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An Exploration of Reciprocity among Coach and Athletes in Female Athletics and Cycling

A Shared Reality Theory Perspective

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to examine (a) how a shared reality is established, or fails to be established, throughout the sporting partnership between the coach and their athletes; and (b) how experiencing a shared reality, or not, in the relationship is related to the quality of the relationship throughout a 6-month period. Two coaches and three female elite (junior) athletes, making up three separate coach-athlete dyads, were purposefully sampled for this study. Our results show that the participants in this study had already established a moderate degree of shared reality between them prior to the first interview. This level of shared reality was maintained throughout the research period. Further, the results showed that perceived shared reality positively affected the relationship quality. Hence, results indicated that perceived shared reality was more important to the relationship quality than actual shared reality. Frequent communication, shared expectations, and clearly stated goals, seem to be essential for shared reality creation. Additionally, coaches and athletes seem to be sufficiently epistemically motivated but report varying degrees of relational motivation. Conclusively, coaches should be aware of their epistemic power, maintain frequent communication, and try to relate socially to their athletes, if they wish to establish shared realities with their respective athletes, and thus increase the relationship quality.

Sammendrag

Formålet med studien var å undersøke (a) hvordan en delt virkelighetsopplevelse blir etablert, eller ikke blir etablert, i et sportslig samarbeid mellom trener og utøver; og (b) hvordan opplevelsen av en delt virkelighetsopplevelse, eller ikke, i relasjonen, påvirker kvaliteten i trener-utøver-relasjonen gjennom en periode på seks måneder. To trenere, og tre eliteutøvere (junior), som utgjorde tre ulike trener-utøver-relasjoner, ble selektert for å delta i studien. Resultatene av studien viser at alle deltakerne, i sine respektive relasjoner, hadde etablert en moderat delt virkelighetsopplevelse, allerede innen første intervju. Dette ble opprettholdt gjennom hele studieperioden. Videre viser resultatene at en delt virkelighetsopplevelse øker graden av kvalitet i trener-utøver-relasjonen. Resultatene viser også at opplevd delt virkelighetsopplevelse kan være viktigere enn reell delt virkelighetsopplevelse. Hyppig kommunikasjon, felles forståelse for forventninger og målsettinger virker å være essensielt for å skape delt virkelighetsopplevelse. I tillegg virker trenere og utøvere å være tilstrekkelig epistemisk motivert, men med varierende grad av relasjonell motivasjon. I henhold til dette bør trenere være bevisst over sin epistemiske makt, opprettholde hyppig kommunikasjon og prøve å relatere seg sosialt til sine utøvere, hvis de ønsker å etablere en del virkelighetsopplevelse med sine utøvere, og dermed øke kvaliteten i trener-utøver-relasjonen.

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Introduction

Youth sports

Youth sports is a context with diverging interests from athletes, coaches, parents, sports clubs, schools, and governing bodies (Baker et al., 2018; Bergeron et al., 2015). Whether the goal of youth sport is current performance, development towards expert performance, longevity in sports, or positive mental and physical outcomes varies greatly. However, the International Olympic Committee has declared that the goal of youth sports is to: “Develop healthy, capable and resilient young athletes, while attaining widespread, inclusive, sustainable and enjoyable participation and success for all levels of individual athletic achievement” (Bergeron et al., 2015, p. 1). Indeed, physical activity in youth has numerous potential benefits regarding health, such as higher bone density, cardiovascular health, and lower injury risk (e.g., Dencker & Andersen, 2008; Janssen & Leblanc, 2015; Jiménez-Pavón et al., 2010).

Furthermore, participation in youth sports is correlated with several positive psychological outcomes (e.g., sense of autonomy, intrinsic motivation for accomplishment and stimulation, and relatedness) (Balish et al., 2014). However, exclusively positive outcomes of youth sports are not inevitable. In fact, studies have revealed several threats to youth athlete’s mental well-being and physical health in sports (Mountjoy et al., 2015). These threats, such as abuse and harassment, might stem from coaches, co-athletes, and parents. Among these threats, the most prevalent is emotional abuse, as one report from the UK revealed that 75% of the participants had experienced emotional abuse in youth sports (Stafford & Lewis, 2011). As such, to obtain both the positive outcomes and avoid the potentially negative ones, conscious planning and execution by responsible stakeholders is crucial (Bergeron et al., 2015; Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2006; Mountjoy et al., 2015)

Talent Development

For children and adolescents participating in so-called talent development environments (TDE), additional potential pitfalls are associated (Baker et al., 2018; Bergeron et al., 2015). The potential economic gain and social status obtained by success in sports ostensibly create pressure to produce future elite performers (Anshel & Lidor, 2012; Martindale et al., 2005). This pressure has driven TDE’s to identify future elite

athletes as early as possible so that they can reap the rewards associated later (Anshel & Lidor, 2012; Martindale et al., 2005). Hence, it seems environments looking to develop future elite performers historically have been more focused on talent identification rather than long-term talent development (Baker et al., 2018; Bergeron et al., 2015). This talent identification process rests on the idea that talent, defined as fixed traits or dispositions leading to expert performance, is easily identifiable at an early age and has predictable power (Baker et al., 2018). However, this perspective has multiple downsides.

Firstly, identifying future elite performance at an early age is clouded in ambiguity and uncertainty. Although some aspects of elite athlete performance are assumed to be contingent on certain genetic traits or dispositions, these are not easily identifiable in the early years of athletic development (Baker & Horton, 2004; Johnston et al., 2018; Tucker & Collins, 2012). Even though some physical tests have shown a correlation between adolescent physical traits or test results, and future expert performance, these results have not been conclusive enough to form a reliable basis for talent identification (Johnston et al., 2018). Relatedly, the demands placed on future elite performers are not known at the current point in time, as sports are constantly developing (Baker et al., 2018). Therefore, certain selection criteria or skills might or might not be a good indicator for future performance at the top level, as the requirements to elite performance might change over the coming years (Baker et al., 2018).

Also, the focus on talent identification forces both athletes and surrounding agents to overstate the value of current performance in youth sport. Athletes are under pressure to acquire a spot in elite programs or academies, and later to maintain these positions. Seeking to continually optimize short-term performance might lead to athletes acquiring higher training loads, which again might produce side-effects such as overtraining, injuries, or burnout (Baker et al., 2018; Bergeron et al., 2015). Besides, athletes forced to emphasize current performance may adopt other dysfunctional strategies to perform, with extreme short-term benefits and horrendous side-effects, such as eating disorders, competing with injuries, or misuse of performance-enhancing medication (Bergeron et al., 2015; Moesch et al., 2018).

Furthermore, labeling athletes as talented understood as a fixed trait may change the behavior of the athlete themselves and their surrounding agents (Baker et al., 2018). Mainly, it might lead athletes to view their abilities as innate and thereby appraise success or failure as fixed and out of their own control (Dweck, 2017). This might lead to less

perseverance and effort, and worse reactions to negative feedback and failure (Dweck, 2000, 2017). Additionally, labeling an athlete as talented, in this regard, might increase the expectation from both the athlete and surrounding agents that the athlete will eventually succeed, further increasing the pressure to perform. Contrarily, athletes who view their current and future ability as more dependent on effort and training have more positive responses to negative feedback and failure and show increased effort and perseverance (Dweck, 2000, 2017).

Consequently, due to the ambiguity regarding talent identification and its negative side-effects, TDE's should promote long-term planning and apply appropriate long-term methods to promote development (Bergeron et al., 2015; Martindale et al., 2005). Maintaining the mental health of athletes, devaluing current performance, individualize training programs, and minimizing selection processes at early ages may both benefit potential elite athletes and increase the well-being of all athletes at the same time (Baker et al., 2018; Martindale et al., 2005). Hence, the ones in charge of planning and implementation, most often coaches, turn out to be essential in this context (Bergeron et al., 2015).

Coach-athlete relationship

Indeed, coaches in talent development contexts: “play a pivotal role in determining whether sport systems provide opportunities for peak athlete performance, promote lifelong participation and shape personal development” (Bergeron et al. 2015). To fulfill this task, they argue coaches need both intrapersonal knowledge (e.g., self-regulation and evaluation), sport-specific knowledge (e.g., know the physical and psychological demands, knowledge about biological maturation, tactics, and training), and interpersonal knowledge (e.g., effective communication with athletes and parents) (Bergeron et al., 2015; Côté & Gilbert, 2009). Appropriately fulfilling these requirements is said to increase an athlete's competence, confidence, connection, and character (Côté & Gilbert, 2009). These traits are presented as the optimal outcome of decent coach behavior.

This perspective on coach-effectiveness represents a tradition in coach-athlete relationship research, which has focused on the athlete outcomes in response to different coach behaviors. Prominent in this line of research are Smith and Smoll, which have spent considerable time studying this relationship, primarily based on athlete outcomes (R. E.

Smith & Smoll, 2020). Some of these studies have been based upon the framework of Achievement Goal Theory (AGT) (see: Nicholls, 1984), where certain coach behaviors (e.g., emphasis on self-referenced improvement, positive control, positive reinforcement) are shown to lead athletes to a more mastery-oriented motivation and lower performance anxiety (R. E. Smith et al., 2008; Smoll et al., 2007). An increase in mastery orientation is linked to increased performance, intrinsic motivation, reduced fear of failure, and experience of positive coach-athlete interactions (Harwood et al., 2015; Smoll et al., 2007). Contrarily, coaches who emphasize results or winning, punish bad performance, and advocate comparison between athletes may instill an ego-oriented motivational climate (Smoll et al., 2007). This, again, is correlated to a multitude of negative effects (e.g., increased performance anxiety, extrinsic motivation, amotivation, antisocial behavior, and lower sense of autonomy) (Harwood et al., 2015; Smoll et al., 2007).

Further research has been done, in the same line of thinking, but with Self Determination Theory (SDT) (see: (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) as a theoretical backdrop (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). Within this perspective as well, certain coach behaviors are believed to lead to positive athlete outcomes. According to SDT, the outcome of fulfilling an athlete's basic psychological needs will cultivate the athlete's intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000), which was supported by the research by Mageau and Vallerand (2003). The basic needs consist of the need for autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Fulfilling these, coaches need to behave autonomy-supportive, which is characterized by an ability to take the athlete's perspective, providing opportunities of choice, and minimizing the use of pressure (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). Conversely, coach behavior that is controlling, thwarting the athlete's basic needs of autonomy, relatedness, and competence, overtly controlling the athletes, using controlling feedback and external rewards diminish the athlete's intrinsic motivation (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003).

Also, within the same theoretical context, SDT, research has been done with regards to the coaches' perception, namely their perception of basic needs fulfillment. First, Stebbings, Taylor, and Spray (2011, 2012) showed that coaches basic needs-fulfillment altered their well- and ill-being, and thereupon altered their perceived coaching style. Higher psychological well-being was related to autonomy support coaching, whereas higher psychological ill-being was related to controlling coaching behavior (Stebbing et al., 2011, 2012). In extension, these behaviors are, by Stebbings

et al., hypothesized to influence athlete outcomes, such as athlete basic needs fulfillment. This is in line with the results of Mageau and Vallerand (2003) but provides another perspective in the coach-athlete relationship research. Indeed, this line of research promotes a dyadic view of the coach-athlete relationship, as both parties are dependent on each other.

Additionally, Stebbings, Taylor, and Spray (2016) conducted research on the transfer of well- or ill-being from coach to athlete, and vice-versa, mediated by the coach's coaching style. This research then provides both athlete and coach outcomes and also the transfer effect between the two. Based on previous research, pre-session well-being was assumed to produce more autonomy support coaching behavior, whereas ill-being was expected to produce more controlling behavior. This was confirmed by the study (Stebbing et al., 2016). This again was hypothesized to affect the athlete's well- or ill-being post-session accordingly, which was shown to be accurate as well (Stebbing et al., 2016). However, the authors also hypothesized that the athlete's well- or ill-being had a contagious effect on the coach, which was shown not to be the case. Therefore, the coach-athlete relationship is somewhat asymmetrical concerning the transfer-effects of well and ill-being (Stebbing et al., 2016). Moreover, a study by Solstad et al. (2015), further building on the dyadic perspective of the coach-athlete relationship, found a positive correlation between the coach's own perceived coaching style and the perception of social unity in their training group and their self-determined motivation. As such, coaches who experience a socially coherent training group and self-determined motivation are more likely to experience well-being due to higher levels of basic need fulfillment, and thereupon behave more autonomy-supportive with their athletes (Solstad et al., 2015).

However, although research on motivation and motivational climate might yield insights and have positive practical benefits, this field of research has some limitations, according to several reviews (Clancy et al., 2016; Harwood et al., 2015). Harwood et al. (2015) point out that most research has a cross-sectional and quantitative design. They propose more “fine-grained” methods to obtain more personal and subjective experiences in future research (Harwood et al., 2015). Also, the cross-sectional designs of most studies cannot reveal developments over time, as is expected in motivational climate perception, especially in youth and adolescence (Clancy et al., 2016; Harwood et al., 2015). Additionally, there is a lack of research in motivational climate in elite sports (Clancy et al., 2016; Harwood et al., 2015). Clancy et al. (2016) draw attention to elite sports,

particularly because athletes at this level experience more maladaptive behaviors due to the intense strain of their environments. Troubling for research on coach-behavior athlete-outcome, there has been revealed a discrepancy between actual autonomy-supportive behavior and self-reported autonomy-supportive behavior (Gjesdal et al., 2019; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Rocchi & Pelletier, 2017). Hence, coaches often report higher levels of autonomy support coaching than they actually provide. Moreover, Gjesdal et al. (2019) highlight that the collective outcomes are better when coaches and athletes agree on the characteristics of the motivational climate.

Moreover, there has been identified a need for more research on females in the field of sports science (Clancy et al., 2016; Elliott-Sale et al., 2021). Both psychological and physiological differences between males and females diminish “one size fits all” propositions, as has been prominent (Clancy et al., 2016; Elliott-Sale et al., 2021; Møllerlækken et al., 2017). Indeed, a qualitative study by Kristiansen et al. (2012) on elite female athletes from Norway highlighted several issues female athletes experienced. The findings revealed inadequate or non-existent communication with coaches, training programs based on male athletes which were not altered for the females, and an inability from the coaches to recognize over-training syndrome (Kristiansen et al., 2012). These issues led the athletes to perform worse after transitioning to elite training groups. Ironically, closer follow-up from governing bodies, and more coaches, did not lead to increased performance. To address this topic of “coaching effectiveness”, a last paradigm in coach-athlete research will be discussed.

According to Jowett (2017), the quality of the coach-athlete relationship is the key essence of its performance. Whereas former conceptualizations of the coach-athlete relationships study the dyad as separate entities, more or less affecting one another both ways, Jowett argues that the relationship is a continual process, where both parties are “mutually and causally interdependent and thus how one feels, thinks and behaves affects and is affected by how the other feels, thinks and behaves” (Jowett, 2017, p. 7). Quality in the coach-athlete relationship rests on closeness, commitment, complimentary, and co-orientation (4C’s) (Jowett, 2017; Jowett & Shanmugam, 2016). Closeness represents interpersonal feelings, commitment represents interpersonal thoughts, complementarity represents interpersonal behaviors, co-orientation represents the interdependence between coach and athlete (Jowett, 2017). This model, rather than differentiating athlete and/or coach input, and/or output, underline both parties as relevant at all stages, as a unit.

Relationship quality, then, is also a mediator for performance and well-being, rather than just an outcome (Jowett, 2107). To understand the quality of a coach-athlete relationship, Shared Reality Theory (SRT) (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019) might be helpful. This is due to the fact that the theory of SRT describes the processes that enable human sharing, as is needed to fulfill the 4C's of Jowett's model (Jowett, 2017; Jowett & Shanmugam, 2016).

Shared Reality Theory

Human beings are relational and social beings, and our connections with others both motivate us and guide us (Higgins, 2019). Shared reality theory describes the human drive to share inner states and create shared realities with others about the world around us (Echterhoff et al., 2009). To better portray the significance of shared realities in human life, it might be wise to describe the development of shared realities, from childhood and onward, before presenting the framework and conceptualization of shared reality in research contexts.

Shared relevance and shared practices

From an early age, we establish, through our parents, what is meaningful and, thereby, what is not (Higgins, 2019). Glances, looks, and attention is shared between parent and child, and its target referents thus carry significance. This is defined as shared relevance by Higgins (2019). What a parent looks at, and for how long, signals the relevance of the object in focus, and children pick up on these signals. Later on, when emotions, feelings and simple communication is more developed, children and caretaker can establish which meaning certain referents carry (Higgins, 2019). The back-and-forth glances between parents, children, and referent targets now carry more meaning as emotions and emotional signaling accompanies them. For example, a smiling look at a dog signifies that the dog is something good. Celebrations while watching sports on TV signal that sports have the potential to create intense emotions of joy. Of course, negative emotions and communication can carry similar significance.

Adding to this bonding, at around 18-24 months of age, children develop an understanding of practices. Now, children register what tasks are essential and not, and what the *right way* to do specific tasks is (Higgins, 2019). This is purely practical, and the children merely copy what close relatives are doing, for example, using cutlery to eat.

Importantly, these practices are beneficial to survive and cope with the world and help the children relate to their social surroundings. Performing practices the *right way* serves to connect with the social milieu (Higgins, 2019). Both shared relevance and shared practices serve as simpler forms of shared realities, as they both connect parent and child, and help the child navigate in its environment.

Shared self-guides

As the child grows, more abstract ideas such as future aspirations and goals are understood and shared between parent and child. This happens simultaneously as the children develop a sense of *self*, around three years of age (Higgins, 2019). The child can now understand itself and its life in a narrative sense, as something that is changing over time, according to earlier experiences, current actions, and future goals (Cornwell et al., 2017; Dewey, 1938; Higgins, 2019). Now, through either direct or indirect communication, the child can understand what the parent wants from them in the future and, crucially, connect this to current choices of action. Thereby, children learn to self-regulate according to *shared self-guides*, which are based on their internalization of their parents' goals for them. Hence, the children can now experience a discrepancy between their current situation and what is expected from them and the joy or relief of fulfilling its "duties". This is a more complex shared reality than shared relevance and practices, as it also entails future end states. However, it still serves as a tool for connection and navigation for children and their close surroundings.

Dependent on the parenting style of close relatives, these self-guides might be developed as either *ideal* self-guides or *ought* self-guides. Ideal self-guides are aspirational, in the sense that parents have described future goals or aspirations as the presence of something positive. The parent communicates what kind of person they *would like* the child to become (Higgins, 2019). Feedback in this regard might be done through bolstering or spoiling from the parent's side, signaling that the children are on the right path with a presence of positivity (Higgins, 2019). As for negative feedback, ideal self-guides are promoted through the withdrawal of positives, such as neglect or affection. This kind of feedback from parents strengthens the child's *promotional* motivational system (Higgins, 2019). A promotion-oriented person experiences the world as either neutral (0) or positive (+1). A promotion-oriented individual strives to reach his or her goals (+1) with eagerness and energy. If she experiences success, the motivation is

increased, and further improvements are targeted. She will experience happiness and joy from success. If she fails, she will experience amotivation and a decrease in energy. This will be followed by feelings of sadness or discouragement (Higgins, 2019).

As for *ought* self-guides, these are self-guides built on ideas of what one ought to achieve. Ought self-guides are oriented towards safety and stability, as people with such self-guides are more concerned about not failing and maintaining their position, performance or status. Parental communication to foster such self-guides is more prudent-controlling or protective when the child or adolescent achieves something positive, as fulfilling their duties or completing what is expected from them (Higgins, 2019). In negative situations, such as failing and falling behind, parents might communicate critically, punitive and abusive. This motivates the individual to prevent future failures, and they develop a prevention-oriented motivational system (Higgins, 2019). A prevention-oriented person experiences the world as either neutral (0) or negative (-1). She is motivated to maintain the status quo and prevent negative development. When successful, that is, by maintaining the status quo, she is relieved and peaceful. This is, however, followed by no increase in motivation. When the same person is failing, that is, not reaching up to her expected standards, she will experience anxiety and nervousness, leading to an increased level of motivation (Higgins, 2019).

Higgins (2019) views these motivational orientations as equal in the sense that one is not better than the other. Both parenting styles have their weaknesses, mainly when taken to their extremes, and strengths. These self-guides and motivational patterns are established in childhood and adolescence, and whereas they exist on a spectrum, individuals are often leaning more towards one or the other throughout their life. Additionally, they are usually oriented the same way within all dimensions and contexts in their life, such as school, sports, or work (Higgins, 2019).

Another important aspect of motivational orientation is in relationships with shared targets and directions, such as coach-athlete, student-teacher, or leader-employee relationships. Dyads that share motivational orientation, that is, for example, a coach and an athlete, which both are promotion-oriented, experience a *regulatory fit* (Higgins, 2019). Two individuals who do not share motivational orientation experience a *non-regulatory fit*. This carries significance for the development of the relationship. Firstly, the characteristics of the goal itself are significant. People with a promotion-orientation will naturally set higher goals, something they must strive to reach and will take them to

new performance levels. Prevention-oriented individuals will set goals focused on maintaining the current level or avoiding negative development. Further, the experience of pursuing a goal that is in line with one's own motivational orientation makes the goal more meaningful and increases the value individuals place on the goal pursuit (Higgins, 2019). Therefore, people with a regulatory fit are more likely to set appropriate goals. A promotion-oriented coach, then, co-operating with an athlete that sets a promotion-oriented goal, will experience the goals they are working towards as more meaningful.

Also, concerning goal pursuit, promotion-oriented individuals pursue goals in a more extroverted and energized manner, prioritizing speed and quantity. Prevention individuals, on the other hand, reach for their goals in a conscientious manner, prioritizing quality and details (Higgins, 2019). Hence, dyads with a regulatory fit operate better, also *during* goal-pursuit, whereas dyads with a non-regulatory fit operate less optimally. Another way motivational orientation affects goal pursuit is with regards to risk or risk-aversion. Promotion-oriented individuals behave riskier in situations that entail potential gains (from 0 to +1). On the other hand, prevention-oriented individuals behave riskier in situations involving possible losses (going from 0 to -1).

Indeed, self-guides and motivational orientation are important in a variety of domains of human sociality. These motivational orientations are formed in early childhood but affect both the goals people set and how they strive towards them during their entire adulthood. Also, as seen, they affect the relationships one experiences throughout life. Feeling a connection with close others is especially important regarding the social verification of goals and moral values in the social life of human beings. People make sense of their lives in relation to their past, present, and future (Cornwell et al., 2017; Dewey, 1938; Higgins, 2019). Moreover, the *meaning* of the past, present, and future is verified by, and together, with others (Cornwell et al., 2017). If significant others, close relatives, or other important agents in one's life agree on the meaning of one's experiences, values, or goals, they become "objective" or true (Cornwell et al., 2017).

However, this connection to others does not only appear in close relations, such as between lovers or parents; it might also be established in more brief relations. For example, a hairdresser and its client might agree on, and thereby connect, on particular political standpoints. Facilitating this process is shared realities, as shared reality refers to our "motivation to share feelings, beliefs, and concerns about something in the world, to have these inner states in common with others, and to have these inner states verified

by others” (Cornwell et al., 2017, p. 261). In this sense, shared realities serve as a broader term in relation to the prior concepts, such as shared self-guides. Nevertheless, whereas all self-guides are shared realities, not all shared realities are shared self-guides. In the next section, the concept of shared realities is discussed through a more distinct framework, which has been developed and used in scientific research, to both test shared reality creation in lab settings and distinguish it from other related phenomena (Echterhoff et al., 2009).

Shared Reality creation

To establish a shared reality, four conditions need to be met, according to Echterhoff et al. (2009). The first condition refers to the sharing of inner states. To establish a shared reality, two individuals must share inner states, such as feelings, thoughts, emotions, or value assignments (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Inner states may differ between individuals, for example, regarding former experiences (Dewey, 2015) or motivational orientation (Higgins, 2019). Further, sharing one’s inner states is based on the ability to communicate, verbally or non-verbally, the current inner states. As discussed, this ability is developed in the early stage of childhood and is critical to understand the social environment around oneself (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019). It is important to distinguish between inner states and outward behavior, as different inner states can cause the same behavior. For example, a coach and an athlete might celebrate an outstanding performance together, but the athlete is celebrating beating a fierce competitor, whereas the coach is relieved that her training plan worked out as hoped. Although they exhibit the same behavior, their inner states differ. Hence, for two people to share a reality, they must share inner states, that is, value or react the same way to the same target.

This relates to the second condition: for shared reality creation, the inner states have to be *about something* – namely a target referent (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Again, the ability to deduce precisely *what* a corresponding person is reacting to is developed during childhood, in reference to shared relevance (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019). This can be done through looks, pointing, verbal communication, or through reasoning and knowledge about the other. However, these target referents can be both concrete objects and items in the world (e.g., other humans, a car, a training plan), but also abstract ideas or events in the future, present or past (e.g., goals, future competitions,

aspirations). This *aboutness* distinguishes shared realities from related psychological phenomenon such as empathy (Echterhoff et al., 2009). For, whereas an empathetic coach might identify the joy in an athlete celebrating and replicate their emotions, their emotions then is not in relation to the performance itself, and the coach and athlete do not, then, share the appraisal of *it*.

This aboutness reveals the human drives that fuel shared reality creation, namely, the drive to connect to others and make sense of the world (Echterhoff et al., 2009). The third condition for a shared reality creation is that the process must be *properly* motivated, that is, relationally or epistemically motivated (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Relational motivation refers to producing, adjusting, or inferring inner states to fit in, form, and maintain relationships with others. Sharing inner states with others about something or someone might increase well-being by fulfilling the basic need of relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Echterhoff et al., 2009). When forming new relationships, humans tend to regress towards one another in terms of appraisals of external target referents. However, this relational motivation is not enough, as shared reality creation fulfills an epistemic need also. Epistemically, shared inner states about something might decrease the ambiguity of life in the way that others sharing your thoughts, feelings, and values about something might objectify and increase your confidence in your own assessments (Echterhoff et al., 2009). When establishing shared realities, certain people carry more epistemic or relational power. For example, a coach has so-called “expert power”, meaning their verification of reality is *more true*, and therefore athletes are often more epistemically motivated to establish a shared reality with their coach. For relational motivation, groups which the individual wants to relate to and identify with socially have “referent power” (Higgins, 2019). This means that adolescents are more motivated to share reality with a group of friends they want to connect with.

Further, the fourth condition for a shared reality to be established is that both parties have to experience the sharing of inner states. It is then not enough if two people share inner states about some target referent if they do not experience this commonality of inner states (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Outside observers might see that two people share inner states, but there is no shared reality if the two subjects do not experience this themselves. Moreover, one of them might experience that they share inner states, although that might not be the case. However, for this person, then, he is experiencing a shared reality. This experience of shared realities is significant in close relationships, as studies

have shown that relationships where the parties report *perceived* shared realities, such as shared values, visions, thoughts, and feelings, predicted a closer relationship (Higgins, 2019). In line with this, research has shown that communication of feelings, thoughts, beliefs, and concerns in close relations leads to more “we-ness” in relationships. Further, when these disclosures are *validated*, meaning both parties *perceive* a shared reality, the “we-ness” increases even more (Higgins, 2019). Hence, shared realities can help establish, maintain, and improve close relationships.

Consequently, the establishment of shared realities requires communication and the ability to relate to others. As described, the development of these abilities affects what type of share realities we create during childhood and later adult life. In some sense, shared reality creation, based on the fulfillment of the four conditions, is a development from shared relevance in childhood as it fulfills the same motivational needs but relies on more intricate psychological concepts. Hence, when we age, we continually establish shared realities to navigate the world (Echterhoff et al., 2009). A relationship existing somewhere in-between a brief connection and the relation between parent and child is the coach-athlete relationship. As such, the coach-athlete relationship might be studied using this framework.

Further, concepts in SRT, like motivational orientation and self-guides, might be helpful to understand why specific coaches and athletes experience high or low-quality coach-athlete relationships. However, the asymmetry of power has traditionally distinguished the coach-athlete relationship. Both epistemic power and social referent power can lead to increased shared reality creation (Cornwell et al., 2017; Higgins, 2019). However, to enable this ability, both parties of the relational dyad must experience trust in each other (Cornwell et al., 2017; Higgins, 2019). Power asymmetry is not always beneficial in establishing trust, as it may also decrease trust (Simpson, 2007). Hence, trust seems to be an additional concept important to understand if one wants to fully grasp shared realities in asymmetric relationships such as the coach-athlete relationship.

Trust

Trust can be defined as: “a psychological state or orientation of an actor (the truster) toward a specific person (the trustee) with whom the actor is in some way interdependent (i.e., the truster needs the trustee’s cooperation to attain valued outcomes or resources)” (Simpson, 2007, p. 588). Children implicitly trust their parents to establish

what is actually relevant in their environment during childhood and adolescence and how to relate to these relevant targets. Further, trust in their parents or close relative's epistemic power serves as the basis for self-guides and how to fulfill them. For example, a son trusts his mother's assessment of the importance of good grades in school. If so, this is a truly meaningful goal. Further, he trusts her in that one *ought* to get good grades, unless bad things might happen. Lastly, he trusts her in that a vigilant and anxious effort, based on a prevention-oriented motivation, is the *right way* to achieve these grades.

As for further shared reality creation, one has to trust one another to honestly communicate their true inner states (Higgins, 2019). Both epistemic and relational motivation relies on trust in one another. Epistemically, one must trust that the other person's assessment of something is correct to fully integrate and establish this as truth. Here, expert power and epistemic authority are important. As such, a coach, with his knowledge and expertise, holds a certain power over athletes. This power serves as an amplifier, where the athlete either trusts him even more or even less, dependent on a former appraisal of trust in the coach (Simpson, 2007). Relationally, one must trust that one's sharing of inner states is not taken advantage of and serves as a basis for future relationships. In this context, trust serves as the basis for informational sharing, such as inner states, values, and thoughts (Korsgaard et al., 2015).

To increase trust in one another, a person in a dyadic relationship might orchestrate a strain test (Simpson, 2007). Strain tests are situations where a person, agent A, puts another person, agent B, in a position where he can act either to benefit himself (MaxOwn), benefit both parties (MaxJoint), or benefit only the other agent (MaxOther). To increase actor A's trust, he must act in a way that serves him or both, and not to his own benefit.

Purpose of master thesis

The purpose of the present study was to examine (a) how a shared reality is established, or fails to be established, throughout the sporting partnership between the coach and their athletes; and (b) how experiencing a shared reality, or not, in the relationship is related to the quality of the relationship throughout a 6-month period.

Method

Paradigmatic position

To fulfill this study's purpose, the research had to be positioned within a paradigm enabling the researchers to understand shared reality development and the experiences in a coach-athlete dyad. A research paradigm might be understood as "the net that contains the researcher's epistemological, ontological, and methodological premises" (p. 56, Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). A paradigm provides a framework that guides the researchers according to a basic set of beliefs about the nature of reality (ontology), the nature of knowledge (epistemology), and how to acquire knowledge from the world (methodology) (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Hence, the current research was placed within the interpretivist paradigm, distinguished by ontological relativism and epistemological social constructionism (Papathomas, 2016). The thesis' methodology is narrative inquiry (Clandinin et al., 2007; B. Smith, 2016b).

Ontological relativism states that what constitutes reality depends entirely on each individual's experience (e.g., what they see, think, or feel) (Casey et al., 2018; Dewey, 1938). Rather than understanding reality as something that exists outside of a person's experience, reality is continually shaped and experienced inside each individual's mind. This ontological position is based on Dewey's (1938) pragmatic ontology, highlighting the need to understand reality as personal experiences (Dewey, 1938).

According to Dewey (1938), experience is both continuous and interactive. The continuous component of experience represents how former experiences shape the current and future ones. As such, for a coach and an athlete, former experiences in the same type of relations shape what they expect and how they cope with their present experiences. An athlete that once experiences a strict and authoritarian coach might expect all coaches to behave similarly. When a new coach behaves differently, they might then react negatively, or positively for that matter, to this change. In this way, Dewey (1938) argues that all present experiences are dependent on past experiences in some way or another. Further, building on the coach-athlete example, a coach who presently experiences success with an athlete might expect that the same behavior might elicit success in future coach-athlete relationships. However, the future athlete might have different former experiences and consequently react differently than the coach expected. Hence, past and present experiences shape the expectations and behaviors in the future (Dewey, 1938).

The interactive component of experience represents how the situation, social environment, and relations shape the experience (Dewey, 1938). The interactive component, to Dewey, highlighted how all situations depend on internal and external forces. The social environment, for example how many people are present and what type of relations these people have, affects the individual's experiences from the outside and in, for instance, through social roles and expectations. Also working from outside and in to affect the experience are physical objects and environments. Additionally, the experiences are affected from the inside and out by the individuals' thoughts, values, and emotions (Dewey, 1938; Higgins, 2019). Therefore, to fully understand the "reality" of a reciprocal coach-athlete relationship, factors such as past experiences of both parties, the closeness and qualities of their current relationship, as well as feelings, thoughts, and other inner states, are crucial to explore (Casey et al., 2018; Dewey, 1938).

To get a grasp of this reality, as knowledge, epistemological social constructionism is applicable. Epistemological social constructionism believes that "knowledge is socially constructed, fallible, and subjective" (B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009b). This position holds that there is no theory-free knowledge (B. Smith & McGannon, 2018) and that all knowledge is dependent on social relations, intentions, and cultural auspices (Papathomas, 2016; B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009b). Consequently, knowledge cannot be tested or proven with "objective" or external standards and can only be understood in reference to the situation where it emerges (e.g., interview setting between participant and researcher).

Consistent with these ontological and epistemological premises, the methodology of narrative inquiry was deemed to be a good fit for the present thesis (Papathomas, 2016). The methodology relies on qualitative data collection methods, as is characteristic within the interpretivist paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Narrative inquiry is concerned with studying individuals' particular experiences through stories and is, therefore, more related to case studies than cross-sectional research (B. Smith, 2016a). The approach is mainly utilized in social and humanistic studies, in cases where researchers are interested in presenting subjective and novel perspectives (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). As such, narrative inquiry is considered advantageous in research trying to obtain an authentic account of personal experiences, which might be needed to answer this thesis' research questions (Clandinin et al., 2007; B. Smith, 2016b). Nonetheless, to fully elucidate this

methodology, a more extensive explanation of humans' narrative thought processes is beneficial, as the methodology is highly dependent on these.

Narrative Inquiry

It is believed that human beings make sense of their reality by generating coherent narratives explaining their past and present, while also anticipating the future (e.g., (Clandinin et al., 2007; Cornwell et al., 2017; Dewey, 1938). Thus, in conjunction with ontological relativism, a reality established as a personal narrative is as true as any objective, external reality (Casey et al., 2018; Dewey, 1938). Narrative inquiry is a methodology suited to both unveil and analyze this subjective reality, giving researchers a glimpse into their subject's experience.

This glimpse might be caught through stories, as stories are "windows" into human beings' unique experiences (Casey et al., 2018; Clandinin et al., 2007). Through qualitative methods, narrative inquirers obtain stories that collectively make up the subject's complete narrative. A narrative, in this case, is defined as a collection of events, presented as stories, played out by characters in contextual spaces, sequentially unfolding to provide an overarching explanation or consequence (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009b). As such, the research subjects tell stories that accentuate their experiences before the inquirer compiles, analyzes, and presents them as complete narratives, as true as possible to the research participants' reality (Casey et al., 2018; B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009b). Hence, narrative inquirers are particularly qualified to uncover how the *participants themselves* make sense of their experiences, as they attend to this during all stages of the research process.

Since a brief dissection might be worthwhile, in the coming section, the definition of "a narrative" will be explored through the scope of the metaphorical three-dimensional narrative spaces: temporality, sociality, and space (Clandinin et al., 2007; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). The three-dimensional narrative spaces concern dimensions or aspects of a narrative the inquirer must explore to fully empathize with the subject. Firstly, the researchers must explore the three-dimensional narrative spaces during the interviewing process. Secondly, during the transcription and analysis of the data. Thirdly, the researchers must use the three-dimensional narrative spaces to reproduce the narrative as a *true*, in the subjective sense, research text (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). Consequently,

understanding the definition of a narrative using this perspective, the process of narrative inquiry might also be unmasked.

The first dimension concerns the temporality of the narrative and relates to the “sequential unfolding” of the stories (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). This is related to the term continuity, as presented by Dewey (1938). Which specific stories are presented by the participants and where they are placed in relation to each other reveal how the subject understands their life’s trajectory: their narrative plot (e.g., how a specific competition in adolescence influenced their athletic careers). The inquirer must seize this plot structure and present it accordingly in its narrative texts (B. Smith, 2016b).

Playing out these stories, characters enact critical social and relational aspects of the narrative. This represents the *sociality* of the narrative, the second dimension (Papathomas, 2016; B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009b). Characters, in this sense, concern essential people, including the subjects themselves, which are significant in their narratives (e.g., important coaches, parents, or competitors in a critical competition). The sociality of the characters can be understood as both inwards and outwards (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). The inward dimensions of sociality refer to the inner states (e.g., feelings, thoughts, and well-being), whereas the outward dimensions of sociality refer to the social experiences and situations shaping the plot (Clandinin et al., 2007; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). Both the inward and outward sociality of the stories reveal distinctive features of each subject’s meaning-making. Their feelings reveal how they evaluate their experiences in relation to former experiences or future end goals (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Cornwell et al., 2017).

Lastly, the events unfold in *space*, and this describes the physical and spatial environments of the story, the third dimension (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Papathomas, 2016). Places can carry different meanings for different participants, either by the reminiscence of former experiences or directly impacting the current ones. Always affecting the social aspects of the narrative, it is critical to understand in which spatial and environmental context the stories takes place to understand the overarching meaning (e.g., precisely where a significant competition took place) (Casey et al., 2018; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Papathomas, 2016).

Attending to these three dimensions, the inquirer can immerse itself in the stories presented and thereby present a more authentic, again in a subjective sense, narrative. Due to this empathetic positioning, narrative inquiry is particularly constructive to

understand human beings' social and personal experiences (B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009b). As the current research is interested in past, current, and future experiences, primarily for the creation of shared realities (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019), and implicitly for meaning-making (Cornwell et al., 2017) and the development of trust (Simpson, 2007), narrative inquiry seems to be a particularly suited methodology to fulfill the purpose of this thesis.

Research design

Enabling the researchers to empathize with the subjects' experiences and better grasp the narratives' three-dimensional spaces, a longitudinal qualitative research design (LQR) was chosen for this thesis (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Hermanowicz, 2013). Consequently, three individual interviews (T1, T2, T3) were carried out for each of the five participants over a 6-month period. As the coach-athlete relationship has been described as dynamic (Jowett, 2017), certain developments and events were expected during the six months. Moreover, components of shared reality (e.g., past and ongoing experiences, meaning-making) (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019) are influenced by time, and the same goes for situations affecting trust (e.g., strain tests, power dynamics) (Simpson, 2007). Sensing how particular events between the first and last interviews alter the current plot developments, the researchers may comprehend the different participants more thoroughly (Papathomas, 2016; Riessmann, 2008). Hence, spaced-out interviews were deemed more able to capture potential changes *as they were happening*, rather than seizing wrapped-up narrative at a single point in time.

Furthermore, research has stated the need for more longitudinal qualitative research (LQR) in sport psychology (Clancy et al., 2016; Turnidge & Côté, 2018). In their review, Clancy et al. (2016) point out that only 19% of the studies they reviewed were longitudinal, and of those, only one out of twelve were qualitative. Therefore, it is believed that research is filling a gap in the landscape of sport psychology through its methodological choices.

Participants

Additional research has revealed a disproportionate number of studies on talent identification and talent development with male or mixed gender participants (Baker et al., 2018; Johnston et al., 2018). Other research in the field of sports sciences has found

the same gender disparity and highlighted the issue of generalizability between men and women (Costello et al., 2014; Elliott-Sale et al., 2021). Due to this, we chose female athletes as research subjects in this study. Consequently, two female athletes from middle-distance running and their shared male head coach, and one female athlete from cycling and her male head coach were purposefully sampled for this study (Etikan, 2016). The sampling was based on the athletes: a) skill level: all athletes are within the national top 10 in their respective sport in their age group, b) age: all athletes were in a developmental phase of their career (M age = 19,6, $SD=1,8$), and c) gender: all athletes were female. Additionally, ensuring that athletes and coaches have had sufficient time to establish or fail to establish a shared reality; athletes and coaches had to have cooperated for a minimum of one year, within each dyad (M time= 1,6 years, $SD=0,6$) (Cornwell et al., 2017; Higgins, 2019).

Procedure

At the start of the research process, an application was sent and approved by the Norwegian Center for Research Data (NSD) (see APPENDIX 2). A second application was approved by the Ethical Committee at the Norwegian School of Sport Sciences (see APPENDIX 3).

Contact was established by contacting different sports clubs and schools, which could obtain athletes that would suit our criteria. The first contact was made with several sporting directors, which further guided the research group to relevant coaches and athletes. After deciding on the current participants, a formal meeting was held for each training group to inform them about the study's purpose and the practical implications. The written consent was also presented at the meeting and handed over to the participants to re-read and sign within the first interview (see APPENDIX 4). From this point onward, all communication was between the individual participants and a representative of the research group. This was done to ensure an easy flow of communication and ease the planning of the individual interviews.

Data collection

Semi-structured individual interviews were conducted over six months (e.g., T1 in September, T2 in November, and T3 in January). The interviews varied in length from individual to individual (e.g., lowest total time = 98 min, highest total time = 167 min)

and from interview to interview (T1 *M* time = 35 min, T2 *M* time = 38, min, T3 *M* time = 50 min). This was a natural development due to the number and character of the questions in each interview. Further, all interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed no more than two hours later than the interview finished. The interview timing (e.g., after the athletes' training session) and location (e.g., coaches' workplace or an athlete's school) were held according to the preferences of the participants. However, the interviews were always held within the same seven-day span as the other interviews within the same coach-athlete group to ensure similar spacing of time between the three interviews.

Before each interview session, the interviewer engaged the participants in some informal conversation to get the interviewee talkative and comfortable. This proceeded until the participant seemed comfortable with the researchers and was considered ready to begin the formal interview (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2005; Pitts & Miller-Day, 2007; B. Smith & Sparkes, 2016).

Interview guide

The interview guide was developed mainly by a research group consisting of co-students. SRT (Cornwell et al., 2017; Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019) served as a foundation for the interview guide, and group discussions were held to create interview guides suitable to capture shared realities in the coach-athlete relationships. Additionally, methodological (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Riessmann, 2008; B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009b) and other theoretical literature (e.g., Jowett, 2017; Simpson, 2007) were read, presented, and discussed to capture other relevant aspects important for the interview guides. Moreover, a clinical psychologist was involved in the process of developing the interview guides, as were several faculty members and the supervisors of this thesis. Then, after each interview round, the interviews and their results were discussed regarding possible changes for the upcoming interview guides.

Also, because the coach-athlete relationship is the main interest of this research, different interview guides were developed for coaches and athletes. While the main difference concerned the specific wording of questions to obtain more relevant answers, the same concepts were discussed in both. Focusing on the same concepts was done to illuminate possible reciprocity between the different parties. The questions in the interview guide aimed to reveal shared or non-shared realities and different or similar

appraisals of experiences between athletes and coaches (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019). Going into the analysis, then, the obtained data was structured similarly, as the questions and answers were thematically linked but revealed differing experiences.

Data analysis

After finishing the interviews, they were immediately transcribed and then read to get a more profound sense of the material (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Riessmann, 2008). Totally, all transcriptions ended up with 223 pages of single-spaced material. In narrative inquiry, the process of transcription is considered an initial stage of the analysis (Smith, 2016b). Exploring the data, taking notes, and highlighting certain sections can provide the researchers with an idea of which experiences, relations, and spaces might be important (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). After finishing all interviews and transcribing them, the transcriptions were compiled into a single document for each participant. This served as a further stage of analysis, as sorting and ordering the data might affect the interpretation (Smith, 2016b). In this case, the transcribed interviews were ordered in the opposite order (T3 first, then T2, and lastly T1), as this provided a more correct sequential structure due to the questions posed in each interview.

Thereafter, three phases of analysis were undergone for each of the five participants. However, these three phases were not strictly sequential, as the process of a narrative analysis might be conducted with a more cyclical progression (B. Smith, 2016a, 2016b). Furthermore, narrative analysis is somewhat dissimilar to traditional methods of qualitative analysis, as it does not consist of tangible steps of analysis, but rather several strategies or techniques which might or might not be utilized at different times during the analysis (Smith, 2016a). As such, each phase of analysis consisted of one or more techniques or strategies, based on Smith's seven strategies of narrative thematic analysis (2016a, 2016b). Whereas Riessmann (2008), Clandinin et al. (2007), and Clandinin and Connelly (2000) provided complementary understanding.

Based on these sources, it appeared that the main concern throughout the analysis, and ever-important in narrative inquiry, is to ensure that: “the messiness and complexity of being human may be described and shown, rather than washed out” (Smith & Sparkes, 2009b, p. 6). Consequently, during the first phase of the analysis, the researchers searched for emerging themes to better understand each unique participant. This was done through an indwelling process (B. Smith, 2016b, 2016a). During this, the transcripts were re-read

multiple times, and the researchers positioned themselves within the three-dimensional spaces of each narrative (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Riessmann, 2008; B. Smith, 2016a). Paying attention to each of the narrative's three-dimensional spaces; temporality, sociality, and space, the researchers attempted to develop an empathetic understanding of the data material rather than a sympathetic one (B. Smith, 2016a). Regarding temporality, a narrative structure, or plot, for each participant was outlined to understand better how the participants understood their past, their current life, and at what trajectory their life was headed (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; B. Smith, 2016a, 2016b). Key experiences, described by the participants themselves during the interviews, were examined to give the researchers an idea of how the participants related them to their life plot (e.g., how a particular competition changed their view on success or failure).

Each narrative's sociality was interpreted by noting whom in the participant's life played out significant roles, how the participants acted in, and later made sense of, different social contexts (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). Further, the inward sociality of the participants was investigated through questions concerning the inner states of the particular events. Concerning outward sociality, of particular importance were people who consistently showed up and were significant in the development of their narrative (e.g., parents, siblings, former coaches) (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). Lastly, the spatial dimension of each narrative was understood by attending to how the participants described and perceived different physical contexts surrounding their crucial life and sporting experiences (e.g., special venues where they trained as kids, venues where they competed in important competitions) (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000).

After finishing the first phase and acquiring a clearer sense of each narrative, I took the position of a "story analyst" (B. Smith, 2016a, 2016b; B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009a) and conducted a narrative thematic analysis (Riessmann, 2008; B. Smith, 2016b). According to Smith and Sparkes (2009a), a story analyst uses an analytical framework to guide the analytical process and later produce a realist tale. Contrary to other means of qualitative analysis, narrative thematic analysis does not theorize across cases but instead aims to use each narrative as a single unit of information (Riessmann, 2008; B. Smith, 2016b). Hence, after getting a sense of the emerging themes and structures in each narrative, other themes were then introduced to understand the unique narratives in new perspectives (Riessmann, 2008; B. Smith, 2016b). The themes were designed in cooperation with the larger research group. They consisted of: (1) earlier experiences

leading to prevention- or promotion-orientation, (2) trust perceptions and experiences, (3) regulatory fit, (4) communication and collaboration, and (5) degree of shared reality (Cornwell et al., 2017; Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019; Simpson, 2007). These themes were chosen and developed using prior theory and literature. The transcriptions were then re-read, and notes and highlights were in light of these themes. Color coding was used to note the different themes. To stay true to the framework of narrative thematic analysis, the researchers were particularly attentive to use these new themes as tools to understand better *each specific* narrative, and not to make thematic connections *between* the different narratives (Riessmann, 2008).

Throughout the analysis, although some part of the process is discovering, some part is also co-constructing the narratives. During the interviews and the analysis, the researchers are in some way or another influencing the narrative presented (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Riessmann, 2008; B. Smith, 2016a). This may especially be true in the process of constructing the research text, as was the third phase of the analysis. As for this research, the researchers took a mixed position of both story analyst and storyteller in this phase, although presenting each narrative as realist tales (Smith, 2016). These two perspectives, while dissimilar in certain aspects, can be mixed, according to Smith and Sparkes (2009a) and Smith (2016). A realist tale is characterized by three main features: (a) the text is presented in the third person, with little to no references to the researcher, (b) the text frequently presents quotes and references to the participants own stories, and (c) the researchers present the narrative through a theoretical framework (Smith, 2016).

In this project, the narratives are presented as stories and experiences, as is characteristic of a storyteller presentation, and there is minimal theoretical language or notions in the narratives (B. Smith, 2016b; B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009a). When presenting the particular narratives without reference to theoretical ideas or themes, the researchers leave room for interpretation to the reader and embraces the idea that the narratives and stories presented are theoretical and analytical in themselves (B. Smith, 2016b; B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009a). However, the narratives are structured similarly, based on the theoretical framework. This was done to enable a comparison between the participants and ease the uncovering of reciprocity in the coach-athlete relationships. Also, the narratives are presented in the third person and based on direct quotations. Hence, they are mostly similar to realist tales (B. Smith, 2016b; B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009a).

Each participant in the study, both coaches and athletes, provided unique narratives. Consequently, five narratives were developed and presented in the results. Although all five narratives serve as their own “informational unit” (Riessmann, 2008), some stories or themes are highlighted in either the same coach-athlete dyad or in all five narratives. These themes are highlighted to explore the difference or similarities in inner states, interpretations, or experiences of similar or comparable events. Consequently, the narratives are linked because of their individuality rather than their similarity. Especially stories experienced by both coaches and athletes are interesting to discuss, as they serve as a connection point between the subjective realities.

Study quality

Methodological rigor is hard to measure and objectively ensure due to the thesis’s paradigmatic position (B. Smith & McGannon, 2018). As there is no objective or theory-free truth presented in this thesis, merely several accounts of personal experience, formal criteria of methodological rigor are useless (Clandinin et al., 2007; B. Smith & McGannon, 2018; Sparkes, 1998). Indeed, Clandinin & Connelly (2000) claim that “narrative (inquiry) relies on other criteria than validity, reliability, and generalizability” (p. 184), as is used as measurements of rigor in other methodologies. Further, they admit that the development of narrative inquiry as a methodology is not yet far enough to confidently present other measurements of rigor (Clandinin et al., 2007; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). Instead, they encourage narrative inquirers to attain high methodological quality by being wakeful.

Indeed, they recommend maintaining a constant state of “wakefulness” during the whole narrative inquiry process. This is described as “being wakeful, and thoughtful, about all of our inquiry decisions” (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 184). This is particularly crucial in relation to two aspects of the inquiry. Firstly, wakefulness should be maintained in relation to the three-dimensional spaces of narrative inquiry (Clandinin et al., 2007). Consequently, being attentive to the three-dimensional spaces of narrative inquiry will increase the likelihood of higher research quality. Hence, this was attempted throughout this research, both during data collection, transcription, analysis, and production of research texts. In addition, Clandinin et al. (2007) recommend increasing the methodological quality of the research by attending to, and being wakeful of, the eight elements of research design.

More than merely strategies of research design, these eight elements are means of “living out and representing narrative inquiries” (Clandinin et al., 2007, p. 24). Attending to these elements might guide the researchers in the inquiry, as it functions as a practical framework for the whole process. The first element regards the justification of the research itself, which must be the starting point of the research process. Personally, the researchers of this thesis are both interested in the field of sport psychology generally and the coach-athlete relationship specifically. Also, as some of the researchers are practicing coaches, delving deeper into this concept is personally meaningful. Practically and socially justifying the inquiry is the fact that research has stated the need for more research on female athletes in the sports sciences (Clancy et al., 2016; Elliott-Sale et al., 2021), more research in motivational climate in elite sports (Clancy et al., 2016; Harwood et al., 2015) and more longitudinal qualitative research (LQR) in sport psychology (Clancy et al., 2016; Turnnidge & Côté, 2018). Hence, both the methodological and thematic choices of this research are justified socially and practically.

According to the second element, the researchers must name the phenomenon they are inquiring into and adopt a narrative view of this (Clandinin et al., 2007). As the reciprocity of the coach-athlete relationship is the *what* of this research, a narrative view is developed through a theoretical understanding of this type of relationship; both as reciprocal (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019), and as a process developing over time (Dewey, 1938; Jowett, 2017). The third element, building on the second element, concerns the use of methods that enable these aspects to be captured and understood. Thus, enabling the researchers to empathize with the subjects’ experiences and better grasp the narratives’, LQR-design was deemed beneficial also in this sense (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Hermanowicz, 2013).

Fourth, Clandinin et al. (2007) address that narrative inquirers must extrapolate on the analysis and interpretation process of the research. For this thesis, the analysis and interpretation of the data were done through narrative, thematic analysis, as described in the former sub-chapter (B. Smith, 2016b). Fifth, the researchers must position their inquiry within the specific landscape of their research field. As such, this thesis is based on ontological relativism and epistemological social constructionism (Papathomas, 2016; B. Smith, 2016b).

Sixth, research should aim to provide unique insight into the *what* of the research through the use of narrative inquiry (Clandinin et al., 2007). This research, as previously

stated regarding both the methods and the theoretical landscape, provides, as far as the researchers are aware, new knowledge regarding the coach-athlete relationship. Further, although similar research was done in cooperation with this research (Bjåen, 2020; Charlotte & Fredriksen, 2020; Granerud, 2020), this research is done with a comparative design, separating it from these prior theses. Also, the age and sports of the participants varied from these theses and, therefore, might broaden the understanding of shared reality creation in the coach-athlete relationship over time.

The seventh element of design in a narrative inquiry is the attention to ethics throughout the research (Clandinin et al., 2007). Especially important is the ethical responsibility of the inquirer concerning the subjects of research. As the research subjects make themselves vulnerable by telling stories and sharing their subjective experiences, the researchers are responsible for managing this trust. This will be attended to in the next sub-chapter.

Eight, the researchers, to ensure quality in this narrative inquiry, were attentive to the production of text. Clandinin et al. (2007) listed this as the last element of design for a good narrative inquiry. Accordingly, the production of text requires attention to the three commonplaces, meticulous consideration of textual form, maintaining a narrative thought-process, attention to possible audiences, awareness of the criteria of quality, and the justification of the narrative inquiry (Clandinin et al., 2007). Starting early in the process of analysis, the creation of the narratives of this thesis has received the most attention from the researchers, supervisors, and other cooperators. This was not done to validate results but rather to “create a meticulous, robust, and intellectually enriched understanding” (B. Smith & McGannon, 2018) of the narratives in the research project. Further, co-students, friends, and close family were used to discuss and expand the understanding of others’ experiences on a more general level to offer a broader perspective.

As the researchers have been wakeful of these eight elements of research design throughout the process and also have been attentive to the three-dimensional spaces of narrative inquiry, it is believed that this research upholds a high degree of methodological quality.

Ethics

As the number of research subjects is relatively small in this study, ensuring anonymity was a fundamental consideration for this research project (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). The researchers avoided using any information, which may reveal the participants for family, friends, colleagues, or others related to them. During the interviews, the researchers assisted the participants in not using names or any other revealing information about third parties discussed in the interviews. If any third parties were mentioned by name or discussed to the extent that it might be possible to identify them, this information was removed or anonymized during the transcription of the interviews verbatim.

During the interviews themselves, a further ethical concern was the imbalance in social power during the interviews. Primarily, for both coaches and athletes, the researchers have more power in the qualitative research process (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2005; Reid et al., 2018). This is because the interviewer controls the topics of conversation, has an instrumental relation to the conversation, and later on has an interpretive monopoly in the analysis of the conversation (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2005). However, there are no easy solutions in relation to these issues, as they arise from certain pragmatic aspects of the methodology. Thus, dwelling, discussing, and paying attention to these asymmetries might be the only way to increase the research's ethical robustness.

Secondarily, regarding the female athletes, the power balance is even more skewed, as the interviewer was an adult male interviewing younger female athletes about their shared experiences with adult male coaches. Consequently, both the data collected and the analysis of them might be skewed, reflecting a power imbalance. The researcher, mindful of this, was trying to be aware of his position of power both before and after, but especially during, the interviews (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2005; Reid et al., 2018). The researchers made use of open questions, trying not to imply any preconceived notions about the experiences of female athletes. Additionally, the researchers tried articulating follow up-questions and answers cautiously by using open and inviting language such as "I may be mistaken, but..." or "Correct me if I'm wrong, but...". Conclusively, throughout the interviewing process, the researchers applied a humble and open mindset, body language, and style of communication.

However, even with these precautions, the answers, or stories, received in this research may not be the same as those female researchers would have obtained. The

athletes partaking in this study might have held back certain information because of the researchers' gender, especially because both coaches were males as well. They might also have worded it differently than they would have done if the researchers were female. Moreover, in the analysis, the researchers cannot truly understand or present young female athletes' experiences. However, by applying empathetic communication and analysis, the result is hopefully closer to an accurate representation than it would be with other, more generalizing methods (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; B. Smith & Sparkes, 2009a).

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An Exploration of Reciprocity among Coach and Athletes in Female Athletics and Cycling: A Shared Reality Theory Perspective

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to examine (a) how a shared reality is established, or fails to be established, throughout the sporting partnership between the coach and their athletes; and (b) how experiencing a shared reality, or not, in the relationship is related to the quality of the relationship throughout a 6-month period. Two coaches and three female elite (junior) athletes, making up three separate coach-athlete dyads, were purposefully sampled for this study. Our results show that the participants in this study had already established a moderate degree of shared reality between them prior to the first interview. This level of shared reality was maintained throughout the research period. Further, the results showed that perceived shared reality positively affected the relationship quality. Hence, results indicated that perceived shared reality was more important to the relationship quality than actual shared reality. Frequent communication, shared expectations, and clearly stated goals, seem to be essential for shared reality creation. Additionally, coaches and athletes seem to be sufficiently epistemically motivated but report varying degrees of relational motivation. Conclusively, coaches should be aware of their epistemic power, maintain frequent communication, and try to relate socially to their athletes, if they wish to establish shared realities with their respective athletes, and thus increase the relationship quality.

Keywords: coach-athlete relationship; narrative inquiry shared reality theory; reciprocity

Introduction

The economic gain and social status obtained by sporting success ostensibly create pressure to identify and produce future elite performers in talent development environments (TDE) (Anshel & Lidor, 2012; Baker et al., 2018; Martindale et al., 2005). Consequently, due to the ambiguity regarding talent identification and its negative side-effects, TDE's should promote long-term planning and apply appropriate long-term methods to promote development (Bergeron et al., 2015; Fraser-Thomas & Côté, 2006; Martindale et al., 2005). Hence, the ones in charge of planning, implementation, and evaluation, most often coaches, turn out to be essential (Bergeron et al., 2015).

Research measuring the effectiveness of coaching has traditionally been done with a focus on how coach behavior has affected athlete outcomes (Harwood et al., 2015; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Smith et al., 2008; Smoll et al., 2007). However, Jowett (2017) conceptualizes the coach-athlete relationship as a process, where both parties are: “mutually and causally interdependent and thus how one feels, thinks, and behaves, affects and is affected by how the other feels, thinks and behaves” (Jowett, 2017, p. 7). Concurrently, later research has shed light on how both coach and athlete behavior affect coach outcomes (Solstad et al., 2015, 2021; Stebbings et al., 2016). Thus, it seems evident that both coaches and athletes, through their behavior, influence the effectiveness of their relationship.

Supporting the idea that both parties play out essential roles in the relationship, research has emphasized that the collective outcomes of the relationship are of a higher quality when coaches and athletes agree on the characteristics of the motivational climate (Gjesdal et al., 2019). However, this is not always the case (Møllerlækken et al., 2017). Hence, in line with Jowett (2017), functional and honest communication is important in effective coach-athlete relationships. Through communication, coaches and athletes

might establish shared visions and formulate long-term plans, which might improve their relationship effectiveness (Jowett, 2017). *Sharing* these appraisals and thoughts might serve as verification of their correctness and provide meaning, given that humans form connections with others and establish what is true by creating shared realities with others (Cornwell et al., 2017; Echterhoff et al., 2009). As such, Shared Reality Theory (SRT) will serve as a conceptual framework to examine the quality, and thus effectiveness, of the coach-athlete relationship (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019).

Shared reality theory

Shared reality theory concerns our “motivation to share our feelings, beliefs, and concerns about something in the world, to have these inner states in common with others, and to have these inner states verified by others” (Cornwell et al., 2017, p. 261). For two people to establish a shared reality, four conditions must be met. First, two individuals must share inner states, such as feelings, thoughts, emotions, or value assignments (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Second, to achieve a shared reality, these inner states must be about something: a target referent (Echterhoff et al., 2009). The target referent can be both concrete objects and items (e.g., other humans, a car), or abstract ideas or events in the past, present or future.

Third, a shared reality has to be created as a product of social-relational and epistemic motivation (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019). Relational motivation refers to inferring, producing, and adjusting inner states to fit in, form, and maintain relationships with others by fulfilling the basic need of relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Echterhoff et al., 2009). For relational motivation, groups with which the individual wants to socially relate to and identify with, such as friends, have “referent power” (Higgins, 2019). Epistemic motivation originates from the need to decrease the ambiguity of life by sharing inner states with others. Other people sharing your thoughts, feelings, and values

about something might serve as a validation of your own assessments and increase your confidence in them (Echterhoff et al., 2009). A coach usually holds so-called “expert power”, meaning their verification of reality is *more true*. Because of this, others are usually more epistemically motivated to create a shared reality with these experts, as their verification carries more weight (Higgins, 2019).

Lastly, the fourth condition for a shared reality to be established is that both parties must experience a commonality of inner states. Hence, it is not enough if two people share inner states about some target referent, if they do not perceive this commonality (Echterhoff et al., 2009). In close relationships, communication of inner states regarding target referents might lead to more “we-ness” and unity (Higgins, 2019). Further, when these disclosures are *validated*, meaning both parties *perceive* this as a shared reality, this unity increase even more (Higgins, 2019). However, only one out of two people in a relationship might experience shared inner states, whereas the other does not (Echterhoff et al., 2009). These two accordingly experience varying degrees of shared reality. Conclusively, the *experience* of shared realities can be more important for the quality of the relationship than reality itself (Higgins, 2019).

Shared self-guides and motivational orientation

One class of shared realities is shared self-guides (Higgins, 2019). Shared self-guides refer to the aspirations for oneself, produced and shared with another person. These self-guides might be developed as either *ideal* self-guides or *ought* self-guides. Ideal self-guides are aspirational in the sense that they entail future goals or aspirations as the presence of something positive (Higgins, 2019). An ideal self-guide strengthens the promotional motivational system (Higgins, 2019). A promotion-oriented person experiences the world as either neutral (0) or positive (+1). Accordingly, the goals she set for herself will be ambitious and require effort and increased performance. She will strive

to reach these goals (+1) with eagerness and energy, in an extroverted manner. If she experiences success, her motivation is increased, and further improvements are targeted. This will grant feelings of happiness and joy. However, if she fails, she will experience a decrease in motivation and energy, followed by feelings of sadness or discouragement.

As for *ought* self-guides, these are self-guides built on ideas of what one ought to achieve. Ought self-guides are oriented toward safety and stability, as people with such self-guides are more concerned about not failing and maintaining their performance or status. This motivates the individual to prevent future failures, and they develop a prevention-oriented motivational system (Higgins, 2019). A prevention-oriented person experiences the world as either neutral (0) or negative (-1). She is motivated to maintain the status quo and prevent negative development, and set goals accordingly. To achieve this, she is striving anxiously and conscientiously. When successful, that is, by maintaining the status quo, she is relieved and peaceful. This is, however, followed by no increase in motivation. When the same person is failing, she will experience nervousness and anxiety, increasing her motivation (Higgins, 2019).

Relational dyads that share motivational orientation, such as a coach and an athlete who are both promotion-oriented, experience a *regulatory fit* (Higgins, 2019). Two individuals who do not share a motivational fit experience a *regulatory non-fit*. This is significant for their shared goals and shared goal pursuit (Higgins, 2019). Because coaches and athletes with either promotion or prevention-oriented motivation set goals with different characteristics, a relationship experiencing a regulatory fit will more easily agree on their shared goals. Further, the experience of pursuing a goal that is in line with one's own motivational orientation makes the goal more meaningful and increases the value placed on the goal pursuit (Higgins, 2019).

Hence, shared realities and shared motivational orientations might therefore enable coaches and athletes to establish the *right goal* and the *right way* to pursue this, thereby adding meaning to their shared pursuit (Cornwell et al., 2017). However, to attain this, one has to share information freely (Higgins, 2019), which requires interpersonal trust (Korsgaard et al., 2015). Cornwell et al. (2017) highlight trust as both a facilitator and outcome of shared realities. Hence, trust becomes essential for the quality of the coach-athlete relationship as well. Epistemically, one has to trust that the other person's assessment of something is correct to fully integrate and establish this as truth (Echterhoff & Higgins, 2017; Simpson, 2007). Relationally, trust serves as the basis for informational sharing, such as thoughts, feelings, and values (Korsgaard et al., 2015). Consequently, coaches and athletes who trust each other will more easily share their inner states, thereby establishing shared realities which hypothetically will increase the quality of their relationship. This is in line with prior studies using SRT as the theoretical framework for understanding the reciprocity in the coach-athlete relationship (Solstad et al., 2021). A higher degree of shared reality between coaches and athletes was an indicator of motivation, well-being, and perceived relationship quality (Solstad et al., 2021).

Purpose of study

The purpose of the present study was to examine (a) how a shared reality is established, or fails to be established, throughout the sporting partnership between the coach and their athletes; and (b) how experiencing a shared reality, or not, in the relationship is related to the quality of the relationship throughout a 6-month period.

Method

Paradigmatic positioning

The research was placed within the interpretivist paradigm, distinguished by ontological relativism and epistemological social constructionism (Denzin & Lincoln,

2018; Papathomas, 2016). In line with these premises, the methodology of narrative inquiry was chosen (Clandinin et al., 2007; Smith, 2016). Narrative inquiry is characterized by its attention to experiences and subjective realities, using stories as data. Narrative inquirers should acquire an empathetic positioning by attending to the three-dimensional spaces of the narratives: temporality, sociality, and space (Clandinin et al., 2007; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000).

Research design

Enabling the researcher to empathize with the subjects' experiences and better grasp the narratives' three-dimensional spaces, a longitudinal qualitative research design (LQR) was chosen for this thesis (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Hermanowicz, 2013). As such, three individual interviews (T1, T2, T3) were carried out for each of the five participants over a 6-month period. As the coach-athlete relationship has been described as dynamic (Jowett, 2017), certain developments and events were expected during six months. Additionally, there is stated a need for more LQR in sport psychology (Clancy et al., 2016; Turnnidge & Côté, 2018), which serves as a social and practical justification of the research design in this study (Clandinin et al., 2007).

Participants

Further practical and social justification for this study is based on the need for more research on female athletes in the sports sciences generally (Clancy et al., 2016; Elliott-Sale et al., 2021; Ryder et al., 2021), and in talent identification and talent development specifically (Baker et al., 2018; Johnston et al., 2018). Also, former research within the same theoretical context has focused on female athletes in the age group 16-19, leaving a gap in the research on females in the first years of elite adult sport (Solstad et al., 2021). Consequently, two female athletes from middle-distance running and their shared male head coach, and one female athlete from cycling and her male head coach

were purposefully sampled for this study (Etikan, 2016). The sampling was based on the athlete's (a) skill level: all athletes are within the national top 10 in their respective sport in their age group; (b) age: all athletes were in a developmental phase of their career ($M_{age} = 19,6$, $SD = 1,8$); and (c) gender: all athletes were female. Additionally, ensuring that athletes and coaches have had sufficient time to establish or fail to establish a shared reality; athletes and coaches had to have cooperated for a minimum of one year ($M_{time} = 1,6$ years, $SD = 0,6$) (Cornwell et al., 2017; Higgins, 2019).

Procedure

At the start of the research process, an application was sent to, and approved by, the Norwegian Center for Research Data (NSD) (see Appendix 1 and 2). A second application was approved by the Ethical Committee at the Norwegian School of Sport Sciences (see Appendix 3). Formal meetings were then held to inform them about the study's purpose and the practical implications. The written consent was presented at these meetings and handed over to the participants to re-read and sign within the first interview (see Appendix 4).

Data analysis

After finishing the interviews, they were immediately transcribed and read to get a more profound sense of the material (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Riessmann, 2008). Totally, the transcriptions ended up with 223 pages of single-spaced material. Hence, transcription served as the initial phase of analysis, based upon Smith's (2016) framework for thematic narrative analysis (TNA). After transcribing and sorting the material, the researchers engaged in an indwelling process (Riessmann, 2008; Smith, 2016). The indwelling process helped identify narrative themes and structures that emerged from the data (Smith, 2016). Subsequently, further themes were applied deductively as TNA (Riessmann, 2008; Smith, 2016). The themes applied during this thematic analysis were

developed using prior theory and literature. They consisted of (a) earlier experiences leading to prevention- or promotion-orientation, (b) trust perceptions and experiences, (b) regulatory fit, (d) communication and collaboration, and (e) degree of shared reality (Cornwell et al., 2017; Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019; Simpson, 2007). Lastly, each participant in the study provided unique narratives. Consequently, five narrative texts were produced and presented in the results, all serving as their own informational unit (Riessmann, 2008).

Study quality

Methodological rigor is hard to measure and objectively ensure due to the thesis's paradigmatic position and methodology (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Smith & McGannon, 2018). Clandinin et al. (2007) admit that the development of narrative inquiry as a methodology is not yet far enough to confidently present measurements of rigor. Instead, they encourage narrative inquirers to attain high methodological quality by wakefulness and attention to the eight elements of design. Wakefulness should be maintained in relation to the three-dimensional spaces of narrative inquiry, and more generally by "being wakeful, and thoughtful, about all of our inquiry decisions" (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 184).

The elements of design concern attention to, and extrapolation of, (1) the justification of the research, (2) a narrative view of *the what* of the research, (3) choice of method to understand *the what* of the research, (4) the process of analysis and interpretation, (5) the paradigmatic positioning of the research, (6) how to provide unique insight into *the what* of the research, (7) attention to ethics, and (8) production of narrative texts (Clandinin et al., 2007). As these elements, except the seventh, have been implicitly attended to in other parts of this study, only the seventh element will be discussed further.

Regarding ethics, the ethical responsibility of the inquirer concerning the subjects of research is central in narrative inquiry (Clandinin et al., 2007). As they tell stories and share their subjective experiences, the researchers are responsible for managing this trust (Clandinin et al., 2007). Also, as the number of research subjects is relatively small in this study, ensuring anonymity was another fundamental ethical concern (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2005).

Results

Narratives in the context of cycling

First, the individual narratives of Daniel (coach) and Emma (athlete) are presented. Daniel has been both coach and teacher for Emma for a little more than a year during the first interviews. Emma is currently in her late teens.

The narrative of coach Daniel – aspiring for we-ness in the coach-athlete relationship

As Daniel got increasingly interested in sports as a kid, his father waived his hobbies to support his son. Daniel felt his father sacrificed some of his own leisure time to assist him in realizing his dreams. This made him appreciate the experience of feeling supported, which have later shaped his coaching career. Likewise, his first XC-ski coach also made a lasting impression on him: “I got a sense that he sincerely cared for me and wanted to help me reach my goals, (...) it is hard to describe, but you got a feeling of being seen for who you are” (T3).

Despite this, Daniel never made it to the professional ranks in cross-country skiing, as was his goal. Nonetheless, sports have been integral to his life ever since. For example, he has explored amateur ultra-endurance competitions in several sports, which have given him a “sense of mastery I have made use of in other parts of life; it has made me tougher mentally” (T3). Additionally, when he realized he could study sports science “it was like “Ding!”, this is what I am going to do with my life” (T3). Always looking to

achieve more, he is now working on a master thesis in the same field. As such, he states that “even though I did not make it as an athlete, with regards to my goals, I have succeeded. I love sports and have dedicated my life to sports” (T3).

In line with this, he defines success for his coaching practice partly as “getting your athletes to like the sport, (...) and create a solid base for physical activity for the rest of their lives” (T3). Still, for ambitious and highly motivated athletes, such as Emma, “they have to reach their performance goals to succeed, at least to some extent” (T3). As such, success is a dualistic phenomenon for Daniel in his coaching.

Still, he has not always had such clear ideas regarding his coaching philosophy. For instance, as Daniel spent his first years as a coach, his focus was mainly “showing up, doing my job, and getting paid” (T3). It was a coaching colleague of his, at this time, that made him rediscover the importance of “seeing the athletes for who they are” (T3). Daniel noticed his colleague “had a great chemistry with the athletes, (...) and I thought: “I want that as well”” (T3). Ever since, he has worked on this particular aspect of his coaching practice.

Nonetheless, he is still not quite there, as both Emma and Daniel indicate a wish for more communication between the two. Daniel admits that “I do not know her as much as I would have liked” (T3). However, in the last interview, Emma confirms that Daniel has become somewhat better at this aspect over the last couple of months after she specifically addressed it during a post-season assessment. “He has been commenting more frequently in my training log, as I requested” (eT3). As such, he is signaling a willingness to both listen and take action.

For Daniel, personal development like this in his coaching practice motivates him, as he “wants to become the best coach one can find in this sport” (T3). However, it is not the primary motivation. According to himself, the main source of motivation is “seeing

the athletes reach their goals; that they are happy for achieving something they wanted... Knowing I was part of that, guiding them to something that meant so much” (T1). Accordingly, “seeing the athletes happy for reaching their goals... that makes me happy as well” (T3). Consequently, he is always attentive to his athletes and involves them in their own athletic development.

Hence, Daniel believes his most important role as a coach is as a facilitator. His coaching philosophy is to “give them a lot of freedom. It is better if they make some mistakes and learn from those experiences” (T1). Hence, he wants his athletes to make their own training plans, with his guidance. Emma explains the process like this: “We create our own training plans, and he oversees them. If it is something he would have changed, we can discuss, and maybe change it” (eT1). On some occasions, he has even “told Emma that I would have done different type of training (than what she had planned), but after talking to her, and heard her arguments, I changed my mind” (T3). According to Daniel, she usually does a great job in both planning and execution. Indeed, “she may have strengthened my belief in giving a lot of freedom and responsibility to the athletes” (T3), as her performances have been excellent over the last years. Maybe as a result of this, there are primarily positive feelings in his relation to Emma.

Expanding on his feelings the last couple of months leading up to the third interview, the strength and frequency of feelings are relatively low. He states that he “is not that good at showing emotions; I am pretty numb.” (T3). Whereas in his relation to Emma, there are slight differences:

Two aspects make me experience feelings more intensely when it comes to Emma. First, she is very good at her sport and has the potential to become really, really successful. And, secondly, she

is a “lonely” girl in a male-dominated sport. So, I care about her and watch over her a little bit more. (T3)

Nonetheless, there is no emotional rollercoaster: “Emma is hard to read. She is pretty closed off and does not show too much emotion herself” (T3) and “we are probably, as far as I know, both pretty enclosed... it might be the wrong word, but we do not show too much emotion” (T3). Emma confirms this, as she is “not very emotional” (eT3). Seemingly, and with regards to Emma’s current results, it presumably works out just fine for now.

The narrative of athlete Emma – happily striving in a domain of gains

«I was immediately hooked» (T3). This is how Emma describes the first time she rode her bike. The technicality and challenges she faced on the bike piqued her interest. Her dad introduced her to the competitive side of the sport, and she admits “I would not have tried it if it was not for him” (T3). She further elaborates that “although I do not think it is necessary for your parents to do the same thing as you, it helps. My dad always goes with me to races and such” (T1).

However, her first sporting experience came in gymnastics. She later quit the sport to get more time on her bike and XC-skis, which she has combined until now. Currently, in her mid-teens, she will most likely quit cross-country skiing competitively as well this winter, and the reason is “because cycling is the most fun. (...) If skiing were more fun, then I would have chosen that” (T3). Further, she argues that: “cycling is more technical... it is like, you must do scary things, that can give you a stronger sense of accomplishment. So, I think that is cool” (T3). Accordingly, she defines success partly as “just having fun with what you do” T3.

This strong sense of what is important for her has been crucial, especially as a former XC-ski coach tried to force her to choose between skiing and cycling. In response,

Emma says “I knew what I wanted to do. What I had to do” (T3). Contrarily, when Emma asked for Daniel’s advice on whether or not to quit skiing, he responded: “that it was up to me” (T1). Nevertheless, although fun and personal enjoyment always have been essential to her, already as a young gymnast, Emma noticed that she appreciated something else too:

(...) I guess I was a fourth-grader or something, and the (gymnastics) coach was very strict. I learned a lot about discipline in training from him, which I appreciate now. (...) The focus was not only on having fun but training to improve. (T3)

She observed that the other kids did not quite enjoy the coaching style as much as her: “I felt like I excelled in it, while the others possibly experienced it as too demanding” (T3). This incident highlights how improvement and performance is also a strong motivator for her.

Ambitiously striving, she “wants to become a professional... the dream is to become a world champion, but to become a pro would be the first step out in the world” (T1). Between the first and second interviews, she became a national champion in the junior ranks. Whereas “next year, the goal is to become one of the best in [country] (at the senior-level)” (T1). These ambitions are linked to what she considers the second aspect of success; reaching one’s goals. Failure, however, “is to not realize one’s potential and goals” (T3). Accordingly, she has found coaches with in-depth sport-specific knowledge, such as Daniel, particularly helpful. Indeed, she is “very satisfied with him”, as “there are not many people who can compare to him knowledge-wise” (T3).

Nonetheless, according to Emma, the coach should let the athlete plan all training, and “if it is something he thinks I should do differently; he should tell me. But ultimately, the athlete should be in charge” (T2). Accordingly, she thinks “it depends on yourself; if

you will go out to train (...) You got to take on the responsibility” (T1). This perspective is very aligned with Daniel, as he said: “There is no one else who can do it for them (...) when it all boils down the athletes have to put down the work required” (dT1).

Contributing to this emphasis on independence, Emma has been a lonesome girl in a sport mainly enjoyed by boys. She says “it has kind of always been like this, as long as I have been biking. I do not think about it too much” (T1). Related, on a question of whether Daniel is able to empathize with her, she exemplifies with when “they are on longer rides, and I am the only girl in the group. During these rides, I ride a bit slower because I am not as strong as the boys. He usually tells me to go at my own pace” (T1). This is reassuring and enables her to achieve the proper training according to her own needs. Although he can empathize to some extent, she wishes Daniel was taking a more significant interest in her personal life, “like how you feel outside of training, because I think that can affect training and so on” (T3). As such, they share this wish for a more personal coach-athlete relationship, although Emma apparently places all responsibility on Daniel.

Maybe easing their collaboration, Emma reports mainly feeling happy, joyful, and relaxed, rarely experiencing negative emotions. She says she is happy “when I have had a good training session, or when I feel fresh” (T3). Regarding the rare negative feelings, disappointment is the most common one. Disappointment usually occurs “if I race or train, and I feel like I could have done better. That I did not perform at my best” (T3). Due to the pandemic, she has raced less than usual during this period, and training has been more consistent, possibly leading to a considerable increase in happiness and joy attributed to steady progress.

Regarding racing, she is never stressed or anxious before competitions, and therefore the feeling of relief is not warranted afterward either: “I do not know... I just

never feel relieved” (T3). Furthermore, even though Emma and Daniel report experiencing mostly similar feelings throughout the period of the interviews, on the question of whether Daniel can relate to her feelings or affect them, she answers: “Not really” (T3). However, she admits that “I do not think I am too emotional... so it is probably kind of hard to tell” (T3). Hence, Emma and Daniel share the experience of a less emotional and more pragmatic coach-athlete relationship.

Narratives in the context of middle-distance running

In the context of middle-distance running, the first narrative presented is the head coach, Robert. Later, Ava’s narrative is presented. She has been working with Robert for a little over a year before the first interview. Second, the narrative of Sarah is presented. She had been working with Robert for approximately two years. The athletes are two out of four female athletes in their training group, and both are in their early twenties.

The narrative of coach Robert – confident in his epistemic power

For Robert, “a safe childhood” (T3) laid the foundation for a genuine love of sports. At this point in time, he had no aspirations to become an elite running coach. However, after finishing his studies and getting professionally into the field of sports medicine, he acquired an interest in coaching. Obtaining coaching responsibilities in a club with “both talented athletes and outstanding leaders” (T3) launched his career as a running coach. The vocation has culminated in his athletes competing in several finals in international championships and winning countless national championships. These experiences of working with elite athletes have been the most critical factor in his coaching development, as “working with good athletes makes you develop, and I have been working with a lot of good athletes for long stretches of time” (T3).

Based on these experiences, he emphasizes that “success is to fulfill one’s potential and goals” (T3). Sarah and Ava are both aiming for international success, and

Robert thinks “they have the potential (to reach this) (...) and if not, I would have advised them to do something different with their lives” (T1). Robert, on his part, thinks his “former experiences help me understand what is needed to reach that level” (T3). However, also based on previous athletes he has coached, he is adamant they “will not succeed at all costs” and that “the *whole* athlete is important” (T3). As such, he views success as a more holistic idea than pure performance, especially with regard to doping and eating disorders.

Separating him from most of his coaching colleagues at his level, Robert is working full-time alongside his coaching practice. This is a very conscious decision, as he:

(...) sees other coaches doing it as a job, which makes them dependent on the athletes’ results, and that they want you as a coach. It is paid work; therefore, the athletes have more power. For me, it is an additional expense. The fewer athletes I have, the better for me economically! (T2).

Nonetheless, Robert’s contact with his athletes is remarkably tight. Both Ava and Sarah are aware of his tight schedule, exemplified by Ava in an interview: “(...) he is working very, very much, but he is still meeting us four or five times a week at training” (aT2). Robert adds that they “communicate very frequently. Either talking on the phone or via SMS. One or two times a day (with each athlete)” (T1). Partly due to this, both Sarah, Ava, and Robert himself, consider their relationships as close.

Moreover, both on sharing his own feelings or inquiring about the athlete’s feelings, Robert report having “no issues. It does not bother me at all” (T3). Further, the athletes experience an interest, on Robert’s part, in their life outside sports, exemplified cheerfully by Ava: “Robert’s absolute favorite topic to discuss is not training, but how

our dating life is going!” (aT2). As such, it is evident that Robert sincerely enjoys working with his athletes, and he certainly signals his inner states regarding this.

In line with this, during the period of the present study, he experienced mostly happiness and joy in his coaching duties:

Joy in the way that, with Ava and Sarah, everything has gone very smoothly, and they have experienced a decent development. This period has been good for them, and they are happy with themselves, which makes me happy. I enjoy being with them.

(T3)

This statement seems characteristic for Robert, seemingly an optimist. Optimism also shows in how he handles competitions, as he experiences feelings of nervousness and stress “between very seldom and never” (T3). During the national championships, which was a potential source of strong emotional alterations in the time of this study, “both (Sarah and Ava) did as we expected, really (...) I guess they are not happy [about their performance], but there are reasonable explanations for why it went the way it did” (T2). Although both athletes performed worse than they hoped at the most important event of the pandemic-ridden year, he is motivated to continue their coach-athlete relationship “as long as they want me, and performances get better and better” (T3).

Concerning motivation, Robert himself says he has “an ambition to get it right... this training of girls and women” (T1). He has experienced how “today’s training [programs and regiments] is mostly developed *by* old men, *for* men” (T1). Female athletes in endurance sports usually stagnate and experience years and years without a new personal best in their late teens and early twenties due to biological maturation. Hence, they usually peak after 25 years of age. To Robert, this leaves room for other priorities of a more positive character, as well: “For girls, I think it is better to get an education at this

age (...) I want the girls to finish their education before their peak performance age” (T1). For this reason, he has advised both Ava and Sarah to study full time, which they do.

Consequently, he wants them to be “good at honest communication, for example when they go to school and have work practice” (T1). Robert explains that “I want them to tell me if they are hurting somewhere or feel like “this is not working”” (T1). Establishing such kind of communication, he wishes for the athletes to tell him if they are not satisfied, and the same goes for himself. Robert has “coached athletes previously, whom I have told to go and find another coach because we did not get the expected results” (T2). In line with this, both athletes state that Robert has said that he will advise them to find another coach if their athletic progression dwindles. The reason for this “is to avoid a waste of time” (sT1), and the athletes report that this provides a sense of safety for them. Hence, although Robert is spending a lot of time and energy on his athletes and enjoying this effort as well, the relationship is still firmly embedded in the context of elite sports – very much dependent on athletic progression.

The narrative of Ava – extrovertedly striving for more

Ava’s family is absorbed in elite sports. According to herself, she is “from a very sport-focused family, and my mom is a former runner (...) there is a lot of sports talks in our family, and we are all very competitive” (T3). Appropriately, then, her goal is to compete regularly in “(...) finals in European Championships, World Championships, and Olympic games (...) and to make a living from running” (T3). As for possible failures, she considers “giving up before I reach my full potential” as the main one. She explains that:

If I train well for the next five years and just do not improve, it is like: “Oh well, this did not work out. I am not a runner.” However,

if I start slacking and could have done better, I will consider it as failing (T3).

Relatedly, according to Ava, her mother did not reach her full potential as an athlete. Due to this, Ava is adamant about making the right choices to fulfill her own ambitions.

Despite her supportive family and ambitious mindset, the path toward her current performance level has been challenging. During her younger years, Ava experienced being omitted from “elite groups” several times in her sports club. “They were excluding (...) I could not train with “the best” group” (T3). This was painful to her and led to downward motivational spirals and a decrease in confidence. At last, she chose to change to a smaller club, which gave her a boost:

I became like “the star” of the club. I was very well taken care of by the coach, and he joined me to all races and such. Like, it could be only us two at training, sometimes. He was always there. That season I suddenly did very well. (T3)

Her performances during this period allowed her to join a new, high-performing training group again. Her status in this group would be of a lower priority than the other team runners, and she would not receive the coach’s full attention. This experience, feeling like the worst athlete in the training group, again, led to a new motivational descent. Ava “was by far the slowest one. And the youngest, too (...) I just felt that the coach did not believe in me, that I was just tagging along” (T3). Although this experience took a toll on her, she found a way out, as she was able to join Robert’s group. Here, although she is not the fastest, she can compete with and even beat the other athletes on some distances. This has led her to connect with the other athletes more easily and boosted her confidence and motivation.

Despite these turbulences in her relatively short sporting career, Ava considers her development as having an upward trajectory. Reflecting on her background in relation to her current training regime, she describes it like the following:

I have a versatile sporting background. (...) That has been very positive for me; I have never been injured, (...) and I can learn new things pretty fast. (...) I still have a lot to gain from specializing because it is a lot of training I have not done before. A lot of strength I have never done. A lot of acidic lactic training I have never done. I probably have a great potential and a lot to gain, still. (T3)

Other than an optimistic tendency, throughout the interviews, Ava emphasizes her emotional openness: “You can read me like an open book. I am very emotional” (T1). She has no issues sharing her feelings with Robert, and she “feels like he knows what I am feeling... That we are on the same frequency” (T3). The only issue might be regarding negative emotions, as “it is like he does not always recognize them [the negative feelings]. But usually, he pushes me in the right direction [emotionally]” (T3). She exemplifies: “If I am stressed or nervous, he might calm me down. (...) And he knows that the last season was terrible for me and that it affected my self-esteem. So, if I have a good session, he is sure to tell me so” (T3). Additionally:

I communicate with Robert several times each day (...) I feel like he cares. I value it incredibly high because my last coach was not like this. So, I am like: He genuinely cares for me. I feel like he believes in me. I appreciate that a lot. I seriously appreciate it. (T3)

As for their cooperation in competitive settings, the national championships were her first time competing in her new distance. Ava describes the performance as “catastrophic” (T2). Aiming for the podium, she did not even reach the finals. According to Robert, this was “more or less as expected (...) she [Ava] needs more time on this distance” (rT2). Ava considers it a tactical misstep, as she “thought she was faster than the others in an eventual sprint but got stuck in a bad lane (...) it was just not fun at all... a total disaster” (T3).

After this, she went straight into the off-season, a period with less training and communication with her coach Robert. During that period, Ava was questioning her motivation again, “(...) like, why would not I go for a run every day, why do I like to relax so much?” (T3). The waning motivation was a reaction to the disappointing results in the national championship and the inevitable decline in fitness due to less training. However, at the last interview, some months later, her motivation seemed to come back, stronger than ever. As training is back to its rhythm and routines, and progress is ubiquitous, she is prospering.

The narrative of Sarah – restlessly maintaining status quo

Although sharing a lot with Ava, Sarah does not inhibit the same mindset. On the question: “Do you reckon you will handle potential challenges facing you in the next 2-3 weeks?” Sarah answered: “Yes, I think so” (T2), before adding that “if everything is going well for a while, I am just waiting for something bad to happen. And when it happens, I am like: “Yep, there it was.” So, I am always prepared” (T2). According to herself, experiencing severe illness in her family multiple times might have contributed to this mindset of always expecting a downturn in fate.

Moreover, her sporting experiences during adolescence might further account for it. Her former coach prioritized hurried improvements. Indeed, “when I started to train

with him, I quickly got good results. Coming from cross-country skiing I had great endurance and stamina. So, when I got some speed training, I ran pretty fast” (T3). “Pretty fast” is an understatement, as Sarah won an international youth championship just a couple of years later and sat age-specific national records for several age groups above her own. Suddenly, but in retrospect, not surprisingly, she first suffered a severe acute injury before the progress dwindled steadily. She says he “probably trained her a bit wrong” (T3). Whereas, according to Robert, Sarah and her coach made “all possible mistakes” (rT1) before she finally asked Robert to help her athletic development.

The former relationship strongly influenced what she expects from a coach, as their relationship was remarkably close. From a coach, Sarah “expects that they see me as an athlete and adjust their training program to me personally. Concerning all aspects really. Not just training, but maybe ask about school, if you have an exam and so on” (T3). Robert fulfills her needs regarding this request, and she truly appreciates it. “I got used to my last coach... that he called me so much and closely followed me up. I expected Robert to do the same, and he did” (T3). She admits she “took it for granted” (T3) when they started their cooperation but has later realized that not every coach is like this. As Sarah is not very trusting in general, Robert’s honest and frequent communication strengthens her trust in him, and to all appearances, her experience of a high-quality relationship. Additionally, she feels like his long-term planning and commitment signals a personal liking on his part and a motivation to continue their coach-athlete relationship.

Their collaboration, however, was tested during the national championship this season. Looking back, Sarah admits she was not in her best shape the last couple of weeks before the race. As the highlight of the pandemic-ridden season, it was an important event. The day before the race, she called Robert and asked him to meet her in the hotel lobby:

I did not want to run the next day. He pushed me a little to race. I told him I did not want to, but I gave up pretty quickly, like... there was no discussion. (...) He thought it was going to work out better than it did, as he did not know how I experienced it. (T2)

It did not work out too well, as “I pulled out (of the race) ... so, I think also Robert realized it did not go too well” (T2). In situations like this, to cope with the negative emotions, Sarah will rather talk to the other athletes in the group than Robert: “If there are negative emotions, I think he finds it a little uncomfortable (...) We do not usually share the same feelings... especially the negative ones” (T3) and “if it is something he finds uncomfortable, then he usually gets quiet, and maybe even over-positive instead (...) It is a lot easier to talk to the other athletes. Or other friends.” (T2). Indeed, Sarah’s feelings are often so strong “that it does not matter what Robert says” (T3). Nevertheless, Sarah would never try to suppress them to please anyone or make her relationships function easier. Robert, on his part, says he has no issues with this type of communication, partly because “there are so few negative feelings” (rT3). Still, on the contrary, experiencing negative emotions is not uncommon for Sarah at all. She explains that all her feelings are closely related to her performances in training and racing. In addition to the pandemic, minor issues with injuries and illness have made the season less than ideal, as shown in the prevalence of negative feelings during the period of the interviews. Indeed, during the research, she reports feeling mostly happy, followed by stress, disappointment, and sadness.

Regarding stress, during the off-season, Robert wanted his athletes to reduce their training volume and give them some time off, both mentally and physically. Consequently, he did not provide an exact training program to the athletes. He only asked them to limit their training to no more than one session a day:

I do not think it was too good for me because it ended up with me just running longer sessions... because I could only take *one* run each day. (...) I should have gotten a program, and it should have clearly stated less training. If not, I will do more. (T2)

Instilled with the mentality of “always trying my best, all the time” (T1), in her youth, if she “felt a little sick, I always had to go to school, and if it got worse, my mom could always come to pick me up” (T3). Today: “If my knee is hurting, for example, I will tell him [Robert] that it is less painful than it is (...) I know he will be stricter with me the worse it is” (T2). Staying injury-free is essential to her, as part of success for Sarah “would be to stay in training” (T3). According to herself, this is due to her former experiences, where “the times I have felt like failing, injuries were the reason” (T3). Avoiding setbacks, then, is her first priority, and she is training restlessly to do so.

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to examine (a) how a shared reality is established, or fails to be established, throughout the sporting partnership between the coach and their athletes; and (b) how experiencing a shared reality, or not, in the relationship is related to the quality of the relationship throughout a 6-month period. The results of this study indicate that frequent communication, shared expectations, and clearly stated goals are important for both shared reality creation, and thus quality in the coach-athlete relationship. The epistemic power of the coach in all three dyads empowered trust assessments positively and promoted an epistemic motivation to establish shared realities on the athlete’s part. All participants in the study are happy with their relationships and thus signal a perceived quality in their cooperation. Hence, a perceived shared reality seems to be related to the experience of quality, more so than an actual shared reality.

Perspectives on shared reality creation

There seemed to be a moderate (Sarah and Robert) or moderate plus (Emma and Daniel, Ava and Robert) degree of shared reality in all the relationships in the present study (Echterhoff et al., 2009). This level of shared realities were maintained throughout the six months of research, without major altercations from either of the participants. With regards to inner states, all three dyads seem to share thoughts and values on athletic development. Concerning feelings, Sarah and Robert are the only dyad where coach and athlete vary significantly in their feelings over the 6-month period. This seems to be because Sarah experienced feelings more related to a prevention-orientation, whereas her coach had typical promotion-oriented feelings. Further, according to both Sarah and Ava, Robert is less able to relate and attend to their negative feelings. Robert, on his part, states that he has no issues with neither identifying, attending to, nor talking about negative feelings. As such, Robert experiences a high degree of commonality of inner states with Sarah and Ava. Whereas Sarah especially does not experience the same commonality.

This highlights the need for coaches to actively listen to their athletes if they want to increase the quality of the relationship (Jowett, 2017). According to Higgins (2019), honest communication concerning feelings such as inner states might serve to increase well-being through increased sentiment and unity in close relationships. As the coach-athlete relationship develops over time, certain emotional altercations are bound to present themselves. In these situations, coaches might improve their cooperation with their athletes by validating or attending to these feelings (Higgins, 2019).

With regards to the target referents for these inner states, all dyads seem to agree on the aspirations and goals in their cooperation, which are mainly focused on the athletes' performance targets, athletic potential, and well-being (Cornwell et al., 2017; Echterhoff et al., 2009). Emma and Daniel share values with respect to the *right goal* of

sporting participation, which for them is split between enjoyment and athletic development (Cornwell et al., 2017). Whereas Robert and his two athletes all share performance-based goals, but also prioritize education and well-being along the way. This dyadic harmony with regard to target referents seems to be based on the effective establishment of expectations and clearly stated goals within the relationship (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Jowett, 2017). It is believed that both athletes and coaches in this study feel like their goal pursuit has meaning because of the reciprocal validation from each other (Cornwell et al., 2017; Higgins, 2019)

Concerning the third condition for shared reality creation, proper motivation, all athletes and coaches seem to be sufficiently epistemically motivated (Echterhoff & Higgins, 2017; Rossignac-Milon & Higgins, 2018). On the athlete's part, this is mainly due to the epistemic power of the coach when it comes to experience and knowledge to aid athletic development (Higgins, 2019). For the coaches, the athletes' subjective reality is important to grasp, which increases the athlete's epistemic power. As all athletes and coaches in this study report that they trust their dyadic partner, mutual trust seems important to develop epistemic motivation to establish shared realities in the coach-athlete relationship (Simpson, 2007). This trust is partly based on the reciprocal epistemic power in each relationship (Echterhoff & Higgins, 2017; Higgins, 2019). However, it also originates from trusting dispositions in the participants and trust-increasing behavior (e.g., how Robert diminishes his own work to meet the girls, how the athletes follow her training program) (Simpson, 2007). As such, behaving in a trust-increasing way, prioritizing the athlete or the relationship as a whole, might enable coaches to increase the athletes' epistemic motivation to establish a shared reality with them.

With regards to relational motivation, Robert, Ava, and Sarah are seemingly relationally motivated to establish shared realities. Their training group, consisting of

women of the same age, pursuing the same goals, led by Robert, holds social referent power for them (Higgins, 2019). Whereas Robert, on his part, is described by himself, Sarah, and Ava as a social person and shows an interest in their lives outside sport. Conversely, Emma's training group consists of her classmates, all-male, that does not seem to have any relational referent power for her. Daniel does not seem to be able to relationally connect with Emma, even though he recognizes the importance of "being seen for who you are" as an athlete. Their mutual inability to connect with each other, then, might stem from their low frequency and strength of emotions, their ineffectiveness in communicating this properly, and Emma's relation to her training group.

As such, it seems like Robert, through his personality and social skills, is able to foster relational motivation from the girls. According to this study, coaches and athletes who are low on emotional frequency and strength, such as Emma and Daniel, might not experience a relational motivation as easily. Coaches, then, should be aware of their training groups and how each athlete relates to it, as it may be a way of increasing a relational motivation to form shared realities. A close-knit training group might nourish a feeling of we-ness, as Robert and his athletes seem to experience (Higgins, 2019).

Motivational orientation in the coach-athlete relationship

The relationship of Sarah and Robert is the only one with a regulatory non-fit. Robert is perceived as promotion-oriented, whereas Sarah is perceived as prevention-oriented. Even though both Sarah and Ava experienced the national championship as a failure, Robert does not even recognize the performances as bad. The coach is, therefore, not able to attend to their negative feelings initially due to an issue of communication in these particular dyads. The experiences highlight a need for honest and open communication following important events. Further, as the athletes experience the following off-season differently, Robert has not adjusted their programs to fit the athletes'

particular, subjective needs with regards to motivations and feelings. Coaches that work with prevention-oriented athletes, such as Sarah, should be aware of their athletes' anxious striving after what the athletes *themselves* consider poor results. Increased motivation and anxious training, especially in the off-season, might lead to burnout, injuries, and overtraining over the long run (Baker et al., 2018; Bergeron et al., 2015).

Contrarily, there is not a big risk of overtraining in promotion-oriented athletes after failures, as is evident in Ava's experiences after the national championship. Maybe apart from dyads where the coach is prevention-oriented. However, continually successful athletes, such as Emma, should be followed up closely to ensure that she does not overtrain during times of success. However, this should be easier for relationships with a regulatory fit, as the agents more easily can identify each other's inner states (Solstad et al., 2021)

Strengths, limitations, and future directions

The research might give valuable insight to researchers and practitioners in relatable contexts, such as those with (a) female athletes; (b) elite junior athletes; and (c) young elite senior athletes. Further, due to the paradigmatic positioning of this study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Papathomas, 2016), and the method used (Clandinin et al., 2007; B. Smith, 2016), the results give a unique insight into the lived, reciprocal experiences of the participating coaches and athletes over six months. Lastly, as the interviews were done during the pandemic, this research might give insight into to development of shared realities in sports during times with less competition and more continuity in training. However, because the results are nothing more than the subjective truths of the participants, and the interpretation of the researchers, the results are not fully generalizable to other contexts (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000).

With regards to future research, research within the same framework should explore relationships with both regulatory fit and regulatory non-fit. Along the same line, regulatory fitting and non-fitting coach-athlete relationships should be followed over longer periods of time than six months, to see whether it affects the quality of the relationship for periods longer than six months. Also, research should look to explore the reciprocity in a coach-athlete relationship of same-gendered coaches and athletes, as this study has an imbalance with regards to the gender of participants.

Conclusion

Ava and Robert, and Emma and Daniel, seem to have a moderate plus degree of shared reality. In comparison, Sarah and Robert seem to have a moderate degree of shared reality. Despite their different obstacles regarding the first three conditions for shared reality creation, all athletes and coaches mostly perceive a commonality, and are happy with their current relationship. Thus, perceived shared realities seem to be more important than actual shared realities. Frequent communication seems to be important to establish shared realities. Due to the epistemic power difference in the coach-athlete relationship in junior and adult elite sports, epistemic motivation is sufficiently present in all dyads in the present study. Conversely, relational motivation is dependent on the interpersonal skills of the coach and the athlete's training group. Lastly, a regulatory fit seems to indicate higher relationship quality, whereas a non-fit is more ambiguous. Coaches with a regulatory non-fit with their athletes should look to adjust their coaching style to better serve their non-fit athletes, especially after failures or successes.

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Appendices

- 1 – Application Form to Norwegian Center for Research Data
- 2 – Approval from Norwegian Center for Research Data
- 3 – Approval from the Ethical Committee of Norwegian School of Sport Sciences
- 4 – Declaration of consent
- 5 – Interview Guide at T1
- 6 – Interview Guide at T2
- 7 – Interview Guide at T3

1 – Application Form to Norwegian Centre for Research Data

Meldeskjema for behandling av personopplysninger

16.08.2020, 13:41



Meldeskjema 815945

Sist oppdatert

13.08.2020

Hvilke personopplysninger skal du behandle?

- Navn (også ved signatur/samtykke)
- E-postadresse, IP-adresse eller annen nettidentifikator
- Bilder eller videoopptak av personer
- Lydopptak av personer
- Bakgrunnsopplysninger som vil kunne identifisere en person

Type opplysninger

Du har svart ja til at du skal behandle bakgrunnsopplysninger, beskriv hvilke

Fødselsår, kjønn, alder, erfaring fra tidligere idrettsdeltakelse, trener-utøver-relasjonen over tid, treners bakgrunn, erfaring og utdanning.

Skal du behandle særlige kategorier personopplysninger eller personopplysninger om straffedommer eller lovovertrедelser?

- Helseopplysninger

Prosjektinformasjon

Prosjektittel

Trener-utøver-relasjonen over tid

Begrunn behovet for å behandle personopplysningene

Innsamlingsformålet er å samle inn data for å se på hvordan trener-utøver-relasjonen erfares over tid lys av shared reality theory.

Ekstern finansiering

about:blank

Side 1 av 7

Type prosjekt

Studentprosjekt, masterstudium

Kontaktinformasjon, student

Eirik Fossen Gangåssæter, eirik.fossen@hotmail.com, tlf: 93465597

Behandlingsansvar

Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon

Norges idrettshøgskole / Institutt for idrett og samfunnsvitenskap

Prosjektansvarlig (vitenskapelig ansatt/veileder eller stipendiat)

Bård Erlend Solstad, b.e.solstad@nih.no, tlf: 90114208

Skal behandlingsansvaret deles med andre institusjoner (felles behandlingsansvarlige)?

Nei

Utvalg 1

Beskriv utvalget

Utøverutvalget er fra 16-25 år. Idrettsutøvere.
Trenerutvalget er fra 20-60 år. Utøvernes trener.
Alle vil bli fulgt/intervjuet maksimalt 4 ganger.

Rekruttering eller trekking av utvalget

Kontakter klubber/idrettslag.

Alder

16 - 60

Inngår det voksne (18 år +) i utvalget som ikke kan samtykke selv?

Nei

Personopplysninger for utvalg 1

- Navn (også ved signatur/samtykke)
- E-postadresse, IP-adresse eller annen nettidentifikator
- Lydoptak av personer

- Bakgrunnsopplysninger som vil kunne identifisere en person
- Helseopplysninger

Hvordan samler du inn data fra utvalg 1?

Personlig intervju

Grunnlag for å behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger

Samtykke (art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a)

Hvem samtykker for ungdom 16 og 17 år?

Ungdom

Grunnlag for å behandle særlige kategorier av personopplysninger

Uttrykkelig samtykke (art. 9 nr. 2 bokstav a)

Redegjør for valget av behandlingsgrunnlag

Personlig intervju

Grunnlag for å behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger

Samtykke (art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a)

Hvem samtykker for ungdom 16 og 17 år?

Ungdom

Grunnlag for å behandle særlige kategorier av personopplysninger

Uttrykkelig samtykke (art. 9 nr. 2 bokstav a)

Redegjør for valget av behandlingsgrunnlag

Personlig intervju

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Ungdom

Grunnlag for å behandle særlige kategorier av personopplysninger

Uttrykkelig samtykke (art. 9 nr. 2 bokstav a)

Redegjør for valget av behandlingsgrunnlag

Informasjon for utvalg 1

Informerer du utvalget om behandlingen av opplysningene?

Ja

Hvordan?

Skriftlig informasjon (papir eller elektronisk)

Utvalg 2

Beskriv utvalget

Utøverutvalget er fra 18-25 år. Idrettsutøvere.
Trenerutvalget er fra 20-60 år. Utøvernes trener.

Rekruttering eller trekking av utvalget

Kontakter klubb/forening.

Alder

18 - 60

Inngår det voksne (18 år +) i utvalget som ikke kan samtykke selv?

Nei

Personopplysninger for utvalg 2

- Navn (også ved signatur/samtykke)
- E-postadresse, IP-adresse eller annen nettidentifikator
- Lydopptak av personer
- Bakgrunnsopplysninger som vil kunne identifisere en person
- Helseopplysninger

Hvordan samler du inn data fra utvalg 2?

Personlig intervju

Grunnlag for å behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger

Samtykke (art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a)

Grunnlag for å behandle særlige kategorier av personopplysninger

Uttrykkelig samtykke (art. 9 nr. 2 bokstav a)

Redegjør for valget av behandlingsgrunnlag

Personlig intervju

Grunnlag for å behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger

Samtykke (art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a)

Grunnlag for å behandle særlige kategorier av personopplysninger

Uttrykkelig samtykke (art. 9 nr. 2 bokstav a)

Redegjør for valget av behandlingsgrunnlag

Personlig intervju

Grunnlag for å behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger

Samtykke (art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a)

Grunnlag for å behandle særlige kategorier av personopplysninger

Uttrykkelig samtykke (art. 9 nr. 2 bokstav a)

Redegjør for valget av behandlingsgrunnlag

Informasjon for utvalg 2

Informerer du utvalget om behandlingen av opplysningene?

Ja

Hvordan?

Skriftlig informasjon (papir eller elektronisk)

Tredjepersoner

Skal du behandle personopplysninger om tredjepersoner?

Nei

Dokumentasjon

Hvordan dokumenteres samtykkene?

- Elektronisk (e-post, e-skjema, digital signatur)
- Manuelt (papir)

Hvordan kan samtykket trekkes tilbake?

En registrert som ikke ønsker å være med på studien har rett til å trekke seg når han/hun vil. Dette er noe som blir presisert i informasjonen de skal få. Forsøkspersoner kan sende direkte melding til de som er ansvarlige for å trekke seg eller si det muntlig når som helst.

Hvordan kan de registrerte få innsyn, rettet eller slettet opplysninger om seg selv?

En registrert kan få innsyn ved å kontakte de ansvarlige for prosjektet og spørre om å få kontrollere egne persondata. Alle deltakere får et ID nummer. De kontakter forskningsgruppen og ber oss endre informasjon om deltaker X.

Totalt antall registrerte i prosjektet

1-99

Tillatelser

Skal du innhente følgende godkjenninger eller tillatelser for prosjektet?

- Annen godkjenning

Annen godkjenning

Godkjenning fra intern etisk komité på Norges Idrettshøgskole.

Behandling

Hvor behandles opplysningene?

- Mobile enheter tilhørende behandlingsansvarlig institusjon
- Fysisk isolert maskinvare tilhørende behandlingsansvarlig institusjon

Hvem behandler/har tilgang til opplysningene?

- Prosjektansvarlig
- Student (studentprosjekt)

Tilgjengeliggjøres opplysningene utenfor EU/EØS til en tredjestat eller internasjonal organisasjon?

Nei

Sikkerhet

Oppbevares personopplysningene atskilt fra øvrige data (kodenøkkel)?

Ja

Hvilke tekniske og fysiske tiltak sikrer personopplysningene?

- Opplysningene anonymiseres
- Adgangsbegrensning
- Andre sikkerhetstiltak

Hvilke

Forsøkspersonene og informasjonen som bli inhentet kodes med tall og/eller bokstaver

Varighet

Prosjektperiode

01.09.2020 - 30.06.2021

Skal data med personopplysninger oppbevares utover prosjektperioden?

Nei, data vil bli oppbevart uten personopplysninger (anonymisering)

Hvilke anonymiseringstiltak vil bli foretatt?

- Personidentifiserbare opplysninger fjernes, omskrives eller grovkategoriseres
- Koblingsnøkkelen slettes
- Lyd- eller bildeopptak slettes

Vil de registrerte kunne identifiseres (direkte eller indirekte) i oppgave/avhandling/øvrige publikasjoner fra prosjektet?

Nei

Tilleggsopplysninger

2 – Approval from Norwegian Centre for Research Data

Meldeskjema for behandling av personopplysninger

13.04.2021, 10:33



NSD sin vurdering

Prosjekttittel

Trener-utøver-relasjonen over tid

Referansenummer

815945

Registrert

13.05.2020 av Eirik Fossen Gangåssæter - eirikfg@student.nih.no

Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon

Norges idrettshøgskole / Institutt for idrett og samfunnsvitenskap

Prosjektansvarlig (vitenskapelig ansatt/veileder eller stipendiat)

Bård Erlend Solstad, b.e.solstad@nih.no, tlf: 90114208

Type prosjekt

Studentprosjekt, masterstudium

Kontaktinformasjon, student

Eirik Fossen Gangåssæter, eirik.fossen@hotmail.com, tlf: 93465597

Prosjektperiode

01.09.2020 - 30.06.2021

Status

17.08.2020 - Vurdert

Vurdering (3)

17.08.2020 - Vurdert

NSD har vurdert endringen registrert 17.08.2020.

Det er vår vurdering at behandlingen av personopplysninger i prosjektet vil være i samsvar med

personvernlovgivningen så fremt den gjennomføres i tråd med det som er dokumentert i meldeskjemaet med vedlegg den 30.06.2020. Behandlingen kan fortsette.

Det er gjort en liten justering i intervjuguider for å holde identiteten til tredjepersoner anonym.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET

NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

Kontaktperson hos NSD: Mirza Hodzic

Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

30.06.2020 - Vurdert

NSD har vurdert endringen registrert 30.06.2020.

Det er vår vurdering at behandlingen av personopplysninger i prosjektet vil være i samsvar med personvernlovgivningen så fremt den gjennomføres i tråd med det som er dokumentert i meldeskjemaet med vedlegg den 30.06.2020. Behandlingen kan fortsette.

Det er lagt till et nytt utvalg, Utvalg 2 idrettsutøvere og trenere i meldeskjemaet.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET

NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

Kontaktperson hos NSD: Mirza Hodzic

Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

19.06.2020 - Vurdert

Det er vår vurdering at behandlingen av personopplysninger i prosjektet vil være i samsvar med personvernlovgivningen så fremt den gjennomføres i tråd med det som er dokumentert i meldeskjemaet den 19.06.2020 med vedlegg, samt i meldingsdialogen mellom innmelder og NSD. Behandlingen kan starte.

MELD VESENTLIGE ENDRINGER

Dersom det skjer vesentlige endringer i behandlingen av personopplysninger, kan det være nødvendig å melde dette til NSD ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. Før du melder inn en endring, oppfordrer vi deg til å lese om hvilke type endringer det er nødvendig å melde:

https://nsd.no/personvernombud/meld_prosjekt/meld_endringer.html

Du må vente på svar fra NSD før endringen gjennomføres.

TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET

Prosjektet vil behandle særlige kategorier av personopplysninger om helse og alminnelige kategorier av

personopplysninger frem til 30.06.2021.

LOVLIG GRUNNLAG

Prosjektet vil innhente samtykke fra de registrerte til behandlingen av personopplysninger. Vår vurdering er at prosjektet legger opp til et samtykke i samsvar med kravene i art. 4 nr. 11 og art. 7, ved at det er en frivillig, spesifikk, informert og utvetydig bekreftelse, som kan dokumenteres, og som den registrerte kan trekke tilbake.

Lovlig grunnlag for behandlingen vil dermed være den registrertes uttrykkelige samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a, jf. art. 9 nr. 2 bokstav a, jf. personopplysningsloven § 10, jf. § 9 (2).

PERSONVERNPRINSIPPER

NSD vurderer at den planlagte behandlingen av personopplysninger vil følge prinsippene i personvernforordningen om:

- lovlighet, rettferdighet og åpenhet (art. 5.1 a), ved at de registrerte får tilfredsstillende informasjon om og samtykker til behandlingen
- formålsbegrensning (art. 5.1 b), ved at personopplysninger samles inn for spesifikke, uttrykkelig angitte og berettigede formål, og ikke viderebehandles til nye uforenlige formål
- dataminimering (art. 5.1 c), ved at det kun behandles opplysninger som er adekvate, relevante og nødvendige for formålet med prosjektet
- lagringsbegrensning (art. 5.1 e), ved at personopplysningene ikke lagres lengre enn nødvendig for å oppfylle formålet

DE REGISTRERTES RETTIGHETER

Så lenge de registrerte kan identifiseres i datamaterialet vil de ha følgende rettigheter: åpenhet (art. 12), informasjon (art. 13), innsyn (art. 15), retting (art. 16), sletting (art. 17), begrensning (art. 18), underretning (art. 19), dataportabilitet (art. 20).

NSD vurderer at informasjonen som de registrerte vil motta oppfyller lovens krav til form og innhold, jf. art. 12.1 og art. 13.

Vi minner om at hvis en registrert tar kontakt om sine rettigheter, har behandlingsansvarlig institusjon plikt til å svare innen en måned.

FØLG DIN INSTITUSJONS RETNINGSLINJER

NSD legger til grunn at behandlingen oppfyller kravene i personvernforordningen om riktighet (art. 5.1 d), integritet og konfidensialitet (art. 5.1. f) og sikkerhet (art. 32).

For å forsikre dere om at kravene oppfylles, må dere følge interne retningslinjer og eventuelt rådføre dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET

NSD vil følge opp ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

Kontaktperson hos NSD: Mirza Hodzic

Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

3 – Approval of NIH Ethical Committee

Bård Erlend Solstad
Institutt for idrett og samfunnsvitenskap

OSLO 31. august 2020

Søknad 149 - 270820 – Gjensidighet i trener-utøver relasjonen

Vi viser til søknad, prosjektbeskrivelse, informasjonsskriv, intervjuguide og innsendt melding til NSD.

I henhold til retningslinjer for behandling av søknad til etisk komite for idrettsvitenskapelig forskning på mennesker, ble det i komiteens møte av 27. august 2020 konkludert med følgende:

Vurdering

Prosjektet er et masterprosjekt hvor masterstudentens navn skulle fremgått under punkt 1.6 i søknadsskjemaet. Komiteen ber om at navn på masterstudent ettersendes til orientering. Komiteen forutsetter videre at prosjektleder har vurdert masterstudentens kompetanse mht en forsvarlig gjennomføring av intervjuene, herunder sikret forsvarlig organisering og gjennomføring av prosjektet.

Komiteen vil videre bemerke at det del 6 i intervjuguiden er en måling av «sosial ønskeverdighet». Etter komiteens vurdering bør det fremgå av samtykkeskrivene at denne type spørsmål inngår i spørreskjema som en del av intervjuet.

Vedtak

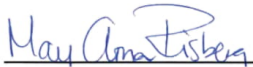
På bakgrunn av forelagte dokumentasjon finner komiteen at prosjektet er forsvarlig og at det kan gjennomføres innenfor rammene av anerkjente etiske forskningsetiske normer nedfelt i NIHs retningslinjer. Til vedtaket har komiteen lagt følgende forutsetning til grunn:

- *Vilkår fra NSD følges*
- *Justerte samtykkeskriv sendes komiteen til orientering*

Komiteen forutsetter videre at prosjektet gjennomføres på en forsvarlig måte i tråd med de til enhver tid gjeldende tiltak ifbm Covid-19 pandemien.

Komiteen gjør oppmerksom på at vedtaket er avgrenset i tråd med fremlagte dokumentasjon. Dersom det gjøres vesentlige endringer i prosjektet som kan ha betydning for deltakernes helse og sikkerhet, skal dette legges fram for komiteen før eventuelle endringer kan iverksettes.

Med vennlig hilsen



Professor May Arna Risberg
Stedfortredende leder, Etisk komite, Norges idrettshøgskole

Forskningsprosjekt ved Norges idrettshøgskole: “Gjensidighet i trener-utøver relasjonen i friidrett og sykkel”

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta [som trener eller utøver i friidrett/sykkel] i et forskningsprosjekt, hvor formålet er å *undersøke hvordan trener og utøvere i friidrett/sykkel opplever hverandre i løpet av en sesong*. I dette skrevet gir vi deg informasjon om målene for prosjektet og hva deltakelse vil innebære for trener og utøver.

Formål

Formålet med prosjektet er å følge en gruppe utøvere og deres trener gjennom en sesong med hensikt å undersøke gjensidighet i trener-utøver relasjonen. Studiens primære mål vil være å undersøke hvordan trener og hans/hennes utøvere opplever hverandre i løpet av en sesong. I tillegg vil studien undersøke variasjon i et utvalg psykososiale utfallsvariabler (f.eks. motivasjon). Det er mye som rører seg i hverdagslivet til junior elite utøvere. Det er derfor av stor interesse å få tak i trenerens og utøvernes egne opplevelser og erfaringer fra å delta i et talentutviklingsmiljø i Norge.

Problemstilling 1: Hvordan foregår selve interaksjonen mellom trener og utøver i løpet av en sesong?

Problemstilling 2: Hvordan er sammenhengen mellom interaksjonen mellom trener og utøver, og trivselen til treneren og utøverne i løpet av en sesong?

Dette er et forskningsprosjekt som er knyttet til **seksjon for coaching og psykologi ved Norges idrettshøgskole**. Opplysningene som forskningsprosjektet samler inn vil bli brukt i internasjonale publikasjoner som drøfter utfordringer rundt deltakelse i ulike talentutviklingsmiljøer.

Hvem er ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet?

Bård Erlend Solstad (Ph.D.) er ansvarlig for dette prosjektet.

Hvorfor får du spørsmål om å delta?

Wang Toppidrett og Tjalve har blitt spurt om å delta i et prosjekt som ønsker å undersøke trener-utøver relasjonen i løpet av en sesong. Grunnen til dette er hovedsakelig knyttet til ønsket om å sammenligne junior elite utøvere innenfor ulike prestasjonsdomener (f.eks. idrett, dans og kunst).

Kontaktopplysningene har vi fått tilgang til via Tjalve/NIH/Wang Toppidrett.

Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?

- Det vil bli samlet inn data flere ganger i løpet av sesongen høst 2021:
(Tentativ plan)
 - **Uke 38:** Dybdeintervju med trener.
 - **Uke 38:** Dybdeintervju med hver enkelt utøver.
 - **Uke 42:** Dybdeintervju med trener.
 - **Uke 42:** Dybdeintervju med hver enkelt utøver.
 - **Uke 48:** Dybdeintervju med trener.
 - **Uke 48:** Dybdeintervju med hver enkelt utøver.

- Intervjuene vil ha en varighet på **ca. 30-60 minutter**, og omhandler spørsmål omkring deltakelse i friidrett/sykkel og trener-utøver relasjonen.

- Deltakerne kan få se intervjuguiden på forhånd ved å ta kontakt med ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet (forsker Bård Erlend Solstad).
- I intervjurunde nr. 3 må deltaker svare på spørsmål angående sosial ønskverdighet.

Det er frivillig å delta

Det er frivillig å delta i forskningsprosjektet. Hvis trener/utøver velger å delta, kan trener/utøver når som helst trekke samtykke tilbake uten å oppgi noen grunn. Alle opplysninger om trener/utøver vil da bli anonymisert. Det vil ikke ha noen negative konsekvenser for trener/utøver hvis trener/utøver ikke vil delta eller senere velger å trekke seg.

Ditt personvern – hvordan vi oppbevarer og bruker dine opplysninger

Vi vil bare bruke opplysningene om trener/utøver til formålene vi har fortalt om i dette informasjonsskrivet. Vi behandler opplysningene konfidensielt og i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

- Alle personopplysninger vil bli behandlet konfidensielt. Det er kun forskergruppen ved Norges idrettshøgskole som vil få tilgang til personopplysningene. Personopplysningene vil lagres i et brannsikket skap som vil være adskilt fra øvrige data ved hjelp av en koblingsnøkkel. Forskergruppen kommer også til å lagre datamaterialet på en egen forskningsserver.
- I tillegg er det verdt å nevne at det vil være umulig å gjenkjenne deltakerne i publikasjoner, da synonymer vil bli brukt på alle deltakere.
- Det er også viktig å påpeke at verken navn på klubb, eller aldersnivå på deltakerne, kommer til å nevnes i fremtidige publikasjoner.
- Før studien blir sendt inn til publisering, vil alle deltakerne få mulighet til å se igjennom sitatene og godkjenne brukte sitater.

Hva skjer med personopplysningene når vi avslutter forskningsprosjektet?

Prosjektet skal etter planen avsluttes 30.06.21. Etter endt datainnsamling, vil innsamlet data bli anonymisert. Prosjektleder vil derfor: **(a)** slette koblingsnøkkelen, **(b)** omskrive indirekte identifiserbare opplysninger, og **(c)** slette lydopptak. I tillegg er det verdt å merke seg at forskningsdata ved Norges idrettshøgskole skal lagres i 5 år etter prosjektslutt for etterprøvbarehet og kontroll.

Dine rettigheter

Så lenge du kan identifiseres i datamaterialet, har du rett til:

- innsyn i hvilke personopplysninger som er registrert om deg,
- å få rettet personopplysninger om deg,
- få slettet personopplysninger om deg,
- få utlevert en kopi av dine personopplysninger (dataportabilitet), og
- å sende klage til personvernombudet eller Datatilsynet om behandlingen av dine personopplysninger.

Hva gir oss rett til å behandle personopplysninger om deg?

Vi behandler opplysninger om deg basert på ditt samtykke.

På oppdrag fra *Norges idrettshøgskole* har **NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS** vurdert at behandlingen av personopplysninger i dette prosjektet er i samsvar med personvernregelverket.

Hvor kan jeg, som trener og utøver, finne ut mer?

Hvis du har spørsmål til studien, eller ønsker å benytte deg av dine rettigheter, ta kontakt med:

- Norges idrettshøgskole ved **Bård Erlend Solstad**, tlf: **90 11 42 08** eller epost: b.e.solstad@nih.no.
- Vårt personvernombud: *Karine Justad*, tlf: 23 26 20 89 eller epost: karine.justad@nih.no.
- NSD – Norsk senter for forskningsdata AS, på epost (personverntjenester@nsd.no) eller telefon: 55 58 21 17.

Med vennlig hilsen

Bård Erlend Solstad (Ph.D.)

Prosjektansvarlig (forsker, Forskningscenter for Barne- og Ungdomsidrett)

Samtykkeerklæring

Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet *gjensidighet i trener-utøver relasjonen i friidrett og sykkel*, og har fått anledning til å stille spørsmål. Jeg samtykker til:

- å delta i tre (3) dybdeintervjuer

Jeg samtykker til at mine opplysninger behandles frem til prosjektet er avsluttet, ca. *juni 2021*

(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, sted, dato)

Spørsmål som starter med x. skal ikke brukes i løpet av intervjuet. Disse spørsmålene skal kun brukes som en kontroll av den som intervjuer.

Intervjuguide til trenere

Den indre tilstanden:

- 1) Kan du beskrive dine tanker (overbevisning) når det gjelder å utvikle unge utøvere?
Hvor kommer disse tankene fra?
 - a. **x.** Definisjon av overbevisning: Gjør det tydelig for treneren.
 - b. **x.** OLT, klubb, foreldre, venner, kjæreste, osv.
- 2) Kan du beskrive hvilke verdier du har som trener?
 - a. I hvilken grad preger disse verdiene dine trener-utøver relasjoner?
- 3) Kan du beskrive samspillet ditt med dine utøvere på treningsfeltet?
 - i. **x.** Samspill: Må følges opp med tilleggsord/begreper (f.eks. samarbeid, komme overens, bry seg, sette seg inn i den andres sted).
 - b. Trenere kan ha forskjellige forventninger og holdninger til sine utøvere. Hva tenker du om dette når det gjelder deg og dine egne utøvere?

Utvikling av felles mål:

- 4) Kan du beskrive hvilke overordnede mål du har som trener?
 - a. **x.** Langsiktige og kortsiktige mål.
- 5) Når man jobber over tid i en trener-utøver relasjon, vil man muligens utvikle sammenfallende og/eller ulike typer mål. Hvordan er dette for deg?
 - a. **x.** Meg: Hvilke mål har du som trener?
 - b. **x.** Deg: Hvilke mål har utøverne dine?
 - c. **x.** Oss - metaperspektiv: Har treneren og utøverne de samme målene? I hvilken grad samsvarer disse målene?

- 6) Kan du beskrive hvilke mål som er satt for den kommende sesongen? Kan du utdype med tanke på hver enkelt utøver?
- 7) Kan du beskrive hvilke krav (standard) du har til utøverne dine på treningsfeltet?
- a. Mental
 - b. Fysisk
 - c. Teknisk
 - d. Taktisk
 - e. Livsstil

Proessen:

- 8) Hva er motivasjonen din for å trene utøverne dine? Hva motiverer deg for å gå på trening hver dag, uke og måned?
- 9) Hvorfor planlegger og gjennomfører du de ulike treningsøktene (økt, ukentlig, månedlig og sesong), slik som du gjør?
- a. Individuelt og lag.
 - b. Sett i lys av mentalt, fysisk, teknisk, taktisk og livsstil perspektiver.
- 10) Kan du beskrive hvordan dere (trener-utøver) jobber sammen i treningsproessen? Hvordan sørger du for at samspillet mellom deg og utøverne dine blir best mulig?
- 11) Kommunikasjon er noe som er sentralt i trener-utøver relasjonen. Hvordan gjør du deg forstått hos dine utøvere?
- a. Hvordan kommuniserer du med dem?
- 12) Hvordan ser samspillet og kommunikasjonen mellom deg og dine utøvere ut på en vanlig hverdag på treningsfeltet?

Intervjuguide til utøvere

Den indre tilstanden:

- 1) Kan du beskrive dine tanker når det gjelder å utvikle deg selv som utøver? Hvor kommer disse tankene fra?
 - a. . Definisjon av overbevisning: Gjør det tydelig for utøveren.
 - b. . OLT, klubb, foreldre, venner, kjæreste, osv.
- 2) Kan du beskrive hvilke verdier (holdninger) du har som utøver med tanke på å utvikle ditt eget idrettslige potensial?
 - a. I hvilken grad er disse verdiene til stede i din trener-utøver relasjon?
- 3) Kan du beskrive samspillet ditt med din trener på treningsfeltet?
 - a. Unge utøvere har ulike forventninger og holdninger til sine trenere. Hvordan ser dette ut for deg med tanke på din trener?
 - b. . Samspill: Må følges opp med tilleggsord/begreper (f.eks. samarbeid, komme overens, bry seg, sette seg inn i den andres sted).

Utvikling av felles mål:

- 4) Kan du beskrive hvilke overordnede mål du har som utøver?
 - a. . Langsiktige og kortsiktige mål.
- 5) Når du jobber med trener-utøver relasjon over tid, vil dere muligens kunne utvikle like eller ulike typer mål. Har du noen erfaringer med dette (hvordan er det i din situasjon)?
 - a. . Meg: Hvilke mål har du?
 - b. . Deg: Hvilke mål har treneren din?
 - c. . Oss - metaperspektiv: Har utøveren og treneren de samme målene? I hvilken grad samsvarer disse målene?

- 6) Kan du beskrive hvilke mål som er satt for deg (din treningsgruppe) den kommende sesongen?
- 7) Kan du beskrive hvilke krav (standard) du har til deg selv som utøver på treningsfeltet (hvilke krav som stilles av treneren)?
- a. Mental.
 - b. Fysisk.
 - c. Teknisk.
 - d. Taktisk.
 - e. Livsstil.

Proessen:

- 8) Hva er motivasjonen din for å holde på med [friidrett/terrensykling]? Hva motiverer deg for å gå på trening hver dag, uke og måned?
- 9) Har du påvirkning på planleggingen og gjennomføringen av de ulike treningsøktene (økt, ukentlig, månedlig og sesong)? I så fall hva slags type påvirkning?
- a. Individuelt og lag.
 - b. Sett i lys av mentalt, fysisk, teknisk, taktisk og livsstil perspektiver.
- 10) Kan du beskrive hvordan dere (trener-utøver) jobber sammen i treningsproessen? Hvordan sørger du for at samspillet mellom deg og treneren din blir best mulig?
- 11) Kommunikasjon er noe som er sentralt i trener-utøver relasjonen (forholdet dere imellom). Hvordan gjør du deg forstått til treneren din?
- a. Hvordan kommuniserer du med din trener?
- 12) Hvordan ser samspillet og kommunikasjonen ut mellom deg og din trener (utøvergruppen og din trener) på en vanlig dag på treningsfeltet?

Intervjuguide – T2 (trener perspektivet)

Del 1 - Psykologisk velvære

1. Hvordan har du hatt det siden sist gang vi møttes?
 - a. **Hvis nei ...**

Hva er det som ikke er bra?

Vil du si noe om det som ikke er bra?
 - b. **Hvis ja ...**

Hva er det som er bra?

Vil du si noe om det som er bra?
2. Er du fornøyd med hverdagen slik den er nå (som trener, som privatperson)?
 - a. Hvis ja, hva er du særlig fornøyd med?
 - b. Hvis nei, hva skulle du ønske var annerledes?
3. Har du tro på at du kan håndtere de utfordringene som venter deg de neste 2-3 ukene (både i og utenfor idretten)?
 - a. Hvis nei, kan du nevne noen årsaker som hindrer deg i dette?
 - b. Hvis ja, hvilke kloke grep vil du bruke (benytte deg av)?
4. Har du noen, som bryr seg om hvordan du har det og som du kan snakke med når du opplever utfordringer som er vanskelig å håndtere - enten disse er på eller utenfor idrettsbanen? Har dette endret seg siden sist gang vi møttes?

Del 2 - Generell interpersonell tillit

5. Hvordan ser et trygt trenings- og konkurransemiljø ut for deg som trener?
 - a. Hvilke konsekvenser har et trygt trenings- og konkurransemiljø for deg som trener?
6. Hva legger du i begrepet "å stole på andre personer"?

- a. Hva legger du i begrepet “å ha tillit til andre personer”?
 - b. Kan du gi eksempler på “stole på/tillit” i ditt eget liv?
 - i. Er dette noe du tenker har endret seg i løpet av de siste årene?
 - c. **Oppsummering:** Kan du gi meg en kort oppsummering av det du har sagt til nå?
 - i. Har jeg forstått deg riktig hvis ...?
7. Nå vil det bli presentert en rekke påstander for deg. Du skal svare ja og nei, og du skal bare si det som faller deg inn med minst mulig betenkningstid. Er du klar? Bra.
- a. Folk er alltid til å stole på. **JA/NEI**
 - b. Du er alltid til å stole på. **JA/NEI**
 - c. Du er mer til å stole på nå enn da du var yngre. **JA/NEI**
 - d. Du har lettere for å stole på andre personer nå enn da du var yngre. **JA/NEI**
 - e. De valgene som du har tatt den siste måneden viser at du er til å stole på. **JA/NEI**
 - f. Du er alltid til å stole på i dine nærmeste relasjoner. **JA/NEI**
 - g. Du stoler mer på noen personer enn på andre. **JA/NEI**
 - h. Det varierer hvor mye forskjellige personer stoler på deg. **JA/NEI**
 - i. **Avhengig av svar på ALLTID-spørsmålene:** Hva legger du i disse svarene?
 - i. Satte disse spørsmålene i gang noen tankeprosesser hos deg? Hva tenker du etter disse spørsmålene?
 - j. **Påstanden: Du stoler mer på noen personer enn på andre.** Kan du utdype dine synspunkter rundt denne påstanden?

Del 3 - Interpersonell tillit mellom trener og utøver

8. **Påstander: Tillit mellom trener-utøver.** Du skal svare ja og nei, og du skal bare si det som faller deg inn med minst mulig betenkningstid. Ok?

Er du klar? Bra.

a. Oppriktig godvilje fra treneren:

- i. Du tar hensyn til dine egne utøvers interesser, ønsker og behov.
JA/NEI
- ii. Utøverne dine er mer til å stole på nå enn da du begynte å trene dem.
JA/NEI
- iii. Utøverne dine kunne tenke seg å ha deg som trener i mange år fremover. **JA/NEI**
- iv. Du ser frem til å treffe dine utøvere på trening **JA/NEI**
- v. Du er interessert i livene til dine utøvere. **JA/NEI**
- vi. Du kunne tenke deg å ha dine nåværende utøvere i mange år fremover.
JA/NEI
- vii. Utøverne dine ser frem til å treffe deg på trening. **JA/NEI**

- b. Satte disse påstandene i gang noen tankeprosesser hos deg?

- i. Hva tenker du etter disse påstandene?

Del 4 - Maktforholdet mellom trener og utøver

9. Kan du beskrive hvordan du forstår ordet "makt" i henhold til trener-utøver relasjonen?

- a. Kan du gi eksempler på makt fra dine egne trener-utøver relasjoner?

X: Kan du gi et positivt eksempel på makt?

X: Kan du gi et negativt eksempel på makt?

- b. Hva er dine tanker rundt det du sa og gjorde i de nevnte eksemplene?
- c. Basert på dine tidligere ord og handlinger, tenker du at utøverne dine stoler på deg/har tillit til deg i treningshverdagen? Kom gjerne med eksempler.

Del 5 - Treningsprosessen

- 10. Kan du beskrive hvordan dere (trener-utøver) har jobbet sammen i treningsprosessen siden sist gang vi møttes?
 - a. Hvordan har du sørget for at samspillet mellom deg og utøverne dine har vært best mulig?
- 11. Hva er grunnen til at du har planlagt og gjennomført de ulike treningsøktene på den måten som du har gjort siden sist gang vi møttes?
- 12. Hvordan har kommunikasjonen mellom deg og dine utøvere vært på treningsfeltet siden sist gang vi møttes?

Intervjuguide – T2 (utøver perspektivet)

Del 1 - Psykologisk velvære

1. Hvordan har du hatt det siden sist gang vi møttes?
 - a. **Hvis nei ...**

Hva er det som ikke er bra?

Vil du si noe om det som ikke er bra?
 - b. **Hvis ja ...**

Hva er det som er bra?

Vil du si noe om det som er bra?
2. Er du fornøyd med hverdagen slik den er nå (som utøver, skoleelev og ung voksen)?
 - a. Hvis ja, hva er du særlig fornøyd med?
 - b. Hvis nei, hva skulle du ønske var annerledes?
3. Har du tro på at du kan håndtere de utfordringene som venter deg de neste 2-3 ukene (både i og utenfor idretten)?
 - a. Hvis nei, kan du nevne noen årsaker som hindrer deg i dette?
 - b. Hvis ja, hvilke kloke grep vil du bruke (benytte deg av)?
4. Har du noen, som bryr seg om hvordan du har det og som du kan snakke med når du opplever utfordringer som er vanskelig å håndtere - enten disse er på eller utenfor idrettsbanen? Har dette endret seg siden sist gang vi møttes?

Del 2 - Generell interpersonell tillit

5. Hvordan ser et trygt trenings- og konkurransemiljø ut for deg som utøver?
 - a. Hvilke konsekvenser har et trygt trenings- og konkurransemiljø for deg som utøver?
6. Hva legger du i begrepet "å stole på andre personer"?

- a. Hva legger du i begrepet “å ha tillit til andre personer”?
 - b. Kan du gi eksempler på “stole på/tillit” i ditt eget liv?
 - i. Er dette noe du tenker har endret seg i løpet av de siste årene?
 - c. **Oppsummering:** Kan du gi meg en kort oppsummering av det du har sagt til nå?
 - i. Har jeg forstått deg riktig hvis ...?
7. Nå vil det bli presentert en rekke påstander for deg. Du skal svare ja og nei, og du skal bare si det som faller deg inn med minst mulig betenkningstid. Er du klar? Bra.
- a. Folk er alltid til å stole på. **JA/NEI**
 - b. Du er alltid til å stole på. **JA/NEI**
 - c. Du er mer til å stole på nå enn da du var yngre. **JA/NEI**
 - d. Du har lettere for å stole på andre personer nå enn da du var yngre. **JA/NEI**
 - e. De valgene som du har tatt den siste måneden viser at du er til å stole på. **JA/NEI**
 - f. Du er alltid til å stole på i dine nærmeste relasjoner. **JA/NEI**
 - g. Du stoler mer på noen personer enn på andre. **JA/NEI**
 - h. Det varierer hvor mye forskjellige personer stoler på deg. **JA/NEI**
 - i. **Avhengig av svar på ALLTID-spørsmålene:** Hva legger du i disse svarene?
 - i. Satte disse spørsmålene i gang noen tankeprosesser hos deg? Hva tenker du etter disse spørsmålene?
 - j. **Påstanden: Du stoler mer på noen personer enn på andre.** Kan du utdype dine synspunkter rundt denne påstanden?

Del 3 - Interpersonell tillit mellom trener og utøver

8. **Påstander: Tillit mellom trener-utøver.** Du skal svare ja og nei, og du skal bare si det som faller deg inn med minst mulig betenkningstid. Ok?

Er du klar? Bra.

a. Oppriktig godvilje fra treneren:

- i. Treneren din tar hensyn til dine interesser, ønsker og behov. **JA/NEI**
- ii. Treneren din er mer til å stole på nå enn da han/hun begynte å trene deg. **JA/NEI**
- iii. Treneren din kunne tenke seg å ha deg som utøver i mange år fremover. **JA/NEI**
- iv. Du ser frem til å treffe treneren din på trening. **JA/NEI**
- v. Treneren din er interessert i livet ditt. **JA/NEI**
- vi. Du kunne tenke deg å ha din nåværende trener i mange år fremover. **JA/NEI**
- vii. Treneren din ser frem til å treffe deg på trening. **JA/NEI**

- b. Satte disse påstandene i gang noen tankeprosesser hos deg?

- i. Hva tenker du etter disse påstandene?

Del 4 - Maktforholdet mellom trener og utøver

9. Kan du beskrive hvordan du forstår ordet "makt" i henhold til trener-utøver relasjonen?

- a. Kan du gi eksempler på makt fra din egen trener-utøver relasjon?

X: Kan du gi et positivt eksempel på makt?

X: Kan du gi et negativt eksempel på makt?

- b. Hva er dine tanker rundt det din trener sa og gjorde i de nevnte eksemplene?
- c. Basert på din treners tidligere ord og handlinger, tenker du at treneren din stoler på deg/har tillit til deg i treningshverdagen? Kom gjerne med eksempler.

Del 5 - Treningsprosessen

- 10. Kan du beskrive hvordan dere (trener-utøver) har jobbet sammen i treningsprosessen siden sist gang vi møttes?
 - a. Hvordan har du sørget for at samspillet mellom deg og treneren din har vært best mulig?
- 11. Har du hatt påvirkning på planlegging og gjennomføring av de ulike treningsøktene siden sist gang vi møttes? Hvilken type påvirkning?
- 12. Hvordan har kommunikasjonen mellom deg og din trener vært på treningsfeltet siden sist gang vi møttes?

Intervjuguide – T3 (utøverperspektivet)

Del 1 - Psykologisk velvære

1) Hvordan har du hatt det siden sist gang vi møttes?

a. Hvis nei ...

Hva er det som ikke er bra?

Vil du si noe om det som ikke er bra?

b. Hvis ja ...

Hva er det som er bra?

Vil du si noe om det som er bra?

2) Er du fornøyd med hverdagen slik den er nå (som utøver, skoleelev og ung voksen)?

a. Hvis ja, hva er du særlig fornøyd med?

b. Hvis nei, hva skulle du ønske var annerledes?

3) Har du tro på at du kan håndtere de utfordringene som venter deg de neste 2-3 ukene

(både på og utenfor idrettsbanen)?

a. Hvis nei, kan du nevne noen årsaker som hindrer deg i dette?

b. Hvis ja, hvilke kloke grep vil du bruke (benytte deg av)?

4) Har du noen, som bryr seg om hvordan du har det, og som du kan snakke med når du

opplever utfordringer som er vanskelig å håndtere - enten disse er på eller utenfor

idrettsbanen?

a. Har dette endret seg siden sist gang vi møttes?

Del 2: Utøverens fortid og inner states

5) Hvilke opplevelser har vært med på å forme deg mest som person?

6) Hvilke opplevelser har vært med på å forme deg mest som utøver?

7) Kan du fortelle meg om tidligere trenere (ikke si noe om navn eller når du hadde vedkommende som trener!) du har hatt som har gjort inntrykk på deg?

a. Hva var det han/hun gjorde som gjorde inntrykk på deg?

X: (Se etter a1/b1 og/eller strain tests)

b. Hva slags erfaringer har du gjort deg etter disse trenerne?

c. Etter disse erfaringene med tidligere trenere, hvordan ser en trener ut med tanke på dine forventninger/perspektiver/ståsteder/erfaringer/tanker/holdninger?

d. Har disse erfaringene påvirket dine forventninger til nye trenere? På hvilken måte?

8) Har du erfart å ikke strekke til i relasjonen til de nevnte trenere?

a. Hva tenker du er grunnen til at de nevnte trenerne gjorde som de gjorde i de nevnte eksemplene?

Del 3: Promotion og prevention

9) Hvilke opplevelser har vært med på å forme dine tanker om det å lykkes/mislykkes i idrett?

10) Se på arket: (Glad, lykkelig, lettet, avslappet, trist, skuffet, nervøs og stresset)

a. Gi eksempler på når du opplever disse følelsene i trenings – og konkurransesituasjonen?

b. Gi eksempler på alle følelsene.

10.1) Hvilke følelser har vært mest fremtredende for deg, som utøver, siden første intervjurunde?

- a. Kan du rangere følelsene etter hvor ofte du har erfart dem siden den første intervjurunden? Vennligst ranger hver følelse fra 1-8.
- b. Hvor ofte føler du de respektive følelsene i løpet av en måned: Aldri, sjeldent, noen ganger, ofte, alltid
- c. Hva er dine tanker rundt dine egne rangeringer?

Del 4: Unit og sentiment

- Nå skal vi forsøke å knytte disse følelsene opp mot trener-utøver relasjonen

11) Hvordan opplever og/eller erfarer du å vise disse følelsene overfor treneren din i trenings- og konkurransesituasjonen?

- a. Er det forskjell på de positive følelsene og de negative følelsene?
- b. Hvilken rolle har treneren i erfaringen og/eller opplevelsen av disse følelsene?
- c. Har treneren hatt noe å si med tanke på hvilke følelser som har oppstått siden den første intervjurunden?

11.1) Hvordan erfarer du at treneren imøtekommer og responderer på de ulike følelsene du har opplevd og uttrykt i trenings- og konkurransesituasjonen?

11.2) Når treneren kommer på treningsfeltet, hvilke av de nevnte følelsene blir mest dominerende for deg?

12) Hvis du skulle ha blitt trener i fremtiden, ville din nåværende trener vært et forbilde for deg?

- a. Hvis nei, hva ville du gjort annerledes?
- b. Hvis ja, hva er det med han/hun som er grunnen til det? Verdier, holdninger?

Del 5: Treningsprosessen

13) Hvordan har samhandlingen vært mellom deg og din trener siden sist gang vi møttes?

Del 6: Sosial ønskerdighet

- Jeg har aldri mislikt noen intenst
- Jeg blir noen ganger irritert når jeg ikke får viljen min
- Jeg er alltid en god lytter, uansett hvem jeg snakker med
- Det har vært situasjoner hvor jeg har utnyttet andre
- Jeg er alltid villig til å innrømme det når jeg har gjort noe feil
- Av og til prøver jeg å ta igjen, istedenfor å tilgi og glemme
- Jeg har opplevd situasjoner hvor jeg har hatt lyst til å knuse noe i tusen biter
- Jeg har til tider vært ganske misunnelig og sjalu på andres hell og lykke
- Jeg har aldri følt at jeg har blitt straffet uten grunn
- Jeg har aldri med vilje sagt noe som har såret andres følelser

Magefølelse: Sant eller usant

Intervjuguide – T3 (trenerperspektivet)**Del 1 - Psykologisk velvære****1) Hvordan har du hatt det siden sist gang vi møttes?**

a. Hvis nei ...

Hva er det som ikke er bra?

Vil du si noe om det som ikke er bra?

b. Hvis ja ...

Hva er det som er bra?

Vil du si noe om det som er bra?

2) Er du fornøyd med hverdagen slik den er nå?

a. Hvis ja, hva er du særlig fornøyd med?

b. Hvis nei, hva skulle du ønske var annerledes?

3) Har du tro på at du kan håndtere de utfordringene som venter deg de neste 2-3 ukene (både på og utenfor idrettsbanen)?

a. Hvis nei, kan du nevne noen årsaker som hindrer deg i dette?

b. Hvis ja, hvilke kloke grep vil du bruke (benytte deg av)?

4) Har du noen, som bryr seg om hvordan du har det, og som du kan snakke med når du opplever utfordringer som er vanskelig å håndtere - enten disse er på eller utenfor idrettsbanen?

a. Har dette endret seg siden sist gang vi møttes?

Del 2: Trenerens fortid og inner states

5) Hvilke opplevelser har vært med på å forme deg mest som person?

6) Hvilke opplevelser har vært med på å forme deg mest som trener?

7) Kan du fortelle meg om tidligere trenere (ikke si noe om navn eller når du hadde vedkommende som trener!) du har hatt som har gjort inntrykk på deg?

- a. Hva var det han/hun gjorde som gjorde inntrykk på deg?
- b. Hva slags erfaringer har du gjort deg etter disse trenerne?
- c. Basert på summen av dine egne erfaringer med tidligere trenere, hvordan har dette farget dine forventninger til trenerrollen?
- d. Hvordan har disse erfaringene påvirket dine tanker om hvem du vil være som trener?

8) Har du erfart å ikke strekke til i relasjonen til de nevnte trenerne?

- a. Hva tenker du er grunnen til at de nevnte trenerne gjorde som de gjorde i de nevnte eksemplene?

Del 3: Promotion og prevention

9) Hvilke opplevelser har vært med på å forme dine tanker om det å lykkes/mislykkes i idrett?

10) Se på arket: (Glad, lykkelig, lettet, avslappet, trist, skuffet, nervøs og stresset)

- a. Gi eksempler på når du opplever disse følelsene, som trener, i trenings- og konkurransesituasjonen?
 - x. Gi eksempler på alle følelsene
- b. Gi eksempler på når du opplever disse følelsene i de ulike relasjonene til hver enkelt utøver?
 - x. Gi eksempler på alle følelsene

10.1) Hvilke følelser har vært mest fremtredende for deg som trener siden første intervjurunde?

a. Kan du rangere følelsene etter hvor ofte du har erfart dem siden den første intervjurunden? Vennligst ranger hver følelse fra 1-8

X: 8 er høyest og 1 er lavest

b. Hvor ofte har du følt de respektive følelsene siden den første intervjurunden?

X: Aldri, sjeldent, noen ganger, ofte, alltid

c. Hva er dine tanker rundt dine egne rangeringer?

Del 4: Unit og sentiment

- Nå skal vi forsøke å knytte disse følelsene opp mot trener-utøver relasjonen

11) Hvordan opplever og/eller erfarer du å vise disse følelsene overfor hver enkelt utøver i trenings- og konkurransesituasjonen?

a. Er det forskjell på de positive følelsene og de negative følelsene?

b. Hvilken rolle har hver enkelt utøver i erfaringen og/eller opplevelsen av disse følelsene?

c. Har hver enkelt utøver hatt noe å si med tanke på hvilke følelser som har oppstått siden den første intervjurunden?

11.1) Hvordan erfarer du at utøverne imøtekommer og responderer på de ulike følelsene du har opplevd og uttrykt i trenings- og konkurransesituasjonen?

11.2) Når utøverne kommer på treningsfeltet, hvilke av de nevnte følelsene blir mest dominerende for deg som trener?

12) Hvis du velger å fortsette som trener i fremtiden, hva har dine nåværende utøvere lært deg som person og trener?

Del 5: Treningsprosessen

13) Hvordan har samhandlingen vært mellom deg og hver enkelt utøver siden sist gang vi møttes?

Del 6: Sosial ønskverdighet

- Jeg har aldri mislikt noen intenst
- Jeg blir noen ganger irritert når jeg ikke får viljen min
- Jeg er alltid en god lytter, uansett hvem jeg snakker med
- Det har vært situasjoner hvor jeg har utnyttet andre
- Jeg er alltid villig til å innrømme det når jeg har gjort noe feil
- Av og til prøver jeg å ta igjen, istedenfor å tilgi og glemme
- Jeg har opplevd situasjoner hvor jeg har hatt lyst til å knuse noe i tusen biter
- Jeg har til tider vært ganske misunnelig og sjalu på andres hell og lykke
- Jeg har aldri følt at jeg har blitt straffet uten grunn
- Jeg har aldri med vilje sagt noe som har såret andres følelser

Magefølelse: Sant eller usant