

“Your behaviours are your values in action”:
Exploring coaching behaviour in a football
academy setting



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Abstract

Background: Research into the science of coaching has challenged the technical rationality underpinning the majority of existing literature. Supporting the view that sport coaching is an intricate power struggle riddled with interactions in which coaches use different strategies to reach a desired goal (Cassidy, Jones, & Potrac, 2009; Cushion, 2007; Jones, 2006, 2009, 2011; Jones, Armour, & Potrac, 2004, as cited in Nelson et al., 2013b, p. 205).

Coaches have a leading influence on athletes in youth sport settings, the role of facilitating positive developmental experiences is highly significant (Erickson & Cote, 2016). While existing literature offers insights into the coach-athlete relationship, studies evaluating the implementation of innovative approaches such as person centred approaches (Garner et al., 2022) incorporating notions of 'care' (Cronin & Armour, 2018) are limited.

This research is valuable as it offers an insight into an academy football setting. The purpose of this study is to better understand coach behaviour in a professional talent environment. Despite a wealth of literature on the coach-athlete relationship (Jowett, 2017; Turnnidge et al., 2014) and applying leadership models to sport settings (Turnnidge & Cote, 2018) it can be difficult for coaches to consistently implement what is discussed. Without diminishing the value of pedagogy and leadership models this study focuses on what influences coach behaviour and where the expectation of behaviour comes from.

Objectives: This research aimed to analyse how coaches behave within an academy setting and provide an insight into how they interact with their athletes in a professional environment. To help achieve this, one main research question coupled with two sub questions are answered. The main research question focused on what influences coach behaviour with the sub questions exploring how coaches navigate their values and the extent to which they manage their behaviour. The study intended to better understand coaches' behaviour within a professional academy, adding to limited literature into football academy settings.

Methods: Semi structured interviews were used to collect qualitative data in this research with four youth academy coaches from one academy. All four coaches coach children aged

12-16 and were interviewed twice on separate occasions with the total interview time per participant approximately 90 minutes.

Findings and Discussion: The findings in this thesis are centred around three main themes:

- Influence of Coach education
- Coaching philosophy
- Coaching context

Declaration

This dissertation is a product of my own work and does not infringe the ethical principles set out in the University's Handbook for Research Ethics. I agree that it may be made available for reference via any and all media by any and all means now known or developed in the future at the discretion of the university.

Ben Bell

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I look forward to not having to compose another piece of work exceeding 30,000 words again.

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Introduction

This research aimed to analyse how coaches behave within an academy setting and provide an insight into how they interact with their athletes in a professional environment. In this research four coaches, from one academy, who consented to semi-structured interviews provide qualitative data. All four coaches coach children aged 12-16 in the Youth Development Phase (YDP) of the academy.

This research builds on the existing literature into coaching behaviours in a professional environment as the coach-athlete relationship is central to effective coaching and impacts the development of athletes (Jowett et al., 2012; Lyle, 2002). The coach-athlete relationship plays a significant role in both team and individual settings (Cote & Gilbert, 2009). It is important for researchers to delve into the behaviours of coaches as coaching is complex and the coach plays a significant role in the development of a young person (Partington & Cushion, 2012). Social theory is used in this study as coaching is a social endeavor (Potrac & Jones, 2009; Short & Short, 2005) where the effectiveness is influenced by the coach athlete interactions (Cote & Gilbert, 2009). These studies provide the basis of this research which adds to the existing literature as this study focused on how coaches interact with their athletes.

Coach values are integral to this study as Cushion & Partington (2014) argue the impact of social structures and hierarchy on the concept of a coaching philosophy have been downplayed. This study set out to investigate the impact a hierarchy could have on a coach's values and what influence this could have on coach behaviour. What was found was a lack of an imposed set of values and behaviours allowing freedom for coaches to implement their values in action.

The importance of this research is particularly relevant for coaches and coach educators trying to understand coaches' behaviors in a professional setting where youth development is a focus. Research in sport coaching has utilized established social theory as a way of understanding coaching interactions and literature has largely had a bio-psychological focus. This study uses Goffman's work to move towards a more enhanced approach which locates coaches' behaviours within their dynamic and complex contexts. When studying coaching

behaviour, the research by Chesterfield, Potrac, & Jones (2011) in addition to Parker & Manley (2017) provide useful demonstrations of how Goffman's work can help to understand coaches' behaviour.

It is important to understand how coaches interact with their athletes in a professional environment because despite the importance of the players' environment little is known about coaches' behaviour within a professional setting. Given the amount of money invested in professional academies in England and Wales, the lack of empirical research into these high-pressured environments is surprising, highlighting the need for coaches' experiences in these settings to be shared (Mills et al., 2014). Like other talent development/ pathway mechanisms within sport, football academies are responsible for a learning programme based on technical, tactical, physiological, and psychological components (O'Connor et al., 2016). This study aimed to better understand coaches' behaviour within a professional academy, adding to the limited literature in a football academy setting.

The thesis is structured thus in the literature review aspects of an effective coach are discussed based on the work of Cote & Gilbert (2009) along with components of positive coach-athlete relationships (Adie & Jowett, 2010; Jowett, 2017). The coach-athlete relationship is viewed from a holistic approach connecting with studies which utilise transformational leadership in sport settings (Turnnidge & Cote, 2018) and pseudo transformational leadership (Avolio, 2011; Christie et al., 2011).

Within research methods the paradigmatic approach taken for this research is discussed to introduce the research design and qualitative method chosen for data collection. Following this is an overview of the procedure, how data was collected, and the approaches taken within thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The findings and discussion are put forward centred around three main themes and subsequent sub themes. Data is presented with references to demonstrate how the findings sit within existent literature. Connections are made between the qualitative findings and the research question and sub questions.

The thesis is concluded which offers a summary of the piece of research with final thoughts made relating to implications for coaching practice and coach education in addition to areas for future studies.

Literature review

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss pertinent literature to the study focusing on coach behaviour and the viewing the coach-athlete relationship from different perspectives such as a leadership viewpoint. Furthermore, it is important to consider factors that may influence coach behaviour and the coach-athlete relationship in an academy such as talent development and coaching philosophy. Coaches may consider those factors when trying to be an effective coach which is relevant to the study when trying to understand the intention behind the behaviours examined. Building on coaching effectiveness Cote & Gilbert's (2009) work on different types of knowledges is discussed using interpersonal knowledges to connect to the coach-athlete relationship. The coach athlete relationship can be viewed from different perspectives such as, Jowett's psycho social focus, a holistic approach leading to care in coaching and person centred approaches. Furthermore, transformational leadership is used as an example of a leadership lens used in coaching to view the coach athlete relationship. The focus is further narrowed to incorporate the sociological lens using Goffman's theoretical notion of 'front' to explore pseudo transformational leadership and the notion of authenticity.

The value of the research comes from the academy setting of which the data is collected as it offers an insight into the reflections of practicing academy coaches. This study also aims to address a drawback Nichol et al. (2019) mention arguing that research should better try to understand how, when, why and what circumstances influence what a coach does to make better recommendations for coach education and to develop coaching practice.

Literature presented in this chapter helped inform the three research questions for this study where the broad aim of the research was to explore what influences coaches behaviour in an academy setting i.e., philosophies, pedagogy, coaching context and to investigate the extent to which coaches manage their behaviour.

Scholars of coaching science have challenged the technical rationality underpinning much of the existing literature (Cassidy, Jones & Potrac, 2009; Cushion, 2007; Jones, 2006, 2009, 2011; Jones, Armour & Potrac, 2004, as cited in Nelson et al., 2013b, p. 205). Their work supports the view that sport coaching is a complex power struggle riddled with interactions in which coaches use different strategies to reach a desired goal. Nelson et al. (2013b) found the coach often concealed their true emotions and enacted others in a ploy to achieve an outcome which was favourable for them. This study helped inform the first research question looking into what influences coaches behaviour. Furthermore, the findings in that study also influenced in the third research question examining the extent to which coaches manage their behaviour.

There is a significant body of research which addresses coaches' behaviour in youth sport settings, largely focused on the influences on athlete development (Erikson & Cote, 2016). Contemporary research depicts sport coaches as capable of manipulating the environment around them to an extent to reach team and/or individual goals (Potrac & Jones, 2009; Short & Short, 2005). The study by Potrac et al. (2002) investigated coaches behaviour and what influences them in and therefore holds significance to this study due to both studies examining the behaviour and influences on football coaches. This study helped inform the first research questions investigating what influences coaches behaviour in an academy setting.

Within the last decades coaching has increasingly been viewed as a contested activity. Interpersonal skills have gradually been examined as an essential yet invisible art that contributes to coaching (Jones & Corsby, 2015). Over time through empirical and theoretical studies, coaching can be seen as a contested act where everything is disputed and subject to the context in which it occurs. This has been supported by research incorporating theories of sociological theorists, such as Goffman (Chesterfield et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2015; Hatteburg, 2018), Foucault (Crockett, 2015; Elden, 2017; Lang, 2015) and Garfinkel (Heritage, 1998). Each piece of work adding something to an ever-growing body of knowledge within the field of sport coaching. With each addition leaving more research to be conducted from a slightly different angle, viewing social worlds with a different lens. Each time attempting to better understand cultures and social worlds uncovering the "constitutive rules of everyday behaviour" (Goffman, 1974, p. 5).

Contemporary research depicts sport coaching as an everyday social endeavour and power struggle where coaches are capable of manipulating the environment around them to an extent to reach team and/or individual goals (Potrac & Jones, 2009; Short & Short, 2005). Literature connecting Goffman's work with sport coaching has taken a view highlighting the importance of coaches manipulating their behaviour with their athletes (Jones et al., 2011) or coach educators (Chesterfield et al., 2010) to create an impression in an attempt to evoke a specific response.

This research addresses a drawback in literature by using a multiple method approach and engaging different stakeholders (Nichol et al., 2019) in this study the multiple methods are case study and interviews, and the key stakeholder is the academy manager in addition to the coaches. Jones et al. (2011) discuss how coaches can utilise impression management to play the role of a coach, while Chesterfield et al. (2010) used interviews to understand that coaches on a coach education course alter their own behaviour to mimic that of the coach educator in an attempt to pass the course. Chesterfield et al. (2010) applied Goffman's work (1959) as a lens to understand their findings, invoking Goffman's concept of front to explain how developing coaches managed their behaviour on the course. These two studies helped inform the third research question examining the extent to which coaches manage their own behaviour in social interactions.

Coaching knowledges

Digging deeper in coaching behaviours and coaching effectiveness the purpose of this section is to acknowledge the work Cote & Gilbert (2009) have done in providing a definition of coaching effectiveness and discuss their work on three types of knowledges. This is important as it helps give an understanding of what academy coaches need to be effective. Cote & Gilbert (2009) formed a definition of coaching effectiveness based on a substantial review of literature on coaching, teaching athlete development and positive psychology.

"The consistent application of integrated professional interpersonal and intrapersonal knowledges, to improve athletes competence, confidence, connection and character in specific coaching contexts." (Cote & Gilbert, 2009, p. 316).

There are two prongs to this definition explaining what a successful academy coach needs and what they should aim for: three types of knowledges (Cote & Gilbert, 2009) and the 3+1 C's (Jowett, 2007). Professional knowledge refers to the coaches ability to teach sport specific skills (Jones, 2007) interpersonal refers to the coaches skills to build and maintain relationships (Jowett, 2007) and intrapersonal refers to one's own ability to reflect and learn from their own practice (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001). Cote & Gilberts (2009) understanding of interpersonal knowledge is significant because it ties into what has been discussed regarding coach athlete relationships and interactions.

Professional knowledge (also known as content knowledge) can encompass pedagogical knowledge allowing the coach to introduce and improve the sport specific skills of their athletes. This connects to this study as it relates to the research question centred around how coaches manage their own expectations of talent development and pedagogical values in the academy environment. Professional knowledge ties in with the pedagogical values and philosophies that a coach holds. This is because the way a coach tries to improve their athletes can be impacted by their own philosophy and values pedagogically. The term professional knowledges proposed by Cote & Gilbert (2009) builds on the work conducted by Abraham et al. (2006) which discussed knowledge which was sport specific, but which varies across different settings, and encompasses procedural knowledge, and pedagogical knowledge. They were regrouped under the more general term of professional knowledge.

Continuing with Cote & Gilbert's (2009) work, Interpersonal knowledge can be also framed as emotional intelligence as a knowledge of how to interact and connect with others such as coaches, players, and stakeholders. This strongly connects to this study as it links to the second research question focusing on the extent coaches manage their own behaviour. Furthermore, the research question focusing on how coaches manage the expectations of behaviour in the academy connects to interpersonal knowledge as coaches have to build and maintain coach-athlete relationships in addition to interacting with other influences in an academy setting. Interpersonal knowledge is significant because coaches do not work in isolation as they regularly have to interact with athletes, parents, other coaches and other professionals. This is underpinned by contemporary research which depicts coaching as complex and socialised. This knowledge focuses on what is sometimes referred to as the

human aspect of coaching which has been acknowledged as a crucial element to leadership, teaching and coaching (Becker, 2009; Jones et al., 2010).

The third type of knowledge, intrapersonal refers to the coaches ability to reflect and be self-aware. It is formally defined as “the understanding of oneself and the ability for introspection and reflection” (Cote & Gilbert, 2009, p. 311). This links to the first research question looking into the influences on coaches behaviours in an academy environment. In addition, it’s possible to connect all the data collected to intrapersonal knowledge as the coaches reflect on their own practice during interviews.

Applying the idea of the three types of knowledges to coach education, the existing literature does not suggest that all coach education is as effective and impactful as it could potentially be (Nelson et al., 2013a). There has been a growing desire that coaching become a more recognised profession as strong feelings towards professionalisation are largely welcomed (Chesterfield et al., 2010; Hedstrom & Gould, 2004). Traditional coach education involved formal instruction, similar to that of a classroom (Perkins & Hahn, 2000), however Maclean & Lorimer (2016) found that coaches prefer informal learning by learning through doing and interacting with other coaches. Cote & Gilbert (2013) point out a challenge to coach education is to provide coaches with opportunities to develop their knowledge competencies. They advocated for an increase prevalence of what Lyle (2010) defined as ‘situated learning’ which includes problem based learning (Jones & Turner 2006), communities of practice (Cushion et al., 2003; Culver & Trudel 2008; Nelson et al., 2013a) and learning communities (Gilbert et al., 2009). Furthermore, Cote & Gilbert (2013) argue that through these means coaches will develop their intrapersonal knowledge with a formal infrastructure created to support coach reflections. Furthermore, due to coaching being complex and idiosyncratic there’s lots to be learnt through personal experiences (Hertting, 2019).

Regarding coaching effectiveness, Cote & Gilbert (2009) make a point to distinguish coach effectiveness from coach expertise which refers to context specific knowledge. The concept is that a coach can be considered an effective coach should they demonstrate coaching effectiveness, and this can be measured by context specific athlete outcomes. Research associated with ineffective coaching tends to be conducted with athletes. In the study conducted by Gould et al. (2011) investigated factors which negatively affected the performance of Olympic athletes. The coaches’ behaviours which they reported included poor

communication, poor decisions and selection, lack of enthusiasm and access, lack of clarity of decisions and lack of support. Similar findings were present in the study conducted by Gearity & Murray (2011) who found poor coaching to be associated with behaviours such as lack of care and being unfair. Furthermore, Manley et al. (2008) found that the perceptions of low coaching effectiveness and competence to be down to the sources of information available when coaches decided to make themselves available to athletes (Thellwell et al., 2007).

A criticism of the current methods of understanding athlete perceptions is considered by Nichol et al. (2019) who explains that due to the vast number of studies using single method research design engaging in single perceptive research has given a broad understanding of variables in coaching practice that influence athlete outcomes. They call for more research to search for interpretive explanations for how and why the practice is influential building on the complex and multi-faceted nature of coaching. This adds value to this study addressing the concerns raised. Furthermore, Turnnidge et al. (2014) points out another limitation of the existing literature being that when observations tools are used to code coaching behaviour the aim is to record the number of times exhibits a certain codable behaviour. The limitation being that there is no notion of the sequential nature in which these behaviours were performed or the intention that drives the behaviours. For instance, research would benefit if the structure of coaches' movements were discussed in relation to the real time that they happened (Allan et al., 2016). This would be enhanced by observation as a methodology with the researcher able to record the reaction of the coaches in relation to the social situation and interaction which they find themselves in. This would help practicing coaches understand what constitutes an effective coach-athlete interaction.

Coach athlete relationship

The coach-athlete relationship directly connects to Cote & Gilbert's (2013) understanding of interpersonal knowledge as it focuses on connecting and interacting with others thus is crucial as the way coaches interact and behave impacts the coach-athlete relationship.

As this study will explore coaches' behaviour and how they interact with their athletes it is important to understand the benefits of positive coach-athlete relationships. The coach-athlete relationship is characterised by its social and relational nature and is developed

through the socialisation and interactions that occur within a sport setting (Choi et al., 2013; Fisher et al., 1982; Pulido et al., 2019; Turnnidge et al., 2014).

The coach-athlete relationship can be viewed from a number of perspectives, Jowett adopts a psychological focus underpinned by psycho-social theory. The coach-athlete relationship connects each athlete to the coach and is defined by Jowett “as a situation in which the coach and the athlete’s feelings, thoughts, and behaviours are interconnected” (Jowett, 2018, p. 67). Jowett (2018) describes a positive coach-athlete relationship as a place reached when coaches’ and athletes’ closeness (trust, respect, and appreciation), commitment (the intention to maintain the relationship over time), and complementarity (interpersonal behaviours such as responsiveness, easiness, and friendliness) are interconnected, this is known as the 3C’s.

Aidee & Jowett (2010) and Jowett (2017) highlight how athletes who viewed their coach as cooperative, committed, and close (3Cs) in their relationship were more likely to adopt a mastery approach, thus being more intrinsically motivated. Research into motivation suggests players being intrinsically motivated increases performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Price, 2003). This highlights the importance of a strong coach-athlete relationship, incorporating the 3C’s. This is described as coach-athlete centred coaching (Jackson & Beauchamp, 2010).

Coaches’ behaviours can play a significant role in shaping their athlete’s experiences. As shown in the study Erikson & Cote (2016) who found athletes who experienced lots of interactions with the coach resulted in their own perception of confidence competence and closeness as low and decreasing. Other athletes who experienced more interactions related to things going on outside of the sport were high and increasing while some athletes were moderate and maintaining. This suggests the athletes perceived more attention as being less skilled thus decreasing confidence as the coach needed to give them more technical and corrective feedback.

Studies looking into coach-athlete interactions are an important section of contemporary coaching research informing training interventions and behaviour procedures. Studies examining this are categorised into vast amounts of feedback, instructions, positive behaviour management and encouragement. In addition, interactions of this type coupled with a myriad of positive athlete outcomes such as enjoyment, self-esteem, and resilience (Turnnidge et al.,

2014). A limitation of the existing literature is there is a need to consider how coaching can be impacted by variables in the context such as pedagogical values, coaches' philosophies, and the setting in which the interactions present themselves (Cushion & Jones, 2001; Turnnidge et al., 2014). This is significant as this limitation in existing research centring around coaches managing their own philosophies adds value to this study uncovering new findings which add to the literature.

Weiss et al. (1989) looked into the relationship between self-efficacy and performance and produced results showing a link between levels of self-efficacy and performance. This is significant as it shows the importance of confidence, resonating with the 3C's (Jowett, 2010).

Holistic

Another way to view the coach athlete relationship is from a holistic perspective as an important lens. Kidman (2010) argues coach development has become fragmented due to interdisciplinary knowledges not connecting in research and thus not enough attention is placed on allowing coaches to understand that holism refers to addressing the whole person not just an athlete. Cassidy (2010) argues holistic coaching is culturally specific arguing our understanding will be altered culture as our understanding of the term is influenced by cultural norms and disciplinary traditions. Cassidy (2010) calls for a systematic scale to understand holism, but Kidman (2010) argues that paradoxically contradicts Cassidy's initial assessment that holism is culturally based.

Crucial to the quality and outcomes of coaching is coach-athlete interactions. The coaches' influence can be exerted through sport environments, types of coaching behaviour i.e., creating a motivational climate and the importance attributed to winning and/ or performance. For athletes, coaches can be a reference for developing in sport setting but also in other environments such as education or the workplace. Pulido et al. (2019) argues that coaches should therefore consider a more holistic approach taking into consideration an environment where learning across all fields beyond sport are acknowledged. Holistic refers to being multi-level, in a sport coaching setting that means caring about the entire person not just their ability to perform in sport (Nesti & Sulley 2014; Wylleman et al., 2013).

It is strongly suggested in contemporary literature that a holistic approach is effective when trying to achieve positive youth development (Allan et al., 2017). Using a holistic approach is not uncommon in football academies across Europe; Arsenal Football club (Green et al., 2020), Genk (Ryom et al., 2020) Rosenburg (Aalberg & Saether, 2016), Barcelona and Feyenoord (Nesti & Sulley 2014). While there are examples of holistic approaches uses in sport settings Nichol et al. (2019) states there is a need for research to focus more on holism with regard to coaching practice, acknowledging that experiences and outcomes will be shaped by emergent relationships and interactions.

Kidman (2010) argues coaches should always coach holistically due to athletes being complex social processes with a vast array of interacting variables. When discussing athlete centred coaching Kidman (2005) claims the holistic development of the athlete is key to an athlete centred coaching approach.

Using the term athlete centred coaching has led to coaches connecting holism to athlete success but Garner et al. (2022) argue coaches can be holistic in their approach by taking a person centred approach. This perception of athlete centred coaching and holism is evident in the examples of football clubs using a holistic approach that discuss athlete outcomes related to performance. As seen in Green et al (2020) who used a holistic approach to accommodate the psycho-social needs of the individual athletes, working towards mental wellbeing, personal development, and psychological characteristics alongside more sport specific aspects like technical and tactical. Garner et al. (2022) place importance on the intention that drive coaching behaviours and see the intention as key when trying to implement a person centred coaching approach. Without detracting from pedagogical models, they suggest a holistic approach demands a greater significance placed on the interpersonal and intrapersonal skills of the coach.

Care in coaching

Having viewed the coach-athlete relationship from a holistic perspective, one way coaches can be holistic is by using the contemporary but under developed notion of care in coaching.

Cronin & Armour (2018) introduce care in coaching in their edited book '*Care in Sport Coaching: Pedagogical cases*'. Citing cases of exploitation, fraud, sexual harassment, drug

abuse, physical abuse and emotional abuse highlighting the need to address the level of care coaches pay to their athletes. They also point out a deficiency in the coach education system as all coaches involved came through a formal education system and in addition, were under the watch of national governing bodies. Land & Harthill (2015) mention that such events are not isolated incidents nor exclusive to one performance culture. To date, care is rarely discussed in sport literature and thus Cronin & Armour (2018) build on research by Jones (2009), Noddings (2013), Brackenridge & Rhind (2014) and Harthill & Lang (2015). They define care in coaching as complex and based around not causing harm to the athletes along with listening and being concerned about them.

Care theory derives from Noddings (1984) work on care ethics and has become the dominant theory of which to understand care in coaching. These derive from a feminist perspective on teaching which puts empathy, nurturing and caring at the centre of pedagogical endeavours. This position came from perceptions of a depersonalised education system which a large emphasis on assessment in opposition to addressing the “holistic needs of the learners” (Cronin et al., 2018, p. 16). From this stance it is clear to see where Cronin and Armour (2018) draw similarities with the sport system and governing bodies concerned with outcomes rather than the human interactions which take place. Noddings argues that to care for an individual which requires trust, empathy, and dialogue between both the coach and athlete. Trust can be defined as a willingness to be vulnerable to someone (Kao et al., 2017).

Applying the concept of care to a sport coaching context brings the pertinence to the theory in this study as research advocates that taking on the role of a coach is to take on an interdependent relationship with athletes and other key stakeholders such as parents, coaches, club officials and governing bodies, this point is illustrated by both psychological and sociological research on the topic. Notably Jowett’s research centred around successful coaching focusing on the 3cs; complimentary, committed and close (Aidee & Jowett, 2010; Jowett, 2017). Jowett (2018) describes a positive coach-athlete relationship as a place reached when coaches’ and athletes’ closeness (trust, respect, and appreciation), commitment (the intention to maintain the relationship over time), and complementarity (interpersonal behaviours such as responsiveness, easiness, and friendliness) are interconnected, this is known as the 3C’s. Furthermore, the work of others such as Cote &

Gilbert (2009) stress the importance of the coach athlete relationship being significant in allowing the athlete to flourish.

Furthermore, aligning with contemporary research Cronin & Armour (2018) view coaching as dynamical and complex due to the nature of the interdependent relationship. Coaching is increasingly being viewed as a contested relational activity leading to an ever growing amount of literature viewing social from a sociological perspective. Theorists such as Goffman (Chesterfield et al., 2010; Johnson et al., 2015; Hatteburg, 2018), Foucault (Crockett, 2015; Elden, 2017; Lang, 2015) and Garfinkel (Heritage, 1998) all being used as theoretical lenses to unpick and better understand the everyday life in the world of a sport coach. The reason being that coaches have to manage many different types of relationships due to the amount of people involved ranging from athletes to senior officials in governing bodies where funding is controlled. Furthermore, Cronin & Armour (2018, p. 6) give a nod to the social work of Goffman viewing him as a power theorists claiming coaches have “gatekeeping influences.” Not dissimilar to Goffman’s quote “everyone is a gatekeeper in regard to something” (Goffman, 1983, p. 8) and that can be applied to sport coaching regarding coaches’ relative power and how they can make decisions which can impact others around them. Paradoxically, with the power that comes with the role of a coach allows the coach to be caring but also enact harm over the athletes. It is this paradox around harm and beneficence which gives the theory of care in coaching such significance due to the coaches power laden role.

Not dissimilar to football academies, the coach athlete relationship is subject to interference from external stimuli such as parents, clubs and governing bodies. Such examples are clear to see with Olympic sport funding increasing or decreasing based on competition outcomes. Such instances could result in coach-athlete relationships being cut short due to lack of funds. Therefore, Cronin & Armour (2018) argue that a coaches’ behaviours should not be considered in isolation but be considered based on the environment that they operate in due to the potential economic and political power. Coaches have a difficult role of orchestrating sporting performances in environments which can be ever changing and include a variety of state holders. It must be acknowledged that care will not occur only in power laden coach athlete relationships but see that the coach athlete relationship is situated and influence by other performers, to use Goffman’s terminology, and social,

economic and political conditions. There can be little doubt that the social influence of these wider performers that both coach and athlete will encounter will influence what the coach cares about and how the coach cares.

Digging deeper into the feminist perspective, Noddings (2010) introduces motivational displacement as a concept emanating from engrossment. Engrossment referring to a sustained, empathetic attention that one pays to another. Motivational displacement suggests that the carer will better understand the needs and wants of those being cared for. While not being inevitable it is possible for the motivation of the carer to shift their own needs to those of the one being cared for. Arguing to care requires sustained empathetic attention (engrossment) and requires a commitment from the carer to put aside their own needs in the interest of the one being cared for (motivational displacement). Noddings (2010) argues we care through engrossment and motivational displacement.

Noddings (2007) also points out that care is multi directional as it needs to be reciprocated arguing that the cared for is also required to care for the carer. Even small actions within interactions between coach and athlete such as a smile can acknowledge the care that is being given. Goffman's theory can be applied to this as Provis (2010) discusses a joint social performance. When questioning if the care must be genuine, it could be questioned if both parties in the relationship would be able to pretend to care for the other thus engaging in a joint social performance. Furthermore, that the trust in the relationship which Cronin et al. (2018) argues comes from the care may in fact be the trust in the other actor to continue to engage in the social performance keeping up the performance of caring for the other one. Nevertheless, this would coincide with the view provided by Noddings (2007) that care is a relationship of which both parties contribute. Mcleod (2010) who explains that authentic care is required to build trust. An area of research yet to be addressed is the extent to which genuine care in coaching is required to still achieve the positive outcomes of a coach athlete relationship and how much can be 'performed'. This would incorporate the work of Goffman and his dramaturgy analogy. Essentially asking the question, is it possible to pretend to care?

To date there is a limited amount of research into care in sport coaching. An early study conducted by Jones (2009) while advocating for the use of autoethnography in research this study also raised the issue about care in coaching. Jones provides a useful insight into the

life of both a coach and reminisces of being an athlete looking for a coach who cared. It is possible to make connections between care theory and a holistic approach due to the level of care required. Cronin et al. (2018) explain that care can be shown by communicating openly with athletes, allowing athletes to have control over their environment and modelling care to other coaches and athletes. Furthermore, traits of a caring coach can be shared around a holistic approach such as relationships where there is an open dialogue, empathy towards athlete needs and concern for other individuals (Kodama, 2017; Taliaferro, 2014).

Garner et al. (2022) point out the need for more empirical studies into humility for research to impact coach development.

Leadership

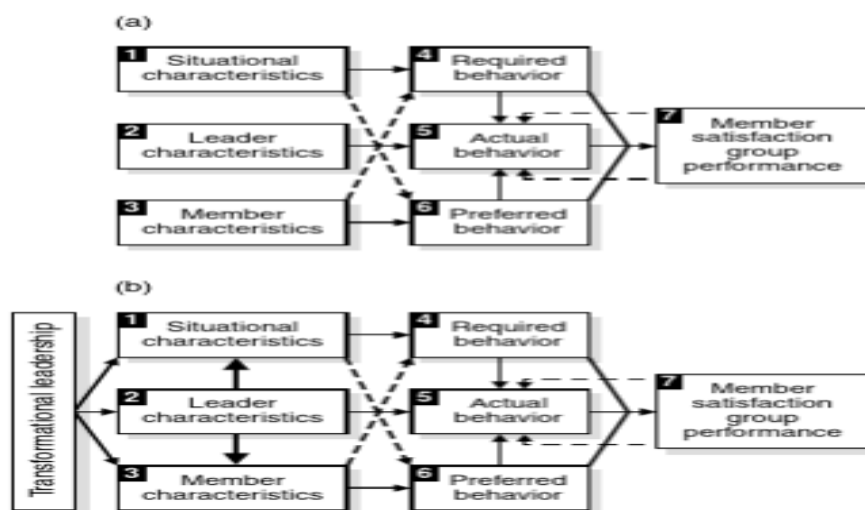
The coach athlete relationship can also be viewed from a leadership perspective and is important for this study as the leadership style a coach deploys can impact their behaviour.

While this study is focused on coaching behaviour it is important to acknowledge that when delving into research on coach behaviour there is a body of relevant literature that use models of leadership as a way to understand behaviour in coaching contexts and investigating leadership in youth football settings (Borghi et al., 2017). It is important to note that whilst this is not the only way of studying behaviour it does frame much of the study given the prevalence of this lens in coaching literature as shown by Cote et al. (2010) and Cote & Turnnidge (2016) as a way to study the coach athlete relationship and the impact of such relationships. The purpose of this section is to highlight the connection between leadership and sport coaching. It is important for this study to demonstrate how leadership theories have been applied to sport settings to show the connection between leadership and sport coaching. Within contemporary literature on leadership there is a growing appreciation of relationships, complexity, influence, and the ability to adapt.

Chelladurai & Miller (2016) say that literature viewing leadership from a psychological perspective have been more extensive calling for more work to be done from a sport perspective. When looking into leadership in youth sport Chelladurai's (1978) multidimensional model is applicable as shown in the figure 1 (a) (page 16) displays three

states of behaviours for a leader; required, preferred and actual. It states that situational characteristics composing of the group goals, the type of task and cultural context of the group inform the required behaviour of the leader. This is pertinent as this research is focused on influences of coaching behaviour. Preferred behaviour links in to feedback coaches give as focuses on the manner in which members prefer to receive instructions, guidance, social support and feedback. Since the initial publication the model has been revisited to include the transformational effects of leader behaviour as shown in the figure 1 (b) below (Kent & Chelladurai, 2007).

Figure 1: (a) Chelladurai's multidimensional model of leadership. (b) Updated to include transformational effects.

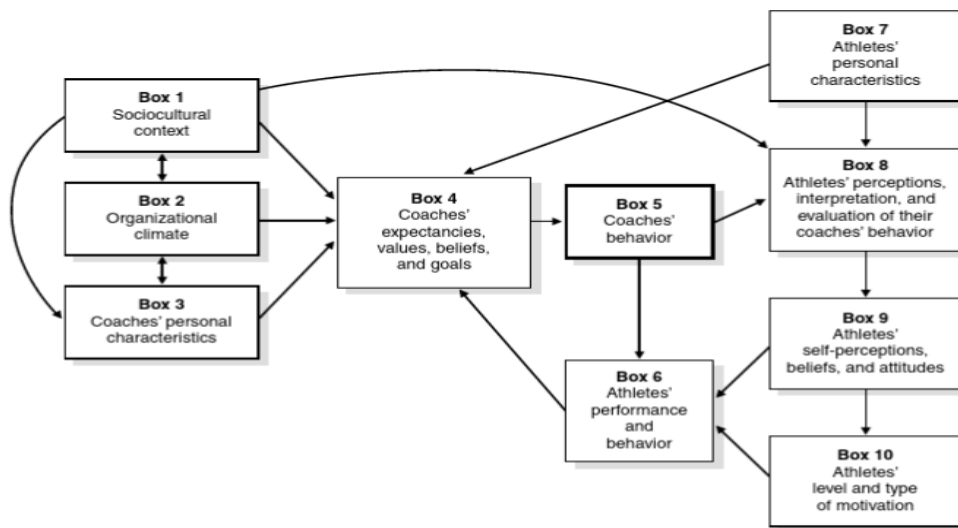


From Chelladurai, P. (2007). Leadership in Sport. In *Handbook of Sport Psychology* (p. 117).

Horn's (2002) model of coaching effectiveness as shown in figure 2 (page 17) can appear complex. It shows that sociocultural context, organisational climate and a coaches personal characteristics influence the behaviour of a coach, and these behaviours are mediated by their expectancies, values, beliefs and goals. All of which are components of a coaching philosophy. This is pertinent to this research when analysing how coaches manage their own philosophical values to align to the values of the academy. Furthermore, the model shows the coaches behaviours directly affects athletes performance and behaviour. This links to

Chelladurai's (1978) multidimensional model as the sociocultural context and organisational climate subsumes the situational characteristics.

Figure 2: Horn's model of coaching effectiveness.



From Chelladurai, P. (2007). Leadership in Sport. In *Handbook of Sport Psychology* (p. 123).

Davidson (2010, as cited in Henwood, 2014, p. 33) explained how leadership models were based on linear hierarchical models. Mechanistic in nature these models failed to capture the complex nuances of social relationships that drive organisations. Henwood (2014) refers to Goleman's (2006) work that shifted the paradigm of effective leadership towards self-awareness and how we behave with others.

As coaching is a relational, social activity it is important to acknowledge a further limitation which is the view that coaching is a unidirectional process. Research primarily explores how coaches impact athletes and their experiences either in a positive or negative way. Research fails to address how athletes impact the coaches' behaviour and coach-athlete relationships. This is pertinent to this study as Provis (2010) talks about a joint social performance in relation to human interaction. This could further develop understanding into how coaches behaviour along with athlete behaviour influences coaches.

Key to this study are the social interactions between the coaches and athletes. The contemporary dominant ideology tells us that leadership is a social process where assumptions and beliefs influence the contextualisation of leadership. The perceptions of leadership are influenced by previous experiences from other leaders (Skull, 2017). This is further emphasised by (McCormack & McCance, 2016) who spoke about leadership as relational as the effectiveness is dependent on a healthy relationship between leader and follower(s) leaving them feeling safe and connected.

Chelladurai & Saleh (1980) incorporated feedback into their leadership scale for sport (LSS), the positive feedback dimension considers the degree to which coaches praise the athletes for their contribution and performance. Hoigaard et al. (2008) applied the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1978) and LSS (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1988) to elite football in Norway and found the three preferred coaching behaviours were positive feedback, training and instruction, and democratic behaviour.

The role of a coach encompasses leadership and coaching as coaching is a process (Lyle, 2018). There are many different interpretations of defining coaching as a term. Lyle (2011) centred his definition around improving sport performance, preparing for competition and an aggregation of behaviour and practise however others take different ideological stances emphasising the inclusive nature of coaching (ICCE, 2013). Lyle (2018) argues coaching is best accepted as an umbrella term for a vast array of leadership roles which are domain specific.

In addition, Barrow (1977) defined leadership as “the behavioural process of influencing individuals and groups towards set goals” (p. 232). A leader is someone with identifiable followers and able to provide guidance and a vision, this idea of a leader with followers is present in contemporary leadership theories (Mendonca & Kanungo, 2007; Voight, 2015). The idea of a leader and follower directly transfers across to coaching in the form of coach athlete relationships. Adair (2013) describes leadership as key and something that should be used in abundance within sports coaching.

Transformational leadership

Within contemporary research both leadership and coaching share similarities such as being complex, socialised and dynamic. Early leadership research discusses the act of leadership as attempting to influence and convert others into followers (Tannenbaum, Weschler & Massarik, 1961). A thought which has re-emerged in contemporary literature with transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Using relationships to connect leadership and coaching, one contemporary leadership approach that sits within the full range leadership model which places significance on the coach-athlete relationship is Transformational Leadership (TFL) (Bass & Riggio, 2006). There is a concern as to how coaches cultivate someone's personal development in sport, especially around young people (Cote & Turnnidge, 2016). Experts argue that TFL is more effective as positive development in sport is down to several social contextual factors and the coach is critical to the realisation of positive development (Cote & Turnnidge, 2016).

The key difference between transactional and transformational leadership is that transactional leadership builds trust based on rewards and punishments following behaviours whereas TFL uses the 4I's: Individualised Consideration (IC), Inspirational Motivation (IM), Intellectual Stimulation (IS) and Idealised Influence (II) to build relationships with followers and motivate them. In addition, a further difference is that the aim of TFL is to develop followers into leaders (Cote & Turnnidge, 2016; Martin et al., 2006, Northouse, 2013). For example, leaders who display more transformational behaviours are shown to have a more cohesive group (Callow et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2012), along with more positive development (Vella et al., 2012), advanced levels of collective efficacy (Price & Wiess, 2013), high levels of intrinsic motivation (Charbonneau et al., 2001), increased well-being and satisfaction with the leader (Rowold, 2006), more empowerment and organisational behaviour (Lee et al., 2013), less aggression (Tucker et al., 2010), higher attendance (Rowold, 2006), and increased performance levels (Charbonneau et al., 2001). These studies are significant as they demonstrate how a leadership theory can be applied to coaching contexts demonstrating a connection between leadership and sport coaching. It is unsurprising that there's a growing

number of studies applying TFL to coaching as a broad aim of the leadership theory is to develop followers to reach their full potential and turn them into leaders.

A critique of some leadership literature is that it categorises leaders as either transactional or transformational. There has been a perceived dichotomy created using Avolio's (2011) Full Range Leadership Model which fails to acknowledge that leaders can display behaviours from different leadership models. This is a flaw as this is not what was claimed in Avolio's (2011) work.

In the academic community there is growing appreciation that there is significant potential for coaching research to apply Transformational Leadership theory (Turnnidge & Cote, 2018). While the contemporary literature offers an insight into the types of athlete outcomes that are associated with TFL, Turnnidge & Cote (2018) claim there are limited studies evaluating how these outcomes can be acquired. However, there is a body of literature applying TFL in sport settings with the focus on positive youth development.

Pseudo Transformational

Within literature on TFL, when a leader becomes self-consumed and power orientated to the point of exploitation this is known as pseudo transformational leadership (Avolio, 2011; Northouse, 2013; Kirkbride, 2006). Authentic transformational leadership is more socialised and altruistic where the leader transcends their own interests for the good of their followers (Northouse, 2013; Price & Weiss, 2013). In contrast to a pseudo-transformational leader who uses their followers trust for their own good (Christie et al., 2011; D'arripe-Longueville, 1998; Naber & Moffett, 2017). This is important as it is possible for a pseudo transformational leader to appear authentic. For example, a coach who appears to be authentic and altruistic when their intentions are for the team to succeed so they can be credited for the accomplishment (Bandura & Kavussanu, 2018; Bass & Riggio 2006).

Authenticity

There is a growing body of literature on holism and care in coaching and while they can be advocated for easily in an academy setting it could be difficult to deliver consistently. This is because coaches may be faced with situations where there are competing ideas of thought where the coach has to consider how their actions align to their philosophy. The theoretical

concept of care in coaching can be analysed using the notion of authenticity. Authenticity can be defined as acting in accordance with the values that one holds (Price, 2003). Drawing more connections between coaching and leadership, Authentic leadership born out of TFL is a style of leadership which is centred around the self-awareness of a leader, the awareness to behave in accordance with their own values (Malloy & Kavussanu, 2021; Turnnidge & Cote, 2018). It is important to discuss authenticity in sport coaching as the definition above suggests that so long as coaches act in accordance with their own values they're being authentic.

There is a lack of empirical studies into authenticity in sport coaching settings. McDowell et al. (2018) investigated the effects of authentic leadership in a sport setting with a psychological focus. They found positive impacts of an authentic leader on their followers in regard to psychological capital and team engagement. Malloy & Kavussanu (2021) state that there is a need to shine a light on authentic leadership as there is a limited application of it in sport research, the significance is to discover its place in dominant leadership models.

Authentic leadership poses a challenge due to limited research into the topic but can easily be applied to coaching when considering the definition of coaches being aware that their behaviours align to their values. This is pertinent to the second research question investigating how coaches manage their own values to align to those of coaching in a talent environment. This is because this addresses how coaches manage their philosophies and pedagogical values to align to the expectations of the academy.

Picking up on the notion of care in coaching, coaches could value care as part of their philosophy. Therefore, if a coach who values care was to display care in their practice this would be authentic as their behaviours align to their values. However, it is possible for coaches to deploy behaviours that align to their philosophy such as care without being genuine. The coach is being authentic as long as their actions are in accordance with their values This poses an ethical question around authenticity and challenges an existing assumption around the significance of genuine care. This specific area of coaching literature is yet to be examined however, parallels can be drawn to pseudo transformational leadership.

Goffman

Transformational leadership and holistic approaches to coaching are informative but the practical application of the theory in complex environments can create dilemmas for coaches. This section introduces the theory of impression management and the notion of front presented by Goffman in '*the presentation of self in everyday life*' (1959). Goffman's work can be used as a sociological lens to assist coaches in navigating dilemmas in complex environments. Similar to that in the study conducted by Chesterfield et al. (2010).

Unpicking the dramaturgical perspective to analyse social performance Goffman argued we alter our behaviour in social interactions like actors performing on a stage. (Goffman, 1959).

Coming from the sociological tradition of symbolic interactionism, Goffman (1959) uses a theatre to metaphorically explain social interactions. This metaphor incorporates the idea that humans give off a certain impression to create an identity, so the interactions develop to their own fondness (McMahon et al., 2017; Parker & Manley, 2017; Preves & Stephenson, 2009).

For these identities to develop social actors must establish their role and status within the situation. Goffman (1971) claimed actors often have to uphold the illusion of their role, attempting to conceal the fact that they're acting at all to maintain the perceptions they have created. Pollach & Kerbler (2011) found maintaining this illusion of the self is the challenge as behaviours can switch from automatic to self-conscious. Reiterating the view deposited by Goffman that this can cause the actor's performance to suffer due to the decreasing confidence in oneself to maintain the front.

Importantly Goffman (1959, 1971, 1974) emphasises that all actors are constantly battling this, and the role brings certain responsibilities and expectations. These build on preconceived notions of what to expect in social situations and actors can dip into these cognitive back drops to further enhance the impression one tries to give off (Goffman, 1959; Potrac & Jones 2011).

Goffman (1959, 1971) discusses the theoretical notion of front suggesting people can manage the impression they give off in social situations to create a certain perception of themselves.

Goffman saw the self as a social institution and thereby views a crucial skill of the self to be able to adapt to different social situations (Goffman, 1959; Heritage, 1998). Dictating which front is selected and choose one which fits the social prescription to create a certain impression (Henricks, 2006; Potrac & Jones, 2011; Ronglan, 2011; Ronglan & Aggerholm, 2014). Hickney and Roderick (2017) found that a front is greatly influenced by the perceived expectation of how we should act. This is fascinating as it implies, we only behave the way we do because we think the other actors in the social situation expect us to behave in that way. We therefore become subservient to the perception in our own mind about the way we want to be perceived in others'.

Some literature even hints that coaches need to be capable of adjusting their behaviour to be successful and effective (Ellen et al., 1995; Jowett, 2007). Jones & Potrac (2009) explored the micro-politics of semi-professional football and discussed how a coach uses impression management to create perceptions of co-operation to the chairman and the ones above him in the hierarchy. This study examined how a coach managed the relationship with the hierarchy and expectations of him. The interactions manipulated by the coach in this study helped inform the second research question focusing on how coaches manage their own philosophy and pedagogical values in an academy environment.

This poses the question if coaches being good actors helps to create good learning environments and makes their coaching more effective (Watson & Rebar, 2014). Such thinking was evident in the coaches studied by d'Arripe-Longueville et al. (1998) who utilised ploys and behavioural strategies such as selective feedback, deception and withholding important information. In this study the Judo coaches deliberately displayed interference to stimulate their athletes to further emphasise their authority. What was clear in this study was the amount of attention the coaches paid to their own behaviour, this echoes what Goffman (1959) talks about regarding conforming to a role and the subsequent power that comes with it.

Nelson et al. (2013b) found sometimes the coach was purposely negative towards players despite feeling positive to motivate the players, sometimes they flipped that to lift the mood

instead. This is an example of the coach using fronts to manipulate social situations (Thangaraj, 2018). In that instance the coach got the players to believe in his false impression to get the desired outcome of increasing motivation.

The idea that we conform to social expectations is pertinent to this study when trying to answer the research questions as a social role could act as an influencer on the coaches regarding where expectations of coaching behaviours come from. Furthermore, connections can be made to the second research question about coaches managing their own values building on the notion of authenticity and pseudo transformational. Moreover, the third research question aims to examine the extent to which coaches manage their behaviour which directly relates the notion of front. Those studies involving the judo coaches (d'Arripe-Longueville et al., 1998) and football coaches (Nelson et al., 2013b) are pertinent to this investigation as it has helped inform the third research question centred around to what extent to coaches manipulate their own behaviour.

Is impression management deceptive?

Without devaluing the coach-athlete relationship it can be difficult for coaches to consistently implement what is discussed in the literature. Building on the article by Provis (2010) titled '*the ethics of impression management*'. In a sport coaching context impression management draws into question whether impression management is ethical or unethical.

Provis (2010, p. 199) assesses impression management as a "tactic" viewing it as a social performance focusing on how a leader could use it to form favourable perceptions. When deciding ethical or not the key factor is whether the impression which one is trying to give off is false or not. This is because if the intention of using impression management is to create false impressions that resembles lying and deception which in turn can become ethically problematic.

Furthermore, relevant considerations around harm and fairness need to be made. Using impression management can be seen as a form of deception with someone trying to lead someone else into believing something false (Chesterfield et al., 2010). Provis (2010) emphasises that people can use moral appraisal to have influence over others in social situations, this leads into convincing the audience into believing something which is false.

Creating false impressions can be seen as unethical, particularly if the impression created is by someone already in a position of power due to their social status (Mendonca & Kanungo, 2007). This is because there is more potential to harm others and themselves through their role (d'Arripe-Longueville et al., 1998).

Delving deeper into the theory, Goffman (1959) discusses the difference between sincere and cynical. Cynical referring to one who does not believe in their own act and perhaps does not care enough to try to put on a convincing performance for their audience. In contrast to sincere, referring to one who believes in their act. However, for all a cynic's disinvolvement they may seek the pleasure of being able to masquerade and toy with the audience who seek to take their act seriously in an act of deception. Although, it cannot be assumed that a cynic is aiming to deceive their audience as an act of self-interest, a cynical individual may delude their audience for what they consider to be looking out for the best interests of the audience. This is present in Nelson et al. (2013b) who motivated athletes by displaying a front which displayed feelings and thoughts that were different to his real emotions. They would hide and conceal emotions to their players to lead their players into believing something that was false. This example of managing the presentation of 'self' echoes what Goffman spoke about in relation to front and putting on a performance to the audience.

It is not only coaches who can potentially display certain behaviours using impression management, Cunningham et al. (2015) found that players are capable of manipulating social interactions. In this study they examined players' interactions with officials and explored how players pick up on cues from officials and try to use this to their own benefit. Such thinking was evident in the finds through the autoethnography conducted by Dean (2019) we can see that in that instance the athlete was trying to put on a front for their coach. This shows a level of conscious decision making to try to deceive.

As unethical as it may first appear to give out a false impression, another concept which is deposited is the concept of a joint social performance (Provis, 2010), picking up on Goffman's work suggesting actors are capable of working together to ensure a performance runs smoothly (Goffman, 1959). Contemporary research suggests coach-athlete relationships are based off deeply rooted interactions but if both the coach and athlete are just performing there is nothing below the surface (Potrac & Jones, 2011). If this is true, it could be argued that the trust formed in a relationship is different to what is described in the literature on

sport coaching. It could be that the trust is in the other individuals' ability to deliver a smooth collective performance without gaffes or unmeant gestures. This ties in with the findings from Garner et al. (2022) emphasising the importance of the intention behind the coaching behaviours, particularly when implementing a person centred approach. Further links can be made with pseudo transformational leadership if the deception is to promote ones-self the deception is less ethical, demonstrating how crucial the intentionality of the behaviour is.

Conclusion

To summarise, the literature emphasises that coaching is a complex, social endeavour influenced by both the coach and the athlete suggesting the need for explorations into different contexts. Coaches can develop the three knowledge's posited by Cote & Gilbert (2009) to be a more effective coach using their interpersonal skills to interact and build relationships with those around them. The coach-athlete relationships are important as positive coach-athlete relationships significantly influence the potential positive outcomes for the athletes. Coach-athlete relationships are studied often from a coaching perspective as presented but can also be viewed from other lenses. . This is demonstrated by Jowett (2007) who uses a psycho social focus to explain what contributes to effective coaching and positive coach-athlete relationships. Another perspective from which to analyse coach behaviour and the coach athlete relationship is from a holistic standpoint as highlighted by Kidman (2005, 2010) and Cassidy (2010). This has influenced the innovative research into care in coaching (Cronin & Armour, 2018) which also places significance on the coach-athlete relationship. As coaching behaviour impacts the coach-athlete relationship, leadership has been used as a lens in coaching research as displayed by the wealth of research into transformational leadership where the aim is to develop followers into leaders by developing strong relationships (Turnnidge & Cote, 2018).

The purpose of this study was to better understand how coaches behave in an academy setting. To achieve the objective of the study, based off the literature three research questions were formulated consisting of one main research question and two sub questions.

Research questions:

This research has one main research questions and two sub questions.

- What influences coaches behaviour in an academy environment?
 - How do coaches manage their philosophies and pedagogical values to align with the expectations of coaching in talent environment?
 - To what extent do coaches manage their own behaviour to manipulate social situations in an academy setting?

The work on coaching behaviours by Potrac et al. (2002) and Nelson et al. (2013b) and the work into coaching effectiveness by Cote & Gilbert (2009) helped inform the first research question. The aim of this question is to understand what expectations there are on the coaches behaviour and where these expectations come from.

Cushion & Partington (2016, p. 855) define a philosophy as “a social system of beliefs, structures and practices.” A coaching philosophy consists of what coaches’ value and helps underpin decisions they make and can inform coach behaviour. This definition of a coaching philosophy is what is used throughout the study and has helped inform the second research question focused on how coaches manage their philosophy to align with expectations in the academy. As mentioned, a coaching philosophy is comprised of what the coach values and acts as a guide to underpin their coaching practice. Pertinent to the study Nesti & Sulley (2014) found that clear coaching philosophies were the cornerstone for the successful development of young athletes. This question aims to unpick how coaches manage these expectations in a talent environment.

Having discussed the importance of a coaching philosophy one of the contested areas often faced by coaches which could impact their philosophy is how to manage situations around talent development in an academy setting. This research helped to form the first research question centred about influences on coaches behaviour in an academy setting and the second research question looking into how coaches manage their own values in a talent environment

Therefore, as it connects the research questions talent development is an important backdrop for understanding coach behaviour in the academy setting. When viewing how coaches behave and what influences them in an academy environment a potential factor is their views on talent development and thus what makes coaches more effective at developing talent.

Literature tells us that talent development is unequivocally non-linear. Development can pause, regress, progress, jump around and stagnate and this is largely not considered in traditional athlete development programmes, exemplified by de-selection in academies (Chow et al., 2015).

Research analysing contextual variables have produced misleading results. Furthermore, theoretical research suggests that coaching behaviours which are effective are subjective according to the competitive level of the athletes (Cote & Gilbert, 2009) although prior studies found little empirical evidence to support this finding (Ford et al., 2010). Literature on talent development and coaching philosophy contributed to the formulation of the main research question focused on what influences coaches behaviour where the expectations of behaviour come from, and the first sub question as focused on how coaches manage their own philosophy and pedagogical values.

As alluded to coaches may face challenging situations while operating in talent environments where they need to navigate their own philosophy and views on talent development. Goffman's notion of front can be used as a tool to help with such navigation as demonstrated in Chesterfield et al. (2010), Jones et al. (2011) and Nelson et al. (2013b). These pieces of research influenced the sub questions aiming to explore the extent to which coaches manage their behaviour. Potential causes for this need to manage their behaviour could be connected to their influences of how they are expected to behave in relation to their own philosophy and views on talent development. Furthermore, this allows for a critical assessment into the authenticity of the behaviours coaches reflect on.

Research Methods

Introduction

This is an interpretivist study which used semi-structured interviews to collect qualitative data from one setting. This research explored coaches' behaviour in a professional academy setting. To collect data semi-structured interviews were used to gather coaches' reflections on their own behaviour, how they build and maintain coach-athlete relationships and how they navigate their values working in a professional talent environment.

Paradigm

This research adopts an interpretivist approach suggesting knowledge is socially constructed and open to interpretation. In addition, the study takes on the ontological approach that there are multiple realities, and the epistemological position complies with this with the view that reality is interpreted based on lived experiences (Bryman, 2012; Grix, 2004). Using an epistemological approach within an interpretivist paradigm, this research is concerned with the existence of multiple realities for coaches. Focusing on exploring the meaning of actions, viewing knowledge as a social construction in an attempt to understand the context of the participants (Bryman, 2012; McNamee, 2005). This research will be conducted following a social constructivist ontology, where it is viewed that participants create their own interpretations of their own world based on their values, experiences, and opinions.

Paradigms sit beneath different explanations and theories as a fundamental model used to organise our own observations and interpretations. Through recognising what paradigm we operate in, we can benefit by understanding the particular views that others may hold and importantly we can profit from looking outside our own paradigm viewing problems from a different angle (Thornberg & Charmaz, 2013).

While collecting data from a sporting environment, this research has sociological links as is shown by using an epistemological approach within an interpretivist paradigm viewing

multiple realities as open to different interpretations. Not dissimilar to research within the social sciences this research used an interpretivist paradigm. An interpretivist paradigm was chosen as the most appropriate for this research to answer the research questions as the intention was not to find one truth about how coaches behave in an academy setting (Bryman, 2012).

Research within this paradigm finds that a positivist perspective is coherently impossible or at least inappropriate for researching social phenomena (McNamee, 2005). A positivist approach would be unsuitable for a study which is exploring how humans interact without searching for a definite truth about coaching behavior. This is because a positivist paradigm views the world as one singular reality where knowledge can be measured to distinguish between specific truths (Grix, 2004; McNamee, 2005). This view has been significantly challenged with the emergence of interpretivist and pragmatic paradigms. An interpretivist paradigm does not seek to prove or disprove scientific assertions while assuming reality is objective and knowable (Crotty, 1998; Saunders, 2009).

The rise of post modernism bringing forth interpretivist paradigms, particularly in the field of social sciences has forced researchers to reconsider rationality (Babbie et al., 2015). Social interactions can be messy and chaotic in nature. This contradicts a positivist paradigm which views humans as completely rational beings where their behavior can be rationally understood and their nonrational behavior can even be predicted. Even beyond the realm of social science, physical sciences have developed chaos theory and complexity questioning if social life tolerates rational principles (Corbetta, 2003). A challenge posed to positivism is that personal feelings, which can be influenced by social interactions, influence the topics that some scientists chose to study. This implies that the positivist findings drawn out from their data is influenced by factors which themselves are irrational and unpredictable (McNamee, 2005). This exemplifies the growing prominence of post modernism which questions the theoretical concept of an objective reality (Babbie et al., 2015).

Research is advancing human knowledge to improve our understanding of something and further our understanding of particular topics (Atkinson, 2012; Veal & Darcy, 2014). This research used semi-structured interviews. There are many theoretical perspectives which constitute particular ways of viewing and understanding social life such as symbolic interactions which has links to Goffman's theory of impression management (Collinson and

Hockey, 2005; Goffman, 1959, 1971). Studies of this persuasion view social worlds as being constructed through interactions. It emphasises that the meaning of interactions can be fluid and vary dependant on the context in which it occurs. This set of understanding symbolic interactionism sits in the wider theory of knowledge known as constructivism. Suggesting meanings are constructed by us as we engage with the world, and it is open to interpretation. Meaning there is no objective truth merely the varying interpretations and meanings constructed by ourselves through experience and interactions (Hammersley, 1995).

This study is investigating the realities of the participants and is therefore embedded in social sciences. Social research is about investigating people and social behaviours trying to better understand social and cultural norms (McNamee, 2005). This research uses microtheory to take on an intimate view of social interactions, this is a view often shared with psychology studies but the key difference being psychology focuses on what happens inside humans where this study focuses on interactions between humans (Smith, 2018). While microtheory and macrotheory span across paradigmatic stances, symbolic interactionism within an interpretivist paradigm is limited to micro level and is what Erving Goffman used for his work. Compared to the work of Karl Marx who used conflict paradigm which allowed him to explore social realities on a wider scale (Babbie et al., 2015).

In regard to how this study views knowledge, this research takes on an interpretivist paradigm aiming to explore the ontological perspective of each participant existing in their own reality and epistemologically these realities need to be interpreted (McNamee, 2005; Saunders, 2009). The intention of this research is to explore the behaviours of the coach when interacting with their athletes. In addition, this paradigm still emphasises the impact of hierarchy and structure on social behaviour, this is pertinent to answering the research questions focused on what influences coaches' behaviour, how coaches manage their own values and the extent to which they manipulate social situations. Nichol et al. (2019) in their review found 14 out of 208 papers openly using a constructivist or interpretivist paradigm showing the value of this study adding to a limited field as interpretivism is better positioned than positivism to explore the nuanced and complex nature. Nichol et al. (2019) argues studies using an interpretivist standpoint should aim to discover deeper meanings to improve our understanding of sport coaching and its influence on athletes.

This research collected data using interviews in one academy setting aiming to gather coaches' reflections on their behaviour. Interviews were only conducted in one setting because interpretivism suggests that had more settings been used the findings would have varied from one setting to another (Chowdhury, 2014; Goldkuhl, 2012).

Furthermore, Saunders et al. (2009) tells us that in social science there is attention paid to the truth regarding the extent to which we can claim that our knowledge of a certain phenomenon correlates or is identical to the reality of the phenomena itself. This allows us as researchers, to question the very nature of reality (ontology) and what knowledge can be identified about it (epistemology). Pertaining to knowledge from studying social phenomena there are different viewpoints on claims that can be made. Within each of these viewpoints different assumptions can be made influencing the research process and how we understand the research (Saunders et al., 2009; Thornberg & Charmaz, 2013).

Case study

The purpose of a case study is to explore a single unit with the purpose to draw attention to the wider population of which that unit exists in (Gerring, 2006). For this study, the participants are all working within the same academy phase (Youth Development Phase) therefore the academy setting is the case. Gerring (2006) uses literature to lists eight possible objectives of a case study highlighting the wide-ranging nature of the approach. A prominent definition for a case study used within contemporary literature is from Stake (1995, p. xi)

“The study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances”.

A case study was chosen for this design to get an in depth insight into the coaches behaviour of one academy setting. Further justification for using a case study design is that it aligns to the research sub question centred around coaches managing their own philosophies and the extent to which coaches have to manage their behaviour within the academy.

Furthermore, a case study design is pertinent to the research perspective as this research takes on a qualitative case design using four coaches. To some extent most of sport research

has some elements of a case study with a specific unit or case being explored and enquired upon (Hastie & Hay, 2012; Smith, 2018). While this research uses qualitative interviews to collect data the characteristics of a case study design are applicable to the specific scope and small sample size. Furthermore, Smith (2018) emphasis that a case study is flexible in its application into sport research.

The case study approach has been widely used across many different disciplines such as business, finance, sport, sociology, archaeology, and education (Atkinson, 2012). Cassell & Symon (2004) described the suitability of a case study as searching to understand how an environmental context impacts on or influencing social processes, attempting to understand everyday practices. Therefore, a case study design is a good fit for this research as using case studies can offer the researcher a deeper look into one specific group of people providing an insight into the organisational ongoings (Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007). Gerring, (2006) points out that sometimes in-depth knowledge of a smaller sample can be more useful than momentary knowledge of a wider scope. A case study approach is pertinent to this research what is discussed in the interviews is largely influenced by the participants which ensures the data collected is natural (Morse & McEvoy, 2014).

While quantitative methods in sport seek to find causality between occurrences it can be problematic to assume that findings from case studies can be applied in similar ways across a range of settings (Atkinson, 2012; Vickers, 2017). Because of this case study conclusions seek to aid expectations of future behaviour rather than predicting behaviours across the population (Smith, 2018). This is relevant to this study as this highlights a strength of a case study as the reader can use their own experiences to relate to the findings leading to naturalistic generalisations as appose to predictive (Veal & Darcy, 2014). Another strength of a case is its method of exploring and describing events which occur naturally in real life settings (Smith, 2018).

On the other hand, it has been argued that a drawback of the case study approach is the lack of generalisability due to the scope of the research (Maxwell & Chmiel, 2013; Smith, 2018). However, Thomas (2011) argues against, claiming case studies provide relevant knowledge that is representative of the context from which it derives. Furthermore, as this is an interpretivist study concerned with human behaviour the aim of the study is not to

make generalisations of coaches as a group of people that are the subjects of this study. The aim is to better understand their social world and how they manage it.

Qualitative Methods of Inquiry

This study is a qualitative study rather than quantitative meaning it collects data in the form of words instead of numbers and were used to collect a breadth of data (Silverman, 2006; Veal & Darcy, 2014). This allows the study to have a rich amount of data which was analysed in line with the research questions (Hayle & Graham, 2012).

Social research is often harder to replicate and achieve the same results due to the variability in behaviours within different cultures and social settings as groups will behave differently (Atkinson, 2012). People who are involved in research can change their behaviour and the researcher's presence in an environment can alter the dynamics of interactions. While non-human phenomena have more stable and set patterns of operating and thus making scientific research findings more of a dichotomy in comparison to the complex behaviours of humans (Hammersley, 1995; Veal & Darcy, 2014).

A drawback of a qualitative methodology is centred around generalisations as qualitative methodology is less effective when the aim is to make generalised statements of a portion of society (Veal & Darcy, 2014). Because of this the purpose of this study is not to make generalisations of coaches as a group of people. Smith (2018) emphasises that quantitative observation can take place over larger groups of people compared to qualitative. Questionnaires can also be used to deal with larger sample sizes, but they do not get the depth that interviews can, and quantifying behaviours is only useful if you are looking for definitive conclusions from a reliable study aiming to make generalisations (Hayle & Graham, 2012). Nichol et al. (2019) found quantitative methods (often questionnaires) to be very common and only a small proportion of papers focusing on coaching practice and athlete outcome use a multi method approach.

Confirmation bias/researcher bias is an issue with this type of qualitative study. The researcher should not have an answer in mind when collecting data because that can influence what is discussed in interviews (Hunter & Schmidt, 1990). Confirmation bias is the use of data to support a belief which has been selected prior to conducting the research.

Often people hold views and only consider the evidence which seem to support their beliefs and otherwise ignore evidence that is unsupportive or contradictory (Marchal, 2015). This can be exemplified by not conducting a hypothesis before a piece of research. Veal & Darcy (2014) also mention that researcher bias is an issue with qualitative methods as it is interpretive, different researchers can draw different conclusions from the same data set. It is an important issue that the influence of the researcher can have an impact of the data collected but it is misleading to suggest that this comes down to researcher bias and should be removed as much as possible (Hunter & Schmidt, 1990).

Qualitative methods also have the power to be non-invasive for anyone involved in the research allowing the data to be collected without huge amounts of intrusion and disruption. Quantitative methods tend to be very impersonal thus are not applicable to this study (Silverman, 2006). Furthermore, the results from qualitative studies are easier to understand to those not statistically trained. Qualitative methods allow for more in-depth analysis of behavioural patterns with a small group of subjects (Silverman, 2006). In addition, qualitative research is far more exploratory and open to interpretation and can produce stronger conclusions thus making it more applicable for this study (Kuniavsky et al., 2012). For this reason, more structured approaches such as questionnaires and structured interviews are not as effective as they do not offer as much freedom for interaction and discussion (Bryman, 2012).

Research Setting

During the period of investigation, the men's first team was in the Championship League which is the second highest division of professional football in England and Wales one tier below the premier league. The club is located in a large urban area with competition from other professional clubs within a 50 mile radius. The club has enjoyed notable success within the last decade reaching the Premier League. The academy has teams from under 9 to under 23 with seven senior academy personnel appointed, ranging from lead coach to head of academy. This study used participants from the youth development phase (YDP) which consists of the age groups 12-16. The academy has recently enjoyed success with more than 5 players making senior first team appearances in the 2021-22 season.

Sampling

Sampling is one of the foundations of research, significant to both qualitative and quantitative studies due to research designs almost always including recognition of samples (Bryman, 2012; Guthrie, 2010). Guthrie (2010) explains that a sample is a group of a particular population around which the research is focused upon, the process of selecting a group, often small, from within the population is known as sampling. The purpose of sampling is an effective and efficient way to maximise the limited resources available to the majority of researchers (Cassel & Symon, 2004; Wright & O'Flynn, 2012). Literature highlights that if the sample is chosen correctly and the data is analysed appropriately then the conclusions can be reliably generalised across the wider population of the sample (Atkinson, 2012; Sparkes, 2014). For this exploratory study, the purpose was not to make generalisations about the entire coaching population as the sample size was too small (Bryman, 2012).

Research such as this cannot investigate the reality of the entire population of which is being explored, as a result a sub-set of this reality is accepted (Corbetta, 2003). The researched was focused on academy football coaches, this is pertinent as the sector of academy coaching interests the researcher and is the sector of which holds the most relevance to the research aim and questions. A non-probability purposive sampling approach was utilized with participants chosen due to applicability to the research focus (Guthrie, 2010). While adopting this sampling approach it is important to recognise that the sample may not be a fair representation of the wider population due to the narrow scope although it does satisfy the research needs (Jones & Gratton, 2015).

As the population under consideration coaches were chosen as the sample as they had direct links to the research objective and questions. A sample of four coaches from the same academy were interviewed twice individually to provide data. It was important these coaches all worked in very similar environments with similar aged athletes as this study is investigating how coaches behave in a professional setting. Four coaches were sufficient for the research with this selected sample size providing external validity (Bryman, 2012). Relating to the ontological perspective, the four coaches provided enough depth and richness to the data to understand their interpretations of reality (McNamee, 2005).

Details of the participants are found in Table 1.

Pseudonym	Length at the club	Age group they coach
Chris	7 years	Under 12s
Aaron	6 Years	Under 16s & current academy phase manager
Gareth	7 Years	Under 16s
Ashley	6 Years	Under 14s

Table 1: Participant Profiles

Chris

Started coaching at grassroots level in his local area. At the time of the interview, he was in his seventh year at the academy and was coaching the under 12 boys. His development as a coach has been within the football club academy, undergoing his coaching badges from within the academy.

Aaron

Started coaching at the age of 16 in a grassroots team in his local area where his father and older sibling were involved in the club. During university he became a football development officer and Aaron's coaching background was a multi-sport approach in primary and secondary schools similar to a physical education teacher. He had been at the club for 6 years and was coaching the under 16 boys team which was a combination of 15 and 16 year olds at the time of interview. Furthermore, following the first interview Aaron was promoted to academy phase manager.

Gareth

Gareth's coaching journey began at the age of 16 assisting coaching sessions at a local grassroots club. His coaching progressed while at university, Gareth spent short periods within different coaching environments, some being academy settings similar to the category 2 academy used in this study. At the point of the interview, he had been coaching within the academy for seven years and was coaching the under 16 team with Aaron.

Ashley

Ashley went to university to study football studies and completed an internship at a professional football club. He also spent time working at a local prison as an educator, delivering literacy and numeracy sessions as well as coaching. He got involved with the current academy as a performance analyst as well as coaching. He has worked his way through the age groups during his 6 years at the club and coaches children aged 13 to 16 but his main focus is on the under 14s.

Ethical considerations

As this study used people ethical considerations were taken into account. In addition, ethical issues may arise in regard to the impact the research may have. General principles in regard to ethics apply in this study in regard to honesty, respect and harm (Catherine & Chen, 2012). This research complies with the university of Gloucestershire ethical regulations. To reduce the risk of harm the names mentioned are pseudonyms throughout the research and in the transcripts (see appendix) to protect their identity. In addition to not revealing too much information so that participants can be identified in the study (Wright & O'Flynn, 2012). Also, the name of the football club is not mentioned.

Participants had free choice over their involvement. For coaches an informed consent form was given out and required them to fill it in giving consent before any research could be conducted (Wright & O'Flynn, 2012). They were able to withdraw consent at any time up until the point of writing up of the discussion chapter.

A limitation of informed consent is the levels of which the participants are informed (Veal & Darcy, 2014). Should the coaches had been made aware that an aim was to look for instances of where they use impression management in a micro-interaction this might alter their behaviour as they would be consciously thinking about how they are interacting and what impression they might be giving off (Yeadon, 2005). This would then lead to data being collected which is not a true representation of their normal behaviour. Therefore, coaches were informed that they would be interviewed, but they did not know the specific details of what was being asked. This was allowed as the researcher can accurately estimate the level

of harm potentially caused by withholding certain information, so the research remains valid (Cohen et al., 2007). The decision was made aligned to what is reasonable in accordance with ethical guidelines set by the university. This goes into the interview process as participants could not be directly challenging questions as coaches may then search for a correct answer, but they may also be considering the micro-political world they are in as a representative of the academy (Potrac & Jones, 2009). They may not have wanted to be seen as anything other than the perfect, politically correct coach to please their superiors. This level of deviance is acceptable as they were anonymised, and the interviews took place in a safe and secure location (Hammersley, 1995).

Ethically a researcher must be culturally responsive being aware of potentially different values and behaviours in different settings. Being a culturally responsive researcher involves discussing cultural differences, acknowledging other people's views on the world, and understanding which methods will be applicable and appropriate (Sparkes, 2014). There should also be an element of relational ethics where the researcher balances their need for research and a duty of care towards those being researched. Pertinent to this study, sensitivity was required towards the interactions being discussed. Also, being aware of my own reactions to situations and act with dignity, morals, and values by protecting participants safety, privacy and ensuring their anonymity is respected (Jones and Gratton, 2015).

Researcher competency was not an issue as the role was being strictly an interviewer having a coaching background as well as an academic one. This allowed an understand what is being discussed, viewing interactions using Goffman's theory as a lens but also being comfortable talking about football coaching environments.

Research should also pose a social benefit to the wider community and those directly involved in the research. This links into ethics as the participants, without whom the data cannot be collected, should get some benefit from their involvement (Cohen et al., 2007). In this case those involved will receive access to the masters thesis and any journal article should that be produced as well using the data.

Procedure

Following ethical approval from the university of Gloucestershire (see appendix) all participants were initially contacted via email, this email was sent to the academy and distributed to coaches to find willing participants. This emailed provided an outline of what partaking in this study would involve in the procedure of data collection. Coaches who were interested were sent informed consent forms to return before any data collection could take place. To ensure quality and maintain professionalism a draft of the consent form was emailed to the supervisor to be checked before sending it to the prospective participants. A challenge for this research was finding participants as due to the COVID-19 pandemic large sections of the workforce had been furloughed, particularly part time coaching staff.

Online interviews allowed both myself and participants to remain at home during the pandemic. During this approach all participants were asked the same open ended questions and with the method allowing for discussion and elaboration conversations were able to flow in an unstructured way making each interview different as responses to questions varied. The interview guide for the first interview (see appendix) contained five sections ranging from background information to their coaching philosophy and the relationships coaches felt they had with their athletes The final part of the interview was centred around their behaviour and trying to discover the extent to which they alter how they act. .

The follow up interview was more extensive lasting around 60 minutes (see appendix) and focusing closely on the research questions with 2-3 questions focusing on each of the research questions. These questions often began with 'tell me...' with the aim to allow the coaches to provide detailed reflections.

There is also the issue around the safe and secure storage of data, these risks were minimised. The recordings of interviews are securely stored on my laptop which is password protected and in a file which requires a separate password both on my laptop and on a memory stick. Coaches also did not have to answer all questions during a semi-structured interview should they not wish (Cohen et al., 2007).

The 8 semi structured interviews used for this study were conducted virtually due to the pandemic. Virtual data collection was briefly explored in methodology literature but the need to conduct fieldwork in a pandemic has led to an increase in research and experience of using online research methods. Virtual interviews purely means that they were conducted using an online video conferencing software (Davis et al., 2020), in this study Microsoft teams and Zoom were used.

As the researcher I had to be aware of the delicate power balances within the setting that the interviews were conducted. It can be intimidating for someone to be used in a study especially when they know they are being recorded and they will be interviewed (Veal & Darcy, 2014). This gives the researcher lots of power with the role and it is important to make the interviewees feel as comfortable as possible during the research process (Hemer & Dundon, 2016). This was done by assuring them in the consent form and at the start of the interview process that all had been done to reduce the chance of any harm coming to anyone involved. Furthermore, the interview process began with simple personal questions to make them feel more relaxed and inclined to open up which corresponded with what the literature advised (Babbie et al., 2015; Catherine & Chen, 2012).

A further challenge for myself as the researcher is devising the questions to ask. Avoiding any jargon because if the interviewee does not understand the question the answers lose reliability and validity. Literature advises to start with simple questions which set the foundations and begin the conversation with an uncomplicated introduction of the topics (Barker, 2011; McNeil & Chapman, 2005; Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007). Questions could not be leading either as this can have affect the quality of the data collected and could pose ethical issues (Wright & O'Flynn, 2012). The process during a semi-structured interview was aided by keeping the discussion close to the research questions to ensure the data collected is useful for the study. This is because the aim is not to collect data that is free from bias the aim is to collect data that can be interpreted (Marchal, 2015).

Data Collection

The method for data collection chosen for this study was semi-structured interviews. Further justification can be found as Chesterfield et al. (2010) discussed how an interpretivist paradigm is concerned with understanding how people construct and continue to construct

social reality and argued interviews lend themselves to research questions regarding human behaviour. Their view is further enhanced by using semi structured interviews which allow for more freedom than structured interviews or surveys (Collinson & Hockey, 2005).

A benefit of using this method is that due to the interactions around an interest which is mutual, knowledge can be interpreted in an exploratory way which is unattainable from observations or questionnaires (Rugg & Petre, 2007). Furthermore, Wellington and Szczerbinski (2007) claim interviews allow us to gain a deeper insight into behaviours than observations alone. The researcher can probe into the mind of the interviewee to gain an understanding of their values as well as behaviours and start to appreciate their beliefs, morals, and perceptions. This can be done by encouraging them to reflect on their own thoughts and experiences during the interview (Catherine & Chen, 2012). Further justification is found as the method aligns to the paradigmatic stance as some researchers view semi-structured too reflective for a positivist paradigm but highly applicable for an interpretivist paradigm (McNamee, 2005).

Semi structured interviews were chosen over structured or unstructured due to the flexible nature allowing for discussion into perused lines of enquiry (Smith, 2018). Interviews can be thought of as a conversation with a real purpose. Semi structured interviews are often the most valued in sociology research as it allows for more freedom and discussion than structured but can still be consistent when interviewing more than one person (Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007). It involves either a checklist or guide so key points can still be discussed, and themes can emerge. Atkinson (2012) argues it is semi-structured interviews that are the best way for researchers to analyse in a thematic way.

Unstructured interviews do allow for the interviewee to take the lead during conversations and speak freely with limited involvement of the researcher but the role of the influence of the research should not be seen as a negative. However, data from this approach is difficult to code due to wide-ranging content (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). Structured interviews can be formal and consistent thus making them reliable and easy to code into themes. In contrast, structured with semi-structured elements offer the same consistency but allow for open ended responses (Veal & Darcy, 2014). Catherine & Chen (2012) tell us that using a checklist question format to conduct semi-structured interviews are more conversational and variable but can offer a deeper insight within set parameters, but this is dependent on the

awareness of the researcher to keep conversations aligned to research questions. Semi-structured interviews use a checklist containing different themes which will be discussed during the interview allowing for questions to be tailored to those being interviewed (Hastie & Hay, 2012). Moreover, unstructured interviews were deemed improper for this study as they have higher levels of variability thus making them less reliable due to the broader topic of conversation (Sparkes, 2014). In addition, structured interviews can involve the researcher reading questions off a clipboard thus disrupting the flow of any conversation (Veal & Darcy, 2014). The middle ground between the two was most applicable to this study.

A standardised approach is one taken more in structured aspects of interviews (Rugg & Petre, 2007). Prescribed questions are used to make interviews more consistent and keep the focus of any answers. In depth interviews not using any pre-set questions can take on a life of their own providing rich data but with far greater variability impacting the possible repeatability and trustworthiness of the data (Jones & Gratton, 2015). The topics discussed in those type of interviews would be based on the theory of the study allowing the researcher to draw conclusions which answer their research questions (Bryman, 2012). Despite the potential drawbacks of unstructured interviews, it is thought that full interactions can be found by using unstructured interviews which flow like normal conversation but are less reliable and consistent (Rugg & Petre, 2007).

Recording interviews allow for more reliability, the negative of transcribing is the time it takes to transcribe an interview, this can be altered by using technology which use voice recognition software (Cohen et al., 2007). Furthermore, the presence of a recording device can cause anxiety which must be taken into consideration when conducting interviews (Cohen et al., 2007; Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007). Another limitation of recording devices such as voice recorders are they only pick up verbal behaviour (Yeadon, 2005). Although, this limitation did not present itself during the interviews.

Examples of using semi-structured interviews in studies of a similar nature include Vickers (2017) who used thematic analysis to detect themes from interviews. In addition, in a study conducted by Thellwell et al. (2017) a preparation booklet was given to participants prior to an interview, to clarify what the purpose was. They used semi-structured interviews which allowed for some freedom to probe into answers given. Thelwell et al. (2017) also conducted pilot interviews to refine the process before going into the field. Barnett et al. (1992) used

some home interviews in their study however, for this research interviews will take place in a safe and secure location as that will reduce ethical risks and make the coaches feel more relaxed.

The difference between standardised and informal approaches are clear as an informal interview is a fairer reflection on the way humans communicate in society, but it makes it harder for the researcher to stay on topic and collect data which align with the research questions. It also makes the researchers job harder when searching for themes and patterns (Veal & Darcy, 2014). The skill of interviewer allows for some elaboration on any answers which form the semi-structured structure (Catherine & Chen, 2012). A key part is that myself as the researcher could not agree or disagree with any answers as this may have an influence on future answers given. This was difficult as it is different to normal conversation thus giving a sense of falseness to the interview (Bryman, 2012). This highlights the power balance during an interview.

The implications of conducting interviews online can be centred around two components: the power balance and building rapport. Fielding (2010) found during virtual interviews there is a shift in the power balance as participants feel they can withdraw with less concern. Furthermore, Weller (2017) found 83% of participants regarded the virtual interviews as good as an in person interview with rapport unaffected. Significantly another finding was that less confident participants preferred to speak online as there was less anxiety having to share a physical space with someone.

Virtual interviews have advantages as Zapata et al. (2021) found participants more willing to come forward due removing the need to travel for an in person interview also saving time without the need to travel. Given most participants had a positive experience of a virtual interview they call for more virtual interviews to promote more diversity, equality and inclusion in addition to minimising the challenges of in person interviews. Although they acknowledge that there can be technological difficulties to conduct interviews virtually. Moreover, Nesbitt & Watts (2022) also noted the increased efficiency in conducting interviews via zoom claiming interviews were conducted three times as quick and with less cost. The pair also highlight a further benefit of recording two separate channels of speech making it easy to transcribe.

During this study efforts were made to build rapport following what Hooley et al. (2012) emphasis regarding the implication of building rapport when conducting interviews online by initiating contact through email and reassuring the participants at the beginning of the interview of their right to withdraw as a different way to build rapport online. While online interviews can pose some technological issues virtual interviews retain the advantages of an in person interview while reducing anxiety for participants and being more accessible to reach a wider sample (Cleland et al., 2020).

Each of the interviews was transcribed using a computer aided software as using computer programs are a much faster alternative to the laborious, time consuming job of manually transcribing hours of qualitative data.

Furthermore, computer aided software makes it easier to manage and interpret qualitative data, computer aided software is a useful tool particularly favoured by graduate researchers who lack of the knowledge of their more experienced counterparts (Bryman, 2012). This research only used the software as a tool to transcribe, the coding was done manually supporting literature which suggests that it is an insufficient approach or method of analysis (Gibbs, 2013).

Data analysis

Reasoning

This was an interpretivist study which used semi-structured interviews to collect qualitative data. The data was analysed using thematic analysis, a process developed for psychology research by Braun & Clarke (2006). It appeared as a method previously, but the guidelines were devised by Boyatzis (1998) moving away from the embrace of grounded theory. Data was analysed using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2022) including both deductive and inductive approaches. Deductive coding drew upon Goffman's theoretical notion of front (1959) whilst inductive coding searched for meaningful themes in the data which aligned and thus helped to answer the research questions (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017; Reichertz, 2013).

Thematic analysis was chosen as the most suitable way to analyse the data as the literature suggests that it is useful for trying to find out about people's views and experiences

(Castleberry & Nolan, 2018; Kiger & Varpio, 2020). Vaismoradi et al. (2013) and Aguinaldo (2012) note a problem of thematic analysis is the notion that thematic analysis is only descriptive or data reductionist where patterns are summarised. They discuss the assumption that thematic analysis offers a lower level of interpretation compared to grounded theory. Braun & Clarke (2021) challenge this arguing that description and interpretation are connected where the researcher situates themselves through the positioning of their lens. Braun & Clarke (2021) argue the researchers job becomes to tell the story of the data holding potential for deeply theoretical analysis.

Keiger & Varpio (2020) tell us that abduction involves constructing a conclusion based on the data. A deductive approach involves beginning with a hypothesis or argument then researching on the topic to fill in gaps (Chirkov, 2015). In this study deductive analysis was used to by applying Goffman's (1959) notion of front as a lens and deducting if the data was applicable to be critically analyzed in this way (McNamee, 2005). An inductive approach differs as a topic is first researched and the argument is drawn out from the data collected. It begins with a specific scope of findings and continues to an outcome which is more generalized. This was also used in this study as the interest was in the themes suggested by the participants which aligned to the research questions (Sparkes, 2014).

This study used a combination of inductive and deductive reasoning within an interpretivist paradigm as themes were identified in an inductive way without pre-conceived codes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The most common approach to thematic analysis and the one used to analyse the data in this study followed a six step process. Braun & Clarke (2006) provide the six step process listed below, which acted as a useful guide to follow and was a very useful framework for conducting this kind of analysis:

1. Familiarisation
2. Coding
3. Generating themes
4. Reviewing themes
5. Defining themes
6. Write up.

While conducting the thematic analysis the process did not always run smoothly in a linear fashion going from one step to the next. There were instances of moving from one to another

and back again between steps 3,4 and 5, this was not unexpected as Braun & Clarke (2021, 2022) recognise the process of data analysis can be messy when conducting thematic analysis. This was evident following inductive coding where the data is reduced into small chunks of meaningful information, various sections of data could be interpreted in different ways thus offering potentially different meanings. This was expected for this research as an interpretivist approach was taken. There were occasions after generating themes where upon reviewing them they needed to be reorganised and which led back to step 3 as modifications were needed.

Familiarisation was the first step which began with transcribing the data followed by reading and re-reading the interview transcripts to get an overview and basic understand of the qualitative data. Transcribing is an unavoidable step in any qualitative research study using interviews. It is both inevitable and problematic in data consisting of voiced discourse. Kowal & O'Connell (2013) tell us that there is no notation system for transcribing able to offer the researcher a completely accurate narrative of the original interaction. To ensure accuracy each transcript was checked through while listening to the audio recording multiple times correcting issues the computer software had encountered.

The second step was to begin to inductively code the data. During this step it was important to be thorough highlighting anything that was potentially pertinent to the research questions. As this data analysis was concerned with addressing specific research questions when analysing the data this was an inductive thematic analysis focusing on suggested themes pertinent to the research questions (Barbour, 2013). The study used codes that were developed and modified during the process of coding (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). After step 1 there were already initial ideas about codes, for example it was becoming noticeable that all coaches spoke about hard work when asked about their own values which directly align to the research questions. The data was then collated into groups which could be identified as codes giving an overview into the main points from the qualitative data. Contemporary research into coding tells us that coding is classifying events in categories and subsequently labelling these categories (Atkinson, 2012; Kowal & O'Connell, 2013). This research method aligns with literature which suggests that coding is not analysis as analysis requires thorough reflections possibly connecting it to existing literature (Roulston, 2013; Sparkes, 2014).

Step three involved generating themes using the codes. The literature tells us that a theme is a pattern or commonality in the data which in this study captures something relating to a research question. Themes are broader than the initial codes and often result in shifting several codes into one theme (Guest et al., 2011; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). It is important at this step to generate themes which hold relevance to the research focus. As mentioned previously as the data was messy and thus open to interpretation generating themes posed a challenge particular in when progressing onto reviewing and defining them. The themes generated were often re-evaluated at a later date. While reading over the transcript patterns and commonalities started to emerge. The themes were pertinent to the research question as the interview script was concise and focused.

However, a challenge emerged during step four where themes are reviewed as themes appeared to be interconnected and thus there was some overlap where a response could be coded into more than one code. This was where the process of thematic analysis of the data became non-linear as themes that were initially generated were restructured or framed differently upon reviewing them. While this came across as chaotic it highlighted how the topic can be complex and sometimes messy, offering a reflection of everyday social life. Step five was to define themes where themes were labelled and grouped in research questions. As the data was hand-coded it gave me full control in producing and analysis on the data which answered the research questions.

[Determining the quality of qualitative research](#)

Due to a wide variety of research methods which collect data and the assortment of epistemological and ontological assumptions there are differing views over how to establish a checklist to determine the quality of qualitative data (Bryman, 2012). Lincoln & Guba (1985) provided the base for determining the trustworthiness of sport coaching research comprising of 3 criteria; credibility, transferability, and dependability which could involve participants assessing the interpretations made of their words. However, this poses some issues in application to this study such as it was possible for the researcher and participants to disagree on interpretations made meaning direct validation cannot be taken from participant feedback (Sparkes & Smith, 2009). Secondly Smith et al. (2013) state that Lincoln & Guba's (1985) work is contradictory as it promotes research grounded in ontological

relativism but their ideas behind trustworthiness stem from epistemological foundationalism. It is untenable to believe in a world of multiple realities and one where reality can be found objectively.

Reliability is the extent in which the same study could be repeated and achieve similar findings with a different sample of subjects (Hastie & Hay, 2012). Generalisability refers to the extent to which the findings of the study can be applied to the wider population of those who match the subjects in the study. As this is a qualitative study it is unlikely to be the case, the term trustworthiness is preferred (Richardson, 2000).

In judging the quality of social research, a relativist approach can be taken (Burke, 2016). A relativist approach can be taken over a criteriological approach as applying universal criteria is inappropriate to apply to research underpinned by the ontological position where reality is deemed multiple and subjective (Burke, 2016). Sparkes & Smith (2009) say that a relativist approach still uses criteria to determine the quality of research however a key difference is the criteria is contextually situated and flexible. The relativist approach is closely aligned to ideas of ontological relativism and epistemological constructivism. Furthermore, Tracy (2010) devised eight “big tent” criteria for assessing the quality of qualitative research. This criterion consisted of:

- a) Worthy topic
- b) Rich rigor
- c) Sincerity
- d) Credibility
- e) Resonance
- f) Significant contribution
- g) Ethical
- h) Meaningful coherence

Based on the work of Burke (2016), Tracy (2010) and Sparkes & Smith (2009) the criteria for this research should be focused on:

- a) Contribution to our understanding of the topic.
- b) Impact intellectually and if the study poses new questions for research.
- c) Comprehensiveness of interviews with data gathered and analyzed.

- d) Coherence of how the parts of research fit together and how it fits alongside established research.
- e) Ethical procedure

This criterion builds on the 'big-tent' criteria (Tracy, 2010). Significant contribution referring to what it adds to the field of literature, meaningful coherence referring to how the study answers the research questions. The comprehensiveness of the data gathered and analyzed is underpinned by rich rigor. Resonance ties in with the impact the study has and new areas for exploration it could uncover and the ethical considerations both procedurally and following the completion of the study (Tracy, 2010).

To further ensure the quality of the research researcher confirmation bias had to be navigated. This was done by considering all the data collected and continually re-evaluating it assessing the reflections of the participants to limit as best as possible pre-existing assumptions (Howitt, 2019; Sparkes & Smith, 2013). Furthermore, leading questions were limited as were leading responses during the semi-structured interviews such as agreeing or disagreeing with reflections of participants (Sparkes & Smith, 2013).

To ensure validity of this qualitative study the research uses a viewpoint which differs from quantitative studies. In qualitative research validity can be defined as

"How accurately the account represents participants' realities of the social phenomena and is credible to them" (Creswell & Miller, 2009, p. 124-125).

Creswell & Miller (2009) explain that validity can be provided in the form of the credibility of the account through rich description so that readers and other researchers can understand the reflections of the participants and feel connected to their experience. This comes from descriptions of the themes, settings and participants.

Findings and discussion

Introduction

In this chapter the findings of the semi-structured interviews with academy coaches are presented with analysis and discussions. Following analysis of the qualitative data the findings can be divided into three themes and sub themes to answer the research questions the influences on coaches behaviour and expectation as shown in table 2 on page 52.

The findings will be discussed in turn with quotes from the interviews to aid the presentation of the themes. These will be discussed with connections made to existing literature to demonstrate whether the findings support or challenge current research pertinent to the themes. Deductive analysis allowed Goffman's theory of impression management to be used as a way to view how coaches manage their behaviour in an academy environment (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017; Reichertz, 2013).

The themes help answer the research questions. The first theme focuses on what influences the way coaches behave in an academy setting along with where the expectations comes from. The values the coaches discuss are pertinent to the second research question exploring how coaches manage their own values to align to the values of the performance environment. Finally, how coaches manage their behaviour addresses the third research question centred around the extent to which coaches alter the way they act in social situations.

Theme	Sub theme	Data extracts
Influence of coach education	Formal	<i>Chris: coach education is, is a key one. I think things you pick up on coach education influence how you maybe interact with staff and players within your environment.</i>
	Non-Formal	<i>Aaron: I picked up some things from talking to people at conferences and gained a few new ideas.</i>
	Informal	<i>Chris: While being in the academy I have tried to learn from other coaches and that's helped me get better as I sometimes copy what they did.</i>
Coaching philosophy	Alignment of values	<i>Chris: Ultimately your behaviours are what you do. Your behaviours are your values in action.</i>
	Person centred	<i>Ashley: You have to think about the person first before you're thinking about the player.</i>
	Care	<i>Tom: Building that relationship, first of all and building that level of trust so the understand that you that you do care.</i>
Coaching context	Playing level	<i>Gareth: Level of player influences behaviour, we're working with some of the best players in the country, young players in the country, the expectation goes up and the level of detail and things that there needs to be increased.</i>
	Culture of geographical location	<i>Ashley: I think culturally, as a place, I think that runs quite true within, within our kids and also the football club as well.</i>
	Approach to feedback	<i>Aaron: There's always going to be a different type of message. I think the challenge is to make sure it's not fluffy all the time.</i>

Table 2: Table of themes and sub-themes

Coaches reflect on the different influences on their behaviour, as set out in the themes. One influence which transcends across themes being the coach athlete relationship. This is present as coaches discuss how coach education impacts how they interact with athletes, their components of their coaching philosophies such as building relationships holistically using a person centred approach incorporating notions of care. Along with the coaching context where coaches reflected on how the talented players they work with influence their actions. Interestingly, the academy does not have values which it imposes on the coaches as the values of the club appear vague and thus difficult to follow for coaches. This contrasts to their pedagogical approach which is a clearly set out philosophy which is communicated to the coaches to adhere to. This takes the form of a coaching curriculum which contains topics which coaches deliver resulting in all teams in the youth development phase having similar playing styles. Furthermore, the data shows coaches manage their behaviour when interacting with athletes and one form this takes place in is the way they deliver feedback aspirationally. Following data analysis, it became clear that the participants were very aware of how they were behaving. They consciously decide how to interact with athletes which highlights how they are concerned with the perception their athletes have of them.

Influence of coach education

Formal

The data collected from the semi structured interviews with coaches revealed their behaviour was influenced by different forms of coach education and their background. Research indicates despite coaches often engaging in formal education, coaches feel such endeavours make little impact (Nelson et al., 2006).

Coaches find formal coach education impactful as they learn new ways to manage social relationships and share ideas on player development. The participants discussed coach education varying from football specific national governing body qualifications and university studies.

Chris: I take a lot from coach education courses where we discuss players solving their own problems without coaches giving them answers.

Ashley: In university I did a football studies degree where I learnt a lot and that's shaped how I coach.

Chris: coach education is, is a key one. I think things you pick up on coach education influence how you interact with staff and players within your environment.

Piggot (2012) used Foucauldian concepts to interpret qualitative data from coaches to determine the extent to which coaches considered formal education useless. They found formal education courses delivered by large national governing bodies created coaches who were docile and didn't object to what was discussed due to a fear of failing the course. The findings from this study suggest formal coach education is not useless as coaches have taken inspiration from courses and university programmes which has positively impacted their own practice. That contradicts the findings of Piggot, (2012) who found coaches struggle to find formal coach education courses as useful as the content is either described as too basic or too abstract in terms of bio-scientific content that it becomes hard to apply in practice. This may be down to the sport as Piggot's (2012) study was conducted with 12 coaches across a range of sports with only 1 football coach in their sample which could suggest formal football specific education courses are more useful to coaches. This is backed up by Hammond & Perry (2005) who found positive perceptions of formal education in soccer highlighting the importance of knowledgeable educators and a structured programme.

Non-Formal

Non-formal learning is educational activity engaged in outside formal settings, such as workshops, seminars and conferences whereas formal learning is something that takes place in a hierarchical education system requiring candidates to demonstrate prerequisites as proof of learning as prescribed in the grading criteria (Coombs & Ahmed, 1984). Coaches endorsed the approach taken where discussion is at the forefront allowing coaches to compare different approaches.

Aaron: I picked up some things from talking to people at conferences and gained a few new ideas.

Gareth: I remember one thing I attended where they asked us to reflect on our own sessions, sharing a variety of experiences with other members of the group. Felt I learnt a lot from that.

The data shows that coaches find value in non-formal coach education as it allows for time for reflection and allows practitioners to share ideas and collaborate. This highlights coaches do find this form of education useful and thus backs up the calls from Nelson et al (2006) for more literature to be produced assessing the impact of non-formal learning activities.

Informal

Informal learning is thought to be the most impactful (Nelson et al., 2006) and is identified as a process of acquiring knowledge and skills over time from lived experiences (Coombs & Ahmed, 1974). Expert coaches and mentors are viewed as a significant contribution to the informal learning process (Nelson et al., 2006). The findings from this study also place similar importance on the role of expert coaches and mentors.

Ashley: I spent a lot of my time working in a local prison. So I'd go in there and deliver, literacy and numeracy, stuff whilst also delivering coach education for the, for the prisoners that were in there as well. I think that gave me quite a good grounding coming straight into university.

Chris: While being in the academy I have tried to learn from other coaches and that's helped me get better as I sometimes copy what they did.

While this study didn't set out to discover which form of coach education is the most useful the findings do show that coaches value informal coach education just as much as any other form. Nelson et al. (2006) used Coombs & Ahmed (1974) framework of formal, non-formal and informal learning to provide a conceptual review of the different ways in which coaches learn. They found the most impactful learning was informal self-directed models of learning. The findings presented are important to the research and it contributes to answering the main research question exploring the role coach education plays in influencing coach behaviour in a professional environment. The data shows all forms of coach education have an impact on coaches and use has been found in every form to impact their current behaviour. Furthermore, as all forms of coach education were described as valuable the

perspective of how coaches are expected to behave could derive from any form in equal measures. This is significant as it poses new research questions for further studies into which form of coach education has the greatest impact on how coaches are expected to behave.

Coaching philosophy

Alignment of values

The purpose of this theme is to display using the data the challenges which present themselves to academy coaches when trying to align their own values and behaviours to that of the academy. As mentioned in the literature review Cushion & Partington (2016, p. 855) define a philosophy as “a social system of beliefs, structures and practices.” A coaching philosophy consists of what coaches’ value and helps underpin decisions they make. This theme explores what the coaches’ value and how coaches navigate their own values in a professional talent environment as values contribute to a coaching philosophy.

Horn’s (2002) model of coaching effectiveness as shown in figure 2 (page 17) shows that coach behaviour is influenced by sociocultural context, organisational climate and a coach’s personal characteristics. These behaviours are mediated by their expectancies, values, beliefs and goals, all of which are components of a coaching philosophy.

Coaches expressed different opinions on the matter due to the vague nature of the academy values. When attempting to discover how coaches navigate managing their own values to align to the club it was revealing to discover that the club doesn’t imposed values on the coaches for them to adhere to.

Aaron: I think sometimes in our clubs, values can potentially be maybe not permanent, or are ingrained.

Chris: In terms of alignment with the academy, the academy works around the five pillars. I don't think as an academy that they are the forefront of what we do.

This is significant as it makes it difficult to explore if coaches manage their own values if there aren’t set values of the academy for them to align towards.

An interesting finding from the interview data was that the only coach without experience at other academies or football coaching environments found their own values were shaped by the club.

Chris: ... I've almost moulded into the way of seeing the game is the way we see it in the club. So therefore, I think it's easier for my behaviours to align.

This could suggest that if organisations wish for employees to embrace the organisational values already in place. It is best to recruit them before they can experience other ways of working. It also could suggest that inexperienced employees lack critical thinking. Furthermore, this begins to suggest that the academy in fact does have values they may not be explicitly outlined and imposed on coaches.

Notwithstanding the lack of clarity and cohesiveness when asked about the clubs' values, all coaches mentioned hard work as a personal value. This highlights the reality for the coaches working in this academy and begins to illustrate where values of the academy derive from. When asked about what they value as a coach, participants replied:

Chris: So, my personal values, are around hard work...

Aaron: ... what I would classify as defined work, that work ethic that, you know, you're willing to work harder than anyone else to achieve your goals. And I think, that would be something for me that I would always instantly take a look for.

Ashley: I think first and foremost, is hard work....

Gareth: Definitely high work rate, in terms of intensity, that they need to work at the training session that the game has to be at. The individual has to be able to work at a high intensity....

Further emphasising this value of hard work which comes from the coaches they talk about hard work as a personal value and a desired behaviour in their athletes. Significantly revealing there was an ingrained culture in the academy centred around values.

Ashley: I think sometimes in our clubs, values can potentially be maybe not permanent, or are ingrained. And I wouldn't say that our club's values are ingrained, I think there are elements within the culture that is ingrained.

Aaron: In my role I try to demonstrate a work ethic that I know we have in the academy, it's a big part of what we do.

Furthermore, Aaron the academy manager spoke about hard work as a value being influenced by the fans and first team which could reflect his role as under 16 coach and academy manager where decisions need to be made regarding scholarships.

Aaron: I think the work ethic and the hard work one is a spine That sort of runs through the football club. I think if you look at the, top down, you look at the demand of the fans and from a first team point of view, they love, a player who's going to work hard.

The majority of the data collected strongly suggested values are not imposed on coaches and the values the academy holds is a result of the coaches philosophies impacting their behaviour. Although, the data also showed a contradiction where Chris explained that they felt coaches should align their values to that of the 'environment you're working in' even if doing so is not the easiest choice.

Chris: You have to try as closely as you can align to those of the organization and the environment you're working in. Because ultimately that that is who you're working for.

-Do you ever find that difficult?

Chris: It can be challenging, but ultimately I think the important bit is you align to those behaviours of working in the environment that you are, my opinion would be is that sometimes you have to park what you sometimes believe and do what's right to be in line with that the values of the organization or the environment that you're working in.

The data shows a contradiction as it is difficult to align behaviours to the values of the environment which one finds themselves in if the values are not clear. Furthermore, Chris mentions how complex it can be managing personal values which make up a coach philosophy. Chris acknowledges it is difficult but feels obliged to adopt the values of the club over sticking with his own. This is interesting as the consensus from the other participants was that the values are formed by the coaches themselves and therefore there is no need to

manage personal values to align with those of the academy. The academy manager offered some clarity on the matter.

Aaron: We don't have set values like some clubs do, we don't tell our coaches to do things in a certain way. Our academy teams play the same way but that's down to the coaching curriculum.

This confirmed the academy manager doesn't feel it is essential to have set values imposed across the academy, but he did emphasise the consistency in approach from a pedagogical standpoint.

These findings are important for the context in which they derive from as it demonstrates how the culture of the club feeds into the coaches value and thus helps to answer the main research question and contributes to the sub question focused on navigating values. The findings show the values of the coaches influences their own behaviour, but they do not need to navigate their own personal beliefs.

While coaches reflections on the pedagogy of the academy were supported, thoughts on the clubs values were mixed due to the vague nature of them, Chris discussed how it can be challenging to align personal values with corresponding behaviours.

Chris: There might be some conflict between the two, values and behaviours but ultimately your behaviours are what you do. Your behaviours are your values in action. the behaviours are more important, than the actual values in terms of what they look like.

This is important as it reflects how values and behaviours are interconnected as Chris model's his values through his behaviours. This shows how important it is to have a clear set of values and a clear philosophy to allow behaviours to consistently align with values. This aligns with literature on authenticity as authentic behaviours are behaviours that align to one's values (Price, 2003). Addressing the research questions, coaches do not need manage their own values to align to the academy this allows coaches to be more authentic in their behaviours as their coaching philosophy influences behaviour.

Coaches also placed great significance on aligning their behaviors with their values, often using honesty as an example explaining how as a coach you must encapsulate your values and role model them to the players in the academy setting.

Ashley: You'll always have set of personal values that you try to adhere to, things that you value. If you want to adhere to a value of honesty then then that has to be reflected in everything you do. Probably not all the time, but you have to, you have to try your best to align to them.

Gareth: Yeah, I think it's really difficult to carry yourself in the right way to influence the players because only 0.01% will make it professionally. I think we just keep; you can keep your values as simple as possible.

Gareth highlights the need to have simple values which make it easier for coaches to behave authentically which also shows the importance of having a clear philosophy comprising of straight forward values which allows behaviours to align to the values.

While honesty was cited as a value Chris has to manage being honest with players but consider the psychological impact that can have on the players and also brings it back to the impact the coach-athlete relationship can have on them.

Chris: I think you need to be honest but be careful about when you work with young players is not to say that you can't sugar-coat things but if you're being critical in your feedback and your assessment you have to have an understanding of how psychologically that can affect someone. It's a lot easier to be honest when you when you have got that relationship

The data shows coaches try to align their behaviour with their values. This is pertinent to the work on authenticity as behaviours are authentic if they align to the values one holds (Price, 2003). A challenge is presented if a value is honesty, but a coach is aware of the potentially negative impacts honesty can have then they might behave inauthentically to protect the player psychologically as Chris mentioned.

While the academy does not have a set philosophy this is not negative as Hall et al. (2022) found despite the academy having a philosophy this was in fact an overused buzzword which lacked clarity and did not offer coaches specific guidance or behaviours to follow.

Interestingly their findings resonate with this study as they found coaches personal values prevailed as a bigger influence of behaviour than the academy philosophy. In addressing the research sub question this further emphasises that coaches do not need to navigate their own values to adhere to an instituted philosophy of the professional academy.

Coaches consistently echoed similar thoughts to each other on playing style, coaching curriculum and academy guidelines on ball rolling time. (Ball rolling time refers to the duration of session of which the ball is moving).

Gareth: the 9s to 16s is where we have clear principles and a clear playing style and a clear vision.

Chris: the main parts of our culture and philosophy, set out by the academy, the main thing is the 80:20 principle. What that means is that we aim to try and have a high percentage of ball rolling time.

Aaron: you have we have a theme throughout the week. So, the theme is a generally decided by the coaches and members of the MDT (multi-disciplinary team).

This shows the club does have a clear focus in regard to what Cote & Gilbert (2009) would refer to as professional knowledge. This suggests it is important for academies to have a consistent approach in regard to the professional knowledge. It also shows a contrast in the approaches from philosophical and pedagogical values as the club is very clearly setting out pedagogical values for coaches to adhere to. Addressing the research sub question, coaches seemed to be content with having pedagogical values but would need to navigate their own pedagogical beliefs to align to the coaching curriculum and guidelines on ball rolling time.

The findings presented add to the existing body of research within contemporary literature on coaching philosophies, such as those conducted by Cushion & Partington (2014, 2016) and Nesti & Sulley (2014) who's work was discussed in the literature review.

In terms of aligning behaviours to expectations of behaviour, coaches found it difficult to always align behaviours with expectations of how they should behave. They discovered it to be more impactful to align behaviour to your values. This finding is significant as it shows coaches align behaviours to their values as opposed to contextual expectations showing it is imperative for coaches to understand their own values and have a clear philosophy.

Person centred approach

The coach-athlete relationship is prominent within the coaches philosophies as the data showed that the coaches deeply consider ways to build strong coach-athlete relationships holistically by taking a person centred approach. This was clearly a strong value of the coaches. The coaches used in Garner et al. (2022) placed a large focus on the person as well as the athlete, the study aimed to provide an understanding of the characteristics to undertake a person centred approach. Such approaches were commonly discussed amongst coaches as one way of viewing the coach-athlete relationship is from a holistic perspective where the needs of the individual are put first. In illustrating this point coaches said:

Chris: ...the approach is to put the other person first, in terms of, for me, I put an emphasis on getting to know the individual person behind the player.

Ashley: You have to think about the person first before you're thinking about the player... it's important to get to know the kids on a personal level, not just them as player. In order to have a strong relationship, you've got to have that empathy. And I think if you, if you get that the players you, want what's best for them.

Pertinent to this study is the notion of other centeredness where coaches focus on making decisions with the intention to benefit others as appose to their self (Garner et al., 2022). The findings resonate with a study which suggested that to build strong coach-athlete relationships which support development of young people the coach should aspire to see beyond the athlete, considering what the needs of each individual are (Green et al., 2020).

Care

A component of the coaches philosophies is to address the holistic needs of each individual. Literature states that the coach-athlete relationship is crucial to the positive outcomes of coaching (Pulido et al., 2019). Because of the positive outcomes coming from a positive environment in sport Pulido et al. (2011) argues that coaches should take a holistic approach to youth development. This is important as this would support research which argues that a holistic approach is an effective way to develop academy footballers (Green et al., 2020).

along with being person-centred in their approach the coaches also demonstrate care in their practice in the talent environment, as the data shows.

Gareth: I think you need to be relatable, once they get that they trust you.

Chris:I need them to know that they can trust me, and I need to be able to do what I think to develop them best.

Ashley: ... I think it's; it's about having a really trusting relationship with the kids that you work with... If you haven't got that strong relationship with the kids and they don't believe that you'll try to help them as best you can.

Aaron: I tend to be somebody they can talk to, most of the players generally feel like they can come and talk to me. And I want them to trust me with that.

The findings are significant as they resonate with contemporary literature on care in coaching presented by Cronin & Armour (2018). By viewing the coach-athlete relationship from a care perspective it is clear that these coaches all care about the athletes and their development as players but also has people. This is pleasing as Cronin & Armour (2018) make note of a deficiency in the coach education system as coaches involved in cases of exploitation and abuse came through the coach education system. These findings add to the emerging literature on care in coaching and suggest coach education is producing coaches who care as coach education was cited an influence on coaching behaviour. The findings are important to answer the main research question as the holistic approach to coach-athlete relationship by using a person-centred approach (Garner et al., 2022) and demonstrating care in coaching (Cronin & Armour, 2018) all influence how coaches behave in the academy setting.

The notions of care and a person centred approach connect to transformational behaviours and are significant as the findings in this study resonate with the findings from Vella et al. (2013) who found the best predictors of developmental experiences are transformational behaviours and the quality of the coach-athlete relationship. One of the most influential leadership behaviours was individual consideration where the needs of each person are taken into account. Using a person centred approach and care is a way coaches can display

individual consideration. This is pertinent in answering the main research question as it shows how coaches behave in an academy setting and how they build coach-athlete relationships.

Coaching context

Playing level

Using a holistic approach to view the coach-athlete relationship and consistently aligning values with behaviours to be authentic can be challenging for practicing coaches. Therefore, it was important to investigate where the expectation of behaviour comes from. The purpose of this section is to present the data which shows how the players influence how coaches feel they are expected to behave.

Gareth: Level of player influences behaviour, we're working with some of the best players in the country, young players in the country, the expectation goes up and the level of detail and things that there needs to be increased.

Ashley: I suppose the expectation is greater I think if you're working with players with great talent

-Where does that expectation come from?

Ashley: Them. They're supremely talented players, individuals with potential, I suppose, is harnessing that potential to try and get them a career.

Exploring how athletes influence coach expectation of behaviour is significant as it is more common for research to explore this relationship from the opposite perspective (Thelwell et al., 2017). As coaches reflected that the players they work influence how they feel expected to behave in an academy environment, consequently coaches are influenced by the pressure of working in an academy to develop players quickly at the higher age groups

Gareth: You're here to work if you're here to get the best out of these kids and, you only got a short space of time with them.

Aaron: ...what can be perceived as the lack of time for those players. So, a 16 year old, has got maybe 12 months left to try and get a scholarship. There needs to be quick gains.

But that is contrasted with a different approach at a younger age group.

Chris: ...there's four years ahead of him before there's a scholarship decision. So what's the rush? I'm not in a rush to declare, if a player has a chance to have, if the player has no chance, because there's so much I'm not in control of.

This shows how the pressure of working in an academy environment can impact how coaches behaviour as they search for ways to improve players quickly before they have to make decisions on players regarding retaining or releasing them. However, the pressure to develop players quickly is not taken into consideration at younger age groups. This aligns to Rosenberg's academy which has a long-term approach to talent development therefore this is satisfying to discover (Aalberg & Saether, 2016). Furthermore, Chelladurai's (1978) multidimensional model as shown in the figure 1 (a) (page 16) displays three states of leadership behaviours; required, preferred and actual. Stating situational characteristics composing of group goals, task type and cultural context inform the required behaviour of the leader. This is pertinent as the findings add to the existing literature on influences of coaching behaviour and correlate with Chelladurai's (1978) model. This is evident as coaches of different age groups have different group goals and this impacts their behaviour.

Coaches manage their behaviour with their athletes, they discuss how their behaviour changes dependant on the players they're working with and how best they feel they can be developed.

Gareth: I think you tend to find yourself then maybe going from very casual to very strong and there's no gradual sort increase sometimes the players go from very laid-back to almost looking at you like he's on my back now. And that's not really what you want.

Gareth: when you do change the timbre, your voice and the tone of your voice and we've gone from very jokey to very autocratic quite quickly right okay, this must be important then. And then they associate your mood to relevant things can be.

Ashley: It's getting to know the players, as well as getting to understand what's going to get the best out of them you can use different strategies as a coach.

Gareth: ... understanding when you need to be light hearted when you need to be a bit stronger with them when they need that arm around their shoulder when they need to be told, in a sterner way that they need to improve.

The data shows participants are very aware of how they are behaving and the language they are using when interacting with athletes, they understand the effect this has on the athletes they are coaching.

This supports sociological literature as Goffman highlights the significance of the type of language used in social interactions as language allows us to make sense of our own identities (Beard, 1998; Giddens, 2009; Lock & Strong, 2010; McGannon et al., 2000, as cited in Cassidy et al., 2009, p. 116). Any sort of meaning we create from reality is partially constructed and imposed by the one who talks, as they provide the frame for anyone else in the social situation (Cassidy et al., 2009). Gareth's deep understanding of how he delivers messages is illustrated below.

Gareth: ... prior to the session its very informal, it's light hearted, it's talking about things that are not football related,

*Gareth: they understand when the ball starts rolling how they see your reaction change you can go from 'right come on, we need to be on this now' *clapping*. And they can tell by your tone of voice and how you change and deliver everything.*

In addition, to the language they use and how the message is delivered coaches are also acutely aware of the perception they give off to the players and how they alter their behaviour.

Aaron: Some kids want instant attention, some kids don't want the attention from the coach, I think when I was with the foundation phase, I tended to be more childlike and friendly as a coach, a bit more fun and engaging. Whereas now, I think it's a fine balance between being engaging and fun coach, but also being a professional, challenging, motivating person.

Ashley: You can use different strategies as a coach to make sure you get the best out of them. So it might be that certain players might respond to having that arm around the shoulder. And, giving them comfort and helping them to believe, you're doing what's best for them and, building their confidence. Others might respond from a little bit more of a, sterner, type of coaching as well.

These findings are significant as they contribute towards answering the second sub question as the data shows coaches manage their behavior to a large extent when interacting with their athletes.

Interestingly when discussing how their behaviour changes around players one coach claimed they felt that their athletes could "see through it". What the data shows is what Goffman would refer to as someone battling with their own sense of self (1959).

Gareth: it's important to not to, 'put it on' because I think they can see through it. I think players will see through it if they're if their hang on a minute he was he was okay a minute a minute ago now he's ranting and raving and shouting at me. I think they can lose it and it can lose its effect. If you do it like that.

This finding falls in accordance with the work by Hickney & Roderick (2017) who found that a front is greatly influenced by the perceived expectation of how we should act. It could therefore be argued that this coach has become subservient to the perception about the way they want to be perceived by their athletes. Pollach & Kerbler (2011) found maintaining an illusion of authenticity could be a challenge as behaviours can switch from automatic to self-conscious. Reiterating the view deposited by Goffman that this can cause the actor's performance, to suffer due to the decreasing confidence in oneself to maintain their front. The data extract above shows Gareth suffering from the lack of confidence in his ability to maintain a convincing front to his players.

An interesting finding from the data showed coaches behaviour changes as the week goes on dependant on periodisation starting from Monday.

Gareth: I think on a Monday you can be very light hearted, you can have a bit more of a laugh and joke

Tuesday

Gareth: I'll come into the session and I'm gonna be on him today. If you're not putting their maximum effort I'm gonna keep coming for you. I'm gonna keep on top with you. I'm not gonna apologize for it because I want to push you.

It is clear how coaches behaviour can change as noted by the repetition of phrases beginning with 'I'm gonna...' which typifies how stark the change in behaviour can be and gives an insight into what the players would experience in an academy environment.

Wednesday

Aaron: if we start strong, you can always ease off. So, I think if you if you go if you sort of go after him for the first couple. They'll keep that tempo.

Thursday

Ashley: Thursday is probably where my behaviour might change during session.

Saturday

Gareth: I try to be more relaxed focusing in on what we've done in training. I'm more relaxed but if someone isn't doing something they should I'll still be on them because I know they do better.

The findings are significant as it explores how periodisation to prepare youth athletes for competition impacts coach behaviour, a relatively undiscovered corner of literature. Connecting fields of physiology, strength and conditioning, psychology with pedagogy, leadership and behaviour.

The qualitative data shows that the coaches are aware of how they interact with athletes, the coaches have also displayed that their behaviour is the result of a conscious decision making process. In addition, the findings are significant because they contradict the notion that coaching is an 'art' and therefore implies an inability for it to be taught. Cushion et al. (2013) point out that viewing coaching as an 'art' disregards literature suggesting coaching is a complex and intricate activity.

The data shows coaching manage their behaviour when interacting with players which contributes to answers the second sub question. Player development and maintaining a coaching front appear to be justification for the playing level impacts coaching behaviour.

Culture of geographical location

The coaches also recognize the influence that the local area has on their behavior which shapes their values.

Ashley: I think if you look at where we get a lot of our players. They're from that sort of (working class) area. You know, culturally from, years ago with the mining culture in (this country) and also the football club as well.

Aaron: And I've always felt that that potentially is a way of motivating the players that they are the underdogs, you know, you're going to have to work hard but they're used to it because it's where they're from.

These findings are significant as they display how the geographical culture within coaching context can impact their behaviour, furthermore these findings resonate with the second theme and sub theme of alignment of values as their behaviour which is influenced by the culture which has shaped their values and thus their coaching philosophy. These findings also add to a limited field exploring how geographical culture influence personal values and thus impact behaviour in sport settings.

Approach to feedback

The data revealed findings from the semi-structured interviews where coaches talk about their own behaviour. This theme directly relates to the research question centred around the extent to which coaches manipulate their behaviour in social situations. Referring to figure 1 (page 16) Chelladurai's (1978) model mentions 'preferred behaviour' and this links in to feedback coaches give focusing on the manner in which members prefer to receive instructions, guidance, social support and feedback. The findings of this study demonstrate how coaches consider the way feedback is given to athletes.

The data showed that coaches do manage their behaviour when interacting with athletes. A prevalent coach-athlete interaction in a talent environment is when coaches provide

feedback, they manage their behaviour to frame the feedback aspirationally. Looking into how coaches try to develop their athletes, feedback is viewed as a key part of the learning process in the development of the players in the academy.

Aaron: I don't think the kids get that real critique that they need. It is just the way you sell it, then to ensure that they believe they can improve it.

Ashley: ...you might think of something which, at this moment in time, you don't actually feel that its achievable for the players, but it might be something that you just sort of drip that little seed into them to think that they can start believing that themselves.

One coached highlighted that sometimes they do have act to some extent to ensure they do not come across as “fluffy”.

Aaron: Some children like to be told, they're doing great, some children, like to be told, 'you need to do it better'. So, there's always going to be a different type of message. I think the challenge is to make sure it's not fluffy all the time.

This shows that coaches consciously make decisions about how they could be perceived by athletes in social interactions. This finding is significant as it echoes what Goffman (1959) talks about when assessing how we conform to a certain role and try to present a compelling front for those in the interaction. In this case the coach consciously alters their behaviour to try to improve their players. Building on this notion of using a front to develop players coaches try to frame feedback aspirationally.

Gareth:you talk aspirationally 'this is really going to make you something'. And I think if you're trying to sell that autocratic message in a way that is aspirational, that you're more likely to get that, engagement from the player as well... I think more the aspirational element helps to engage the player.

Aaron: ...we talk about development, surely that that is that sort of word, in my mind, that would insinuate that there's always going to be an element of aspiration to improve.

Ashley: You're never going to say to a young boy that you're going to be a professional footballer because you know, the chances are really, really slim, but you

act to make them all believe that they can through what you're teaching them and the value that you're putting in place to try and help them get there.

The findings compare with the coaches studied by d'Arripe-Longueville et al. (1998) who utilised ploys and behavioural strategies such as selective feedback, deception and withholding important information. The Judo coaches deliberately displayed behaviours to show their authority over their athletes. Despite the differences when compared to the participants in this study what is clear is the amount of attention the coaches pay to their own behaviour.

Delivering feedback aspirationally brings into question the notion of honesty coming through the qualitative data with coaches talking about how they interact with their athletes. By speaking aspirationally it is possible that coaches are attempting to get athletes to believe in something that is false. While this could appear unethical, the coaches in this study deploy this feedback strategy as a means to seek improvement and further develop the athletes in the academy. This resonates with research by Jones et al. (2004) who explored how coaches engage in white lies which they believe have the athlete's wellbeing at heart; actions which bring into question manipulation and morality.

The findings also resonate with the findings from Potrac et al. (2002) who found coaches engage in impression management to try to give off the impression of being knowledgeable, caring, and decisive. Importantly based on the reflections of the coaches, the findings from this study therefore correspond with the findings from Mcleod (2010). Even if the coaches are being dishonest to their athletes as a form of impression management these actions still align with the values of the coach which means the coach is still being authentic in the way they behave.

This impacts coaching practice if coaches are manipulating the way their deliver feedback, the purpose of the feedback is to improve the athletes while the coaches are framing feedback in a particular way to their athletes. The intentionality behind the feedback is a positive one, it's one to improve the athletes and motivate them rather than to lower their self-esteem and self-efficacy. This is also pertinent to the notion of authenticity as a key difference between the findings of this study compared to that of Nelson et al. (2013b) are in this study the

coaches manipulate the social situations for the benefit of their athlete rather than their own personal gain.

Importantly for coaching practice, Mendonca & Kanungo (2007) explain how creating false impressions can be seen as unethical. In this study the coach is influencing the athletes using more appraisals to believe in something which is potentially distorted from the truth. This impacts coaching practice as it challenges the discourse that being dishonest is unethical when in this instance the coach may be dishonest with the intention to improve their athletes. Therefore, their intentions are not to be manipulative and deceptive to harm their athletes, but to motivate them. While there could be elements of deception if the coach does not believe in what they are saying their intention is to be positive. This would suggest that being dishonest is not always a negative if the coach is engaging in these behaviours with positive intentions. This challenges the notion that dishonesty is always unethical what's key to remember is the authenticity and the intentionality behind the coaches behaviours that they deploy in social situations.

This impacts coach education as formal courses should cover the notions of honesty and authenticity and discuss that being dishonest for positive reasons can still lead to positive outcomes. Furthermore, by incorporating the theoretical notion of front it could be assessed how impactful it can be if coaches are capable of displaying an effective 'coaching front.'

Conclusion

This research supports the idea that academy coaches need to have a highly attuned set of values that are regularly reviewed and revised as this is shown to be a greater driver of behaviour than dictates from the professional club. Coaches have to navigate their own pedagogical values to adhere to the coaching curriculum. However, while the club set the theme coaches are responsible for the design of the session retaining autonomous over the practice design. The data also shows a lack of an instituted philosophy of a professional academy allows the coaches to behave authentically displaying behaviours which align to their values (Price, 2003).

The findings concur with literature highlighting the importance of the coach-athlete relationship thus interpersonal knowledge should hold greater significance on all formal and

non-formal education courses (Coombs & Ahmed, 1984; Cote & Gilbert, 2009, 2013). As coach education and it has been seen as a vehicle for raising the overall standards of coaching practice coaching pathways need to do more to prepare coaches to manage different expectations on their behaviour and building relationships which are context specific (Macdonald et al., 2020; Perkins & Hahn, 2020).

Coach behaviours are influenced through a range of educative experiences which supports the notion that coach education and how they learn needs to be addressed through a variety of models (Abraham & Collins, 2011; Maclean & Lorimer, 2016). The data also highlights how important coach education can be which further emphasise the importance of what is delivered on the courses as they are a key influencer for academy coaches. Coaches can learn in many different ways in a variety of settings, the lack of clarity over defining terminology around the topic i.e., coach learning, coach education, coach development is justification for greater attention to be paid to coach education as a field (Nelson et al., 2006). Coaches also reported a number of contextual and cultural considerations that shaped their behaviour and approach to delivering feedback. This further supports the call for coach education to acknowledge the complexity of managing the coach-athlete relation in specific contexts such as youth development environments used in this study (Erickson & Cote, 2016; Jowett, 2017). The coaching context highlights the realities of working in an academy environment where expectation comes from the players of whom it is the coaches responsibility to develop contributing to the main research question. Their aspirational approach to feedback addresses the second sub question as it shows the extent to which coaches manipulate their behaviour when interacting with athletes.

The findings are significant as they challenge coaches to consider how authentic their behaviour is but support the view that coaches can use a front to manage difficulties in applying values consistently (Goffman, 1959). The findings and discussions provide contributions to sport coaching research and practice along with the field of positive youth development, whilst adding to the existing but limited body of knowledge applying sociological literature of human interactions into a sport coaching environment.

Finally, coach education and coaching practice would benefit from continuing to embrace sociological perspectives such as Goffman to underpin how coaches manage and manipulate their approach to meet the needs of the athletes their work with and can operate in a person

centred manner (Garner et al., 2022) where care is an integral part of professional practice (Cronin et al., 2018). Coaches discussed changing their behaviours to suit the needs of each individual. The data advocates that the coaches in this study are all invested in their athletes not only as footballers but as people adding to the emerging literature on care in coaching. These findings presented discussions around authenticity particularly as coaches are very aware of how they are presenting themselves to their athletes while acting in accordance with their values (Price, 2013). This contributes to answering the first sub question showing coaches do not need to navigate their own philosophical values in contrast to their pedagogical approaches. A significant implication for coaching practice is an addition to the existent body of literature on coaching behaviour in talent development environments.

Final thoughts

The outcome of this research has been enlightening for the researcher as it showcased the positive intentions of the coaches within the academy environment. Highlighting the importance of a person centred approach in which care is a fundamental part of their coaching practice, where athlete's development takes precedence over the outcome of matches. This was a pleasant insight to discover and one which can resonate with many coaches in different contexts.

This research has opened new avenues for exploration questioning the importance of an instituted philosophy in an academy setting. The findings from this study show that without one, coaches are able to behaviour authentically without the need to compromise their own values to adhere to an imposed set of values and behaviours. It would be interesting to discover if the same holistic approach to coach-athlete relationships is taken in settings with imposed values and philosophies. In addition, the study calls for greater significance to be placed on athlete expectation as an influence on coach behaviour emphasising how coaching is a unidirectional social endeavour.

A limitation of this research was the inability to observe coaches during training sessions and matchdays due to the COVID-19 pandemic. This study could have used a qualitative observation coupled with semi-structured interviews to describe interactions and develop explanations of behaviour patterns through observing micro-interactions allowing for more

depth in the data (Barker, 2011; Veal & Darcy, 2014). In addition, they lend themselves to sociological studies as qualitative methods are better suited when results do not directly lend themselves to be quantified and it is more impactful to use words to unpick complex social interactions (Hastie & Hay, 2012).

Along with observations sessions could have been recorded to ensure accurate recording of behaviours into a coding system. Video recording devices can be used as an aid in sporting environments when conducting research as a more reliable tool than the naked eye (Vickers, 2017). Turnnidge et al. (2014) used an observation coding system devised to capture both coach and athlete behaviours. The pandemic influenced this research as health and safety had to be the priority both for the researcher and participants. Because of this risk semi-structured interviews were chosen as they could be conducted online.

Future research of this nature could take on a bigger sample using the same method but applying it to different football academies with emergent findings from interviews leading to a more extensive analysis conducting cross comparisons with other data sets (Maxwell & Chmiel, 2013). Moreover, observations could be added making it a multi method approach as this could increase the trustworthiness of the findings adding another layer of richness to the data (Ohman & Quennerstedt, 2012; Sparkes & Smith, 2009).

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Appendix

Example of consent form

Researcher: Benjamin Bell, MSc Student, University of Gloucestershire, Oxstalls Campus Oxstalls Lane, Gloucester, GL2 9HW

Title of Project:

Playing the game: Goffman, Dramaturgy and Coach behaviour

Dear football coach,

I am a researcher at the University of Gloucestershire. I would like to invite you to take part in a research study. The study is voluntary, and you will only be included if you provide your informed consent.

The purpose of this study is to explore coaches' behaviour when interacting with their athletes. I would like to conduct a semi-structured interview with you. This will be online using Microsoft teams due to COVID-19.

I will keep all data private and in a locked office and only I will have access to the data. I will keep data for four years after the study has finished. After four years, it will be destroyed. Once I have finished the study it is possible, I will present the results at conferences and publish in an academic journal. When I publish the results, no-one who has partaken will be identifiable to ensure no harm can come to anyone involved. The club's name will not be mentioned only the academy category

By taking part in this study, you may help coaches develop their skills. You will also receive a copy of the full thesis and any journal articles that are produced.

The University of Gloucestershire faculty research ethics panel has approved this study. Please contact Colin Baker who is the PGR Lead for the Faculty of Sport and Exercise science at the University of Gloucestershire, if you have any concerns email cmbaker@glos.ac.uk. Colin Baker has no direct involvement in the study.

If you would like to participate in this study, please read and sign the informed consent form and return it together with the completed questions. Many thanks.

Ben Bell

Researcher: Benjamin Bell, MSc Student, University of Gloucestershire, Oxstalls Campus Oxstalls Lane, Gloucester, GL2 9HW

Title of Project: Playing the game: Goffman, Dramaturgy and Coach behaviour

Please circle your answer

Do you understand that I have asked you to participate 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 researcher 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 up until the point of writing up the discussion, without consequence, and that your information will be withdrawn at your request?	Yes	No
Do you understand that I will keep your data confidential?	Yes	No
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: _____

Project approval form



PROJECT APPROVAL



This form should be completed by every candidate and submitted for approval to the School PGR Lead. Please refer to the Research Student Handbook and the Academic Regulations for Research Degrees Provision for further detailed information.

SECTION 1: STUDENT TO COMPLETE			
Family Name	Bell	First Name	Ben
Student number	-----	Mode of Study	Full-time (please delete as necessary)
RESEARCH DEGREE PROJECT: M			
COLLABORATING ESTABLISHMENT (A collaborating establishment is an organisation that enters into a formal written agreement with the University to provide facilities and other resources, e.g. access to a database, library, archive etc. A letter of support from the collaborating establishment confirming any agreed arrangements must accompany this application).			
TITLE OF YOUR RESEARCH PROJECT Playing the game: Goffman, Dramaturgy and Coach Behavior			
PROPOSED PLAN OF WORK The total word count for this section is a maximum of 1,500 words, excluding bibliography.			
All plans should address the required headings set out below			

- a) **AIM OF THE RESEARCH:** Briefly state the main purpose(s) of the research and comment on its wider significance
- b) **RESEARCH OBJECTIVES:** These must be highly focused and feasible
- c) **IMPORTANCE AND ORIGINALITY OF THE RESEARCH:** This should be related to a brief literature review of the field of study
- d) **PROPOSED RESEARCH METHODS:** This should state your methods and your rationale for their use. This section should also discuss the ethical dimensions of the chosen research methods and steps taken to address any issues that arise from them

A). Aim of the Research

The purpose of this study is to critique how academy football coaches interact with their athletes in a professional environment. Using the theoretical framework of impression management (Goffman, 1959) it is the intention of this study to explore social interactions and the role of impression management in everyday coaching interactions and also investigate how these behaviors are influenced by expectations of talent development i.e. selection factors used within the academy to determine selection and de-selection.

To date, limited literature has sought to apply these ideas to academy football. Notably, Manley and Parker (2017) have utilized social theory to analyze trainee player experiences using the theory of total institution (Goffman, 1961). In addition, Partington and Cushion (2012) used Goffman's theory of impression management (1959) to understand the behavior of elite youth coaches during match days. They found coaches' behavior was influenced by social pressures and constraints as coaches tried to imitate what they considered to be 'traditional coaching.' These studies provide the basis of this research with the following research objective.

B). Research Objective and Questions

Research Objective: To better understand how football coaches behave in a professional academy setting.

Research Questions:

- How do football coaches behave in a professional academy setting?
- How do coaches manage their philosophies and pedagogical values with the expectations of talent ID and development?
- Do academy coaches engage in 'impression management' when interacting with athletes?

C). Importance and Originality of Research

The importance of this research is particularly relevant for coaches and coach educators trying to understand coaches' behaviors in a professional setting where youth development is a focus. Little research in sport coaching has utilized established social theory in this way for understanding coaching interactions and literature has largely had a bio-psychological focus. This study uses Goffman's work to move towards a more enhanced approach which locates coaches' behaviors within their dynamic and complex contexts.

This study combines Goffman's theory of impression management with coaches' behavior in an academy setting (Goffman, 1959). When studying coaching behavior, the research by Chesterfield, Potrac, and Jones (2011) in addition to Parker and Manley (2017) provide useful demonstrations of how Goffman's work can help to understand coaches' behavior. The theory of impression management suggests behavior is a performance directly influenced by the situation to provide an impression to other performers in the environment, which correlates with the desired goals of the actor (Goffman, 1959).

Coaching is complex and the coach plays an important role in the development of a young person (Partington and Cushion, 2012). Despite the importance of the players' environment little is known about coaches' behavior within a professional setting. Given the amount of money invested in professional academies in England and Wales, the lack of empirical research into these high pressured environments is surprising, highlighting the need for coaches' experiences in these settings to be shared (Mills *et al.*, 2014). Like other talent development/ pathway mechanisms within sport, football academies are responsible for a learning program based on technical, tactical, physiological, and psychological components (O'Connor *et al.*, 2017). This study aims to better understand coaches' behavior within a professional academy, adding to limited literature in a football academy setting.

D). Proposed Research Methods

Epistemology and Ontology

Coaching literature often searches for causality between behaviors and outcomes contrasting a positivist approach which views knowledge as pre-existing. Using an epistemological approach within an interpretivist paradigm, this research is concerned with the existence of multiple realities for coaches. Focusing on exploring the meaning of actions, viewing knowledge as a social construction in an attempt to understand the context of the participants (Bryman, 2012). This research will be conducted following a social constructivist ontology, where it is viewed that participants create their own interpretations of their own world based on their values, experiences, and opinions (Mcnamee, 2005).

Method

As part of a pre-study the selection factors used within the academy have been collected, to support in answering the second research question about coaches managing their values with the expectations of the academy. This study will use semi structured interviews to better understand coaches' behavior in an academy setting, each interview should take approximately 30 minutes. Semi-structured interviews will be used as it allows more freedom than structured interviews as it permits the researcher and the interviewee to engage in discussions about coach behaviors (Vickers, 2017). Furthermore, Veal and Darcy (2014) mention how using semi-structured interviews are more conversational and can offer a deeper insight. Due to the COVID-19 outbreak these interviews will have to take place using technology such as Microsoft teams or Zoom. Interviews will be recorded through online recording features and the iPhone voice recorder app. Interviews will be arranged as soon as the project is approved.

The research is designed to ensure it can be repeated as this study could be conducted in other coaching settings across different sports. Bryman (2012) mentions that for a study to provide ecological validity the researcher must not interfere with the environment of the participants. To ensure this, interviews will take place outside of the coaches'

environment to ensure there is no intrusion. Moreover, the findings in this research may be applicable to the everyday life of a coach (Smith, 2018).

Prospective participants will be contacted using my network of contacts acquired through networking in coaching environments and on coach education courses. As the population under consideration coaches have been chosen as the sample as they have direct links to the research objective and questions. A sample of 5 coaches from the same academy will be interviewed once individually to provide data. It is important these coaches all work in very similar environments with similar aged athletes as this study is investigating how coaches behave in a professional setting. 5 coaches will be sufficient for the research as it will be possible to generalize about football academy coaches as a population, with this selected sample size providing external validity (Bryman, 2012). Relating to the ontological perspective, 5 coaches will provide enough depth and richness to the data to understand their interpretations of reality (McNamee, 2005). Coaches will be interviewed individually to discuss their coaching philosophy and how they behave and interact with their athletes in a professional setting.

Following a review of the literature pre-determined focus areas will guide the interviews, however focus areas may shift due to the semi-structured format allowing for discussions. After making the participants feel at ease by asking about their coaching background, open ended questions will be used to explore their coaching philosophy, and gather what influences underpin and determine their behaviour. Coaches will be asked about; their values, their relationships with their athletes, their behaviors when interacting with athletes, and if their own values align to those of the academy i.e. selection factors used within the academy to determine selection and de-selection. Follow up questions be asked to provide depth and richness to the data, exploring specific examples of when they behaved in a particular way and what influenced them to behave in that way. These questions are designed so the data collected provides answers to the research questions.

Data analysis

To begin the process of data analysis, interview transcriptions will be coded using themes from the CLAS coding system which is designed to objectively assess coaches' behaviour (Turnnidge and Cote, 2016). The themes will be the higher order leadership dimensions; transformational, transactional, neutral, laissez-faire and toxic which assess coaches' behaviour across 18 behavioural categories. Furthermore, the coding system allows me to analyse behaviours in relation to content; instructional/ feedback, organization, and general communication. The answers from participants will be pooled into these themes using summaries of the key points of the interviews. Using commonalities present in the interviews, themes can be analysed. Individual interviews will be summarised to pick out the key points, creating narratives for each theme. Following on, narratives from each individual can be compared to narratives from the other interviews which could lead to the emergence of potentially new themes based on commonalities.

In the latter stages of data analysis thematic analysis will be used to establish the data through the lens of Goffman's (1959) work on Impression management. This thematic analysis will help analyse and interpret the data. A strength of using thematic analysis to analyse qualitative data is it can be successfully applied to both exploratory studies and deductive studies (Bryman, 2012).

Ethical considerations

Regarding Ethics, no personal information concerning any coaches will be revealed and coaches will be anonymized using pseudonyms therefore no-one who partakes in the research can be identified, thus reducing the risk of harm. The football club will not be mentioned by name but will be referred to via their academy category. Participants will be given a consent form explaining their right to freely withdraw from the study at any point up until the point of writing the discussion (Veal and Darcy, 2014). Recordings will be securely stored on my laptop and backed up onto a memory stick, both require a password to access. Research should also pose a social benefit to the wider community, for this study those involved will get access to the masters thesis and a possible journal article should that be produced.

BIBLIOGRAPHY (20 references should suffice and the bibliography should be presented in the style approved within your discipline. You may wish to refer to your supervisor if unsure).

Bryman, A. (2012). *Social research Methods*. Oxford university press.

Chesterfield, G., Potrac, P., & Jones, R. (2010). 'Studentship' and 'impression management' in an advanced soccer coach education award. *Sport, Education and Society*, 15(3), 299–314. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13573322.2010.493311>

d'Arripe-Longueville, F., Fournier, J. F., & Dubois, A. (1998). The Perceived Effectiveness of Interactions between Expert French Judo Coaches and Elite Female Athletes. *The Sport Psychologist*, 12(3), 317–332. <https://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.12.3.317>

Goffman, E. (1959). *The presentation of self in everyday life*. Penguin books.

McMahon, J., McGannon, K. R., & Zehntner, C. (2017). Slim to Win: An Ethnodrama of Three Elite Swimmers' 'Presentation of Self' in Relation to a Dominant Cultural Ideology. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 34(2), 108–123. <https://doi.org/10.1123/ssj.2015-0166>

McNamee, M. (2005). Positivism, Popper and Paradigms: An introductory essay into the philosophy of science. In *Philosophy and the sciences of Exercise, Health and Sport: Critical perspectives on research methods* (pp. 1–19). Routledge.

Mills, A., Butt, J., Maynard, I., & Harwood, C. (2014). Examining the development environments of elite english football academies: The players' perspective. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 9(6), 1457-1472.

O'Connor, D., Larkin, P., & Mark Williams, A. (2016). Talent identification and selection in elite youth football: An Australian context. *European Journal of Sport Science*, 16(7), 837–844. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17461391.2016.1151945>

Parker, A., & Manley, A. (2017). Goffman, Identity and Organizational Control: Elite Sports Academies and Social Theory. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 34(3), 211–222. <https://doi.org/10.1123/ssj.2016-0150>

Partington, M., & Cushion, C. J. (2012). Performance during performance: Using Goffman to understand the behaviours of elite youth football coaches during games. *Sports Coaching Review*, 1(2), 93–105. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21640629.2013.790167>

Preves, S., & Stephenson, D. (2009). The Classroom as Stage: Impression Management in Collaborative Teaching. *Teaching Sociology*, 37(3), 245–256. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X0903700303>

Provis, C. (2010). The ethics of impression management. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 19(2), 199–212. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8608.2010.01584.x>

Pruna, R., Miñarro Tribaldos, L., & Bahdur, K. (2018). Player talent identification and development in football. *Apunts. Medicina de l'Esport*, 53(198), 43–46. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apunts.2018.02.002>

Ronglan, L., & Aggerholm, K. (2014). 'Humour helps': Elite sports coaching as a balancing act. *Sports Coaching Review*, 3(1), 33-45.

Smith, M. (2018). *Research methods in sport* (2nd ed.). London: Sage publications.

Turnnidge, J., & Côté, J. (2016). Observing coaches' leadership behaviours: the development of the coach leadership assessment system (clas). *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 38, S265

Veal, A., & Darcy, S. (2014). *Research methods in sport studies and sport management: A practical guide* (1st ed.). New York: Routledge.

Vickers, M. H. (2017). Dark Secrets and Impression Management: Workplace Masks of People with Multiple Sclerosis (MS). *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 29(4), 175–195. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10672-017-9295-3>

TEMPORAL PLAN (Outline the time frame envisaged for your research tasks).

Guidance notes: please use template provided or suitable alternative. You should include work undertaken to date (e.g. pilot study; literature review, etc.).

Please refer to the Academic Regulations for Research Degree Provision for the expected course duration for your programme of study.

You will be asked to update this plan annually as part of your Annual Progress Review task

SEE FINAL PAGE for CONTINUATION SHEET

Activities	Date											
	2019				2020				2021			
Complete MR401 Essay				/								
Search for contacts in academy football				/								
Submit project approval form							/					
Complete MR402					/							

Refine method							/					
Receive project approval							/					
Conduct pilot study to refine interview questions							/					
Conduct interviews							/					
Write up discussions								/	/			
Draw conclusions									/	/		

RESEARCH ETHICS

(The research must be ethically sound, and must be conducted in accordance with the University's [Research Ethics: Handbook of Principles and Procedures](#), and with be within the code of conduct for the specific discipline. Specific ethical issues, including confidentiality, must be addressed within the proposed plan of work above):

1. My research will be conducted under the guidelines of (please tick):

- The University of Gloucestershire's Research Ethics: A Handbook of Principles and Procedures
- The University of Gloucestershire's standard protocols in the Sport & Exercise Laboratories
- The Research Governance Framework for Health and Social Care
- The British Sociological Association
- The British Psychological Society Code of Conduct, Ethical Principles & Guidelines
- The British Educational Research Association
- The Market Research Society
- The Oral History Society
- Other (please state and attach copy) _____

2. Does this proposal contain elements that make reference to the Research Ethics Committee mandatory?

- Yes No

3. If this proposal requires the approval of the Research Ethics Committee, has that approval already been received?

- Yes No

*Students requiring clearance from the University's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) need to take responsibility for submitting the appropriate paperwork to UREC and gaining the Committee's approval **before** commencing any data collection.*

4. Any specific issues concerning the ethics of this research that require particular comment are detailed in section d) Proposed Research Methods on page [please enter page number].

STUDENT CHECKLIST

Before submitting your Project Approval Form to your Supervisor, please confirm that you have:

- Completed the form in full.
- Checked the ethical implications of your project with your supervisor.
- Understood that the review of the Project Approval Form may result in feedback that you need to act on before the project can be approved.
- Signed and dated this page (by hand or electronically, but not a typed signature).

STATEMENT BY THE APPLICANT

I wish to apply for approval to undertake the above mentioned degree on the basis of the proposals given in this application.

I confirm that the particulars given are correct and I understand that, except with specific permission, I must prepare and defend my thesis in English.

I have read and understood the University of Gloucestershire's *Research Ethics: A Handbook of Principles and Procedures*. I agree to abide by the regulations, and the *Research Ethics* of the University.

Signature:

Date: 02/08/2020

NOW SEND THE COMPLETED AND SIGNED FORM TO YOUR SUPERVISOR(S)

SECTION 2: SUPERVISORS TO COMPLETE

RECOMMENDATION BY THE SUPERVISORY TEAM

I/We support this application and believe that the candidate has the potential to complete successfully the programme of work proposed. I/We recommend that the applicant's *Project* for the above research degree be submitted for review. I/We also confirm that the student has been advised of the review process and the possible outcomes.

Attach the ***Project Approval - Supervisor Pre-submission checklist*** to this document before submitting to the PGR Lead for review.

Are there any budget implications beyond those discussed at candidate's interview stage?

No

Yes. Please contact budget holder (usually the Head of School) and notify School PGR Lead

FIRST SUPERVISOR

Name (including title): Will Roberts

SIGNATURE:

Date: 03/08/2020

SECOND SUPERVISOR

Name (including title): Paul Garner

SIGNATURE:

Date: 03/08/2020

SECOND SUPERVISOR 2 (if applicable)

Name (including title)

SIGNATURE:

Date: [Click here to enter a date.](#)

NOW EMAIL THE COMPLETED FORM AND PROJECT APPROVAL PRE-SUBMISSION TO YOUR SCHOOL PGR LEAD OR NOMINATED LOCATION HIGHLIGHTED ON THE PROJECT APPROVAL PRE-SUBMISSION CHECKLIST FOR YOUR SCHOOL

SECTION 3: SCHOOL TO COMPLETE – PGR Lead or nominated member of School staff

The form has been completed (including signatures from both student and supervisor(s))

The student indicates the project should be referred to UREC in the 'Research Ethics' section. A copy of the Project Approval form has been passed to the Officer of UREC. [*Note: Approval for the project at REC should normally be confirmed before the PGR Lead passes the Project Approval form on for review.*]

The Project Approval - Supervisor Pre-submission checklist has been received

The initial supervisory team is appropriate and legal in relation to the Academic Regulations for Research Degree Provision.

If no, outline action to be taken below (e.g. appointment of second supervisor with specific skill range etc.)

If any of the boxes are not checked, please return the Project Approval form to the student for completion/correction.

The following have been nominated as reviewer(s) for this proposal.

Reviewer 1: Dr Colin Baker

Reviewer 2: Dr Martine Deighan

PGR LEAD NAME: Dr Colin Baker

Date: 16/04/2020

NOW EMAIL THE FORM TO THE REVIEWER(S)

SECTION 4: PGR LEAD TO COMPLETE

FINAL RECOMMENDATION OF THE REVIEWERS

I confirm the final recommendation of the reviewer(s) as

APPROVE

REJECT (*This option is only permitted if the student fails to respond to required amendments or that the project proposal fails to assure the reviewers that it is possible for such a project to meet the principles of the award*)

OFFER ALTERNATIVE AWARD PATHWAY

Signature:

Date: 12/08/2020

NOW EMAIL THE COMPLETED FORM TO THE STUDENT, SUPERVISOR(S) AND RESEARCH ADMINISTRATION OFFICE

Ethics form

Please ensure you have read the University of Gloucestershire *Research Ethics Handbook of Principles and Procedures* before completing this form

Please make sure you have completed the Ethics Self-Assessment Checklist prior to filling out this form. This will give you an indication on the types of research designs that require scrutiny from either the School Research Ethics Panel (SREP) or the Research Ethics Committee (REC). On occasion, some research proposals will also need the scrutiny of an external research ethics committee. Please ensure you have discussed this with your module tutor/supervisor/co-researchers.

Contact Details of Lead Researcher	
Name:	Ben Bell
Student or staff number:	
Please state in which capacity this application is being made (as this affects the gatekeeper process)	Staff member / <u>Postgraduate Researcher</u> / Postgraduate Taught Student / Undergraduate Student
University e-mail address:	

Contact Details of research supervisor(s) OR module tutor OR co-researcher(s)			
Name:	Will Roberts	Name:	
University e-mail Address:		University e-mail Address:	

About the Project			
Project Title:	Playing the game: Goffman, Dramaturgy and Coach behaviour.		
Start Date:	10/7/2020	Completion Date:	1/5/2021

Project Research Questions (include as many as applicable)	
1.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">How do football coaches behave in a professional academy setting?
2.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">How do coaches manage their philosophies and pedagogical values with the expectations of talent ID and development?
3.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Do academy coaches engage in 'impression management' when interacting with athletes?
4.	

Description of the project	
<i>Include answers to the following questions (unless non-applicable):</i>	
1. <i>Why is the project being carried out?</i>	MSc thesis
2. <i>How has it been designed to answer the research questions?</i>	<p>Questions will be asked to academy football coaches during semi-structured interviews about their own behaviour in a professional academy setting. Following a review of the literature pre-determined focus areas will guide the interviews, however focus areas may shift due to the semi-structured format allowing for discussions.</p> <p>After making the participants feel at ease by asking about their coaching background, open ended questions will be used to explore their coaching philosophy, and gather what influences underpin and determine their behaviour. Coaches will be asked about; their values, their relationships with their athletes, their behaviours when interacting with athletes, and if their own values align to those of the academy i.e. selection factors used within the academy to determine selection and de-selection. Follow up questions be asked to provide depth and richness to the data, exploring specific examples of when they behaved in a particular way and what influenced them to behave in that way. These questions are designed so the data collected provides answers to the research questions.</p> <p>This ensures the research questions will be answered.</p>
3. <i>Who are your participants?</i>	<i>5 Academy football coaches from Cardiff City FC academy coaching children.</i>
4. <i>How will they be recruited?</i>	Prospective participants will be contacted using my network of

	<p>contacts acquired through networking in coaching environments and on coach education courses. As the population under consideration coaches have been chosen as the sample as they have direct links to the research objective and questions.</p> <p>I have spoken with the head of development for the under 12-16s at Cardiff City FC and he has confirmed that I will be able to interview coaches.</p> <p>A sample of 5 coaches from the same academy will be interviewed once individually to provide data. It is important these coaches all work in very similar environments with similar aged athletes as this study is investigating how coaches behave in a professional setting. 5 coaches will be sufficient for the research as it will be possible to generalize about football academy coaches as a population, with this selected sample size providing external validity. Relating to the ontological perspective, 5 coaches will provide enough depth and richness to the data to understand their interpretations of reality.</p>
<p>5. <i>How will data be collected?</i></p>	<p>Semi-structured interviews will be used as it allows more freedom than structured interviews as it permits the researcher and the interviewee to get into some discussions about coaching behaviors. These will be conducted via zoom or Microsoft teams as due to COVID-19 meeting in person poses health and safety risks. There will be 1 interview with each coach lasting approximately 30 minutes. Interviews will be recorded through online recording features and the iPhone voice recorder app. Interviews will be arranged as soon as this research project is approved</p>

	with the aim to conduct the interviews as soon as possible.
6. <i>Where will data collection take place?</i>	Due to interviews taking place online there is no pre-determined locations. I will be in my house as I can rely on the wi-fi connection and the participants being interviewed can be wherever they are able to and feel comfortable.
7. <i>How will data be analysed?</i>	<p>To begin the process of data analysis, interview transcriptions will be coded using themes from the CLAS coding system which is designed to objectively assess coaches' behaviour. The themes will be the higher order leadership dimensions; transformational, transactional, neutral, laissez-faire and toxic which assess coaches' behaviour across 18 behavioural categories.</p> <p>Furthermore, the coding system allows me to analyse behaviours in relation to content; instructional/ feedback, organization, and general communication. The answers from participants will be pooled into these themes using summaries of the key points of the interviews. Using commonalities present in the interviews, themes can be analysed. Individual interviews will be summarised to pick out the key points, creating narratives for each theme. Following on, narratives from each individual can be compared to narratives from the other interviews which could lead to the emergence of potentially new themes based on commonalities.</p> <p>In the latter stages of data analysis thematic analysis will be used to establish the data through the lens of Goffman's work on Impression management. This thematic analysis will help analyse and interpret the data. A strength of using thematic analysis to analyse qualitative data is it can be successfully applied to both exploratory studies and deductive studies.</p>
8. <i>Provide a sample size calculation (for quantitative data)</i>	

9. <i>Has the project any external funding?</i>	No
10. <i>Is your research under contract to another organisation? If so, to whom? (please forward the contract to the insurance department)</i>	No
11. <i>Brief description of the project (using no more than 500 words – there is no need to reference academic sources).</i>	<p>The aim of the research is to better understand how football coaches behave in a professional academy setting.</p> <p>The research questions are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do football coaches behave in a professional academy setting? • How do coaches manage their philosophies and pedagogical values with the expectations of talent ID and development? • Do academy coaches engage in ‘impression management’ when interacting with athletes? <p>As a pre-study factors which impact selection and de-selection used in the academy have been collected to help answer the second research question.</p> <p>Using an epistemological approach within an interpretivist paradigm, this research is concerned with the existence of multiple realities for coaches. This research will be conducted following a social constructivist ontology, where it is viewed that participants create their own interpretations of their own world based on their values, experiences and opinions.</p> <p>Little research in sport coaching has utilized established social theory in this way for understanding coaching interactions and literature has largely had a bio-psychological focus. This</p>

study uses Goffman's work to move towards a more enhanced approach which locates coaches and their behaviours within their dynamic and complex contexts.

Given the amount of money invested in professional academies in England and Wales, the lack of empirical research into these high pressured settings is surprising. Like other talent development/ pathway mechanisms within sport, football academies are responsible for a learning programme based on technical, tactical, physiological and psychological components.

Academy football coaches have been chosen as they are the population under consideration. 5 coaches from the same football academy, will be interviewed once individually via zoom or Microsoft teams. Semi structured interviews will be carried out with coaches to discuss their behaviour when interacting with athletes in the professional setting. Semi-structured interviews will be used as it allows more freedom than structured interviews as it permits the researcher and the interviewee to engage in discussions about coaching behaviors. Interviews will be recorded through online recording features and the iPhone voice recorder app.

Open ended questions will be used to explore their own coaching behaviour and gather what influences underpin and determine their behaviour when interacting with athletes. Questions will be asked about; their values, their behaviours when interacting with athletes, and what influences them i.e. selection factors used within the academy to determine selection and de-selection. Follow up questions be

	<p>asked to provide depth and richness to the data.</p> <p>Responses will be coded using themes from the CLAS coding system which is designed to objectively assess coaches' behaviour. The answers from participants will be pooled into these themes using summaries of the key points of the interviews. From commonalities in interviews themes can be analysed. Thematic analysis will also be used to view the data through the lens of Goffman.</p> <p>Participants will be given a consent form which will explain they have the right to freely withdraw from the study at any point up until the point of writing up the discussion. No personal information will be revealed and coaches will be anonymized using pseudonyms.</p>
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Does this proposal contain any REC/SREP mandatory criteria or elements from the Ethics Self-Assessment Checklist?

Yes / No

If yes, please indicate which

1) research which involves biomedical or clinical intervention (with the exception of those approved under standard protocols, e.g. those contained in the UoG laboratory handbook)	<input type="checkbox"/>
2) deceptive research	<input type="checkbox"/>
3) covert research or where the data are not recorded in a manner that protects the anonymity of subjects or participants	<input type="checkbox"/>
4) where the research topic is one dealing with sensitive aspects of the subject's or participant's behaviour, or where proposals for research involve vulnerable populations	<input type="checkbox"/>
5) research where participants are under 18	<input type="checkbox"/>
6) research involving work outside the UK	<input type="checkbox"/>
7) research involving assent-based participation	<input type="checkbox"/>
8) research requiring external institutional approval (e.g. NHS, looked after children, young offenders, military personnel)	<input type="checkbox"/>
9) research which involves staff using students as research participants	<input type="checkbox"/>

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About the proposed project

If you answer yes to any of the following questions, please give further details as required.

1) Have actions been taken to ensure compliance with the Data Protection Legislation?	Actions taken:	Data will be kept by myself in a secure location and not revealed. Personal information from participants will not be revealed.
2) Is partnership /collaboration with another institution involved?	Name of institution:	
3) Has another Ethics Committee approved the project?	Ethics Committee & date of approval:	
4) Have any training needs been identified as necessary for the researcher(s) to complete prior to undertaking the research?	Brief details:	
5) Have relevant professional guidelines been consulted?	Source of guidelines:	
6) Has another form of 'risk assessment' been undertaken (in addition to this form)?	Brief details (and, if appropriate, please append documents):	

Clinical trials insurance: Does the research involve:

Important: If your research involves any of the following categories, you must refer your application to the University insurance office in order that the relevant liability insurance can be arranged. Under no circumstances can your project commence until you receive confirmation that liability insurance is in place. Contact details for the insurance office: insurance@glos.ac.uk.

Does the research involve:	Answer yes or no:	Brief details:
a) investigating or participating in methods of contraception?	No	
b) assisting with or altering the process of conception?	No	
c) the use of drugs?	No	
d) the use of surgery (other than biopsy)?	No	
e) genetic engineering?	No	

f) subjects under 5 years of age?	No	
g) subjects known to be pregnant?	No	
h) pharmaceutical product/appliance designed or manufactured by the institution?	No	
i) work outside of the United Kingdom?	No	

Voluntary Informed Consent	
a) Please indicate what form of consent will be used in this investigation	Written
If not written, please explain	
b) How and by whom will the voluntary informed consent from participants be undertaken? <i>Please indicate in particular if participants/respondents/subjects are children or young people, or are members of other 'vulnerable populations'.</i>	
Coaches will receive a consent form which they will have to sign and return before any data collection will take place.	
(Letters to participants and/or any information sheets / questionnaires / interview questions, etc. must be included as appendices when submitting this form.)	

Risk of Harm			
Please indicate any possible <u>risks</u> to the researchers, participants, other persons			
<i>Tick all that apply</i>	RESEARCHERS	PARTICIPANTS	OTHER PERSONS
ENVIRONMENTAL			
Undue environmental damage	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
LEGAL			
Contravention of legislation on any of: gender, race, human rights, data protection, obscenity, environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Defamation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
PHYSICAL			

Bodily Contact	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Lone working	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Physical danger/violence (or threat of either)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Research outside of the UK	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
PHYSIOLOGICAL			
Ingestion of foods, fluids or drugs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Undue physical stress or exertion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sampling of human tissue, body fluids including venepuncture	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
PSYCHOLOGICAL			
Psychological intrusion from questionnaires, interview schedules, observation techniques	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
SOCIAL, CULTURAL & PROFESSIONAL			
Contravention of social/cultural boundaries	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Nudity, loss of dignity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Compromising professional boundaries with participants, students, colleagues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
REPUTATIONAL			
Research that unduly and adversely affects the reputation of the institutions involved	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other risks identified, but not listed above:			
<p>If you have ticked any of the previous remarks, please describe the actions that will be taken to minimise the risk.</p> <p>My supervisor will be notified of my interview schedule so he will be aware of when I am conducting interviews.</p>			

Anonymity / Confidentiality

Please indicate measures that will be taken to protect and maintain the anonymity and/or confidentiality of participants.

How are you anonymising your data?

Names mentioned will be changed to pseudonyms in the transcript. Further pseudonyms will be used for the coaches partaking in the study to protect their identity. In addition to not revealing information so that participants can be identified in the study. Also, the names of the football club will not be mentioned, all that will be mentioned is their academy tier/ category.

Data storage

What secure storage do you propose to hold your data in?	My Laptop which is password protected with a backup on a memory stick which is also password protected
What secure premises will the data be stored in? (e.g., locked lab or office)	My locked office.
What are you going to do with your data once the project is complete?	Data will be kept for 4 years with the prospect of it being used for further research such as a journal article.
How are you ensuring compliance with relevant data protection legislation?	Participants data will not be given out and will be securely stored in my office.
(Please attach the Privacy notice / PIS as an appendix)	

	Name	Date
Signature of researcher(s)		2/8/2020
Signature of supervisor(s) (if appropriate)		6/6/2020

NB: forms not fully completed and signed by researcher/s and supervisor/s (where appropriate) will be returned without consideration for approval.

Supporting documentation.

Please ensure that when preparing applications to SREP/REC using the Research Ethics Proforma that the following are included on the form or within the project description attached to the form, where these are of relevance:

- a) sample information sheet to be given to participants and sample letters about voluntary informed consent and withdrawal (beware of any possible problems of coercion), written in good clear English. University addresses should be used; (depending on timing of the REC/SREP consideration this may be inappropriate)
- b) statement about any conflict of interest;
- c) statement about DBS check (Criminal Records Bureau)
<https://www.gov.uk/government/organisations/disclosure-and-barring-service> ;
- d) copies of questionnaires and/or interview schedules and questions, even if in early draft form.

REC's/SREP's decision-making will be more straightforward if you have covered the following issues in your project description. If you need to, attach further information.

- (i) the nature of the observation of human participants;
- (ii) the outline planning and procedures for focus group research or one-to-one interviews to include establishing ground rules affecting revelation of any personal details to the group;
- (iii) that issues of power relations are taken into consideration;
- (iv) that issues of any guilty knowledge likely to arise from the research are thought through;
- (v) the details and number of participants (age, gender, whether a vulnerable group – noting that this often depends on the specific research project, size of group);
- (vi) whether this is a double-blind study;
- (vii) the justification of use of photography or video and that permission concerning these are planned for;
- (viii) that issues of physical and/or psychological and personal danger affecting either the participants or the researcher have been considered fully;
- (ix) whether interviews are to be recorded electronically or manually.
- (x) if your research involves any of the subject matters described in the Clinical trials section, you must refer your application to the insurance office in order that the relevant liability insurance can be put in place. Under no circumstances can your project commence until you receive confirmation that liability insurance has been agreed. Contact details for the insurance office: insurance@glos.ac.uk

Interview guide

Research objectives:

- To better understand how football coaches' behave in a professional academy setting.

Research questions:

- How do football coaches behave in a professional academy setting?
- How do coaches manage their philosophies and pedagogical values with the expectations of talent ID and development?
- Do academy coaches engage in 'impression management' when interacting with athletes?

Questions for coaches

- This interview should take approximately 30 mins. I will begin with asking some basic background questions about you, before getting into the details of your coaching and we can have some discussions. Feel free to not answer any questions.
- How did your coaching journey begin?
- What age group do you coach?
- Are you aware of the clubs' selection factors?
 - Clarify if necessary.
- How would you describe your coaching philosophy?
 - Explore their values.
 - Explore their coaching style.
- How would you describe the relationship you have with your athletes?
- How would you describe the way you interact with your athletes?
 - Explore variations between training and match days.
- Do you find your own values align to those of the academy?
 - Explore any differences between their values and philosophies and the selection factors of the club.
 - Explore any occasions where they may have altered their behaviour when interacting with athletes.
 - Explore why they may have changed their behaviour, what was influencing them.
- Seek clarification of anything not sure about.

Follow up interview questions

Thanks for agreeing to follow up interview. The questions will take on a similar approach to those in the first interview, feel free not to answer anything but I want this to flow like a conversation. If you don't quite understand a question or phrase I'm happy to re word or add clarity.

Questions and topics

Research questions in mind

How do coaches manage their philosophies and pedagogical values to align with the expectations coaching in talent environment?

You mentioned before that the academy doesn't have a set philosophy and what you do is very much down to your own approach, can you share that with me?

Tell me what you think about the factors that influence selection ranking players across 5 areas from elite to struggling

How does it impact your own behaviour?

Do you think the rating scale which plays a role in selection and de-selection is important and does it reflect what you think makes a good player at their age and progressing as they grow up?

What influences coaches behaviour in an academy environment?

It can be difficult to manage expectation when working in an academy, can you tell me about what influences your expectations of your own behaviour?

Where do these expectations come from?

Who has these expectations?

Other coaches, degrees, coach education courses, parents, stakeholders in the club

Do you find it difficult to align your behaviours with the expectations you have?

Tell me how you behave with your athletes in training?

How does this change throughout the season?

Do you feel under pressure? Where does the pressure come from?

Tell me about how you behave on a matchday?

How does this differ from a training session?

Do you feel under pressure? Where does that pressure come from?

To what extent do coaches manage their own behaviour to manipulate social situations in an academy setting?

Tell me about how you manage when new players join your team?

How do you build the relationship?

Tell me about how to manage the coach athlete relationship with players who may not be playing as much?

How do you manage their expectation as they would want to be playing?

Do you feel there's an expectation on you as a coach ? Where does this come from?

It is well known how many academy players don't make it professionally, tell me about you manage the group knowing the majority will either drop out or be -selected?

How do you keep them all motivated?

How do you manage the coach-athlete relationship?

Probing questions for each question

How do you manage the group?

What goes through your mind....

Can you give me an example of ...

Why did you do that ?

Does that always work, from your perspective or theirs ?

why do you do it like that?

why did you say that ?

why did you think that ?

could we shift focus a bit, could tell me about....