reported behaviours. This concern is not surprising when the views that some have of youth sports are considered. For example, Shields and colleagues (2005) wrote: "Some see youth sports a system rife with rampant problems, such as cheating and aggression. They point to abusing adults and disrespectful kids. They see a youth sport world populated by children who cheat, fight, and disrespect opponents and officials, by coaches who encourage such behaviours, and by parents and fans who scream vulgarities at players, coaches, and officials" (p. 43). Although these views may be based on rare but highly publicised incidents and as the validity of self-reported behaviours is an important methodological concern (Nelson, 1996), coaches may substantially under report socially undesirable behaviours and over report socially desirable behaviours rather than describe their true actions or beliefs (Watson, Kendrick & Coupland, 2003). One way of overcoming this potential issue is the use of observational research to further the understanding of coaches observed and self-reported behaviours. The direct observation of interactions provide a more direct account of behaviours as they occur in real time (Erickson, Côté & Deakin, 2011) which, as a research method, can offer important insights into this seemingly unclear topic.

Together with success, playing experience and relationships with peers were the strongest themes to emerge from data analysis. First, playing experience predicting coaches' confidence is consistent with previous studies (Chase, Feltz & Hayashi, 2005; Feltz, Helper, Roman & Paiement, 2009; Sullivan, Gee & Feltz, 2006). As previously highlighted, coaches who were less confident in their ability to coach their athletes to successful performances demonstrated how they would mask playing experience as coaching expertise (Rushall, 2004). As expected, coaches who become more confident over time began to form their own coaching skills and abilities that were different to those being used while they were athletes. Moreover, coaches who experienced what they perceived to be poor coaching practices actually disregarded there use when they themselves became coaches. This decision was based solely on what they disliked and not on the value of the coaching drill or method itself. When this finding is interpreted in light of research surrounding athletes experiences of poor coaching (e.g., Gearity & Murray, 2011), it is unsurprising that coaches who had negative experiences of coaching when they were athletes decided not to repeat these practices for their current athletes.

A novel theme to emerge from the current study is the perceived effect that peers have on coaches' confidence in their own skills and abilities. Although closely linked to Bandura's (1977) vicarious source of efficacy information, social comparison, the current result extends this beyond social comparison as Bandura (1977) described it to include the influence of the behaviour and actions of peers. This finding suggests it may be specific to either UK developmental youth sport coaches or UK coaches in general. However, this needs further research to establish what context this finding applies to. Nevertheless, as the finding was consistent across all the coaches interviewed, it warrants a discussion and interpretation. Interestingly, peer relationships had both positive and negative impacts on coaches' confidence in their own abilities and skills. For example, coaches felt uncomfortable when they believed other coaches were judging them during their coaching sessions. Also, coaches would compare their abilities and skills with their peers which, if they felt inferior, would have a negative impact on their confidence. Although the effect of peer comparison within young athletes has been a topic of interest (Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2006), unfortunately the concept of peer comparison with youth sport coaches has yet to be the focus of any study (to the authors knowledge). As every coach included in this study reported instances whereby their confidence was either negatively or positively impacted by a peer, it emphasises the need to understand this relationship further, especially as it may have consequences that could have an effect on their athletes.

Themes also to emerge from data analysis were relationships with athletes, knowledge, acknowledgement and results. Although these themes were not as strong as the ones mentioned previously, they are all related because they are all external (or interpersonal) sources of coaches' confidence in their own abilities and skills. Most coaches described their relationships with their athletes to be on an individual basis. Furthermore, it seemed that these coaches were confident in their own abilities and skills to personally manage and develop each athlete by relating to them on their level. These findings correspond with previous research on coaching behaviours that take a unidirectional view of influence (Horn, 2008). However, some coaches then begun to explain that their athletes' behaviour (such as following instructions and acknowledgement) also affected their confidence which, in turn, had an effect on their behaviour (such as releasing control). This extends these results to the multidirectional conceptualisation of coach-athlete interactions (Bowes & Jones, 2006; Cushion, Armour & Jones, 2006) which suggests that coaching "is, in fact, a complex, reciprocally-influential process based on systems of social interaction" (Erickson et al., 2011, p. 646). Erickson and colleagues (2011) suggest that positive environments characterised by a deliberate pattern of coach-athlete interaction

may be associated with youth sport settings producing more satisfied and successful athletes. Although not the initial focus of the current study, the results support calls from scholars (Poczwardoski, Barott & Jowett, 2006) to shift focus from a uni- to a multi-directional view of influence.

Most of the coaches stated they felt more confident in their own abilities and skills once they had completed formal education courses. This finding supports previous results from studies examining the relationship between coach education and coach efficacy (Campbell & Sullivan, 2005; Lee, Malete & Feltz, 2002; Malete & Feltz, 2000). However, the reasons that coaches felt more confident varied. For example, Coach 10 said he attended formal education courses to learn from other coaches and not necessarily the actual content taught. Both issues with formal education courses (Mallett, Trudel, Lyle & Rynne, 2009) and solutions (Cushion, Armour & Jones, 2003) are well documented and, as a result, the current results add to the literature by suggesting developmental youth sport coaches have similar concerns. Also, these results imply that less formal learning opportunities (in this case informal discussions with, and observations of, other coaches) contribute to boosting coaches' confidence in their abilities and skills. However, further investigation is needed to understand the value of less formal learning opportunities and its impact on coach efficacy.

Acknowledgement is a theme that both supports and adds to part of Feltz and colleagues (1999) original conceptual model of coaching efficacy, namely, the source "perceived social support" (p. 767). Coaches identified a number of external sources of support that increased their confidence in themselves through acknowledgment. As previously described (Feltz et al., 1999), support can come from schools (in the current study, clubs were seen as serving the same purpose), communities and parents. In the current study, with the exception of parents, coaches described examples of situations where they have been acknowledged and felt supported by their clubs and communities. Interestingly though, coaches also discussed what the effect acknowledgement and support from athletes had. Specifically, athlete support and acknowledgement seemed to give the coaches confidence in their own abilities and skills by athletes expressing their desire to continue to work with the coach and to identify them as important in their development. These results reflect findings from Chase and colleagues (2005) whereby player support was found to be a source of coaching efficacy. Also, these results again could be referred back to the multidirectional conceptualisation of coach-athlete interactions (Bowes & Jones, 2006; Cushion et al., 2006) whereby athletes may well have

more of an effect on coaches confidence and, in turn, behaviour than previously thought. Therefore, player support and the coach-athlete relationship may be an important source of coach efficacy. Although the theme results may imply actual scores, in this context, it refers to coaches' confidence being affected by visually seeing the result of an aim or goal they had previously decided upon. More often than not, the aim or goal was to develop their athlete(s) and the results were seeing progression made or the performing of a skill. Again, in their study on sources of coach efficacy, Chase and colleagues (2005) highlighted that coaches indicated player development most often. Although further studies will be needed, coupled with earlier findings, results from the current study imply that coaches value player development highly because of two reasons. First, coaches are aware they are in a developmental context and therefore aim to develop their athletes (although more focus may be put on physical development compared to holistic development). Secondly, actually seeing players develop gives coaches confidence that their skills and abilities are appropriate and adequate to do so.

Although discussed above are external sources of coaches confidence in their own abilities and skills, one theme to emerge was actually an intrapersonal source, namely, self-image. The inclusion criterion for this theme was 'the way in which a coach believes they are being perceived by their athletes and peers within the coaching context'. Although there is a close connection with other themes (i.e., relationships with athletes and relationships with peers), the descriptions to emerge were of how coaches believed they were being perceived by their athletes and peers, (usually) without any direct contact from the athletes or peers themselves. Therefore, it was appropriate to treat this as separate. Unfortunately (to the authors knowledge), there are no studies examining how coaches believe they are being perceived by their athletes and peers and how it may affect coach efficacy or behaviour. Still, when this result is interpreted within the social support literature (Lakey, 2010), it can offer new insights (it is worth noting that because this is a preliminary finding, it has been treated as its own source of coach efficacy rather than including it within 'Perceived Social Support'). Lakey (2010) suggests social support is comprised of three constructs: social integration, enacted support, and perceived support. Although the evidence for the success of social support interventions is mixed (Freeman, Rees & Hardy, 2009; Hogan Linden & Najarian, 2002), it is individuals who perceive their relationships as supportive who have been shown to experience a range of favourable outcomes, such as, improved perceived support and psychological health (Rees, Freeman, Bell & Bunney, 2012). Recent research on how people generate perceptions of support has begun to apply methods from generalizability theory (Brennan, 2001; Cronbach, Gleser,

Nanda & Rajaratnam, 1972; Shavelson & Webb, 1991). This has provided important results on the examination of the extent to which perceived support reflects the characteristics of the people making the judgements (i.e., perceivers), the characteristics of the people being judged (i.e., the targets), and a unique perceiver-target relational component (Lakey, 2010). Although this line of research is still in a preliminary stage, the theme self-image from the current study can add to this area and also suggests the need for further research to improve our understanding of how different people (i.e., athletes and peers) and environments (i.e., coaching sessions and formal education courses) may or may not affect a coach's confidence. In addition, Horn (2008) suggested that athletes' interpretations of their coaches' behaviour may be more important than the coaches' behaviour alone. Athletes' interpretations of their coaches' behaviour can affect their self-perceptions, beliefs, and attitude, which can then affect motivation and thus performance. Although these conclusions are made from the athletes' perspectives, future research could investigate whether or not this finding can apply to coaches. Also, this could improve our understanding of how the perceived behaviours of others (i.e., athletes and peers) could affect real behaviours of coaches.

Along with a number of sources of coach efficacy, two outcomes emerged that related to coaches' behaviour. Firstly, coaches who seemed to be confident in their abilities and skills to lead their athletes to success described how they have actually released some control of their coaching to athletes (e.g., independent learning) and allowed their athletes to be more independent (e.g., free to question the coaches decisions). These coaches also believed that they themselves were competent in leading their athletes to success while at the same time thought that when their athletes were not successful, it was because of reasons outside their control. It's worth noting that not all the coaches interviewed shared these views because the author believed that not all coaches felt confident in their own abilities and skills. Coaches who were not as confident seemed to feel the need to control every aspect of coaching and the athletes learning while at the same time not accepting their advice and opinions. Coaches who were confident also demonstrated self-evaluative techniques when something, such as athlete performance, went wrong. Rather than blaming the athletes themselves, coaches described how they would evaluate their own techniques and strategies and refine them to suit the needs of the athletes. Although part of the reason why coaches behaviour seems to change (in terms of the themes discussed) could be down to the recent change in coaching pedagogy (Roberts, 2011), which may well have stemmed from formal education courses, these findings suggest that as coaches become more confident in their own abilities and skill they begin to change their behaviour

in a positive way. Although further research is necessary to determine which specific sources cause this behavioural change.

5.1 - Limitations

Although there are some key results to emerge, it is important to consider the limitations of the current study. First, central to the study was the methodology, namely, interpretive description. Although well-grounded as a methodology within the nursing discipline (Thorne, 2008), the use of interpretive description in sport is relatively new with only two published studies to date (to the authors knowledge; Clark, Spence, & Holt, 2011; Holt, Kingsley, Tink, & Scherer, 2011). However, both these studies demonstrate its appropriate application and are good examples of the value interpretive description can bring to research within sport. Second, most participants interviewed were highly experienced, both in a practical and educational sense. Therefore, recruiting participants that were less experienced may have revealed when and where the sources and outcomes of game strategy efficacy came from. As previous research highlighted the differences in game strategy efficacy between genders (Lee, Malete & Feltz, 2002; Marback, Short, Short, & Sullivan, 2005), the inclusion of female coaches could further highlight and understand key differences. That said, the current study contributes to the literature by adding to the small number of studies that have successfully utilised the interpretive description methodology within sport. It contributes to the growing body of literature on coaching efficacy and highlights the key characteristics that are both specific to UK developmental youth sport coaches and generalizable across all other coaches worldwide.

5.2 - Practical Implications

Consistent with interpretive description, research utilising this methodology must have the goal of developing useful knowledge for those working in applied settings (Thorne, Kirkham, O'Flynn-Magee, 1997). Therefore, is it important to discuss the findings of this study in light of this goal.

5.2.1 - Coaches

Research to date has highlighted a number of sources and outcomes of coaching efficacy in developmental youth sport contexts. However, this research is restricted to coaches within the United States (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006). Therefore, the current study offers coaches the chance to learn about and relate to other developmental youth sport coaches within the UK which can hopefully improve their understanding of the importance of certain experiences. The most significant result the author wants to articulate to coaches

is their perception of "success" and the importance of the motivational climate they create for their athletes. Specifically, the importance of influencing their athletes to be task- and not ego- orientated. As demonstrated above, the advantages of creating this environment for athletes are clear and could allow a new generation of young athletes to thrive.

5.2.2 - Sport Programmers

Previously highlighted is the important role coaches play in the performance of sport and in the wider social agenda of healthy living (Physical Activity Task Force, 2002). As coach education is currently offered by national governing bodies and Sports Coach UK (Nash & Sproule, 2011), results from the current study have potentially important implications for them. For instance, coaches may need educating about the advantages of, and the tools to, creating a task orientated environment for their young athletes. As the common notion in sport is that success equals winning and failure equals losing (Cumming, Smith, Smoll, & Grossbard, 2007), the importance of informing coaches of this potentially damaging view in youth sports is essential. Sport programmers must take note of the sources of coach efficacy that have emerged from the current study as they have the power and resources to change current coaching provision which would inevitably have an effect on coach learning. Furthermore, coaches in the current study reflected previous issues with formal education courses (Mallett, Trudel, Lyle, & Rynne, 2009) emphasising the need for national governing bodies and Sports Coach UK to have a serious review of their coach provision for developmental youth sport coaches. Although the author understands that only half of all coaches currently coaching in UK have a coaching qualification (and therefore exposed to coach provision; North, 2009), the current study reinforces the need for change. More specifically, coach education providers need to offer coaches involved in youth sport settings information regarding the misconception of success. Coaches need to be taught that success is not just about results but is about emphasising effort, cooperation, learning, improvement, social relations, and positive approaches to mistakes. Coaches would therefore create task-involving climates (Bortoli et al., 2011) which would help craft a number of task-orientated, youth athletes who, in the authors' opinion, will have a better chance of either performing at the highest level or simply participating within sporting settings for life. Not only is this an achievable goal for coach education providers, it is also simple and cost effective as all they need to do is add a section on success in the coach education courses they offer.

5.2.3 - Researchers

The current study gives a platform for other researchers to study coaching efficacy within the UK developmental youth sport context. The findings provide common and novel sources and outcomes of game strategy efficacy that require future research to build upon, such as, investigating the extent to which relationships with peers affect coach efficacy. There is also a need to investigate the three other dimensions of coaching efficacy and its sources and outcomes identified by Feltz and colleagues (1999). It is the authors belief that the original model of coach efficacy (Feltz et al., 1999) does not adequately explain the sources and outcomes of coach efficacy for youth sport coaches within the UK. Although it may have some similarities, the author would like to see a new model of coach efficacy offered and built upon by researchers from different epistemological perspectives to create a clearer picture of coach efficacy and its true value. However, there is a distinct lack of research surrounding youth sport coaches and its components like coach efficacy. Therefore, for these areas to be further investigated, more incentives (e.g., funding) may be needed to stimulate research. In addition, the issue regarding the potential differences between self-reported behaviour and observed behaviour appears to be in need of research attention. This area could be of interest to scholars working within sport and disciplines that use interviews to gather self-reported behaviour. In terms of the methodology adopted in this study, qualitative researchers in sport (not just specifically on the subject of coaching efficacy) are presented with further evidence of the value interpretive description has to offer as a methodology (Clark et al., 2011; Holt et al., 2011; Thorne, 2008). Future researchers are encouraged to consider using such an approach which would therefore increase the literature base surrounding this methodology in different applied disciplines.

Chapter 6 - Conclusion

Modern day coaching is seen to be highly dynamic and complex (Cushion, Armour, & Jones, 2003) with the 1.11 million coaches in the UK (North, 2009) playing roles in the development of athletic potential (Department of Culture, Media and Sport, 2002) and the promotion of a healthy life style (Physical Activity Task Force, 2002). The different roles coaches play, and the complexity of the tasks associated with coaching both professionally and non-professionally, are reflected by the proliferation of research in coaching (Wright, Trudel, & Culver, 2007). A number of research areas have been developed from coaching whereas others have been "borrowed" from other disciplines. One such "borrowed" area is coach efficacy (Feltz, Chase, Moritz, & Sullivan, 1999). Coaching efficacy is a progression of Albert Bandura's self-efficacy theory which is one of the most widely researched areas in psychology. Despite the huge interest in self-efficacy in clinical, health, occupational, counselling, and sport and exercise psychology, there is limited examination and application of the concept in coaching (Marbeck et al., 2005). Nevertheless, coaching efficacy is a potentially important construct because it influences coaches and their behaviours and practices (e.g., Campbell & Sullivan, 2005; Chase, Feltz, Hayashi, & Helper, 2005; Feltz et al., 1999; Feltz, Short, & Sullivan, 2008; Malate & Feltz, 2000; Vargas-Tonsing, 2007). To this end, the purpose of this thesis was to examine coaching efficacy in a sample of UK coaches. In order to achieve the overarching purpose, the thesis comprised three constituent purposes. Purpose one was to explore coaches' perceptions of their abilities in leading athletes to success and what experiences have influenced their perceived competence (or game strategy efficacy). Purpose two was to investigate the relationship between winning and development within the developmental youth sport context. Finally, purpose three was to discover whether the conclusions from previous studies apply to youth sport coaches within the UK

In order to address the purposes of this thesis, the author chose to employ the interpretative description methodology developed by Thorne and colleagues (1997; 2004; 2008). Interpretive description is an approach to research that is characterised by creating meaning (knowledge) through the interchange between researcher and participant and extending a form of understanding that is of practical importance to the applied disciplines (Thorne, 2008). Central to interpretive description is the creation of a form of understanding that is of practical importance to the applied disciplines with an explicit relationship to a "pragmatic obligation" (p. 227) whereby researchers using this methodology must recognise that their findings might be applied in practice (Thorne,

2008). Although other ways of measuring and evaluating the phenomenon in question (i.e. coaching efficacy), were available to the author, the applied nature of coaching and the purposes of this thesis, led the author to interpretive description as the most salient research methodology.

By adopting the interpretive description methodology, data collected from interviewing ten UK developmental youth sport coaches both supported several findings embedded within previous literature and highlighted novel concepts. These included a number of sources of game strategy efficacy; acknowledgement, knowledge, playing experience, relationships with athletes, relationships with peers, results, self-image, and success. Additionally, two outcomes of game strategy efficacy were highlighted; releasing control and self-evaluation.

Feltz and colleagues (1999) suggest that coach efficacy consists of four dimensions, including game strategy efficacy, which is defined as "the confidence coaches have in their ability to coach during competition and lead their athletes to a successful performance " (p.765). However, when this definition is applied to coaches operating within the developmental coaching context, as outlined by Gilbert and Trudel (2006), then it becomes necessary to investigate the relationship between winning and development especially because modern day coaches are torn by pressures to produce a winning team. Even if coaches have a fair play ethic and a developmental philosophy, if their team is not winning, then they will often find themselves out of a job because winning percentages are often used as an indicator of coach effectiveness (Horn, 2008). As data were collected and analysed, it became clear that coaches were of the opinion that a "win at all costs" attitude that can encompass not only coaches but players and parents (Smith & Smoll, 2012) is actually detrimental to their athletes and decided to adopt a different, more developmentally focussed philosophy. However, while interviewing and analysing the subsequent transcripts, the author felt as if some of the coaches were giving false descriptions of creating task-involving climates and their developmentally focussed philosophies. Yet further investigation is needed to determine whether or not this is the case by comparing, for example, self-reported and observed behaviours and practices of developmental coaches. What the author felt was more important though was the novel theme that success does not equal winning and contrary to common belief (Cumming, Smoll, Smith, & Grossbard, 2007) success is actually measured in terms of player progression through small tasks, skills and techniques or through levels of playing (i.e.,

amateur to professional). This finding would again benefit from further research that can validate the challenge made that success does not equal winning.

As the vast majority of the limited number of studies surrounding coaching efficacy at youth sport level are focused in America (Feltz, Hepler, Roman, & Paiement, 2009) or Canada (Sullivan et al., 2012), a third purpose of this study was to contribute to the literature base itself and to explore whether conclusions from previous studies apply to youth sport coaches within the UK. Consistent with previous literature, results such as playing experience and knowledge support previous findings within the coach efficacy literature (e.g., Feltz, Help, Roman, & Paiement, 2009; Sullivan, Gee, & Feltz, 2006; Campbell & Sullivan, 2005; Malete & Feltz, 2000). However, a number of themes (e.g., success, relationships with peers, and self-image) emerged that were new to coach efficacy literature which again need further research to determine whether or not they are unique to developmental coaches within the UK or they are themes that apply to coaches across different coaching contexts and countries.

The above conclusions link to all three purposes of the current study while offering the coaching community, both the academic side and the practical side, valuable pieces of important, transparent information. However future researchers studying UK coaches and coach efficacy need to investigate the claims made, especially as the current study had a relatively small sample size. In addition, the studies undertaken need to be as up to date with the coaching community as they possibly can because, as demonstrated in this study, there are a number of sources and outcomes that were brought to light and therefore others may be undocumented. Also, as previously mentioned, although the coaching contexts used in the present study are those outlined by Gilbert and Trudel (2006), if National Governing Bodies adopt such work as the Developmental Model of Sport Participation (DMSP) by Côté and colleagues (2007), then researchers must also adopt the model within their research to create sound, contemporary results that apply to the current coaching community. Although these results are based on discussions with a small sample of coaches, the depth and strength of the data leads the author to suggest that the results discussed and the claims made are well founded and can be further supported through further research from both a qualitative and quantitative standpoint.

In closing, this study provides a unique contribution to the literature on coaching by analysing coach efficacy with a novel and unique methodology, by highlighting sources

and outcomes of coach efficacy within the UK developmental youth sport context, and by demonstrating coaches' views on the relationship between winning and success.

References

Abbey-Pinegar, E. (2010). The need for a global amateurism standard: International student issues and controversies. *Indiana Journal of Global Legal Studies, 17,* 341-365. doi: 10.2979/GLS.2010.17.2.341

Abraham, A., & Collins, D. (1998). Examining and extending research in coach development. *Quest, 50,* 59-79. doi: 10.1080/00336297.1998.10484264

Abraham, A., & Collins, D., & Martindale, R. (2006). The coaching schematic: Validation through expert coach consensus. *Journal of Sport Sciences, 24,* 549-564. doi: 10.1080/02640410500189173

Aghazadeh, S-M., & Kyei, K. (2009). A quantitative assessment of factors affecting college sports' teams unity. *College Student Journal, 43*(2)*,* 294-303.

Ames, C. (1992). Classrooms: Goals, structures, and student motivation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 84,* 261-271. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.84.3.261

Anderson, E. (2005). *In the game: Gay athletes and the cult of masculinity.* Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

ASA. (2008, July). UKCC 12 month on... *Swimming Times, 85*(7)*,* 52-54.

Avard, F. (1995). Systematic observation of a winning football coach. *Louisiana Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, 59*(1)*,* 11-12.

Bailey, R., Collins, D., Ford, P., MacNamara, Á., Toms, M., & Pearce, G. (2010). Participation development in sport: An academic review. *Sports Coach UK,* 1-134.

Baker, C, Wuest, J., & Stern, P. (1992). Method slurring: The grounded theory/phenomenology example. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 17,* 1355-1360. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2648.1992.tb01859.x

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change. *Psychological Review, 84,* 191-215. doi: 10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1990). Perceived self-efficacy in the exercise of personal agency. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 2,* 128-163. doi: 10.1080/10413209008406426

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control.* New York, NY: Freeman.

Birks, M., Chapman, Y., & Francis, K. (2008). Memoing in qualitative research: Probing data and processes. *Journal of Research in Nursing, 13,* 68-76. doi: 10.1177/1744987107081254

Boardley, I. D., Kavussanu, M., & Ring, C. (2008). Athletes' perceptions of coaching effectiveness and athlete-related outcomes in rugby union: An investigation based on the coaching efficacy model. *The Sport Psychologist, 22*(3)*,* 269-287.

Bortoli, L., Bertollo, M., Comani, S., & Robazza, C. (2011). Competence, achievement goals, motivational climate, and pleasant psychobiosocial states in youth sport. *Journal of Sport Sciences, 29,* 171-180. doi: 10.1080/02640414.2010.530675

Bowes, I., & Jones, R. (2006). Working at the edge of chaos: Understanding coaching as a complex interpersonal system. *The Sport Psychologist, 20*(2)*,* 235-245.

Brennan, R. L. (2001). *Generalizability theory.* New York, NY: Springer.

Brookfield, S. D. (1995). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Burden, P. R. (1990). Teacher development. In W. R. Houston (Ed), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 311-327). New York, NY: Macmillan.

Caelli, K., Ray, L., & Mill, J. (2003). 'Clear as mud': Toward greater clarity in generic qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 2*(2)*,* 1-13.

Campbell, T., & Sullivan, P (2005). The effect of a standardized coaching education program on the efficacy of novice coaches. *Avante, 11*(1)*,* 38-45.

Chase, M. A., Feltz, D. L., Hayashi, S. W., & Helper, T. J. (2005). Sources of coaching efficacy: The coaches' perspectives. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 3,* 27-40. doi: 10.1080/1612197X.2005.9671756

Chow, G. M., Murray, K. E., & Feltz, D. L. (2009). Individual, team, and coach predictors of players' likelihood to aggress in youth soccer. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 31*(4)*,* 425-443.

Clark, M., Spence, J., & Holt, N. (2011). In the shoes of young adolescent girls: Understanding physical activity experiences through interpretive description. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise & Health, 3,* 193-211. doi: 10.1080/2159676X.2011.572180

Coaching Task Force. (2002). *The coaching task force: Final report.* London, UK: Department for Culture, Media and Sport.

Conroy, D. E., & Coatsworth, D. J. (2006). Coach training as a strategy for promoting youth social development. *The Sport Psychologist, 20*(2)*,* 128-144.

Côté, J. (1999). The influence of the family in the development of talent in sport. *The Sport Psychologist, 13*(4)*,* 395-417.

Côté, J., Baker, J., & Abernethy, B. (2003). From play to practice: A developmental framework for the acquisition of expertise in team sports. In J. L. Starkes & K. A. Ericsson (Eds.), *Expert performance in sport: Advances in research on sport expertise* (pp. 89-113). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Côté, J., & Gilbert, W. (2009). An intergrative definition of coach effectiveness and expertise. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, 4*(3), 307-323.

Côté, J., Samela, J., Trudel, P., Baria, A., & Russell, S. (1995). The coaching model: A grounded assessment of expert gymnastic coaches' knowledge. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 17*(1)*,* 1-17.

Côté, J., Young, B., North, J., & Duffy, P. Towards a definition of excellence in sport coaching. *International Journal of Coaching Science, 1*(1), 3-17.

Cronbach, L. J., Gleser, G. C., Nanda, H., & Rajaratnam, N. (1972). *The dependability of behavioural measurements: Theory of generalizability for scores and profiles.* New York, NY: Wiley.

Csikszentmihalyi, M., Rathunde, K., & Whalen, S. (1993). *Talented teenagers: The roots of success and failure.* New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Cumming, S. P., Smoll, F. L., Smith, R. E., & Grossbard, J. R. (2007). Is winning everything? The relative contributions of motivational climate and won-lost percentage in youth sports. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 19,* 322-336. doi: 10.1080/10413200701342640

Curtis, B., Smith, R. E., & Smoll, F. L. (1979). Scrutinizing the skipper: A study of leadership behaviors in the dugout. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 64,* 391-400. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.64.4.391

Cushion, C. J., Armour, K. M., & Jones, R. I. (2003). Coach education and continuing professional development: Experience and learning to coach. *Quest, 55,* 215-230. doi: 10.1080/00336297.2003.10491800

Cushion, C. J., Armour, K. M., & Jones, R. I. (2006). Locating the coaching process in practice: Models 'for' and 'of' coaching. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 11,* 83-99. doi: 10.1080/17408980500466995

Cushion, C. J., Nelson, L., Armour, K., Lyle, J., Jones, R., Sandford, R., & O'Callaghan, C. (2010). *Coach learning and development: A review of literature.* Leeds, UK: Sports Coach UK.

Department for Culture, Media and Sport. (2002). *The coaching task force – Final report.* London, UK: Department for Culture, Media and Sport.

Denham, C. H., & Michael, J. J. (1981). Teacher sense of efficacy: A definition of the construct and a model for further research. *Educational Research Quarterly, 5*(1)*,* 39-63.

Denzin, N. K. (2003). *Performance ethnography: Critical pedagogy and the politics of culture.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dowrick, P. W., & Dove, C. (1980). The use of modeling to improve the swimming performance of spina bifida children. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis, 13,* 51-56. doi: 10.1901/jaba.1980.13-51

Douge, B., & Hastie, P. (1993). Coach Effectiveness. *Sport Science Review, 2*(2)*,* 14-29.

Draper, A., & Swift, J. (2011). Qualitative research in nutrition and dietetics: Data collection issues. *Journal of Human Nutrition & Dietetics, 24,* 3-13. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-277X.2010.01117.x

Dzurec, L. (1989). The necessity for and evolution of multiple paradigms for nursing research: A poststructuralist perspective. *Advances in Nursing Science, 11*(4)*,* 69-77.

Emden, C., Hancock, H., Schubert, S., & Darbyshire, P. (2001). A web of intrigue: The search for quality in qualitative research. *Nurse Education in Practice, 1*(4)*,* 204-211.

Emden, C., & Sandelowski, M. (1999). The good, the bad and the relative, part two: Goodness and the criterion problem in qualitative research. *International Journal of Nursing Practice, 5*(1)*,* 2-7.

Erickson, K., Bruner, M. W., MacDonald, D. J., & Côté, J. (2008). Gaining insight into actual and preferred sources of coaching knowledge. *International Journal of Sport Science and Coaching, 3,* 527-538. doi: 10.1260/174795408787186468

Erickson, K., Côté, J., & Deakin, J. (2011). Examining coach-athlete interactions using state space grids: An observational analysis in competitive youth sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 12,* 645-654. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2011.06.006

Erickson, K., Côté, J., & Fraser-Thomas, J. (2007). Sport experiences, milestones, and educational activities associated with high-performance coaches' development. *The Sport Psychologist, 21*(3)*,* 302-316.

Fear, R., & Chiron, R. (2002). *The evaluation interview: How to probe deeply, get candid answers and predict the performance of job candidates.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Feltz, D. L. (1988). Self-confidence and performance. In K. B. Pandolf (Ed.) *Exercise and sport science reviews* (pp. 423-457). New York, NY: MacMillan.

Feltz, D. L., Chase, M., Moritz, S., & Sullivan, P. (1999). A Conceptual Model of coaching efficacy: Preliminary investigation and instrument development. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 91,* 765-776. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.91.4.765

Feltz, D. L., Hepler, T. J., Roman, N., & Paiement, C. (2009). Coaching efficacy and volunteer youth sport coaches. *The Sport Psychologist, 23*(1)*,* 24-41.

Feltz, D. L., & Lirgg, C. D. (2001). Self-efficacy beliefs of athletes, teams, and coaches. In R. N. Singer, H. A. Hausenblas, & C. Janelle (Eds.), *Handbook of sport psychology, 2nd ed* (pp. 340-361). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Feltz, D. L., Short, S. E., & Sullivan, P. J. (2008). *Self-efficacy in sport.* Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Fleurance, P., & Cotteaux, V. (1999). Construction de l'expertise chez les entraîneurs sportifs d'athlètes de haut-niveau français. [French expert coaches' construction of expertise]. *Avante, 5*(2)*,* 54-68.

Fountain, J. J., & Finley, P. S. (2011). Academic clustering: A longitudinal analysis of a division I football program. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletes, 4,* 24-41. Retrieved from http://csri-

jiia.org/documents/puclications/research_articles/2011/JIIA_2011_4_2_24_41_Acade
mic_Clustering.pdf

Fraser-Thomas, J., & Côté, J. (2006). Youth sports: Implementing findings and moving forward with research. *Athletic Insight, 8*(3)*,* 12-27. Retrieved from http://www.athleticinsight.com/Vol8Iss3/YouthSports.htm

Freeman, P., Rees, T., & Hardy, L. (2009). An intervention to increase social support and improve performance. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 21,* 186-200. doi: 10.1080/10413200902785829

Frey, M. (2007). Colleges coaches' experiences with stress: "Problem solvers" have problems too. *The Sport Psychologist, 21*(1)*,* 38-57.

Gearity, B. T., & Murray, M. A. (2011). Athletes' experiences of the psychological effects of poor coaching. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 12,* 213-221. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2010.11.004

Gilbert, W., & Trudel, P. (1999). An evaluation strategy for coach education programs. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 22*(2)*,* 234-250.

Gilbert, W., & Trudel, P. (2004a). Analysis of coaching science research published from 1970-2001. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 75*(4)*,* 388-399.

Gilbert, W., & Trudel, P. (2004b). Role of the coach: How model youth team sport coaches frame their roles. *The Sport Psychologist, 18*(1)*,* 21-43.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research.* Chicago, IL: Aldine.

Gould, D. (1987). Your role as a youth sports coach. In V. Seefeldt (Ed.), *Handbook for youth sport coaches* (pp. 17-32). Reston, VA: American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance.

Gould, D., Giannini, J., Krane, V., & Hodge, K. (1990). Educational needs of elite U.S. national team, Pan American, and Olympic coaches. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education, 9*(4)*,* 332-344.

Governali, P. (1972). The physical educator as coach. *Bulletin of Physical Education, 9,* 29-32. doi: 10.1080/00336297.1966.10519618

Harris, B. S., & Watson II, J, C. (2011). Assessing youth sport burnout: A self-determination and identity development perspective. *Journal of Clinical Sport Psychology, 5*(2)*,* 117-133.

Heidegger, M. (1962). *Being and time.* New York: Harper.

Henriksen, K., Stambulova, N., & Roessler, K. (2010). Holistic approach to athletic talent development environments: A successful sailing milieu. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 11,* 212-222. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2009.10.005

Hogan, B. E., Linden, W., & Najarian, B. (2002). Social support interventions: Do they work? *Clinical Psychology Review, 22*(3)*,* 381-440.

Holt, N., Kingsley, B., Tink, L., & Scherer, J. (2011). Benefits and challenges associated with sport participation by children and parents from low-income families. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise, 12,* 490-500. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2011.05.007

Horn, T. (2008). Coach effectiveness in the sport domain. In T. Horn (Ed.), *Advances in sport psychology* (pp. 239-267). Champaign: Human Kinetics.

Hunt, M. (2009). Strengths and challenges in the use of interpretive description: Reflections arising from a study of the moral experience of health professionals in humanitarian work. *Qualitative Health Research, 19*(9)*,* 1284-1292.

Husserl, E. (1931). *My ideas pertaining to a pure phenomenology and to a phenomenological philosophy.* New York, NY: Collier Books.

Irwin, G., Hanton, S., & Kerwin, D. (2004). Reflective practice and the origins of elite coaching knowledge. *Reflective Practice, 5,* 425-442. doi: 10.1080/1462394042000270718

Johnson, M., Long, T., & White, A. (2001). Arguments for "British pluralism" in qualitative health research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 33,* 243-249. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2648.2001.01659.x

Jones, R. I., Armour, K. M., & Potrac, P. (2004). *Sports coaching culture: From practice to theory.* London, UK: Routledge.

Jones, R. L., Harris, R., Miles, A. (2009). Mentoring in sports coaching: A review of literature. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 14,* 267-284. doi: 10.1080/17408980801976569

Jowett, S. (2008). What makes coaches tick? The impact of coaches' intrinsic and extrinsic motives on their own satisfaction and that of their athletes. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports, 18*(5)*,* 664-674.

Kavussanu, M., Boardley, I. D., Jutkiewicz, N., Vincent, S., & Ring, C. (2008). Coaching efficacy and coaching effectiveness: Examining their predictors and comparing coaches' and athletes' reports. *The Sport Psychologist, 22*(4)*,* 383-404.

Kearney, M. (2001). Levels and applications of qualitative research evidence. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 37,* 566-576. doi: 10.1002/nur.1017

Kincheloe, J. L., & Berry, K. (2004). *Rigour and complexity in educational research: Conceptualizing the bricolage*. London, UK: Open University Press.

Kincheloe, J. L., McLaren, P., & Steinberg, S. R. (2011). Critical pedagogy, and qualitative research: Moving to the bricolage. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The sage handbook of qualitative research* (4th ed., pp. 163-178). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Kowalski, C. L., Edginton, C. R., Lankford, S. V., Waldron, J. J., Roberts-Dobie, S. R., & Nielsen, L. (2007). Coaching efficacy and volunteer youth soccer coaches. *Asian Journal of Exercise & Sport Science, 4*(1)*,* 1-5.

Kuper, A., Lingard, L., & Levinson, W. (2008). Critically appraising qualitative research. *British Medical Journal, 337,* 687-689*.* doi: 10.1136/bmj.a1035

Kuzel, A. (1999). Sampling in qualitative inquiry. In B. Crabtree & W. Miller (Eds.), *Doing qualitative research* (pp. 33-45). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Lakey, B. (2010). Social support: Basic research and new strategies for intervention. In J. E. Maddux & J. P. Tangney (Eds.), *Social psychological foundations of clinical psychology* (pp. 177-194). New York, NY: Guilford.

Laverty, S. (2003). Hermeneutic phenomenology and phenomenology: A comparison of historical and methodological considerations. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 2*(3), 21-35.

Lee, K. S., Malete, L., & Feltz, D. L. (2002). The strength of coaching efficacy between certified and noncertified Singapore coaches. *International Journal of Applied Sport Sciences, 14*(1)*,* 55-67.

Lemyre, F., Trudel, P., & Durand-Bush, N. (2007). How youth-sport coaches learn to coach. *The Sport Psychologist, 21*(2)*,* 191-209.

Lesyk, J. J., & Kornspon, A. S. (2000). Coaches' expectations and beliefs regarding benefits of youth sport participation. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 90,* 399-402. doi: 10.2466/pms.2000.90.2.399

Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lirgg, C. D., George, T. R., Chase, M. A., & Ferguson, R. H. (1996). Impact of conception of ability and sex-type of task on male and female self-efficacy. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 18*(4)*,* 426-343.

Long, T., & Johnson, M. (2000). Rigour, reliability, and validity in qualitative research. *Clinical Effectiveness in Nursing, 4,* 30-37. doi: 10.1054/cein.2000.0106

Lowenberg, J. (1993). Interpretive research methodology: Broadening the dialogue. *Advances in Nursing Science, 16*(2)*,* 57-69.

Lyle, J. (2002). *Sports coaching concepts.* London, UK: Routledge.

Lynch, M., & Mallett, C. (2006). Becoming a successful high performance track and field coach. *Modern Athlete and Coach, 44*(2)*,* 15-20.

Maddux, J. E. (1995). Self-efficacy theory: An introduction. In J. E. Maddux (Ed.), *Self-efficacy, adaption, and adjustment: Theory, research, and application* (pp. 3-33). New York, NY: Plenum.

Maines, D. (1997). Interactionism and Practice. *Applied Behavioural Science, 5*(1)*,* 1-8.

Malete, L., & Feltz, D. (2000). The effect of a coaching education program on coaching efficacy. *The Sport Psychologist, 14*(3)*,* 410-417.

Mallett, C. J., Trudel, P., Lyle, J., & Rynne, S. B. (2009). Formal vs. informal coach education. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, 4*(3)*,* 325-334.

Marback, T. L., Short, S. E., Short, M., & Sullivan, P. J. (2005). Coaching confidence: An examination of sources and gender differences. *Journal of Sport Behaviour, 28*(1)*,* 18-34.

Martens, R. (2004). *Successful Coaching* (3rd ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Martens, R., & Gould, D. (1979). Why do adults volunteer to coach children's sport? In K. M. Newell & G. C. Roberts (Eds.), *Psychology of motor behavior in sport – 1978* (pp. 79-89). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

May, K. (1989). Interview technique in qualitative research: Concerns and challenges. In J. Morse (Ed.), *Qualitative nursing research: A contemporary dialogue* (pp. 188-201). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

McArdle, S., & Duda, J. K. (2002). Implications of the motivational climate in youth sports. In F. L. Smoll & R. E. Smith (Eds.), *Children in youth sport: A biopsychosocial perspective* (pp. 409-434). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

McCallister, S. G., Blinde, E. M., & Weiss, W. M. (2000). Teaching values and implementing philosophies: Dilemmas of the coach. *Physical Educator, 57*(1)*,* 35-45.

Mesquita, I., Isidro, S., & Rosado, A. (2010). Portuguese coaches' perceptions of and preferences of knowledge sources related to their professional background. *Journal of Sport Science and Medicine, 9*(3)*,* 480-489.

Millar, S-K., Oldham, A. R. H., & Donovan, M. (2011). Coaches' self-awareness of timing, nature and intent of verbal instructions to athletes. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, 6,* 503-513. doi: 10.1260/1747-9541.6.4.503

Molstad, S. M. (1993). Coaching qualities, gender, and role modelling. *Women in Sport and Physical Activity Journal, 2*(2)*,* 11-19.

Morales, J. (2006). Coaching for the right reasons. *Texas Coach, 51*(4)*,* 48.

Moritz, S. E., Feltz, D. L., Mack, D., & Fahrback, K. (2000). The relation of self-efficacy measures to sport performance: A meta-analysis review. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 71*(3)*,* 280-294.

Morse, J. (1989). Qualitative nursing research: A free-for-all? In J. Morse (ed.), *Qualitative nursing research: A contemporary dialogue* (pp. 3-10). Rockville: Aspen.

Morse, J. (1994a). "Emerging from the data": The cognitive processes of analysis in qualitative inquiry. In J. Morse (ed.), *Critical issues in qualitative research methods* (pp. 23-43). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Morse, J. (1994b). Qualitative research: Fact or fantasy? In J. Morse (Ed.), *Critical issues in qualitative research methods* (pp. 1-8). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Myers, N. D., Chase, M. A., Pierce, S. W., & Martin, E. (2011). Coaching efficacy and exploratory structural modeling: A substantive-methodological synergy. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 33*(6)*,* 779-806.

Myers, N. D., Feltz, D. L., Chase, M. A., Recklase, M. D., Hancock, G. R. (2008). The coaching efficacy scale II - high school teams. *Educational and Psychological Measurements, 68,* 1059-1076. doi: 10.1177/0013164408318773

Myers, N. D., Feltz, D. L., Maier, K. S., Wolfe, E. W., & Recklase, M. D. (2006). Athletes' evaluations of their head coach's coaching competency. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 77*(1)*,* 111-121.

Myers, N. D., Vargas-Tonsing, T. M., & Feltz, D. L. (2005). Coach efficacy in intercollegiate coaches: Sources, coaching behaviour, and team variables. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise, 6,* 129-143. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2003.10.007

Myers, N. D., Wolfe, E. W., & Feltz, D. L. (2005). An evaluation of the psychometric properties of the coaching efficacy scale for American coaches. *Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise Science, 9*(3)*,* 135-160.

Nash, C. S., & Sproule, J. (2011). Insights to experiences: Reflections of an expert and novice coach. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, 6*(1)*,* 149-161.

Nash, C. S., Sproule, J., & Horton, P. (2008). Sport coaches' perceived role frames and philosophies. *International Journal of Sport Science & Coaching, 3,* 539-554. doi: 10.1260/174795408787186495

National Association for Sport and Physical Education. (1995). *Quality coaches, quality sports: National standards for athletic coaches.* Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Nelson, D. E. (1996). Validity of self reported data on injury prevention behavior: Lessons from observational and self reported surveys of safety belt use in the US. *Injury Prevention, 2*(1)*,* 67-69.

Nelson, L. J., & Cushions, C. J. (2006). Reflection in coach education: The case of the national governing body coaching certificate. *The Sport Psychologist, 20*(2)*,* 174-183.

Nelson, L. J., Cushion, C. J., & Potrac, P. (2006). Formal, nonformal and informal coach learning: A holistic conceptualization. *International Journal of Sport Science and Coaching, 1*(3)*,* 247-259.

Nicholls, J. G. (1984). Achievement motivation: Conception of ability, subjective experience, mastery choice, and performance. *Psychological Review, 91*(3)*,* 328-346.

North, J. (2009). *Coaching workforce 2009-2016.* Leeds, UK: Sports Coach UK.

North, J. (2010). Using 'coach developers' to facilitate coach learning and development: Qualitative evidence from the UK. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, 5,* 239-256. doi: 10.1260/1747-9541.5.2.239

Oliver, C. (2012). The relationship between symbolic interactionism and interpretive description. *Qualitative Health Research, 22,* 409-415. doi: 10.1177/1049732311421177

Orlick, T., & Botterill, C. (1975). *Every kid can win.* Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall.

Park, J. K. (1992). *Construction of the coaching confidence scale.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing, USA.

Poczwardowski, A., Barott, J. E., Jowett, S. (2006). Diversifying approaches to research on athlete-coach relationships. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 7,* 125-142. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2005.08.002

Ponterotto, J. (2005). Qualitative research in counselling psychology: A primer on research paradigms and philosophy of science. *Journal of Counselling Psychology, 25,* 126-136. doi: 10.1037/0022-0167.52.2.126

Physical Activity Task Force. (2002). *Let's make Scotland more active.* Scotland, UK: Scottish Executive, Crown Copyright.

Ray, M. (1994). The richness of phenomenology: Philosophic, theoretic, and methodologic concerns. In J. Morse (ed.), *Critical issues in qualitative research methods* (pp.117-133). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Reade, I., Rodgers, W., Hall, N. (2008). Knowledge transfer: How do high performance coaches access the knowledge of sport scientists? *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching, 3*(3)*,* 319-334.

Rees, T., Freeman, P., Bell, S., & Bunney, R. (2012). Three generalizability studies of the components of perceived coach support. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 34*(2)*,* 238-251.

Roberts, S. J. (2011). Teaching games for understanding: The difficulties and challenges experienced by participation cricket coaches. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 16,* 33-48. doi: 10.1080/17408980903273824

Rushall, B. S. (2004). Coaching development and the Second Law of Thermodynamics [or belief-based versus evidence-based coaching development]. *Swimming in Australia, 19*(6), 72-79.

Salmela, J. H. (1996). *Great job coach: Getting the cutting edge from proven winners.* Ottawa, Ontario: Potentium.

Sandelowski, M. (1986). The problem of rigor in qualitative research. *Advances in Nursing Science, 8*(3)*,* 27-37.

Sandelowski, M. (1993). Rigor and rigor mortis: The problem of rigor in qualitative research revisited. *Advances in Nursing Science, 16*(2)*,* 1-8.

Sandelowski, M. (2000). Whatever happened to qualitative description? *Research in Nursing & Health, 23*(4)*,* 334-340.

Sandelowski, M., & Barosso, J. (2002). Finding the findings in qualitative studies. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship, 34*(3)*,* 213-219.

Schroeder, P. (2010). Changing team culture: The perspectives of ten successful head coaches. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 33*(1)*,* 63-89.

Schunk, D. H. (1995). Self-efficacy and education and instruction. In J. E. Maddux (Ed.), *Self-efficacy, adaptation, and adjustment: Theory, research, and application* (pp. 281-303). New York, NY: Plenum.

Shavelson, R. J., & Webb, N. M. (1991). *Generalizability theory: A primer.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Shields, D. L., Bredemeier, B. L., LaVoi, N. M., & Power, F. C. (2005). The sport behavior of youth, parents, and coaches: The good, the bad, and the ugly. *Journal of Research in Character Education, 3*(1)*,* 43-59.

Short, S. E., Smiley, M., & Ross-Stewart, L. (2005). The relationship between efficacy beliefs and imagery use in coaches. *The Sport Psychologist, 19*(4)*,* 380-394.

Singleton, D. A., & Feltz, D. L. (1999). *The effect of self-modeling on shooting performance and self-efficacy among intercollegiate hockey players.* Unpublished manuscript.

Smith, R. E., & Smoll, F. L. (1990). Self-esteem and children's reactions to youth sport coaching behaviors: A field study of self-enhancement processes. *Development Psychology, 26,* 987-993. doi: 10.1037/0012-1649.26.6.987

Smith, R. E., & Smoll, F. L. (2002). *Way to go coach! A scientifically-proven approach to coaching effectiveness* (2ⁿᵈ ed.). Portola Valley, CA: Warde.

Smith, R. E., & Smoll, F. L. (2012). *Sport psychology for youth coaches: Developing champions in sports and life.* Lanham, MD : Rowman & Littlefield.

Smith, R. E., Zane, N. W. S., Smoll, F. L., & Coppel, D. B. (1983). Behavioural assessment in youth sports: Coaching behaviour and children's attitudes. *Medicine and Science in Sport and Exercise, 15*(3)*,* 208-214.

Smoll, F. L., & Smith, R. E. (2006). Development and implementation of coach-training programs: Cognitive-behavioral principles and techniques. In J. M. Williams (Ed.), *Applied sport psychology: Personal growth to peak performance* (5ᵗʰ *ed., pp. 458-480).* Boston, MA: Mc-Graw-Hill.

Smoll, F. L., Smith, R. E., Barnett, N. P., & Everett, J. J. (1993). Enhancement of children's self-esteem through social support training for youth sport coaches. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78*(4)*,* 602-610.

Sport England. (2012). *30-month performance review for Sport England funded national governing bodies.* Retrieved November 15, 2012, from Sport England Web site: http://www.sportengland.org/funding/ngb_investment/ngb_whole_sport_plans_2009 -13/ngb_progress_reports_2011-12.aspx

SportsCoach UK. (2007). *UKCC impact study: Definitional, conceptual and methodological review.* Leeds, UK: Sports Coach UK.

Steinberg, S. R. (2011). Critical cultural studies research: Bricolage in action. In K. Tobin & J. Kincheloe (Eds.), *Doing educational research* (2ⁿᵈ ed., pp. 117-138) *.* Rotterdam, the Netherlands: Sense Publishing.

Strean, W. (1998). Possibilities for qualitative research in sport psychology. *The Sport Psychologist, 12*(3)*,* 333-345.

Suddaby, R. (2006). From the editors: What grounded theory is not. *Academy of Management Journal, 49*(4)*,* 633-642.

Sullivan, P. J., Gee, C. J., Feltz, D. L. (2006). Playing experience: The content knowledge sources of coaching efficacy beliefs. In A. V. Vitel (Ed.), *Trends in educational psychology* (pp. 185-194). New York, NY: Nova.

Sullivan, P. J., Paquette, K. J., Holt, N. L., & Bloom, G. A. (2012). The relation of coaching context and coach education to coaching efficacy and perceived leadership behaviours in youth sport. *The Sport Psychologist, 26*(1)*,* 122-134.

Sullivan, P. J., & Kent, A. (2003). Coaching efficacy as a predictor of leadership style in intercollegiate athletics. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 15,* 1-11. doi: 10.1080/10413200305404

Teucher, U. (2011). Book reviews: Interpretive description. *British Journal of Psychology, 102,* 135-144. Doi: 10.1177/1049732310374064

The National Archives. (2011). *Data Protection Act 1998.* Retrieved May 2, 2012, from Legislation Web site: www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1998/29/resources

Thompson, J. (2003). *The double-goal coach: Positive coaching tools for honoring the game and developing winners in sport and life.* New York, NY: Harper Information.

Thorne, S. (2000). Data analysis in qualitative research. *Evidenced Based Nursing, 3,* 68-70. doi: 10.1136/ebn.3.3.68

Thorne, S. (1991). Methodological orthodoxy in qualitative nursing research: Analysis of the issues. *Qualitative Health Research, 1,* 178-199. doi: 10.1177/104973239100100203

Thorne, S. (2008). *Interpretive description.* Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press.

Thorne, S., & Darbyshire, P. (2005). Landmines in the field: A modest proposal for improving the craft of qualitative health research. *Qualitative Health Research, 15*(8)*,* 1105-1113.

Thorne, S., Kirkham, S., & MacDonald-Emes, J. (1997). Interpretive description: A noncategorical qualitative alternative for developing nursing knowledge. *Research in Nursing & Health, 20*(2)*,* 169-177.

Thorne, S., Kirkham, S., & O'Flynn-Magee, K. (2004). The analytic challenge in interpretive description. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 3*(1)*,* 1-21.

Trudel, P., & Gilbert, W. (2006). Coaching and coach education. In D, Kirk, D, Macdonald & M, O'Sullivan (Eds.), *The handbook of physical education* (pp. 516-539). London, UK: Sage Publications.

van Teijlingen, E., & Hundley, V. (2002). The importance of pilot studies. *Nursing Standard, 16*(40)*,* 33-36.

Vargas-Tonsing, T. M. (2007). Coaches' preferences for continuing coaching education. *International Journal of Sport Science & Coaching, 2*(1)*,* 25-35.

Vargas-Tonsing, T. M., Warners, A. L., & Feltz, D. L. (2003). The predictability of coaching efficacy on team efficacy and player efficacy in volleyball. *Journal of Sport Behaviour, 26*(4)*,* 396-406.

Watson, M., Kendrick, D., & Coupland, C. (2003). Validation of a home safety questionnaire used in a randomised controlled trial. *Injury Prevention, 9,* 180-183. doi: 10.1136/ip.9.2.180

Weiss, M. R., & Fretwell, S. D. (2005). The parent-coach/child-athlete relationship in youth sport: Cordial, contentious, or conundrum? *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 76*(3)*,* 286-305.

Werthner, P., & Trudel, P. (2006). A new theoretical perspective for understanding how coaches learn to coach. *The Sport Psychologist, 20*(2)*,* 198-212.

Williams, S. J., & Kendall, L. (2007). Perceptions of elite coaches and sport scientists of the research needs for elite coaching practice. *Journal of Sports Science, 25*(14)*,* 1577-1586.

Wright, T., Trudel, P., & Culver, D. (2007). Learning how to coach: The different learning situations reported by youth ice hockey coaches. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 12,* 127-144. doi: 10.1080/17408980701282019

Appendix 1 – Initial E-mail to Participants

Hi [name],

My name is Matt Fiander, a friend of [name], and he's passed on your email address because he's told me you are interested in being interviewed for my study. I'm a master's student at the University of Gloucestershire and my study is on youth sport coaches views on their confidence in their own abilities and skills. The interview will last about an hour and there are no wrong answers so don't worry!

If you're interested that would be a massive help so email me back so we can arrange a time and place. I'm happy to fit around your schedule so we can meet at [name] (if that's easiest) at a time to suit you.

Thanks very much,
Matt Fiander

Appendix 2 – Participants Information Sheet

Principal Investigator
Matthew Fiander
Faculty of Applied Sciences, University of Gloucestershire
Oxstalls Campus, Oxstalls Lane, Gloucester, GL2 9HW
matthewfiander@connect.glos.ac.uk, Tel: 01242 715200

Title of Study:

Youth sport coaches and coaching efficacy: An exploration into the development of coaching ability

Dear Coach,

I am a sport psychology researcher at the University of Gloucestershire. I would like to invite your club to take part in a research study. The study is voluntary and I will only approach you further if you give your full permission. **The purpose of this study is to explore coaches' perceptions of their abilities to lead athletes to success.**

I would like to talk to you and invite you to participate in an interview. The interview should take no more than one hour, and we will arrange it around your competition and training schedules. There are no known physical, psychological, economic, or social risks associated with participation in this study. I will provide participants with a summary of the study's results upon request.

Participants are free to withdraw consent at any time for any reason, and you do not need to justify your decision. Refusal to participate or withdrawal from this study will not affect participants' treatment on their team or within their sport organisation.

I will keep all data private and secret. I will keep data in a locked office that only I will have access. I will keep data for five years after the study has finished. After five years, I will destroy the data. Once I have finished the study I will aim to present the results at conferences and publish in an academic journal. When I publish the results, no participant will be identifiable.

If you would like to participate in this study, please reply to this email and we can arrange and time to meet.

Many thanks

Matthew Fiander

Appendix 3 – Initial Interview Guide

	Questions	Probes
Ice Breakers	What kind of playing career have you had?	- Achievements? - Best Moments?
	What coaching philosophy do you employ?	- Why?
Main Questions	How do you manage your athletes during competition?	
	How do they react to your decisions?	- How does that affect your self-confidence? - What else boosts your self-confidence?
	What decisions do you take under pressure situations? (e.g., losing)	
	What strategies do you take to maximise your athletes' strengths during competition?	
Final Questions	What would be the most important thing to affect a coach's confidence?	
	Have you got anything else you would like to add?	

Appendix 4 – Revised Interview Guide

	Questions	Probes
Ice Breakers	What kind of playing career have you had?	- Best moments? - Has it effected your coaching? - How?
	Do you think your playing and/or coaching experience effects your confidence now?	- How?
	What coaching philosophy do you employ? [Describe a coaching session]	- Developmental vs. winning? - Why?
Main Questions	How do you feel about the win-at-all-costs attitude?	
	Do you think money affects the pressure on coaches to win?	
	How do you define "success" as a coach?	
	How do you manage your athletes during a game?	
	What strategies do you take to maximise your athlete's strengths during a game?	- Where have these come from?
	What decisions do you take under pressure situations? (e.g., losing)	
	How do your athletes react to your decisions?	
	Does that boost/lower your self-efficacy?	- What else boosts your self-efficacy within coaching?
	In your opinion, what are the most important factors that affect a coach's efficacy?	
Final Questions	What's the most important thing we've spoken about today?	
	Have you got anything else you would like to add?	

Appendix 5 – Informed Consent Form

Informed Consent Form

Title of Project:	**Youth sport coaches and coaching efficacy: An exploration into the development of coaching ability**
Principal Investigator:	Matthew Fiander Faculty of Applied Sciences, University of Gloucestershire Oxstalls Campus, Oxstalls Lane, Gloucester, GL2 9HW matthewfiander@connect.glos.ac.uk, Tel: 01242 715200

	Yes	No
Do you understand that you have been asked to take part in a research study?	Yes	No
Have you read and received a copy of the attached information letter	Yes	No
Do you understand the benefits and risks involved in taking part in this research study?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you are free contact the research team to take the opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study?	Yes	No
Do you understand that you free to refuse participation, or to withdraw from the study at any time, without consequence, and that your information will be withdrawn at your request?	Yes	No
Do you understand that your data will be kept confidential? Do you understand who will have access to your information?	Yes	No

I wish to take part in this study:

Printed Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Preferred Contact number: _____

Email: _____