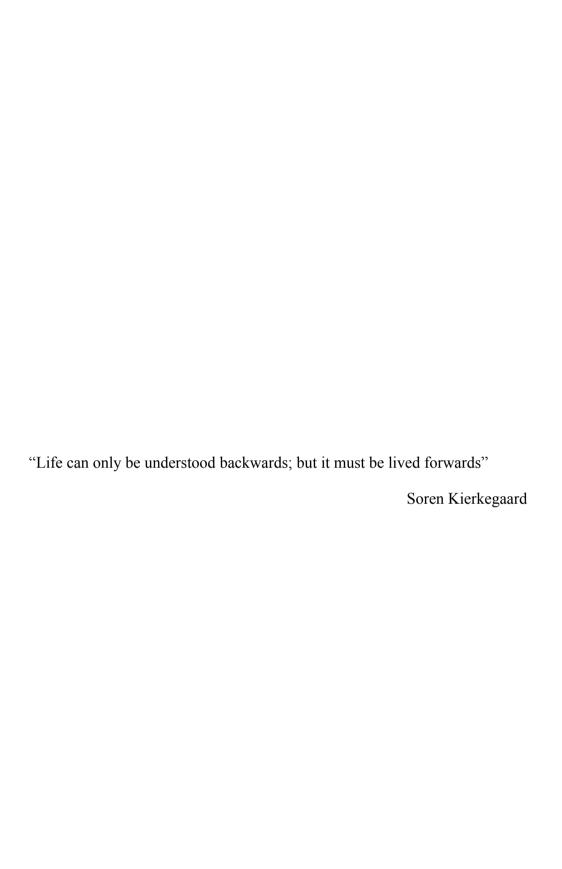Daniel Rydland Bjåen

An Examination of Reciprocal among Coach and Players in Female Elite Junior Soccer

A Shared Reality Theory Perspective

"Life can only be understood backwards; but it must be lived forwards"

Soren Kierkegaard

1.   Sammendrag

Denne masteroppgaven er basert på Shared Reality Theory (Echterhoff, Higgins & Levine, 2009; Higgins, 2919), og hvordan teorien kan utvide forståelsen av gjensidigheten mellom trener og kvinnelige junior elite fotballspillere. Tidligere forskning innen ungdomsidrett har fokusert på utøverens, og i liten grad trenerens, psykososiale utfallsvariabler (Smoll & Smith, 2020; Stebbings, Taylor, & Spray, 2011, 2016). Derimot, hvordan både trener og utøver opplever hverandre i relasjonen, er imidlertid mindre undersøkt av tidligere studier (Jowett, 2017; Gjesdal, Stenling, Solstad & Ommundsen, 2018).

Hensikten med denne studien var å undersøke gjensidigheten i relasjonen mellom trener og spiller. Denne avhandlingen belyser trenerens og spillerens opplevelser og oppfatninger av sitt samarbeid og hvordan det bidrar til prestasjonsutvikling over tid.

Det ble gjennomført individuelle semistrukturerte intervjuer med 5 deltakere (4 kvinnelige junior elite fotballspillere (M_{alder} = 16.5) og 1 trener). Disse deltakerne ble rekurttert fra en fotballklubb i sør-Norge. Totalt sett var det tre datasamlinger, som var fordelt over en åtte måneders periode.

Funnene viste at kommunikasjonen i trener-spiller relasjonen er utfordrende, ettersom individuelle tilpasninger må tas hensyn til. For det første er tidligere erfaringer relatert til hvilke *indre tilstander* (e.g., tanker, følelser og holdninger; Echterhoff, Higgins & Levine, 2009) trenere og spillere utvikler i senere alder. De indre tilstandene relaters til hvordan trenere og spillere jobber mot sine respektive prestasjonsmål. For det andre, dersom trener og spiller jobber mot prestasjonsmålene sine på forskjellige måter, er det viktig å dele sine indre tilstander om hvordan de selv ønsker å jobbe mot disse målene. For det tredje, å være tilstrekkelig motivert for å dele sine indre tilstander, er graden av tillit i trener-spiller relasjonen helt avgjørende (Simpson, 2007).

Resultatene fra denne masteroppgaven underbygger verdien av videre forskning på relasjonen mellom trener og spiller, samt deres gjensidige opplevelse av hverandre. Økt forståelse for hva gjensidigheten i trener-spiller relasjonen inneholder, vil muligens kunne bidra til økt personlig utvikling blant trenere og unge spillere over tid.

2.   Abstract

The present master thesis is based on Shared Reality Theory (Echterhoff, Higgins & Levine, 2009; Higgins, 2919), and how the theory can expand our understanding of the reciprocity in the coach-player relationship. Previous research has been centered around the athlete's, and somewhat the coach's, psychosocial outcomes with respect to sports participation (Smoll & Smith, 2020; Stebbings, Taylor, & Spray, 2011, 2016). However, the reciprocal relation between coach and athlete has been less studied in past research (Jowett, 2017; Gjesdal et al., 2018).

The purpose of this study was to investigate the reciprocity in the coach-player relationship. This master thesis highlights the coach's and players' experiences and perceptions of their sporting partnership and how it contributes to the degree of well-being and performance development.

Individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with 5 participants (e.g., 4 female elite junior soccer players (M_{age} = 16.5) and 1 soccer coach). The participants were recruited from a soccer club in the southern part of Norway. The thesis is based on three data collections, distributed over eight months.

The results indicated that communication in the coach-player relationship is challenging, as individual adaptations must be made by the coach. First, past experiences are related to which inner states (e.g., thoughts, feelings, and attitudes; Echterhoff, Higgins, & Levine, 2009) coaches and players possess, which, in turn, is related to how coaches and players work toward their respective performance goals. Second, if the coach and the player work toward their performance goals in a different manner, sharing their inner states about how they experience a potential misfit is important. Third, to be sufficiently motivated to share their inner states, the degree of trust in the coach-player relationship is crucial (Simpson, 2007).

This master thesis reinforces the value of researching the sporting partnership between coach and player, and their reciprocal experience of each other. It is reasonable to assume that researchers need to increase their understanding of what the reciprocity of the coach-player relationship involves which, in turn, may promote performance development over time.

3.   Table of Content

4.   Acknowledgements

"If you want to go fast, go alone. If you want to go a long way, go together".

This African saying reflects the whole process I have been a part of the last 18 months. First and foremost, I would like to thank my exceptional supervisor Bård Erlend Solstad. Throughout my academic journey, during these five years, no one has meant more to my intellectual growth and learning than you. However, it is not primarily your professional approach that I have appreciated most, but your human qualities as a person. Thank you for great leadership, high (!) degree of involvement and support in the master project, and buns and coffee in the colloquium meetings. I will be forever grateful. Second, I want to thank my two co-supervisors, Henrik Gustafsson and Camilla Knight, for guidance and support. Thirdly, I want to give a huge thanks to Nicolas Lemyre for supporting the idea of a project of multiple master students and the opportunity attending to SCAPPS, a sport conference in Canada.

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Oslo, June 2020; Daniel Rydland Bjåen

5. Introduction

The content of reciprocity has been investigated within the field of social psychology (Buunk & Schaufeli, 1999; Serva, Fuller, & Mayer, 2005). Research assume reciprocity is the cornerstone in healthy and sustainable relationships among humans and is related to altruistic actions (Buunk & Schaufeli, 1999) and risk taking (Serva et al., 2005). In sport psychology, however, research has paid little attention to the content of reciprocity in an asymmetric partnership, involving coach and player (Jowett, 2017).

Shared Reality Theory (SRT; see Higgins, 2019) may provide opportunities to enhance the understanding of reciprocity in the coach-player relationship, helping maximize effective choices toward optimal talent development and performance (Bergeron et al., 2015). Talent development environments (TDEs) are complex, with several daily choices, and are related to the coach's and player's psychological well-being, epistemic understanding, and relational affiliation (Echterhoff, Higgins & Levine, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Thus, SRT may contribute in creating an understanding of how to establish effective communication between people within a context; hence, a partnership involving the coach and his/her soccer players (Higgins, 2019). Although there may be positive outcomes creating a shared reality in the coach-player relationship it is necessary to be aware of possible aspects that may prevent an establishment of a shared reality (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Korsgaard, Brower, & Lester, 2015; Simpson, 2007). If a shared reality is not experienced to be established, then practical implications may be of importance for the quality of the partnership among the coach and athletes.

5.1 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study was to explore (a) how a shared reality is established, or fails to be established, over the course of the sporting partnership between the coach and his/her athletes; and (b) how experiencing a shared reality (or not) in the coach-athlete relationship is related to the experienced quality of the relationship the coach and his/her athletes develop and maintain over the course of an 8-month period.

6. Sport Psychology

6.1 Contextual Review in Sport

The context of talent development and performance is crucial for today's talents in sports (Bergeron et al., 2015; Harwood, Keegan, Smith & Raine, 2015). Yet, it can be incredibly challenging where the demands of their different kinds of environment, and relationships, may prevent athletic development (Baker, Schorer & Wattie, 2018; Bergeron et al., 2015; Cushion, 2018).

6.1.1 Youth Sport, Development and Performance

Effective coaching behavior is needed to optimize the climate of development and performance in youth sport (Bergeron et al., 2015; Jowett, 2017; Langan, Blake, & Lonsdale, 2013). Previous research has used a considerable amount of resources viewing how different coach development programs can support the effectiveness of coaching behavior. For instance, relational coaching behavior promotes long term outcomes, such as increased autonomous motivation and prevent negative outcomes, such as anxiety, burnout, and reduced the risk of injuries (Allan, Vierimaa, Gainforth et al., 2018; Evans, McGuckin, Gainforth, et al, 2015; Moesch et al., 2018).

Within athlete development in recent years, high performance contexts, such as elite academies, have almost become a synonym for successful athletes (Baker et al., 2018). Hence, TDEs promotes principles, such as patience and long-term development, but the propensity may be that the focus of results is more related to the context than what people choose admitting (Baker et al., 2018). Therefore, performance criteria may be applied within a human development perspective, resulting in a collision between the coaches unyielding and short-term impatience with what is most optimal for the athletes (Baker et al., 2018; Balish, McLaren, Rainham et al., 2014). To some extent, elite academies may stress the athletes' development where development has become the new performance (Baker et al., 2018). However, Collins et al. (2019) highlight the importance of letting the athletes be exposed to different experiences that helps the athlete getting a 'toolbox' for life, where they view their athletic career, not just as athletes but as whole human beings.

6.1.2 Female Elite Athletes

In research, men and physical profiles are overrepresented within sport where female athletes need more research (Harwood et al., 2015; Johnston et al., 2018), for practical reasons (Kristiansen, Tomten, Hanstad, & Roberts, 2012; Mountjoy et al., 2014). Firstly, considering the physiology of female athletes, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) used the acronym *Female Athlete Triad* to identify challenges that female athletes are going through in their development (Hagglund, Atroshi, Wagner, & Waldén, 2013; Hagglund & Waldén, 2016; Joy & Nattiv, 2017; Mountjoy et al., 2014). Secondly, women have another way of communicating, where female athletes have a greater need for positive communication and confirmation (Kristiansen et al., 2012; Norman, 2015). Furthermore, there is a greater need to examine elite settings since only five studies have investigated the elite level, and assumable less at the junior elite level (Harwood et al., 2015; Johnston et al., 2018).

6.1.3 Mental Health

According to the athletes, the performance development context may be experienced as stressful (Moesch et al., 2018). Young talents, with little life experience (John, Gropper, & Thiel, 2019), are placed in demanding contexts with high expectations to perform (Moesch et al, 2018; Schinke et al., 2018). In soccer, literature present psychosocial factors, as self-regulation, resilience, commitment, and discipline were significant in relation to players' development where the coach played a crucial role (Gledhill, Harwood, & Forsdyke, 2017; Keegan, Harwood, Spray, & Lavallee, 2014). Furthermore, through healthy relationships, involving both coaches and athletes, may promote beneficial outcomes (Collins et al., 2019; Balish, McLaren, Reinham, & Blanchard, 2014; Jowett, 2017; Schinke et al., 2018). Thus, for athletes to have sustainable careers, in which development takes place, healthy relationships are necessary (Bergeron et al., 2015; Gledhill et al., 2017). In sport contexts, however, the most decisive relationship must be the coach-athlete relationship (Jowett, 2017).

6.2 The Coach-Athlete Relationship

Within the coach-athlete relationship, there has been a turn from just focusing on the athletes' perception (Chelladurai, 2007; Horn, 2008; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Smoll & Smith, 1989, 2020) via the coachs´ perception (Stebbings, Taylor, & Spray, 2011), to

the coach – athlete relationship perception (Jowett, 2017; Stebbings, Taylor, & Spray, 2016).

6.2.1 Athlete Perception

Previous research has emphasized leadership behaviors as an essential factor towards effective coaching and developing athletes in the coach-athlete relationship (Chelladurai, 2007; Smoll & Smith, 1989). Overall, in the field of sport psychology and motivation, effective coaching behavior has mostly been viewed through the lens of athlete outcomes (Chelladurai, 2007; Horn, 2008; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Smoll & Smith, 1989, 2020), with the exception of some studies (Jowett, 2006; Jowett & Clark-Carter, 2006).

Additionally, an innovative voice of their time, Smith and Smoll (2008) and Smoll and Smith (1989, 2020) developed various coaching behavior programs aimed at increasing awareness and knowledge of the coach's practices related to their athletes. However, they ended up only examining the athlete's experiences, and assumed an effect in the coaches' interaction with their athletes without exploring the coach's experience (Smoll & Smith, 2020). Furthermore, it appears that later research began to notice coaches' perceptions and outcomes (Stebbings, Taylor & Spray, 2011).

6.2.2 Coach Perception

A study by Stebbings et al. (2011) viewed SDT (Self-Determination Theory; Ryan & Deci, 2017) in light of the coach's experience in coaching. The following year, the first study on interpersonal behavior from the coach's perspective was published (Stebbings, Taylor, Spray & Ntoumnais., 2012). The context and relationships the coaches were a part of could determine the coach's psychological health and interpersonal behavior (Stebbings et al., 2012), and may motivate coaches to display autonomous-supportive behavior toward their athletes (Rocchi, Pelletier & Couture, 2013). As the need of research grew, Stebbings, Taylor, & Spray (2016) was the first study to address the coach interpersonal behavior towards athlete, and vice versa, in the dyad. Solstad, van Hoye and Ommundsen (2015) tested a new model, grounded in SDT, of potential antecedents of soccer coache´s elf-report measures of total need satisfaction (TNS), where autonomous-supportive coaching (ASC) was of importance. However, the focus

was on the coaches' satisfaction in the partnership (Solstad et al., 2015; Stebbings et al., 2016).

6.2.3 The Coach-Athletes' Relationships Perception

The partnership, involving the coach and the athlete, is a unit that consists of two people; the coach and the athlete (Jowett, 2017; Jowett & Clark-Carter, 2006; Jowett & Meek, 2000). According to the partnership, how coaches reflect and perceive themselves are important (Cushion, 2018; Gjesdal et al., 2018; Rocchi & Pelletier, 2017). Concious coaches who are reflective of their own pratice would benefit the coach him/herself and the athletes (Cushion, 2018). A study, within the perspective of SDT, conducted how the coach perceives his own behavior in accordance with the athlete's opinion (Rocchi & Pelletier, 2017). How the coach perceives him/herself and the athlete perceive their coach was essential to the athlete's needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, where athletes' perceptions of the coach are possibly more important than the coach's actual behavior (Rocchi & Pelletier, 2017).

Additionally, a study in youth soccer, the coaches perceived themselves to establish a mastery-oriented environment, while their athletes perceived the environment as performance-oriented (Møllerløkken, Lorås & Pedersen, 2017). When coaches evaluate their own skills, research has indicated that people tend to over- and under-report themselves (Gjesdal et al., 2018; Rocchi & Pelletier, 2017). Therefore, in the process toward reflected coaches, the literature refers to *perceptual distance*; claiming mirroring each other within a context where coaches receive an external measure of their own behaviors (Gjesdal et al., 2018). Perceptual distance allows the coach to communicate more effectively (Gjesdal et al., 2018). In fact, Solstad et al. (2020) has devised a temporary validation tool to help raise awareness and quality-assurance of the coach's self-evaluation in the context of development and performance.

Indeed, if the coaches possess a meta-perspective on their coaching practices, as communication strategies (Gjesdal et al., 2018), it will be beneficial to the partnership with their athletes (Møllerløkken et al., 2017; Jowett, 2016; Schinke et al., 2018). Hence, the quality of communication strategies between coach and athlete may be related to the reciprocity in the partnership (Jowett, 2016). Over time, reciprocity in the

partnership may be a measurement of how the coach and athlete understand each other´s (Jowett, 2017; Rocchi & Pelletier, 2017).

Yet, in motivational sport psychology, longitudinal qualitative studies do not flourish (Clancy et al., 2016). Through 20 years, research in sports motivation has been dominated by quantitative and cross-sectional studies toward understanding the athlete's perception (Clancy et al., 2016; Keegan et al., 2014). Hence, only 12 longitudinal studies have been conducted where one of them was qualitative (for a review, see Clancy et al., 2016). Thus, longitudinal design is needed and may allow for a better understanding of how the coach-athlete relationship social interactions develops (David, Jowett & Tafvelin, 2019).

Overall, coaching is a social and relational process over time (Lyle, 2002), constantly altered by interpersonal thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Davis, Jowett & Tafvelin, 2019; Jowett, 2017). This thesis will present a possible perspective by delving into the essence of the reciprocity in coach-athlete relationship.

7.   Theoretical Framework

7.1   Shared Reality Theory

Echterhoff et al. (2009) describe Shared Reality as 'the product of the motivated process of experiencing a commonality of inner states about the world' (p. 498). In this section, I want to elaborate the range of Shared Reality Theory (SRT; Echterhoff et al., 2009).

People have a strong desire to experience truths with others that matters in the world (Cornwell, Franks, & Higginsm 2017; Higgins, 2019). Hence, knowing what is true is challenging as truth is possibly relatively connected to our subjective experiences with contextual limits (Dewey, 2015). Additionally, as the truth are placed within ourselves, it may be constructed outside ourselves in a co-constructed process with others (Cornwell et al., 2017). Thus, social verification may be a key (Higgins, 2019).

Social verification may change unimportant goals to be crucially important which, in turn, we consider our actions to be meaningful or meaningless by verifying the goal of the action itself (Cornwell et al., 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Meaningful actions toward the goal are important because we want to maximize right choices toward reaching the truth effectively (Cornwell et al., 2017). For this reason, SRT may be applicable in the coach-athlete interaction (Higgins, 2019; Jowett, 2017).

SRT deals with four conditions, which must be satisfied to experience a shared reality (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Firstly, shared reality must be a commonality between peoples' *inner states*, and not just external behavior, including experience something about other´s beliefs, feelings, opinions, and attitudes towards a target referent (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Moreover, an infant who points to a bird is motivated to check if the bird is relevant. If she succeeds to get the parent's attention, the infant may experience a shared relevance with her parents because what she was pointed at matter (Higgins, 2019). Eventually, what value and matters over time for the parents, will eventually matter for the child as they are growing up, and they share their parents' self-guides (Higgins, 2019). As such, experiencing others inner states is a process, making each other's inner state accessible, not just their external behaviors, so people may experience a common understanding about a target referent (Echterhoff et al., 2009).

Secondly, shared reality is about a *target referent* (Echterhoff et al., 2009). If inner states are not heading toward something, about any aspect of this world, it is not a shared reality. This is because shared reality refers to the different target references that have been experienced as significant, which are connected to the past, present, and future desires (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Within the process of learning, humans first rely on their significant others' self-guides (e.g., values and beliefs) and knowledge, which is related to, and direct, their own course of actions toward something (Higgins, 2019). As humans growing up, we discover that it is not about what we know, but what we do with the knowledge we have learned and acquired – a shared self-guide to navigate toward something (Higgins, 2019). For instance, children are learning which goals are relevant pursuing and which standards that are required (Higgins, 2019).

Thirdly, the commonality of inner states must be appropriately motivated where the product cannot be separated from the process (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019). Moreover, we want to experience understanding how to reach the goal. Therefore, the shared reality refers to two social motives, which drive the process toward the target referent: *the epistemic and relational motive*. The former motive deals with the human longings for valid and reliable understanding and knowledge of meaningful realities in the world (Echterhoff et al., 2009). For instance, if the goal is uncertain and ambiguous, then the epistemic motive is strengthened and being able to interpret experiences toward the goal more appropriate (Echterhoff et al., 2009). The latter motive represents humans' longs for belonging and feeling connected to others (Echterhoff et al., 2009), in which a sense of security, identity, and well-being want to be experienced (Cornwell et al., 2017; Moesch et al., 2018). These two motives are important forces that drive the social sharing.

The motivational process toward commonality of inner states is essential to whether the commonality is experienced as a shared reality (Echterhoff et al., 2009). For instance, if a newly hired soccer player appeared at the training field, each player on the team will judge him, either in a positively or a negatively manner. The team members can resolve the ambiguity, among all the subjective opinions, by creating a shared reality about the newly arrived player. Currently, this is only epistemically motivated, but when everyone at the team agree on a common understanding of the new player, consensus emerges that serves both the relational and epistemic motive because their social bond is

strengthened (Echterhoff et al., 2009). However, to establish a shared reality, only one of the motives is needed, but both will strengthen the degree of experiencing a shared reality (Higgins 2019). Thus, shared reality may be attractive where individuals want to experience more legitimate perspectives of the world with others (Echterhoff et al., 2009).

The last condition is whether individuals *experience a successful connection* with other´s inner states about something (Echterhoff et al., 2009). It is whether one or both parts perceive and experience the commonality to be true and meaningful (Cornwell et al., 2017). However, it is not obvious that there will be a successful connection in a partnership, involving two people, as both have different past experiences with different significant others. Thus, how to communicate with each other can create challenges.

7.1.1 Past Experience, and Promotion Ideal and Prevention Ought

Past experiences may be essential in the process of people´s constructions of inner states (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Dewey, 2015). How people experienced their significant others in the past, have shaped their inner states; hence, their self-guides and how they view the world (Higgins, 2019). Furthermore, inner states generate different types of self-guides (e.g., choices that guide toward a desired end state), which, in turn, is important for which outcomes are relevant or not (Higgins, 2019). Thus, the kind of inner states and self-guides people acquire lead to two psychological systems: *promotion ideals* or *prevention ought* (Higgins, 2019).

These two psychological systems may be related to how athletes experience success and failure, and even in the same situation, the coach and the player may have completely different reactions (Higgins, 2019). To explain, imagine a three-point scale from -1 via 0 to 1. The promotion ideal wants to *ideally* improve the current condition for a better one. Staying at the satisfactory state (zero) is failure because it is a nongain (e.g., not +1). For something to succeed, there must be a *gain* to a better state (+1). In contrast, a prevention view on success and failure is to do what is expected, or *ought* to do, no less and no more. Their greatest motivation is to maintain peace and order to prevent a worse state (-1). Hence, what would be experienced as failure will become an unsatisfied state, a loss (-1). If the current state (zero) is satisfied, people will experience it as being successful because people are not losing, a *nonloss* (zero; Higgins, 2019).

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For instance, two soccer players may work toward the same goal but have different perspectives on success and failure toward the goal (Higgins, 2019). Considering that the goal is to lose 5% fat to get a lighter body. In fact, the goal is exactly the same, but how promotion ideal and prevention ought are making strategic choices to achieve their future desired goals are different (Higgins, 2019). Firstly, the success of promotion ideal is steady progression in the hope of a desired future (gains). Failure would be to not progress and to remain at the current fat percentage (nongain). Thus, the promotion ideal player will eagerly seek out ways to eat healthy and exercise every day toward his/her desired end state (Higgins, 2019). Secondly, the success of people who are prevention ought should be to avoid situations that will prevent them from achieving their desired goals (nonlosses). Failure will be to avoid situations against their desired goal (unloaded). Thus, prevention ought should avoid vigilant situations with high-calorie foods and activities where they are not moving toward their desired end state (Higgins, 2019). By having different reactions, it will also generate different emotions (Higgins, 2019).

When people experience success, there are two different types of positive emotions; the presence of a positive (e.g., promotion ideal) or the absence of a negative (e.g., prevention ought; Higgins, 2019). Considering the former type, if a father receives a drawing from his son and gives the child a hug, and his son may feel *joy*. It gives a promotion ideal message that there is more to come in the world (Higgins, 2019). Conversely, if a mother and daughter are on tour, then a barking dog appeared and the daughter becomes scared, where her mother chasing the dog away, the daughter experiencing an absence of negative, and may feel *relieved* (Higgins, 2019). Mother and daughter create a shared reality where life stays fine only if they are careful. Hence, both emotions are positive, but it results in two different types of positive about the situation (Higgins, 2019).

However, people can experience failure as well, in which there is two types of negatives (Higgins, 2019). A promotion ideal will experience an absence of a positive, where daughter plays with the food and the mother no longer smiles and puts the food away, and the daughter feel *sad*. It represents a failure to make a progression. The mother and daughter create a shared reality that signals the possibility of gain and non-gain (Higgins, 2019). Conversely, a prevention ought example would be to feel the presence

of a negative, where the son takes the wrong foot in the wrong shoes and the father yells that the son must be aware, and the son feels *nervous*. Father and son create a shared reality where it is about losing and not losing in this world (Higgins, 2019). Even for the same goal, such as being a good friend or play at the highest level in soccer, the goal would be viewed differently if the goal is a prevention ought (e.g., play to not lose) or a promotion ideal (e.g., play to win). For this purpose, whether people´s goals are prevention ought or promotion ideal, it depend on their shared realities with significant others (Higgins, 2019). Overall, promotion is not a better psychological system than prevention, they just have a different *'how'* in pursuing their goals (Higgins, 2019).

7.1.2 Regulatory Fit or Misfit

How people choose to pursue their goals is either in an *eager* manner, which has a fit with predominant promotion ideal, versus a *vigilant* manner, which has a fit with predominant prevention ought (Higgins, 2019). For instance, young soccer players who get 20 minutes at the first team, a predominant promotion ideal eagerly wants to do more than expected in the hope of gaining more playing time, while a predominant prevention ought do not want to do more than expected, not to lose vigilance, and maintain control (Higgins, 2019). For this purpose, it is about pursuing our goals in a way that is consistent with our predominant orientation so the chance of "feeling right" increases to maximize our choices toward the goal (Higgins, 1997, 2019).

For instance, there was a study that investigated whether a right "fit" was important for pursuing a goal (Higgins, 1997, 2019). Participants were divided into groups where they would solve anagrams with the goal of ending up with enough points to win a mug of coffee. In one group, participants started with zero points and had to solve enough anagrams to get 100 points (eager attainment). The other group started with 100 points and had to solve enough anagrams to not lose points (vigilance maintenance). After both groups won the coffee mug (something they did), they were asked how much they were willing to pay for that mug if they found it in the store. The results of the study viewed that predominant promotion ideal who won the coffee mug in an eager attainment manner (fit) and predominant prevention ought who won the coffee mug in a vigilant maintenance manner (fit) reported to pay 90% more money to buy it in a store than predominant promotion ideal who won it in a vigilant maintenance manner (nonfit) and predominant prevention ought who won it in an eager attainment manner (nonfit;

Higgins, 2019). This illustrated that a regulatory "fit" occurs when the way we pursue our goal (e.g., eager vs. vigilant manner) correspond with one's motivational orientation toward the goal (e.g., predominant promotion vs. prevention; Higgins, 2019, p. 218). Hence, the strength of our promotion versus prevention motivation is determined by our experienced shared reality with others and is needed to maximize our choices toward the goal (Higgins, 2019).

The fit effect has its advantages. First, a regulatory fit intensifies the perceived value of a chosen goal, and enables people to make effective choices (Higgins, 1997, 2019). Second, a regulatory fit might contribute to create a relational unit faster, which indicate appreciating close relationships and create a "we-ness" (Higgins, 2019). For instance, by sharing your good news with others and receiving positive expressions that fits your positive feelings, make the news more real and meaningful (Higgins, 2019). However, a misfit occurs when your motivational orientation (e.g., predominant prevention) collide with your manner of goal pursuit (e.g., an eagerly manner). Consequently, the given person who is experiencing a misfit in the coach-athlete relationship must be *motivated enough* to communicate inner states to clarify the misfit (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019).

7.2 Miscommunication: A Misfit

The motivation to experience shared reality with others is regulated by the epistemic and relational motive, which are relevant for power-relations (Echterhoff et al., 2009). In a coach-athlete relationship, an asymmetric relationship of power exists in which the coach has epistemic power to define reality. However, if the coach is to succeed over time, it is not enough with expert power; referent power is needed as well (Higgins, 2019). Regardless, the athletes might acknowledge the coach's expert power (e.g., epistemic motive), but they do not necessarily view the coach as referent power and trustworthy (e.g., relational motive; Buunk & Schaufeli, 1999; Echterhoff, Lang, Krämer, & Higgins, 2009).

In sport, coaches may promote expert power to control the behavior of the athletes, which tend to be more externally controlled and identified, rather than intrinsically motivated and internalized toward development and performance (Higgins, 2019; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Without referent power, athletes may act out of fear of failing rather

than the hope of achieving (Bartholomew, Ntoumanis, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2009; Sagar, Busch, & Jowett, 2010).

In other words, the athletes may possess epistemic trust in the coach's communication but may experience relational insecurity in the relationship (Echterhoff et al., 2009). This elucidate the assumptions; if the epistemic and relational motives are functioning as appropriate motivators, there have to be something as a requirement for information sharing – and that something is called trust (Cornwell et al., 2017; Echterhoff et al., 2009; Korsgaard et al., 2015).

7.3   Trust – the Firm Foundation

Trust is the key component within SRT and it connects the relational motive of personally connecting and the epistemic motive with trusted others, to establish a truth about something (Cornwell et al., 2017; Echterhoff, Lang, Krämer & Higgins, 2009). Trust can therefore involve a reciprocal situational process with people's dispositions confirming the partner's intention in the relationship (Dunning, Fetchenhauer, & Schlösser, 2019; Simpson, 2007). For that reason, trust may be a temporary substitute in the hope of experiencing security (Simpson, 2007). Hence, the path toward security may be grounded within; socially learned expectations; strain test; and attributions (Simpson, 2007).

The various dispositions people are carrying may have its foundation in *socially learned expectations* (SLE) as a result of past experiences (Dewey, 1938/2015; Simpson, 2007). People have different expectations in different social contexts, influencing how and why we understand our experiences in present situations by storing relationship schemes, named working models (Barber, 1983; Simpson, 2007). For instance, children who experience trust at a young age may develop a degree of hope and assurance to experience. In contrast, children who experience a seed of mistrust may acquire maladaptive behaviors encountering the relational and social world in the future (Simpson, 2007; Krueger & Meyer-Lindenberg, 2019; Sroufe & Waters, 1977). Overall, past experiences are related to future expecations (Simpson, 2007).

As such, it is possible that as long as two parties agree and encounter their expectations of each other, trust can be perceived as high. However, what if some uncertainty arises

in the relationship? Then a *strain test* situation may be created or entered (Simpson, 2007). Strain testing will reveal one's partner's true level of trust (e.g., low, moderate, high level of trust) in devotion and commitment to one another. Individuals who have more secure and positive self-concepts are frequently capable to engage in these transformations to take an action; a leap of faith (Simpson, 2007).

To take an action, *attributions* are essential and refer to the intention, or motivation, behind an action (Simpson, 2007). These attributions mobilize different levels of trust where it varies from high, medium, and low trust (Simpson, 2007). Firstly, individuals with a high degree of trust in their partner have more optimistic expectations of the partner's motives and evaluate their partner more positively. Secondly, people who hold medium levels of trust is caught in a notion that all positive behavior from the partner indicate that things need to be improved in the relationship, and negative partner behavior is interpreted as the end of the relationship is a reality. As a result, positive actions may trigger concerns that lead the focus toward what can actually go wrong in the relationship, which is a derailment of the process they really long for; experiencing security (Korsgaard et al., 2015; Simpson, 2007). Lastly, individuals with low levels of trust have minimal belief that their partner has positive motives for them, and are unlikely to acknowledge their partner's positive actions, possibly in order not to feel rejected (Krueger et al., 2019; Simpson, 2007).

According to SRT and the development of trust, people who are promotion ideals may develop a slightly higher degree of trust in people, as they are more eager to gain, and possibly view people in a more positive manner (Higgins, 2019; Simpson, 2007). Conversely, individuals who are prevention ought, may be less able to develop a high degree of trust as they are more skeptical of the intentions individuals possess and want to be more vigilant about what should not be lost (Higgins, 2019; Simpson, 2007).

Therefore, trust is a situational process toward experiencing security in which each trust situation is unique (Korsgaard et al., 2015; Krueger et al., 2019; Simpson, 2007). When a high degree of trust and shared reality are experienced, the epistemic and relational motives contribute to a high degree of information sharing (Higgins, 2019; Korsgaard et al., 2015). When the communication between partners in a relationship is perceived as honest, there may be a high level of security, that may strengthen the experience of a successful shared reality (Higgins, 2019; Korsgaard et al., 2015; Simpson, 2007).

8.   Method

8.1   Paradigmatic Position

A research paradigm possesses 'a basic set of beliefs that guide our action' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). This Master's thesis has taken the paradigmatic position of an interpretivist research paradigm (Guba, 1990; Papathomas, 2016), including a ontological relativism, epistemological social constructionism, and a narrative methodology (Casey et al., 2018; Papathomas, 2016).

Ontological relativism asserts that reality outside of the physical world is subjective interpreted (Guba, 1990; Papathomas, 2016; Sparkes & Smith, 2009). Hence, Dewey's (2015) pragmatic ontology indicates that reality resides within the individual's experiences. Therefore, it may be essential to refer to the narrative term *ontological commitment* (Casey et al., 2018). Through the ontological commitment, experience is continuous and interactive where there are temporal and relational nature of experience where the individual within a context and the context itself, together shape peoples' experiences. Thus, our experiences may be the very foundation of our understandings. Considering my interaction with the participants, the ontological position makes it possible to understand the participants to a greater extent.

Epistemological social constructionism proposes that knowledge is constructed through cultural auspices and relational interactions over time (Papathomas, 2016). Thus, in our study, we assessed participants' knowledge as a constructed result of interacting with people in particular environments and cultures over time (Papathomas, 2016; Smith, 1984; Smith & McGannon, 2018).

Lastly, this research has a narrative methodologically approach. Narrative researchers are interested in individuals' subjective experiences to co-constructive realities in the world they see and live within (Papathomas, 2016). As so, by a narrative approach, I might be able to understand experiences through stories (Casey et al., 2018).

8.2 Methodology

8.2.1 Narrative Inquiry

The terminology "narrative" has no clear-cut definition and refers to several different meanings, but often seen as a synonym with *a story* (Radley & Chamberlain, 2001; Riesseman, 2008; Smith, 2016). As a narrative research, stories are important to assess peoples' identity and self, thereby making sense of people's lived experiences (Dewey, 2015; Smith & Sparkes, 2009). For that reason, there may be a need for more narrative research within sport psychology (Carless & Douglas, 2013; Papathomas, 2016; Smith & Sparkes, 2009, 2009a; Smith, 2016).

A narrative is considered a set of stories which, in turn, experiences can be understood which contain a *point* and *characters,* surrounding by a *plot* with different *events,* an episode*,* that happens sequentially over *time* and in a certain *space,* toward gaining meaningful understanding (Clanadin & Connolly, 2000; Smith & Sparkes, 2009a). Considering meaningful experiences, Casey et al. (2018) refers to the *three-dimensional narrative inquiry space,* which contain three common places. Firstly, *common place of temporality* refers to that experience has a past, present, and future (Dewey, 2015) and are connected to each other. Secondly, *common place of socially* refers to our constantly interaction with people within our context. Lastly, *the common place of place* refers to the place where narrative happens and that are storied within the participants' experience (Casey et al., 2018; Clanadin & Connolly, 2000). These common places help to analyzing the narratives, in which I am placed within a position to enter the participants' world and being to make sense of their different experiences in life as a soccer player and a coach (Casey et al., 2018; Smith & Sparkes, 2009).

In the following narrative analysis, the application of a *thematic narrative analysis* was conducted, which is a theory-driven deductive analysis as a story analyst (Clanadin & Connolly, 2000; Riesseman, 2008). In this thesis, I tried to tell stories through realist tales (Smith & Sparkes, 2009a). Realist tales consist of given stories that are selected to highlight patterns or themes where analysts carry out an analysis of the story (Smith & Sparkes, 2009a). Hence, realist tales are necessary to connect theory with data in a way that makes a platform for the participant's voice in a given context (Smith & Sparkes, 2009a). According to the thesis, the context of TDE's (Baker et al., 2018) and SRT

(Higgins, 2019), aligned with our data, I facilitate a platform in which the participants' voices and experiences made sense and create meaningful realities (Smith & Sparkes, 2009a; Sparkes & Smith, 2009).

Moreover, within this assignment I are dedicated to present stories fixated on the reciprocal interaction over time, involving the coach and his/her players (Thomson & Holland, 2003). Longitudinal studies may help captures temporary patterns within time and place (Dewey, 2015; Sparkes & Smith, 2009; Thomson & Holland, 2003). Hence, I have had the opportunity to participate in the participants' different stories over a season for perceiving the reciprocity between the coach and the players (Davis, Jowett, & Tafvelin, 2019). Thus, it is not static snapshots that define my results, rather dynamic processes (Collins et al., 2019; Davis et al., 2019; Jowett, 2017; Norman, 2015; Thomson & Holland, 2003). Hence, the level of trust between the interviewer and the interviewee was decisive for the level of experience information sharing (Korsgaard et al., 2015).

8.2.2 Experience: Interpretivist, SRT, and Narrative

In the same way that experiences are crucial in narratives (Casey et al., 2018), experiences are decisive in SRT (Higgins, 2019). First, Echterhoff et al. (2009) clarify that shared reality is to *experience* a commonality with people within states about something. Second, people's inner states are related by past *experiences* that connects how people interpret their reality (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Lastly, in order for a shared reality to be fulfilled, that person must *experience* a successful connection to another person's inner states about something (Echterhoff et al., 2009).

Dewey (2015) also emphasized that experience in itself is not enough to make us learn and grow; it is the *quality* of the experience over time that is essential to learning. Considering our research, there may be some stories that have shaped the participants more than other stories, where the key, as researchers, is to notice these 'critical life events' (John et al., 2019), which have significantly shaped their life (Dewey, 2015).

Through the interpretivist research paradigm (Lincoln et al., 2018), a narrative inquiry approach (Casey et al., 2018; Papathomas, 2016; Riessman, 2008) and SRT (Higgins, 2019), I might be able get a deeper insight in both the coaches' and the players' experiences and critical life events, through stories, over time (Davis et al., 2019; John et al., 2019; Thomson & Holland, 2003).

8.2.3 Participants

Four female elite junior soccer players between 16-19 years of age (*M* = 16.5) and their male coach were recruited. A homogeneous purpose sampling (Etikan, 2016) was applied to select appropriate participants who are talented soccer players in a TDE. In order to be eligible for this study, the participants had to meet five criteria; (a) they have to be in a range of 16-19 years old (b) the participants need to be part of the starting lineup, (c) the players have worked with the same coach for a minimum of one year, (d) in the season 2019, the coach must interact with the players, including practice and competition, a minimum of 6 hours per week, and (e) the players had to be born in 2003 or older. The choice of these criteria was grounded in previous research, and to ensure regular interaction between the coach and the players over time (Harwood et al., 2015; Johnston et al., 2018; Jowett, 2017).

8.2.4 Procedure and Ethical Consideration

Through the research process, from the start of the study to the end, ethical considerations have been emphasized (Caine, Esefan & Clandinin, 2013; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). How the interview guide was prepared, how the interviews were conducted, and how the study findings were created and interpreted were ethically assessed.

In the start of the research process, in order to get the project approved, I had to apply an ethical application to both The Norwegian Center for Research Data and The Ethical Committee of the Norwegian School of Sport Sciences. Furthermore, I contacted the representative club and coaches to inform about the project. Then, my main supervisor and I were invited to their clubhouse to present our ideas, criteria, and expectations. Based on the study's criteria, they selected four players. Morover, anonymity and their right to voluntarily participate and withdraw when they wanted to was communicated. Hence, after a couple of days the coach provided us with four players who met the criteria and wanted to participate. Before the first interview, I wanted the participants to know the expectations by joining the study. I started talking about ethical guidelines, such that they could withdraw if they wanted for no reason, and anonymization of the name, club, and place they lived, and about how these semi-structured interviews were going to unfold. At the end, the participants were given written consent and informed of their right to anonymity.

When developing the interview guide, I was in a research group of three co-students, our supervisor, including a clinical psychologist who helped me formulate mental health questions (e.g., do you have someone who cares about how you doing, and who you can talk to when you are facing difficult challenges?). Additionally, the clinical psychologists helped me by providing with information about organizations I could contact if there were inconvenient responses from the participants, which I was not qualified to manage.

According to the context of the data collection, the semi-structured interviews always started with the researcher explicitly clarifying the expectations of the participant where there were no right and wrong answers. Furthermore, I sought to reduce social desirability by communicating that the participants' own thoughts that were valid.

Hence, as a narrative researcher, my ethical responsibility was always on the participants (Caine, et al., 2013). I got in touch with the participants' experiences through questions that require a methodological and ethical responsibility. As a researcher, I want to have a conscious relationship toward how my thinking expanding in the interaction with the participants, which may lead to new knowledge (Caine et al, 2013). Hence, by using semi-structured interviews over time, I might develop trust, and safety, with the participants which may improve the quality of the data generated as the interaction unfolded (Korsgaard et al., 2015; Sparkes & Smith, 2009). In this way, I could possibly neutralize the experience of power to a greater extent, in which the participants could feel assured that their answers were legitimate and correct.

Finally, constructing the narratives of the findings were an ethical challenge. First, the selection was relatively small, making awareness of the anonymity essential. Second, the confidentiality and construction of the narratives were somewhat contradictory, since the point of constructing personal narratives was to make personal experiences and life visible (Riessman, 2008; Smith & Sparkes, 2009). Therefore, I had to balance the representations of the various participants in a true, simultaneously, and protective way by hiding biographical information and nationality (Naidu, 2018; Palmer, 2016).

8.2.5 Data Collection

The way I collected the data, a qualitative method was conducted as interpretive approaches rely on naturalistic methods, like interviews and analysis of texts (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2018). The underlying assumptions of a naturalistic approach are that

social realities are mind-dependent, where the contexts are important for how reality is experienced, perceived, and understood (Smith, 1984). Inspired by Frank et al. (2010), I may understand my role, not as a data collector, but 'the receiver's presence allows people to tell their stories'. Experiences are a social co-constructivist process, in which semi-structured interviews helped us develop questions for the interview guide with similar content to both the coach and the players. Semi-structured interviews can be an excellent tool exploring personal experiences, attitudes, and understandings (Bryman & Bell, 2001). From a researcher's perspective, there was communicated a main question (e.g., what episodes do you experience have shaped your thoughts on succeeding / failing in soccer?), that addresses a purpose, whereas, for the participants, the questions are interpretation-based and flexible (Bryman & Bell, 2001). It allows participants to interpret the same questions differently, colored by their past experiences (Dewey, 2015), where I gained insight into their reality (Higgins, 2019). Furthermore, my follow-up questions may differ from participant to participant, because each interaction was unique (Bryman & Bell, 2001; Smith, 1984).

Additionally, I was able to compare their answers and examine whether a reciprocal shared reality might have been experienced between them or not (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Riessman, 2008; Smith & Sparkes, 2009). The data were collected during the football season in Norway, over a period of eight months (e.g., April (T1), August/September (T2), and November (T3)). The interviews lasted between 20-80 minutes (e.g., T1, $M=29.2$; T2, $M=40.7$; T3, $M=61,8$), and was audio recorded and conducted at a time (e.g., before each soccer training session) and place (e.g., at the soccer clubhouse) that was beneficial for the participants.

As a researcher, it was important that the participants experienced security (Simpson, 2007) in the interview setting. Therefore, I tried to build trust in the beginning of each data collection where I always started by chatting, laughing, and talking about everyday life. Considering the reciprocity perspective, I consciously shared how I perceived my days as student and what I found exiting to do for a living (Higgins, 2019; Simpson, 2007). I anticipated that this would potentially increase information sharing over time, and strengthen our data collection (Korsgaard et al., 2015; Thomson & Holland, 2003).

8.2.6 Interview-Guide

Prior to the data collection, a group consisting of my supervisor and co-students spent a considerable amount of time develop an interview-guide. First, relevant literature in sport psychology, SRT, trust, and narrative methodology were read. I (henceforth referred to as we, because I want to acknowledge our work as a research group), and my co-students, distributed the chapters of the books and articles and presented the chapters in colloquium group meetings. A critical approach characterized the process, where I extensively discussed how theory and method could be applied in my specific sport context.

Second, after reading and presenting the literature, I gathered with my supervisor and co-students to share our thoughts on which themes, or patterns, (Riessman, 2008) were important to bring up in the respective interview guides. Third, I began a process of writing down our ideas to achieve consensus, structure, and direction. Fourth, through this process, I experienced learning and growth, pondering on theory and method over time (Dewey, 2015). Due to the process of data collection and formation of the interview guide, it resulted in several changes in the way I asked the question, choice of words, and sentence structure. Considering this process, three interview guides emerged – one for the coach and one for the players (see Appendix 4). In the final interview guide, I included a few questions, which focused on social desirability.

Social Desirability

I asked the participants ten statements in which to answer "true" or "false" according to what they felt was true or false (e.g., I am always willing to admit it when I've done something wrong; Miller et al., 2015). The reason for placing it in the interview itself, and not sending it before or afterwards, was the degree of honesty in the response (Miller et al., 2014, 2015). Thus, our aim with implementing social desirability in the interview guide was out of a methodically reason towards validity where people might have a tendency to emphasize themselves more positively than they actually are (Miller et al., 2014, 2015; Rocchi, Pelletier & Couture, 2013).

8.2.7 Data Analysis

Furthermore, the data analysis was a three-stage process. The first phase, I had an *indwelling* approach (Smith, 2016). Second phase, I switched to a narrative thematic

analysis. Finally, the final phase dealt with creating research narratives of being within the three-dimensional space of inquiry (Casey et al., 2018).

In the first phase, all the transcript ended up with a total of 310 pages (see Appendix 5). Overall, the transcript from each participant was gathered into one document (e.g., T1, T2 and T3). I read and re-read the transcript several times, pondered, and immersed to experience the 'life' within the data material (Smith, 2016). Thus, I tried to understand my own and the participant's experience in accordance with time, environment, and place (Casey et al., 2018; Dewey, 2015). Hence, a possible benefit of prioritizing to be within the data material over time might be to experience a richer depth and identity of the data material (Riessman, 2008; Smith, 2016; Temple & Young, 2004).

In the second phase, a preliminary data analysis was conducted. Hence, I positioned myself as a story analyst and began to search for narrative themes (e.g., patterns within the stories; Smith, 2016). This could help reduce the complexity of the data material (Casey et al., 2018; Riessman, 2008). Although I color-coded the narrative themes to help me move toward a clearer picture to identify thematic patterns, I was open minded that the interpretation could lead the analysis unexpected directions as well (Smith, 2016). Rather than isolating different themes from each narrative, the context the narrative was presented in was essential, thereby capturing the unique experience of what the participants expressed (Riessman, 2008; Sparkes & Smith, 2009a).

When I made the realist tales, I had to find significant patterns, which was expressed as central to the participants' stories (Smith & Sparkes, 2009a). In the start, I positioned myself on the outside and observed the participant´s description of the experience, trying to objectively observe rather than subjectively conclude (King, 2016). Later on, in the analytical process, I positioned myself within the analysis.

Even though Smith and Sparkes (2009a) make a distinct distinction between how a story analyst and storyteller practically being conducted, Smith (2016) and King (2016) indicate, however, that it is possible to combine both positions, something I did. Hence, to switch position from a story analyst (e.g., the coach seems not to acknowledge the player) to storyteller (e.g., I feel the coach do not see me), from being outside the story to being placed within the story (Smith & Sparkes, 2009a). From being driven by theory and creating a structural framework (Riessman, 2008), to become more open and organizing

stories that bring out the uniqueness of each player's experience (Smith, 2016). The reasons why, was twofolded. First, since realist tales connects theory and data in narrative thematic analysis and describes a temporary end-product of the stories, it was difficult too free them from the analysis process (King, 2016; Smith & Sparkes, 2009a). Second, over time, I immersed in the data material, and experienced and sensed feelings, moods, and thoughts about participants' told stories (Smith, 2016).

When the time came to write the research narratives, it was a persistent process of being located within the three-dimensional narrative inquiry space (Clancy et al., 2018). Hence, "the common places" serve to understand the entirety (e.g., people live in, through, and out of narratives) of the experiences presented by the participants (Smith & Sparkes, 2009a). Considering the "common place" of temporality, as a researcher with past experiences as a soccer player, I could relate to some experiences the participant told. For instance, in the analysis, that gave me valable insight into how the players might have experienced their feelings and thoughts in meeting with their coach, in which I interpret their experiences through how I experienced it encountering with my former coach (Casey et al., 2018). Moreover, the "common place" of sociality and place, both the researcher's and the participant's experiences are present, which shape the relational interaction and the context of what are being said by the participants (Casey et al., 2018; Smith & Sparkes, 2009a).

Lastly, I worked through the research narratives several times to fine-tune the interpretations (Riessman, 2008). When the stories were completed, the first author wrote the realist tale that represented the different participants. Subsequently, the draft was sent back and forth between the first author and the supervisor(s), where the latter(s) provided feedback to consensus was obtained about the findings. For this reason, four unique research narratives emerged.

8.2.8 Methodological Quality

Considering interpretive research, judging quality is not easy (Smith, Sparkes, & Caddick, 2014). As a researcher, I may not grasp the reality as it really is because grasping is a matter of fact just a subjective interpretation (Smith et al., 2014). Due to relativism, it is not that 'everything is allowed' when judging the quality of qualitative studies, nor that knowledge is set equally and context-based (Smith, 1984). Therefore, judging may work as value-driven relativism, within a context, to guide my practical choice of how to

judge the quality in this assignment (Smith & McGannon, 2018). For this reason, within this thesis I applied *wakefulness* (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000) and *critical friends* (Smith & McGannon, 2018).

First, wakefulness is a critical process as researchers constantly need to be alert within the content of the plot of the stories and aware that unforeseen events and characters may occur (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). When I listen to, and participated in, the stories of the participants, I had to be aware of the context the plot was taking place and people that were involved. Second, I applied critical friends as an ongoing process of critical dialogue between people in which I, my co-students, and supervisor frequently utilized giving a voice of each other's interpretations. The goal was to challenging each other's construction of temporary and contextual knowledge (Cowan & Taylor, 2016).

9.   References

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10. Presentation of the Article

The findings of the analysis of the individual semi-structured interviews of the coach and the four female elite junior soccer players are presented in the article below. In the article (submitted to *Journal of Psychology in Sport and Exercise*) the findings describe participants' experiences of the reciprocity of the coach-player relationship, in light of SRT.

An Examination of Reciprocity among Coach and Players in Female

Elite Junior Soccer: A Shared Reality Theory Perspective

Submitted to: Psychology of Sport and Exercise

An Examination of Reciprocity among Coach and Players in Female Elite Junior Soccer: A Shared Reality Theory Perspective

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Abstract

Background: The purpose of the present study was to examine the experience of reciprocity in the coach-player relationship. Shared Reality Theory (SRT) was used as a conceptual framework to understand how communication between the coach and the players progresses over time, where a sense of trust is the core foundation of experiencing well-being and performance development.

Design: A longitudinal study.

Methods: A qualitative and narrative methodology was employed, in which semi-structured interviews were conducted applying a narrative thematic analysis.

Results: Findings are presented through narratives of the different coach-player relationships. In total, four stories are told through the eyes of the coach and the respective players. Findings describe the complexity of reciprocal relationships, involving coach and players.

Conclusion: The stories presented indicate that reciprocity might be based on the degree of perceived security and the extent to which coach and player want to share their inner states with each other toward achieving excellence in elite junior soccer. Future research should use SRT in different performance contexts and methodological approaches, examining the actual content of a reciprocal partnership in elite junior sports.

Keywords: Reciprocity; Experience; Shared reality theory; Trust; Communication; Longitudinal

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Introduction

The heart of coach-athlete relationships involves a reciprocal unit that consists of two people: the coach and the athlete (Jowett, 2017; Rocchi & Pelletier, 2017). Therefore, the talent developing environment (TDE) might be highly complex (Baker, Schorer & Wattie, 2018; Bergeron et al., 2015), in which coaches and athletes, with different past experiences and perceptions of reality, are set to cooperate (Dewey, 1938/2015; Cushion, 2018; Higgins, 2019). Indeed, young elite athletes, having minimal life experience (John, Gropper & Thiel, 2019), are placed within demanding performance contexts. Hence, the external pressure of performing may implicit communicate immediate expectations of success, instead of long-term processes of consistent development (Baker et al., 2018; Collins et al., 2019; Sagar, Busch & Jowett, 2010; Schinke et al., 2018). Additionally, if there are gender differences interacting in a partnership, the complexity of communication may increase (e.g., male coaches interacting with female athletes; Higgins, 2019; Kristiansen et al., 2012).

Female athletes, which are underrepresented in the sport psychology literature (Harwood et al., 2015; Johnston et al., 2018), have different communication needs and strategies than male athletes (Norman, 2015). This, in turn, makes it challenging in the sport partnership, involving male coaches and female athletes (Kristiansen et al., 2012). Hence, the quality of communication between coach and athlete also related to the reciprocity of how the athlete (Davis, Jowett, & Tafvelin, 2019) and the coach (Norris et al., 2017) experience their partnership. Over time, reciprocity in the partnership may be a measurement of how the coach understand the athlete and vice versa (Jowett, 2017; Rocchi & Pelletier, 2017). However, research has not been concerned with reciprocity until recently (Jowett, 2017) as the partnership has focused more on athlete outcomes for longer periods (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Smoll & Smith, 2020).

First, the athlete's outcome has been the focus as various coach development programs have been developed with the intention investigating the athlete's outcomes (Chelladurai, 2007; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Smoll & Smith, 2020). Second, studies have begun to look at coach perceptions and outcomes (Stebbings et al., 2011). Studies have examined the interpersonal relationships to coaches, which relate to their psychological well-being and interpersonal behavior (Solstad, van Hoye, and Ommundsen, 2015; Stebbings, Taylor, Spray & Ntoumanis., 2012; Norris et al., 2017). Third, studies have examined how the dyadic interaction related both the coach and the athlete (Stebbings, Taylor & Spray, 2016). Through different theoretical lenses, researchers have sought to comprehend how coaches and athletes perceive each other (Gjesdal et al., 2019; Rocchi & Pelletier, 2017). According to the unilateral dominance of the athlete's outcome, there are also methodological implications.

In the last decades, quantitative and cross-sectional studies have flourished in sport psychology (Clancy et al., 2016). Therefore, the echo from previous research highlights the need for more longitudinal and qualitative studies (Clancy et al., 2016; Smith & Sparkes, 2009) on both athlete and coach outcomes (Davis et al., 2019; Jowett, 2017). Thus, in our quest to increase the understanding of reciprocity in the coach-athlete relationship, Shared Reality Theory was applied (SRT; see Higgins, 2019).

Shared Reality Theory

From the SRT perspective, human beings are motivated to share their social world with others (Echterhoff, Higgins, & Levine, 2009; Higgins, 2019). People's actions toward a goal, and the goal itself, must be socially verified by others to be considered relevant and matter (Cornwell, Franks & Higgins, 2017). Hence, when both the coach and the player experience a reciprocal understanding, security and purpose may be perceived (Collins et al., 2019; Higgins, 2019; Jowett, 2017).

Echterhoff et al. (2009) describe shared reality as "the product of the motivated process of experiencing a commonality of inner states about the world" (p. 498). Specifically, SRT postulates four conditions that must be satisfied to experience a successful shared reality (Echterhoff et al., 2009). First, shared reality must be a commonality experience between peoples' inner states (e.g., feelings, thoughts, and attitudes), and not just external behavior, about something (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Second, shared reality is about some target referent (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Hence, if inner states are not heading toward something, about any aspect of this world, it is not shared reality. Third, the commonality of inner states must be appropriately motivated, and verified by others, where the product cannot be separated from the process (Cornwell et al., 2017; Echterhoff et al., 2009). As human beings, we long for understanding and belonging, where the epistemic and relational motives reflect the human motivation of creating a shared reality (Cornwell et al., 2017). Whereas the epistemic motive wants to establish meaningful truths, the relational motive seeks connection with others to experience security, identity, and well-being (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Moesch et al., 2018). However, to establish a shared reality, only one of the motives is needed, but both will strengthen the degree of shared reality (Higgins 2019; Echterhoff et al., 2009). Lastly, to establish a shared reality, individuals must experience a successful connection with others inner states (Echterhoff et al., 2009). For that reason, it is not a natural outcome to experience successful shared reality in a partnership, as there are two people who will be united with vastly different backgrounds and experiences. Therefore, challenges can arise.

Past experiences (Dewey, 2015) with significant others (e.g., parents), may be decisive for the type of inner states (e.g., feelings, thoughts, and attitudes) people acquire (Echterhoff et al., 2009). What type of inner states people acquire leads to two

psychological systems: *promotion ideal* or *prevention ought* (Higgins, 2019). These two psychological systems shaping how athletes experience success and failure, and even in the same situation, the coach and a player may have completely different reactions (Higgins, 2019). To explain, imagine a three-point scale from -1 via 0 to 1. The promotion ideal wants to *ideally* improve the current condition for a better one. Staying at the satisfactory state (zero) is failure because it is a nongain (e.g., not +1). For something to become a success, there must be a change to a better state (+1). However, a prevention view on success and failure is to do what is expected, or *ought* to do, no less and no more. Hence, their greatest motivation is to maintain peace and order and prevent a worse state (-1). Hence, what will be experienced as failure will become an unsatisfied state, a loss (-1). If the current state (zero) is satisfied, people will experience it as being successful because people are not losing, a nonloss (zero; Higgins, 2019).

These psychological systems generate different emotions (Higgins, 2019). When experiencing success, promotion ideal tends to experience a presence of positive (e.g., Joy) and prevention tends to experience an absence of negative (e.g., relieved). In contrast, when experiencing failure, promotion ideal tends to experience an absence of positive (e.g., disappointed) and prevention ought tends to experience a presence of a negative (e.g., sad). In general, promotion is not a better psychological system than prevention, they just have a different *'how'* in pursuing their goals (Higgins, 2019).

How people choose to pursue their goals is either in an *eager* manner, which has a fit with predominant promotion ideal, versus a *vigilant* manner, which has a fit with predominant prevention ought (Higgins, 2019). The fit effect has its advantages. First, a regulatory fit intensifies the perceived value of a chosen goal, which also enables people to make effective choices (Higgins, 2019). Second, a regulatory fit might contribute to create a relational unit faster (Higgins, 2019), which indicate appreciating close

relationships to expand our self from *me* to *we*, thereby creating a "we-ness" (Higgins,

2019). Hence, by sharing your good news with others and receiving positive

expressions that fits your positive feelings, make the news more real and meaningful

(Higgins, 2019). However, a misfit occurs when your motivational orientation (e.g.,

predominant prevention) collide with your manner of goal pursuit (e.g., an eagerly

manner). Consequently, the person experiencing a misfit in the coach-player

relationship must be motivated enough to communicate inner states to clarify the misfit

(Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019).

The motivation to experience shared reality with others is regulated by the

epistemic and relational motive (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Because players recognize the

coach's high degree of expert power (i.e., epistemic motive), the players may not

perceive the coach as trustworthy (e.g., relational motive; Echterhoff, Lang, Krämer, &

Higgins, 2009). In other words, the players may possess epistemic trust in the coach's

communication but may experience relational mistrust in the relationship (Echterhoff et

al., 2009). This elucidate the assumptions; if the epistemic and relational motives are

functioning as appropriate motivators, trust is a requirement (Cornwell et al., 2017;

Echterhoff et al., 2009).

Trust is the prerequisite for experiencing a shared reality (Cornwell et al., 2017;

Simpson, 2007). Trust involves a reciprocal situational process, where peoples'

dispositions and working models collide with each other, verifying whether the partner

has secure motives for the relationship or not (Simpson, 2007). Hence, trust may be a

repeated and temporary substitute for experiencing security (Simpson, 2007).

In dealing with different trust situations, people have experienced socially

learned expectations (SLE; Dunning, Fetchenhauer & Schlösser, 2019; Simpson, 2007).

SLE create different dispositions and working models that lead to given behavioral

patterns in different trust situations, strain-situations (Simpson, 2007). Therefore, if uncertainty is experienced in a relationship, people will go into a "strain test" to test their partner's degree of willingness to trust (Krueger & Meyer-Lindeberg, 2019; Simpson, 2007). For this purpose, people need to take a leap of faith into entering a trust situation, where they are willing to deal with the consequences (Korsgaard et al., 2015). After experiencing a trust situation, attributes are essential on the road to safety. Hence, people test each other's core intentions against each other (Simpson, 2007). For instance, the perceived security is circular and may be related to the behaviors and attributes of each other, and additionally, set up the next trust-relevant interaction when a new trust situation emerges (Simpson, 2007). Thus, when relationships feel secure, people may tend to share their inner states (Echterhoff et al., 2009), which is honest information sharing (Korsgaard, Brower, & Lester, 2015).

The Present Study

The purpose of the present study was to explore (a) how a shared reality is established, or fails to be established, over the course of the sporting partnership between the coach and his/her athletes; and (b) how experiencing a shared reality (or not) in the coach-athlete relationship is related to the experienced quality of the relationship the coach and his/her athletes develop and maintain over the course of an 8-month period.

Methods

The present study was guided by the principle of the interpretivist research paradigm (Lincoln et al., 2018), postulating that reality is ontological relative and knowledge is epistemological social co-constructed (Casey et al., 2018). In line with the interpretivist principle, a narrative methodology (Casey et al., 2018; Riessman, 2008)

was applied to enter complex worlds associated with how the participants interpreted their lived experiences within the partnership involving the coach and the player.

Participants

In total, 4 female elite junior soccer players between 16-19 years of age (M_{age} = 16,5) and 1 male soccer coach were recruited. A homogeneous Purpose sampling (Etikan, 2016) was used to select appropriate participants. In order to be eligible for this study, the participants had to meet five criteria: (a) they had to be in the age range of 16-19 years, (b) they needed to be part of the starting lineup, (c) the players had worked with the same coach for a minimum of one year, (d) the coach had to interact with the players, including practice and match, for minimum of 6 hours per week, and (e) the players had to be born in 2003 or later. The choice of these criteria is grounded in previous research, and to ensure regular interaction between the coach and the players over time (Harwood et al., 2015; Johnston et al., 2018; Jowett, 2017).

Procedure and Ethical Considerations

Approval to conduct the study was granted by the Norwegian Center for Research Data and the Ethics Committee at the Norwegian School of Sports Sciences. The soccer club and the coach were contacted via email. I established a meeting with the coach and presented our thoughts and the criteria I had for the players who was to be a part of the present study. After a couple of days, the coach gave us four players who met the criteria and who wanted to participate in the study. Furthermore, before the first interview, the first author gathered the participants to exchange expectations and understanding of participation in the study. Considering ethical guidelines, the participants were given a written consent and informed of their right to anonymity and the opportunity to withdraw whenever they wanted.

Data Collection

Due to our narrative methodology, the data were collected via individual semi-structured interviews (Bryman & Bell, 2001). The longitudinal component of the research help captures the narrative character through the individual semi-structured interviews (Smith & Sparkes, 2009; Thomson & Holland, 2003). The duration of the data collection was over a period of eight months (e.g., April (T1), August/September (T2), and November (T3)). The interviews lasted between 20-80 minutes (e.g., T1, $M = 29.2$; T2, $M = 40.7$; T3, $M = 61.8$), and were audio recorded and conducted at a time (e.g., before each soccer training session) and place (e.g., at the clubhouse) that was beneficial for the participants. One interview guide was prepared for the coach and one for the players, both to capture the same concepts with a customized approach for both perspectives.

Data Analysis

All interviews were transcribed, yielding a total of 310 single-spaced pages. As such, the analytical process was twofold. Firstly, I immersed deeply in the transcript as a single unit over time (Smith, 2016). Hence, I read and re-read the transcripts several times to gain an understanding of the experiences through the common places' the stories was presented within (Casey et al., 2018; Smith & Sparkes, 2009). Secondly, a narrative thematic analysis was conducted (Riessman, 2008), which served as a guide in a complex landscape of data material (Smith & Sparkes, 2009). Hence, each transcript was analyzed through given themes, in which the researchers collaborated to create (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019; Riessman, 2008; Simpson, 2007). By examining the contextual plot of the participant's story expanded our understanding of the themes found and how the social and personal interaction occurred (Casey et al., 2018; Riessman, 2008; Smith & Sparkes, 2009). Moreover, I combined the position of a story analyst and a storyteller in the analysis (Smith 2016; Smith & Sparkes, 2009). First, by

operating as a story analyst, I produced realistic tales, which creates a narrative framework (Smith, 2016). Then, I operated as a storyteller to be located within the stories, and enliven the them (for details, see Smith & Sparkes, 2009).

Results

I found four distinct narratives in the reciprocal coach-player relationship. The first narrative deals with the coach, named Ben, and his perspective on development and performance in the context of elite junior soccer. The next three representative narratives, which I have named Sally, Eleanor, and Juliet, present their perceptions of the relationship with their coach in the context of elite junior soccer.

Coach Ben: Value-Driven Development. I grew up with my mother and father and had a safe upbringing in Norway. My parents were both present in my life, but my father had a positive influence on me. He was "a very good supporter" of me and always had a "desire to contribute (…), and he still helps me with everything" (T3). Despite my safe upbringing, I did witness some life-changing events, which I think have contributed to how I am as a person and a coach. For instance, I "saw a lot in my childhood, everything from drugs and fighting" which helped me to "know what's important" and made me a "little hardened" (T3).

Through my positive and negative experiences, I developed my core values of "having respect of other people and trying to understand their perspectives" (T1). Hence, it's easier for the players to ask me questions where (...) it's important to get to know what processes they are going through" (T1). Additionally, I want to highlight the value of honesty in order to create a common understanding that is central to knowing what the players want and are going through, because "if they want to receive honest feedback (...) it's better that I know what they want where it's easier for me to accept and choose, rather than having to interpret what they really want" (T1).

Given my core values, I really think that trust is an important ingredient in developing relationships with the players. "For people to trust you, you have to manifest trust (…) and as a coach, working with people is very trust-based where you have to gain the truth from your players" (T2). For example, "I have to trust that the players who are on the field are performing, and giving everything they got, and the players have to trust that we [me and my coaching staff] are weaving together a game plan that fits" (T2).

Another example where I have displayed the players trust is after we lost an important match this summer [between data collection T1 and T2]. The players expressed dissatisfaction and a desire to raise the demands and standards within the team on the training sessions to perform at a higher level. This was something I was willing to agree upon because I believed, and trusted, that the players were ready to increase the demands. Hence, the degree of experienced trust depends on the duration of the collaboration in the relationship between me and each individual player. Thus, "if the players are capable of trusting me, then I have to care" because "there will be times when there are low levels of trust (...), but I believe that people have to be given trust to develop (…) to learn by making mistakes" (T2).

Having developed a trusting relationship with my players, I think you ultimately have more honesty, where "we must have a desire to lift each other up and, then, we depend on being honest with each other (…) so, if I do something wrong, I want feedback from the players" (T2). However, to see and being honest with all the players, and expressing the same degree of trust to them all is hard. "The players have slightly different personalities (…) where someone has a personality that is a bit similar to yours, which, in turn, makes it easier to understand the reactions from that particular player" (T2).

According to my values of honesty and respect, our communication strategies we communicate to each other are important clarifying what goals we possess and how to achieve them". My goal is to get these players to understand what it [development within an elite junior context] is about and to lead them on the path toward senior soccer" (T1). I find it rewarding to work with soccer players who want to improve and "to attain a higher skill level than they are performing at the current moment. That's motivating!" (T3). As such, I believe in the ability to step out of the comfort zone as essential toward becoming an advanced junior player, and as an advanced coach as well: "You must make mistakes to improve. If you never push your personal comfort zones, and never experience defeat, then it becomes difficult to improve as a player or a coach" (T3).

In the pursuit of becoming a better soccer player, feedback is important, which I find challenging sometimes, because there are players who want to receive feedback in their own preferred manner and there "is always somebody who will receive more feedback than others" (T1). It is a challenge to see everyone in the short time we have during training, and it is difficult to manage. Over time, I find that "those who want it the most, receive the most feedback" (T1).

Sally: How Can I Gain More? This narrative reflects two soccer players who possess high degree of shared reality in the coach-player relationship and promote an eagerness for learning.

In my formative years, I had a safe upbringing, which allowed me to experience close relationships with individuals around me. "I feel I can talk well with my coach, and then I have good friends and family that I can talk to if I have anything" that is bothering me. "My family is trying to understand how I feel, and they are proud of me no matter what I do" (T3).

Despite having developed strong and safe relationships during my early years, as I have grown up, I have experienced adversity and uncertainty when meeting people, particularly former coaches, who have consequently influenced my perspective relating to my current coach. When I was younger, I played on a team with boys, and had a coach who I thought was against girls playing football. He yelled a lot and "threw shit toward us at the field" (T3). I felt that as uncomfortable and depressing. Particularly, when I have been in relationships that lack trust, I have been concerned about asking questions or sounding silly in front of the coach. Fortunately, I do not have this with my current coach, because "you feel not judged if you ask him a question that might sound a bit silly" (T3).

Moreover, sometimes the coach has taken me along with him to another training session where the players are older and at a higher skill level than me. "I was stressed and nervous before the first training sessions" (T3). I focused a lot on what I had to do to not fail, "because you will not be perceived as a bad soccer player" (T3). However, "when I became better acquainted with the players, it got better" (T3), because I got to know them a little more. Hence, I was able to perform and, thus, improving was not that dangerous anymore.

Another story, two years ago from now, when I was drafted to the national team for the first time in my life, I was incredibly proud and happy. Also, I felt very scared and frightened. The fear, I think, came from all the expectations associated with the national team and performing all the time. I ended up not attending the national team in fear of not succeeding and "I wasn't tough enough" (T3). However, "I think I made it a bigger issue than it actually was" (T3), and if I had had the chance to choose again, I would defiantly attend the national team selection. Yet, my coach expressed so much support where "it seemed like he had plenty of time listening to me and acknowledging

my feelings and emotions" (T3) and "it was reassuring to me to receive a confirmation that the coach cares about me, not just as a player, but as a person as well" (T3). Once, I should perform a penalty kick in an important match and missed. After the match, the penalty miss was all I could think about, but then he came to me and said "screw that penalty miss, your performance was great" (T3). As such, I feel that I can be honest with him, and "He [the coach] can be so brutally honest with me when I'm not improving (…) so, I know when I'm performing and when I'm not performing" (T3). Thus, "I trust him very much and I think he trusts me as a player" (T2), where he is saying to me that "It's not now I have to deliver but when I'm older, in ten years" (T1).

From the coach perspective, he may seem to have such faith in Sally where effort over time is the key element to improve. Because the coach cares and tries to understand Sally's perspective, it may seem like the players are experiencing some of the same things they have experienced in their families and by their parents; hence, to be understood and acknowledged. Relational security may therefore result in healthy expectations: "If we fail on a pass, we need to support each other accompanied by demands for improvement (...) and be serious about training" (T1).

As a result of the experience of the high level of trust and honesty in the coach-player relationship, a power relationship between the coach and the player may be experienced positively. "The coach has more power over you when you are training on the pitch along with your teammates (...) and power differentials exist to help us to develop and perform" (T2). As such, "If I'm making a mistake, then the coach won't be yelling but help you to improve your skills" (T3). According to the coach, he argued that he is calm in terms of the performance development of these players: "They [the players] have the ability to think long term and are not tilted easily by the stick (...) they work hard and purposefully" (T3).

Taken together, the relationship between coach Ben and Sally in this narrative has developed in a positive manner. When the player was asked about any changes between the first and third data collection, they referred to the frequency and boldness of asking more questions to their coach: "I ask a lot more questions now (...) and if I've questions, it's important that I ask them to the coach" (T3).

Eleanor: I Want to, but I Do Not Know How to Do It. This narrative reflects a soccer player who experience a medium too low degree of shared reality in the coach-player relationship, where she is experiencing it as tough and perceive to have a vigilant prevention-orientation toward learning.

I grew up with divorced parents, where I lived with my mom. "Mum and I have always been very close and we can talk about anything" (T3). Hence, I think "trust is a trial (...) where you try to give people a degree of trust to test if they are to be trusted (...) so that you can dare to open up (...) and where it's allowed to make mistakes" (T2). Hence, this is something that I feel with my mom, that I can be vulnerable and express my feelings as they are without creating a distance between us.

Regarding my coach, "I think he is a trustworthy coach" (T2). However, at the same time, I find it challenging to manifest vulnerability with the coach as I am afraid of being perceived as weak when I know I must perform. Generally speaking, I am not "too happy about people seeing it [her vulnerability]" (T3). In fact, I have felt disappointment in the relationship with the coach because "when he has seen me struggle with something, no action has taken place (...), and it's not always easy to go to him" (T3). And I do not always feel seen by the coach, where he does not "give enough attention, feedback, and acknowledgment to the older players" (T2).

According to my performance level and development over time, I desired having control over my own performance, thereby I experiencing failure in the absence of

control. An example where I felt a loss of control of my performance was from a period where I performed well and was selected to a better team where the coach expressed: "In this match we need you" (T3). For sure, I [the player] thought it was positive to get this type of recognition from my coach, but for me, that type of feedback seemed counterintuitive. I got really stressed. I felt like that kind of feedback reinforced the awareness of performing, something I was not comfortable with, and I felt I had no control over my own performance. Thus, "when I played a game that did not go as planned, where I did not perceive success" (T3), I felt disappointed of not being successful, because I did not perform at the expected level.

Therefore, to maintain the sense of control in life, and in fear of not being one of the prioritized players, I might do what am told even though I don´t not always agree with the coach: "I think it's smart agreeing with the coach about his opinions (...) because then there is a greater chance of being one of the selected players on the team (…) and the coach is the one who has the final call of whether I can join the team or not" (T1). However, to some extent, I feel that he does not understand and help me the way that I want, where he "has not been as direct (...) where the coach could have been more specific in how to improve (...), and that does not lead to a sense of mastery" (T3).

From the coach's perspective, he expressed uncertainty about what Eleanor really wanted with her soccer career, and that she is stressing about developing as a soccer player:

> I think that she feels that she ought to deliver at a higher performance level than she actually does (…) where she recognizes that younger players are getting a chance to play at the senior level (…) I think that's hard for her (T3).

Juliet: Uncertainty Creates Ambiguity. This narrative reflects a soccer player who does experience a low degree of shared reality in the coach-player relationship and who has a vigilant prevention-orientation toward learning.

I had a safe upbringing, surrounded by both parents. "They understand how I experience things" (T3), and I know that no matter what happens they will still love me and care about me. However, I have experienced "people whom I've trusted before, which I no longer trust" (T2). Hence, "I felt that they violated the trust when they were perceived as genuine in the start," but then they turned out to "not wish my best" (T2).

In the extension of trust, the relationship and collaboration over time with her current coach may be characterized as fairly evenly, but ambiguous. I tend to "ask questions if I don't understand what they want" (T1). However, "I don't always feel being listened to," and "if I say something I disagree with, then he comes up with some other arguments (...) and it's usually the coach who has the correct answer" (T1). He is the expert and in charge. However, I feel "the coach is rarely specific on what I should do to improve my soccer-skills" (T3).

She found it challenging to take the initiative to talk to the coach, especially about difficult topics: "It's not easy to say you're sad" (T3), because "I'm not such a person who opens up to everyone" (T2). "For me, however, it's totally fine (…) because it's not primarily my coach I talk to about difficult topics with" (T3). Considering the coach-player relationship, this may seem ambiguous, omitting to communicate with her coach, but instead requiring the coach to communicate and help her.

To some extent, I am quite dissatisfied in the way the coach communicates with me. I do not think "the coach is that good at providing personal feedback (...), where I feel it's the coach's responsibility to help me becoming a better player" (T3). Over time, I have felt irritation, frustration, and disappointment grown within me, because I do not

get an answer why the coach chooses to do what they do. "My experience is that there are few coaches who actually want to explain why (...) which is something I would really like to know" (T2). For example, we played a match where I perceived myself performing, and suddenly I was replaced. And, it is okay for me to be replaced but "I want an explanation why I was replaced" (T2), which I did not got. Hence, I am a little insecure of the expectations that the coach has of me and I do not quite know how to express myself about it to make it better. "The level of stress in some training sessions makes me feel relieved when I've improved" (T3). Therefore, as we are at the end of the season, looking back on how I've improved, "I'm disappointed that I've not to been drafted for different teams (e.g., the national team and the regional team), which you want to be a part of (…), where I've failed to not succeed, which is a constant pressure to do" (T3).

Although Juliet acknowledged her coach as an epistemic authority, the present narrative may demonstrate an absence of relational trust between coach Ben and Juliet. Ben personally proclaimed: "It seems to me that she's ambiguous about 'should I go for it or not'" (T3). Therefore, it makes me a little bit uncertain about her motives, in which I feel it is challenging to understand and communicate with her. Hence,

> You get a little disappointed and feel that you have worked unnecessarily. It would have been easier if she had just said 'I just want to have fun,' because then I would have known and understood (…) then she could get a plan that suits her needs and her ambitions. (T3)

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to explore (a) how a shared reality is established, or fails to be established, over the course of the sporting partnership between the coach and his/her athletes; and (b) how experiencing a shared reality (or

not) in the coach-athlete relationship is related to the experienced quality of the relationship the coach and his/her athletes develop and maintain over the course of an 8-month period. According to the perspective of SRT, and its fourth condition, we believe that the long-term benefits of having the coach and his players experiencing a successful commonality toward excellence in soccer, is crucial for performance and well-being (Baker et al., 2018; Higgins, 2019; Jowett, 2017; Moesch et al., 2018). Overall, our findings indicated that the level of trust influenced the degree of experienced shared reality and how honest the information sharing would be (Higgins, 2019; Simpson, 2007). This led to clear expectations and increased well-being (Simpson, 2007; Moesch et al., 2018).

Starting with the coach-player relationship, involving Sally and Ben, a high degree of shared reality was experienced. Past experiences may indicate that both have experienced how caring about others looks like, in which their parents might have nurtured them in a promotion-oriented manner (Higgins, 2019). Hence, both experienced that they care about each other and are honest in their communication, which may indicate that they share their inner states toward reaching an expertise level in elite junior soccer (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Simpson, 2007). Over time, it seemed like Sally and Ben shared the same experience of the story, where Sally's frequency and boldness in asking questions has increased and Ben acknowledged Sally as an eager learner, and additionally, expressed that those who want it the most, they receive the most feedback. This finding may reflect the closeness and presence of epistemic and relational reciprocity in the coach-player relationship toward excellence in elite junior soccer (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019). In the context of TDE, Ben and Sally might have a regulatory fit where both are predominant promotion ideals, in which

decisions are eagerly implemented (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019). In contrast, the next partnership might not have this regulatory fit, and the relational presence.

The relationship involving Eleanor and Ben, a medium to low degree of shared reality was experienced. Past experiences indicate that Eleanor has a nurtured and close relationship with her mother, something Ben has experienced with his parents (Higgins, 2019). Eleanor may also have a challenge establishing inner states with men, as her father has been absent in her childhood (Higgins, 2019). This might be related to the cooperative process between them on the road toward excellence in elite junior soccer (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Jowett, 2017).

We assume there exist a lack of honesty in the relationship. While Ben values honesty, Eleanor experiences it tough to express her honest opinion, creating unclear expectations and relational distance (Echterhoff et al., 2009). For this reason, Eleanor acknowledges Ben as an expert coach, and does what he tells her to do, but in fear of not being selected on the team (Higgins, 2019; Kristiansen et al., 2012). Relationally, Eleanor founds it difficult to articulate her honest feelings to him as she struggles to express vulnerability. Ben admits that Eleanor is bothered by something, yet, she feels he is doing nothing about in which she wants a closer partnership (Higgins, 2019).

Over time, Eleanor has experienced a stress in relation to development and performance in soccer. Our findings indicated that the way Ben expresses expectations toward Eleanor, may be a regulatory misfit. Because Eleanor is predominant prevention ought (Higgins, 2019), Ben eagerly wants to strengthen Eleanor's beliefs in herself, but she experiences losing vigilance over her own performance (Higgins, 2019). Hence, this regulatory misfit might communicate uncertainty and unclear expectations about how to develop her soccer-specific skills (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019). Eleanor expresses a desire to be understood but find it difficult to understand.

The last partnership, involving Juliet and Ben, our findings indicated that a low degree of shared reality was experienced. Despite having experienced a safe home with both parents' present, who promoted care and understanding, the relationship between Ben and Juliet has a crucial challenge: unshared inner states (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Juliet expressed an insufficient need to share her thoughts, feelings, and attitudes with coach Ben (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019). Ben values honesty, which is ambiguous with Juliet. He perceives that she wants to improve but displays different attitudes and behaviors, resulting in Ben becoming disappointed and unsure about her motives to reach the elite junior level (Simpson, 2007). In contrast, Juliet experiences not receiving enough feedback and understanding of the choices Ben compose. Additionally, in conversations with her coach, she experiences not being listen to, in which she chooses to give in, because she fears not being in the starting line-up (Kristiansen et al., 2012).

This finding indicates that she acknowledges the coach as an epistemic authority, but there is an absence of the relational motive (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Interestingly, she finds it challenging to initiate a conversation with Ben, while expressing no need to talk to him at all. This ambiguous finding might demonstrate that she thinks it is difficult to take the initiative talking to Ben, but at the same time, she wants to be understood and receive feedback (Higgins, 2019). Therefore, considering her past experiences with her significant others, she has little experience in taking the initiative to understand others - just being understood (Higgins, 2019; Simpson, 2007). Hence, in the relationship with her coach, she has little knowledge about how to be understood (Higgins, 2019). Therefore, unresolved expectations may become a stressor where she was relieved when the training sessions were done (Higgins, 2019). Juliet tends to be predominant prevention ought, which is a regulatory misfit with Ben's

predominant promotion ideal (Higgins, 2019). If there exists no honest communication of inner states in the relationship, then the target referent becomes unclear. Because of that, uncertainty in the process toward excellence in elite junior soccer may arise because Ben and Sally are unsure about each other's motives and goals (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Higgins, 2019).

Overall, these representative stories demonstrated how different degrees of shared reality are created in the coach-player relationship. When challenges arise in the partnership, such as a regulatory misfit, the part that experiences the challenge must be motivated enough to share inner states about the problem (Echterhoff et al., 2009).

Trust Is Not Important – It Is the Core Foundation

The level of trust enhances or reduces the perceived degree of shared reality in the coach-player relationship (Cornwell et al., 2017). First, trust is essential to fulfill the epistemic and relational motives in creating a shared reality (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Hence, Sally, Eleanor, and Juliet may all perceive Ben as a kind of an expert coach (e.g., epistemic trust); however, all of them may not perceive him as trustworthy (e.g., relational motive; Echterhoff, Langan, Kramer, & Higgins, 2009). Second, Sally has, unlike Eleanor and Juliet, experienced strain tests with Ben that over time have resulted in a sense of security, which have led to honest information sharing (Korsgaard et al., 2015; Simpson, 2007). Because Sally felt a high level of trust, and a positive unit in her relation to Ben (Higgins, 2019), she tends to be promotion ideal oriented. However, the relationship involving Ben, and Eleanor and Juliet, there may exist a medium to low degree of trust in where they tend to be prevention ought oriented. (Higgins, 2019; Simpson, 2007). Third, Ben clearly expressed a value-driven coaching style, in which Sally has internalized his values, and may therefore experience autonomous motivation in her collaboration with Ben to develop as a young soccer player (Cornwell et al.,

2017; Ryan & Deci, 2017). In contrast, Eleanor and Juliet have only remotely identified the values, nor internalize them as their own in relation to Ben (e.g., coach Ben; Higgins, 2019; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Hence, they may experience a more controlled motivation in their collaboration with Ben (Ryan & Deci, 2017). For this reason, we wish to raise our eyes to important perspectives in youth sport development; long-term and the players's responsibility for their own development (Baker et al., 2018; (Colling et al., 2019).

Long-Term Perspective of Talent Development

The art of long-term thinking will be beneficial as SRT might shed light on the reciprocal coach-athlete relationship (Higgins, 2019; Jowett, 2017; Norris et al., 2017). First, athletes and coaches move between different TDEs and deal with multiple information channels at the same time (Baker et al., 2018). Therefore, the need for regular and explicit information sharing, within and between the various TDEs, is crucial in a long-term perspective (Cornwell et al., 2017; Jowett, 2017; Korsgaard et al. al., 2015; Norris et al., 2017). Second, regularly shared information is likely to establish clear expectations and an understanding that development is not instantaneous, but long-term oriented (Baker et al., 2018; Higgins, 2019). Thus, information sharing may contribute to reduced injury risk among elite junior athletes (Pensgaard, Ivarsson, Nilstad, Solstad, & Steffen, 2018), improved well-being among athletes and coaches (Jowett, 2017; Norris et al., 2017; Schinke et al., 2018), and high quality of motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Although sharing information and clear expectations are important, it will be crucial to give the athletes ownership and responsibility with respect to their own athletic development.

Responsibility for Own Development

Reciprocity and shared reality may shed light on a key aspect; sharing information with each other to create a secure platform for development, in which the athlete learn to take responsibility over their own development (Higgins, 2019; Simpson, 2007). Yet, if there exist no sense of security, expectations may create an experience of fear of failure, uncertainty, and shame, rather than closeness, clarity, and enjoyment (Sagar et al., 2010). The players need to know that they are not alone in their development but are surrounded by coaches who care about them. For this reason, safe relationships may lead to healthy expectations in TDEs (Cornwell et al., 2017; Simpson, 2007).

If healthy expectations are to be experienced, a sense of reciprocal trust should exist within the coach-player relationship, assuming that the coach has to take the first leap of faith (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Simpson, 2007). Due to the role, the coach is an epistemic authority, where he gains trust through his position and expert power (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Denison et al., 2017). Yet, it is not enough to possess expert power to be trusted, the coach must demonstrate intentional relational trust toward the players (Echterhoff et al., 2009; Simpson, 2007). Hence, relational trust is not something the coach can take for granted – it is something he must be given over time (Simpson, 2007).

Practical Implications

With respect to creating a shared reality, we want to highlight a few practical implications. First, coaches and athletes must work to experience relational and epistemic trust, which over time leads to a sense of security (Simpson, 2007). Second, when security is experienced, the threshold for sharing honest inner states with one another is reduced (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Hence, opportunities are created to share information about past experiences, which can create a reciprocal understanding about

each other's behavior (Higgins, 2019). Third, by sharing inner states, the coach-player relationship is likely to possess defined expectations and make the target referent clearer (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Hence, gaining an understanding of how to work together, the epistemic and relational motive is essential in creating a clear target referent (Echterhoff et al., 2009). A defined goal serves as a direction that players prefer, guided by intentional coaches (Simpson, 2007). Fourth, coaches need a reflected relationship to power and their communication (Cushion, 2018; Echterhoff et al., 2009; Denison et al., 2017), as they are in a position to define epistemic truths (e.g., epistemic motive). Hence, because the coaches have epistemic power, it can be an advantage, yet an obstacle, depending on the relational trust they have been given from their players (Echterhoff et al., 2009). Lastly, a successful shared reality is advantageous because it increases the probability of creating a "we-ness" that makes collaboration in the partnership more efficient toward excellence in elite junior soccer (Higgins, 2019).

Strengths, Limitations, and Future Directions

According to our interpretivist paradigmatic positioning and narrative analytical approach, we cannot claim to have the objective truth or the reality as it really is, nor that our perception is insufficient and self-biased (Smith & McGannon, 2018; Sparkes & Smith, 2009). We acknowledge that the validity of our findings may be context-based (Lincoln et al., 2018), nor generalizable, however, we hope that our interpretation-based findings may help shed light on how future practice might look like (Smith, 1984; Sparkes & Smith, 2009; Smith & Sparkes, 2009).

The present study highlights some future directions as well. First, to examine how shared reality may facilitate reciprocity among coaches and athletes toward excellence in different performance contexts (Higgins, 2019; Jowett, 2017). Second, TDEs might provide a valuable context to conduct longitudinal studies, in which

researchers can observe dynamic changes of interpersonal interactions over time

(Collins et al., 2019; Davis et al., 2019; Korsgaard et al. al., 2015). Finally, given that

few studies have examined trust in the sport psychology literature, future studies should

gain a broader understanding of how trust develops in the coach-player relationship.

Conclusion

This study indicates the scope within the reciprocity partnership involving the

coach and player (Baker et al., 2018; Davis et al., 2019; Echterhoff et al., 2009;

Higgins, 2019; Jowett, 2017; Simpson, 2007). To our knowledge, this is the first study

using SRT as a conceptual framework in the sport psychology literature. Due we hope

this study allow researchers an insightful understanding of how reciprocity can be

experienced and be established (Higgins, 2019).

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11. Abbreviations

ASC   Autonomous – Supportive Coaching

SDT   Self-Determination Theory

SLE   Social Learned Expectation

SRT   Shared Reality Theory

TDE   Talent Development Environment

TNS   Total Need Satisfaction

T1   First data collection

T2   Second data collection

T3   Third data collection

12. Appendices

12.1 Appendix 1 – Approval from NSD

Meldeskjema for behandling av personopplysninger

NSD NORSK SENTER FOR FORSKNINGSDATA

NSD sin vurdering

Prosjekttittel

Trener-utøver relasjonen over tid

Referansenummer

422523

Registrert

19.11.2018 av Daniel Rydland Bjåen - danielrb@student.nih.no

Behandlingsansvarlig institusjon

Norges idrettshøgskole / Seksjon for coaching og psykologi

Prosjektansvarlig (vitenskapelig ansatt/veileder eller stipendiat)

Bård Erlend Solstad, b.e.solstad@nih.no, tlf: 23262429

Type prosjekt

Studentprosjekt, masterstudium

Kontaktinformasjon, student

Daniel Rydland Bjåen, Drbjaaen@gmail.com, tlf: 91392532

Prosjektperiode

01.03.2019 - 30.06.2020

Status

27.02.2019 - Vurdert

Vurdering (2)

27.02.2019 - Vurdert

BEKREFTELSE PÅ MOTTATT REVIDERT INFORMASJONSSKRIV NSD
bekrefter å ha mottatt revidert informasjonsskriv. Vi gjør oppmerksom på at vi ikke
foretar en vurdering av skrivet, og vi forutsetter at du har foretatt de endringene vi ba
om. Dokumentasjonen legges

Meldeskjema for behandling av personopplysninger 27.05.2020, 14:49

ut i Meldingsarkivet og er tilgjengelig for din institusjon sammen med øvrig
prosjektdokumentasjon. Vurderingen datert 16.1.2019 gjelder fortsatt.

16.01.2019 - 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 med vedlegg den 16.01.2019, og så fremt du reviderer
informasjonsskrivet, se kommentar under.

MELD ENDRINGER Dersom behandlingen av personopplysninger endrer seg, kan det
være nødvendig å melde dette til NSD ved å oppdatere meldeskjemaet. På våre nettsider
informerer vi om hvilke endringer som må meldes. Vent på svar før endringer
gjennomføres.

KOMMENTAR TIL INFORMASJONSSKRIVET Informasjonsskrivet som er lastet
opp er mangelfullt. Du må påse at informasjonen også omfatter: - At du/dere behandler
opplysninger om den registrerte basert på deres samtykke - Retten til å be om innsyn,
retting, sletting, begrensning og dataportabilitet (kopi) - Retten til å klage til

Datatilsynet - Kontaktopplysninger til institusjonens personvernombud - Dato for anonymisering av personopplysninger må også samsvare i informasjonsskrivet (2020) og i meldeskjema (2022).

På nettsidene våre finner du mer informasjon og en veiledende mal for informasjonsskriv: http://www.nsd.uib.no/personvernombud/hjelp/informasjon_samtykke/informere_om.html

Vi ber om at du laster opp revidert informasjonsskriv når dette er klart.

TYPE OPPLYSNINGER OG VARIGHET Prosjektet vil behandle alminnelige kategorier av personopplysninger frem til 30.06.2022.

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 og 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 samtykke, jf. personvernforordningen art. 6 nr. 1 bokstav a.

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 behandles 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

Meldeskjema for behandling av personopplysninger 27.05.2020, 14:49

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 om behandlingen 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/eller rådføre dere med behandlingsansvarlig institusjon.

OPPFØLGING AV PROSJEKTET NSD vil følge opp underveis og ved planlagt avslutning for å avklare om behandlingen av personopplysningene er avsluttet/pågår i tråd med det som er innmeldt.

Lykke til med prosjektet!

Kontaktperson hos NSD: Marianne Høgetveit Myhren Tlf. Personverntjenester: 55 58 21 17 (tast 1)

12.2 Appendix 2 – Approval from Norwegian School of Sport Science Ethical Committee

Søknad 88 -131218 – 070319 – Trener-utøver relasjon over tid

Bård Erlend Solstad

Seksjon for coaching og psykologi   **OSLO 26. Februar 2019**

Vi viser til tidligere innsendt søknad, vedtak datert 16. desember 2018, mail datert 24. januar 2019, revidert søknad, prosjektbeskrivelse, informasjonsskriv, samtykkeskjema og innsendte meldinger til NSD. Det vises også til dialog mellom prosjektleder.

Vurdering

Punkt 1.6 Prosjektmedarbeidere i søknadsskjemaet er ikke fullstendig i forhold til redegjørelsen for prosjektdeltakere i prosjektplanen.

Forskningsdata ved NIH skal lagres i 5 år etter prosjektslutt for etterprøvbarhet og kontroll. Samtykkeskjemaet mangler denne opplysningen. Samtykkeskjemaene og intervjuguiden som er sendt til NSD for masterprosjektene til Granerud og Fredriksen er ulike dokumentene som fulgte søknaden til etisk komite. Prosjektleder har bekreftet at det er samtykkeskjemaet og intervjuguiden som fulgte søknaden til etisk komite som skal benyttes.

Antall forskningsdeltakere er 3-4 utøvere for hver idrettsgren og 3 trenere. Utvalget er lite, og det er derfor viktig at en vurderer hvordan anonymitet sikres ved publisering av resultatene. Det bemerkes at unge utøvere kan oppleve det noe ubehagelig å snakke om relasjonen til sin trener. Prosjektleder har et selvstendig ansvar for å påse at dette håndteres på en forsvarlig måte.

I henhold til retningslinjer for behandling av søknad til etisk komite for idrettsvitenskapelig forskning på mennesker, har leder av komiteen på fullmakt konkludert med følgende:

Vedtak

På bakgrunn av forelagte dokumentasjon anses prosjektet forsvarlig. Til vedtaket er følgende forutsetning til grunn:

- *At samtykkeskjemaet oppdateres med 5 års lagringstid – OK.*
- *At det sendes inn endringsmelding til NSD om samtykkeskjema og intervjuguide (skjema/guide som var vedlagt søknaden til etisk komite) – OK.*
- *At vilkår fra NSD følges – OK.*
- *At prosjektbeskrivelsen oppdateres med en vurdering av hvordan en skal sikre anonymitet ved publisering og hvordan ev ubehag for unge utøvere ved å snakke om trener-relasjonen kan håndteres*

Det gjøres 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 Sigmund Loland
Leder, Etisk komite, Norges idrettshøgskole

12.3 Appendix 3 – Information about the Research Project and Consent Form

Forskningsprosjekt ved Norges idrettshøgskole:

"Gjensidighet i trener-utøver relasjonen i fotball"

Dette er et spørsmål til deg om å delta [som trener eller utøver i fotball] i et forskningsprosjekt, hvor formålet er å undersøke hvordan trener og utøvere i fotball opplever hverandre i løpet av en sesong. I dette skrivet 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?

Klubb 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 klubb.

Hva innebærer det for deg å delta?

Det vil bli samlet inn data flere ganger i løpet av sesongen 2019/2020:

Uke 18: Dybdeintervju med trener.

Uke 19: Dybdeintervju med hver enkelt utøver.

Uke 36: Dybdeintervju med trener.

Uke 37: Dybdeintervju med hver enkelt utøver.

Uke 3: Dybdeintervju med trener.

Uke 4: Dybdeintervju med hver enkelt utøver.

Intervjuene vil ha en varighet på **ca. 40-50 minutter**, og omhandler spørsmål omkring deltakelse i fotball og trener-utøver relasjonen.

Deltakerne kan få se intervjuguiden på forhånd ved å ta kontakt med ansvarlig for forskningsprosjektet (postdoktor/forsker Bård Erlend Solstad).

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 brannsikkert 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 31.05.20. 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 etterprøvbarhet 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 (Postdoktor/forsker, Forskningssenter for Barne- og Ungdomsidrett)

Samtykkeerklæring

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Jeg har mottatt og forstått informasjon om prosjektet gjensidighet i trener-utøver relasjonen i løpet av en sesong hos klubb, 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. mai 2020

(Signert av prosjektdeltaker, sted, dato)

12.4 Appendix 4 – Interview Guide (T1, T2 and T3)

12.4.1 Appendix 4.1 – T1

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

<u>**Intervjuguide til trenere**</u>

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 (samarbeid, komme overens, bry deg/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. **x.** Mental

      b. **x.** Fysisk

      c. **x.** Teknisk

      d. **x.** Taktisk

      e. **x.** Livsstil

Prosessen:

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. **x.** Individuelt og lag.

        b. **x.** Sett i lys av mentalt, fysisk, teknisk, taktisk og livsstil perspektiver.

10) Kan du beskrive hvordan dere (trener-utøver) jobber sammen i treningsprossessen? 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? Hvordan kommuniserer du med dem?

Psykologisk velvære

Generell psykisk helse

1. Hvordan har du det for tiden?

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?

Mestringstro (CATS)

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)?

Sosial støtte

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?

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. **x.** Definisjon av overbevisning: Gjør det tydelig for utøveren.

b. **x.** 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?

Utvikling av felles mål:

4) Kan du beskrive hvilke overordnede mål du har som utøver?

    a. **x.** 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. **x.** Meg: Hvilke mål har du?

    b. **x.** Deg: Hvilke mål har treneren din?

    c. **x.** 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. **x.** Mental.

        b. **x.** Fysisk.

        c. **x.** Teknisk.

        d. **x.** Taktisk.

        e. **x.** Livsstil.

Prosessen:

8) Hva er motivasjonen din for å holde på med [idrett]? 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. **x.** Individuelt og lag.

        b. **x.** Sett i lys av mentalt, fysisk, teknisk, taktisk og livsstil perspektiver.

10) Kan du beskrive hvordan dere (trener-utøver) jobber sammen i treningsprossessen? 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). Hvordan gjør du deg forstått til treneren din? Hvordan kommuniserer du med din trener?

Psykologisk velvære

Generell psykisk helse

5. Hvordan har du det for tiden?

    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?

6. 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?

Mestringstro (CATS)

7. 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)?

Sosial støtte

8. 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?

Intervjuguide SRT – 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 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? 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 utøveres 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 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 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 treningsprossessen 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 [salen, banen og bassenget] siden sist gang vi møttes?

Intervjuguide SRT – 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 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? 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 treningsprossessen 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 [salen, banen og bassenget] siden sist gang vi møttes?

Intervjuguide SRT – 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?

NOTE (!!!): klargjøre at det er i forhold til de gitte utøverne treneren skal snakke i kontekst av!

Del 2: Trenerens fortid og inner states

5) Hvilke episoder opplever du har vært med på å forme deg mest som person?

      a. Hvilke personer opplever du spiller hovedrollen i de nevnte episodene?

      b. Hvilke erfaringer sitter du igjen med?

      c. Hva tenker og føler du om disse episodene?

5.1) Har du hatt episoder der du har erfart å <u>ikke strekke til</u> i relasjonen til de nevnte personene?

      a. Hva tenker du er grunnen til at de nevnte personene gjorde som de gjorde i de nevnte episodene?

6) Hvilke episoder opplever du har vært med på å forme deg mest som trener?

      a. Hvilke personer opplever du spiller hovedrollen i de nevnte episodene?

      b. Hva tenker du er det viktigste disse personene har lært deg?

      c. Hva tenker du er det viktigste disse personene har lært deg som trener?

6.1) Har du hatt episoder der du har erfart å <u>ikke strekke til</u> i relasjonen til de nevnte personene?

      a. Hva tenker du er grunnen til at de nevnte personene gjorde som de gjorde i de nevnte episodene?

7) Kan du fortelle meg om tidligere trenere 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?

            X: Stille dette spørsmålet etter hver trener

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?
  X: Forventninger og ønsker

8) Har du hatt episoder du har 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 episodene?

Del 3: Promotion og prevention

9) Hvilke <u>episoder</u> opplever du har vært med på å forme dine tanker om det å lykkes/mislykkes i idrett [ballett/fotball/svømming]?

a. Hvilke personer opplever du har spilt de viktigste rollene i de nevnte episodene?

b. Hva var det de nevnte personene gjorde/ikke gjorde som formet tankene dine?

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

a. Gi eksempler på når du opplever disse følelsene, som trener, i de ulike kontekstene av trenings – og forestilling/formidling/konkurransesituasjoner?

  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 (april/mai)?

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

  x. 8 er høyest og 1 er lavest

b. Hvor ofte har du følt de respektive følelsene siden den første intervjurunden?
  :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 konteksten av trenings – og forestilling/formidling/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 (april/mai)?

11.1) Hvordan erfarer du at utøverne imøtekommer og responderer på de ulike følelsene du har opplevd og uttrykt i konteksten av trenings – og forestilling/formidling/konkurransesituasjonen?

11.2) Når utøverne kommer på treningsfeltet/inn i studio/inn i svømmehallen, 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?

       x. (danielle: har du hatt noe kontakt med dine tidligere utøvere siden siste intervjurunde?)

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

Intervjuguide SRT – 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 episoder opplever du har vært med på å forme deg mest som person?

    a. Hvilke personer opplever du spiller hovedrollen i de nevnte episodene?

    b. Hvilke erfaringer sitter du igjen med?

    c. Hva tenker og føler du om disse episodene?

5.1) Har du hatt episoder der du har erfart å <u>ikke strekke til</u> i relasjonen til de nevnte   personene?

    a. Hva tenker du er grunnen til at de nevnte personene gjorde som de gjorde i de nevnte episodene?

6) Hvilke episoder opplever du har vært med på å forme deg mest som utøver?

    a. Hvilke personer opplever du spiller hovedrollen i de nevnte episodene?

    b. Hva tenker du er det viktigste disse personene har lært deg?

c. Hva tenker du er det viktigste disse personene har lært deg som utøver?

6.1) Har du hatt episoder der du har erfart å <u>ikke strekke til</u> i relasjonen til de nevnte   personene?

a. Hva tenker du er grunnen til at de nevnte personene gjorde som de gjorde i de nevnte episodene?

7) Kan du fortelle meg om tidligere trenere 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 denne treneren?

X: Stille dette spørsmålet etter hver trener

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 hatt episoder du har 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 episodene?

Del 3: Promotion og prevention

9) Hvilke episoder opplever du har vært med på å forme dine tanker om det å lykkes/mislykkes i idrett [ballett/fotball/svømming]?

a. Hvilke personer opplever du har spilt de viktigste rollene i de nevnte episodene?

b. Hva var det de nevnte personene gjorde/ikke gjorde som formet tankene dine?

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

a. Gi eksempler på når du opplever disse følelsene i konteksten av trenings – og forestilling/formidling/konkurransesituasjoner?

b. Gi eksempler på alle følelsene

10.1) Hvilke følelser har vært mest fremtredende for deg som utøver/student siden første intervjurunde (april/mai)?

a. Kan du rangere følelsene etter hvor ofte du har erfart dem siden den første intervjurunden (april/mai)? 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/læreren din i konteksten av trenings – og forestilling/formidling/konkurransesituasjonen?

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

b. Hvilken rolle har læreren/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 (april/mai)?

11.1) Hvordan erfarer du at treneren/læreren imøtekommer og responderer på de ulike følelsene du har opplevd og uttrykt i konteksten av trenings – og forestilling/formidling/konkurransesituasjonen?

11.2) Når treneren kommer på treningsfeltet/inn i studio/inn i svømmehallen, 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/lærer siden sist gang vi møttes?

X: Hvordan har du erfart samhandlingen med din nye trener/lærer sammenlignet med din gamle trener/lærer?

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

12.5 Appendix 5 – Transcriptions

12.5.1 Appendix 5.1 – Total Amounts of Words

Words	Coach (*N*=1)	Players (*N*=4)	Total (*N*=5)
T1	4598	13626	18224
T2	4689	19820	24509
T3	8969	25053	34022
Total	18256	58499	76755

12.5.2 Appendix 5.2 – Total Amounts of Pages

Pages	Coach (*N*=1)	Players (*N*=4)	Total (*N*=5)
T1	19	50	69
T2	19	86	105
T3	34	102	136
Total	72	238	310