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	<b>Title and Abstract (5%)</b> Title to include: A concise indication of the research question/problem. Abstract to include: A concise summary of the empirical study undertaken.		
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**CARDIFF METROPOLITAN UNIVERSITY**  
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**Caring in coaching: An exploration of coaches'  
perceptions of caring in practice.**

**(Dissertation submitted under the discipline of  
Sports Coaching)**

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**Caring in coaching: An exploration of coaches'  
perceptions of caring in practice.**

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**Abstract.**

The purpose of this research study was to further explore notions of care within a sporting context. More specifically, it was to, highlight coaches' thoughts, feelings and experiences of care within their practice. The data were collected through semi-structured interviews with three coaches all of whom operated at a university standard. The approach taken allowed for a detailed investigation into coaches' perceptions of the notion of care within the sporting environment. Noddings (1984, 2003, 2005) work on care in an educational setting, and Jones (2006b) writings on care within sports coaching were used to theories and make sense of the data. The findings illustrated that coaches engage in caring acts within their practice and suggested the need and appreciation for a reciprocal relationship with importance placed upon caring for individuals within a team or group setting. Future research could explore the micro interaction that take place within the coaching environment with importance placed upon how the notion of caring affects athletes, and if they perceived the care shown within the practice.

# **Chapter I**

## **INTRODUCTION.**

## **1.1 Introduction.**

The relationship between coach and athlete has recently been conceptualised as a dynamic and social practice (Lyle and Cushion, 2010). However, Jones (2006b) suggests that there is no conceptual framework to currently assist coaches with the complex reality of what they do and how to best to manage it (Jones, 2000, Gilbert and Trudel 2004b). Having said that, more recent research has pointed towards the idea that coaching is fundamentally constructed around the social interactions between the coach-athlete during practice (Jones et al., 2011).

Watkins and Mortimer, (1999) have defined the social interactions between coaches and athletes as a “conscious activity by one person designed to enhance learning in another” (p, 3). The recent development of social interaction surrounding the coach-athlete relationship (Jones et al., 2011), plays a critical role with the management of individual athletes. More specifically, Jones et al, (2004) proposed the notion of care within the coach-athlete relationship, suggesting that care can often form the base of a more successful rapport and an athlete centred learning environment to be met within the given relationship.

However, we still know relatively little about the ongoing social relationships that occur within coach-athlete relations and how coaches particularly use the notion of caring during their practice (Jones, 2003). Consequently, the aim of this study is; to explore how coaches perceive, portray and use the notion of caring in their practice. This will be examined through addressing the following objectives;

1. To examine what coaches particularly care ‘for’ and ‘about’, and they differences between them.
2. To discover how this caring is reflected in practice.
3. To explore what acts are involved to demonstrate such care; and
4. To ascertain the effects of this caring on the coaching environment.

Jones (2006) recognised the impact of a positive coach-athlete relationship in practice and the coaches’ need to develop more rounded athletes, within a sporting and personal context. Building on the previous work of Gilbert and Trudel (2001), this study explores caring, from the coaches’ perspective. Proposing the need for

coaches to adopt the role of a teacher in the coaching environment and the overall duty to engage in reflection upon what they do and how they do it (Gilbert and Trudel, 2001).

More recent research has also identified that coaches learn through their interactions with athletes, which is deemed an ongoing process that is dependent on specific individuals (Cushion et al., 2006). The presented research above provides this study with an underlying value into the development of knowledge and understanding of the interactions that occur between the coach-athlete within the practice and the impact that these have upon the strength of each given relationship.

Coaches educational programmes have been widely criticised for having an over rationalistic structure and abstracted approach from actual coaching contexts (Jones, 2000). Consequently, Jones et al. (2003) and Potrac et al. (2002) have suggested that such formal coach education programmes fail to prepare coaches for the differing factors and personal situation's they face within their practice. The significance of the study then lies in feeding its findings into coach education programmes to gain a 'more real' and relevant perspective for practitioners (Jones et al., 2003 and Potrac et al., 2002).

In addition, the study looks to expand upon the work of Jones et al. (2008) with regards to the engagement and interaction towards how athletes are treated as individuals while remaining part of a collective group of team-mates. Allowing for a furthering of knowledge into athletes want to be treated as an individual no matter of the team or group setting.

Furthermore, working upon the work of Noddings (1984, 2003 and 2005) addressing care in an educational setting. The study, equally, aims to further the research presented of care within a teaching and learning environment, by acknowledging the regard that coaches place upon this notion in a sports coaching practice.

Finally, the study also adds to the literature investigating caring within a coaching environment from the sole perspective of a coach (Jones et al., 2003). Thus the study has particular importance in helping increase the understandings of interactions that occur between coach-athlete and specifically what coaches care 'for' and 'about' within their practice (Armour and Jones, 1998).

**Chapter II**  
**REVIEW OF LITERATURE.**

## **2.1 Introduction.**

The following chapter consists of a review of the existing literature, which will be broken down into three main sections. The chapter begins with a brief insight into the recent research in sports coaching. In particular, this section highlights work that relates to the coaching process and the effectiveness of this process within the practice. The second section provides a review of the literature addressing social interactions and the relationships formed between the coach and athlete, paying particular attention to the overall importance placed on the interpersonal relationship. The third section considers the 'caring agenda' in a sporting context. In doing so, it provides an insight into the existing writings that explore caring within the sports coaching environment.

## **2.2 Summary of Sports Coaching.**

The majority of existing sports coaching literature is based upon two differing opinions of the coaching process and the most effective ways to use them during practice (Lyle, 1999, 2002; Jones, 2004, 2006, 2009). On the one hand, Jones et al. (2008) argued the need for a re-conceptualisation of sport coaching. Here, they argued that there is no step-by-step method to coaching, with there being little or no set framework that can deal with the complex reality of practice (Jones, 2006). Jones (2006) also highlights that the coaching process should include all aspects of the; coach/athlete relationship, their behaviours, the physical and mental development of the athlete alongside competitive and non-competitive activities.

Cushion et al. (2006) examined that many coaches had a lack of knowledge of the coaching process and only basing their practice upon personal feelings, intuitions, events and previous experience. Dension (2007) also proposed that coaching requires specific knowledge that can be applied to practice in order to seek improvements in the athlete's performance, although recognising that coaches and coaching must always be performed with the understanding of the complexities of individuals and their cultural relationships.

A second view of coaching has been proposed by Fairs (1987) and Lyle (2002) who deemed the coaching process to be a predictable and controllable sequence of activities and or inventions. Equally, Brustad (1997) viewed the coaching process as

a conceptual model, that has been examined as a whole through the individual sections. Lyle (2002) also suggested the importance of understanding the coaching process, arguing that the sole purpose of coaching is to enable an improvement in competitive sports. The importance of the coaching process within the practice has been reiterated by Kidman and Hanrahan (2011) who stated that no matter how successful a coach feels or believes they are. The importance still should be placed upon the steps of the coaching process to allow for further athlete development within the sporting context. Cross and Lyle (1999) also proposed that the use of this coaching process will help the coaches with their management of the athletes under their responsibilities.

Cushion, Armour and Jones (2006) critiqued both models of and for coaching. Models for coaching are based upon the suggestion as to how to ideally perform activities and relates to Fairs' (1987) model that identifies given steps that should be taken to meet athletes set targets. This model recognises the five individual steps needed to enable this to occur within practice; data collection, diagnosis, action planning, implementation of the plan and evaluation. It adopts the view point that coaching needs to follow a step-by-step systematic pattern and process to allow for the outcomes to be assessed and or revised. Lyle (2002) also identified the reconceptualization of sports coaching by recognising the need for a model that allows for the identification of interpersonal relationships involved.

Whereas, Cushion et al. (2006) identified the 'models of' through analysing coaches during competitive and non-competitive practices, specifically targeting the coaches' knowledge, strategies used and the coach-athlete interactions (Cote' et al., 1995a, 1995b; d'Arrippe-Longueville et al., 1998; Jowett and Cockerill, 2002). The in-depth qualitative studies allowed for a comprehensive and holistic outline of the coaching process to be formed. This examines the systematic and unproblematic way that performers merely receive the coaching, acknowledging that there is no single element of coaching that can be represented through a step-by-step coaching process. Where-as Potrac and Jones (2009) have suggested that the coaching practice has improved from the conceptualisation, as the coaching process became an oversimplified nature. This point has been reiterated by Trudel (2006) and Hardman and Jones (2011) who have expressed the coaching process as a complex and ever-changing nature within the coaching environment and the individuals

personal characteristics. Additionally Martindale, Collins and Daubney (2005) argued that the modelling approach taken disregards each individual athlete's stage of learning and development.

### **2.3 The Coach/Athlete Relationship.**

Research into coach-athlete relationships suggests that the relationship should be a supportive, dynamic and diverse interaction in the practice to allow for the athlete's development within the sporting and personal context (Lyle & Cushion, 2010). Jones (2006a) proposed that the relationships have a direct impact upon the individual athlete's values, their choices and the experiences gained in the personal and learning based relationships.

Jowett (2007) described the coach-athlete relationship as to be based upon the coach and athletes' thoughts, feelings and behaviours that, in turn, will have an effect upon the strength of the given relationship. Equally, within the sporting environment, many different relationships may feature including; coach-athlete, coach-parent, athlete-athlete, athlete-partner and athlete-parent. With importance placed upon the coach-athlete relationships, where the success of a team or individual athlete may be affected by the strength of the given relationship (Heydarinejad and Adman, 2010).

This is reiterated by Jowett and Cockerill (2002) and Lyle (1999), who have identified the coach-athlete relationship as a central aspect with regards to the development and improvement of the athlete's performance levels. Furthermore, Lyle (2002) suggested that the interpersonal relationships may have an effect on many differing areas within the sporting environment including: athlete performance levels, athlete satisfaction, the functional practice, and coaches' roles. He also argued that many of the areas identified above can often enable a positive coaching and learning environment to occur (Lyle, 2002).

Jones et al. (2011) and Jowett (2007) have proposed that the interpersonal relationships between the coach-athlete must also include; both the coach and athletes values, in addition to a mutual trust-respect. Jones et al. (2011) suggested that coaches need an awareness of the significance that performers place upon these interactions within the relationship and their personal performance levels.

Cassidy et al. (2009) additionally recognised that coaches must attempt to engage with athletes' behaviours in order to aid progressions and enable the accomplishment of sports specific goals within competitive and non-competitive practice. While allowing coaches to consider the personal wants and needs of each individual (Lyle and Cushion, 2010). Jones et al. (2008) similarly argued that the engagement and interaction towards how athletes are treated as an individual while remaining part of a collective group of team-mates.

Oldham et al. (2011) stated that an improvement in performance levels will be met once the athlete and coach place the athlete's learning needs at the forefront of practice. Whereas Jowett (2005) conceptual model explored the focuses upon the relationship and connections between the coach and athlete. Jowett's (2007) also identified the notion of trust and respect to be factors that may affect the quality of the coach-athlete relationship, when proposing that the trust an athlete places in their coach can be essential to the development of a positive relationship.

Potrac et al. (2007) suggested that if an athlete experiences a lack of trust from their coach, this will, in turn, have a damaging effect upon the respect the coach possesses and the decline their relationship. On the other hand, LaVoi's (2004) discussed how an athlete's feeling of belonging and closeness to their coach may lead to a positive psychological development within the relationship. Jowett (2005) and Jowett et al. (2010) also highlighted the importance of mutual trust between the coach and athlete as a key factor that can be seen to enhance the closeness of their relationship. While similarly acknowledging that the coaches' overall involvement and engagement with their athlete will also aid a continuous skill development, and the maintenance of enthusiasm within competitive and non-competitive practices (Jowett, 2005 and Jowett et al., 2010).

Jones et al. (2008) explored the coaches' overall management of the coach-athlete relationship, suggesting that a greater level of importance needed to be established. Arguing that without a successful coach-athlete relationship being met, any additional knowledge and or expertise conveyed may be deemed irrelevant as the given relationship is considered an unsuccessful relationship. Whereas Lyle (1999) stated that the successfulness of the coach-athlete relationship may, in turn, have an affect the athlete's levels of self-esteem, satisfaction and performance

accomplishment. Equally, the coach-athlete relationship has been suggested to have a significant affect upon the experiences that young athletes have, as it has been recognised to help adapted and encourage positive behaviours within a sporting environment (Sterling and Kerr, 2009). Jones and Standage (2006) have similarly recognised the importance of a positive and successful coach-athlete relationship for each individual athlete socially fashioned learning process. In addition, they proposed that the educational relationship between the coach and athlete will play a key role with the development of the athletes within the practice (Jones and Standage, 2006).

#### **2.4 Caring Agenda.**

Noddings (2003) defined 'care' as a "burdened mental state, one of anxiety, fear or solicitude about something or someone" (p, 9). Equally she recognised that to 'care' is to have "regard for you, what you think, feel and desire will matter to me" (Noddings, 2003, p, 9). Here, she argued that caring should be the bedrock of a successful education, with a key component of this notion taking place during the connections and relationships (Noddings, 2005). More specifically Noddings (2005) proposed that "a caring relation is, in its most basic form, is a connection or encounter between two human beings; a carer and a recipient of care, or cared for" (p, 15). Similarly, she explained that no matter how hard a teacher may try to care, if the recipient does not feel that care is being received then there is something wrong within the relationship (Noddings, 2005).

Jones (2006b) examined care in sports coaching context to be based upon the quality of the coach-athlete relationship, the social learning environment created and the learner's willingness to accept the advice given. Where coaching has recently been suggested to be a relationship consisting of more than just a conveying of knowledge but one of micro interactions that occur between the coaches and athletes (Jones 2009).

Agne (1999) suggested that caring should involve a commitment and a detached motivational focus from the coach to the cared-for athlete. Owens and Ennis (2005) reiterated that coaches need to take ownership of the any relationship by removing any personal distraction to enable this to be better achieved.

Agne (1999) acknowledged that athletes learn by absorbing the coaches' persona, rather than memorising what they are saying, while arguing that coaches must strive for self-actualization and the want to consciously better others. This can be achieved by creating a working environment where the athletes have a sense of security and belonging: - by providing a safe place for learning to occur free from the fear of failure (Dempsey and Noblit, 1993; Rogers and Webb, 1991). Owen and Ennis (2005) similarly, recognised that for caring as an agenda to be successful, coaches must try to attend to the needs, moods and focuses of the athletes.

The theory surrounding caring in coaching has been shown to be one of an open and clear nature (Agne, 1999). However, Armour and Jones (1998) argued that there is no clear means of a good caring practice. Some difficulties may arise here, as although all coaches will seem to care for their own athletes, each individual coach may care about differing aspects of their athlete, which will also differ between each session that is accomplished. This suggests that caring is based upon the interaction and subsequent relationship established between the carer and cared for. Furthermore, Armour and Jones (1998) went on to define the differences between a coach caring about and caring for their athletes.

Armour and Jones (1998) concluded that all coaches will seem to care about their athletes, as they will have an underlying level of concern that will be placed upon such individuals'- health, wellbeing and future development in a sporting and personal context. But for coaches to care for their athletes has been suggested to require a deeper level of personal interest and involvement to be shown by the carer. This is because to care for the athlete requires a certain amount of time taken to develop a personal relationship, which Noddings (1984) has proposed could be performed through either friendly eye contact or as little as a smile exchanged to help demonstrate the message that interest and engaged is being received. This affection shown by the carer to the cared-for allows the cared-for athlete to develop feelings that something special has been added to them (Noddings, 2003). Noddings (2005) further, recognised that the carer can be characterised by their 'engrossment' and 'motivational displacement', defining engrossment as an "open, nonselective receptivity to the cared for" (Noddings, 2005, p, 15).

On a related point, Jones et al. (2011) argued the point that the social interactions that occur between the coach and athlete will depend upon the 'nature' of the sport. Similarly, an individual athlete's aspiration, capabilities and personal circumstances, will all have influenced the amount of care that needs to be demonstrated. Jones et al. (2011) also highlighted that the levels of care and the caring agenda could sometimes be overlooked or forgot within masculine and aggressive sports (rugby). This is because within this sporting environment this notion could be deemed to be one of a delicate or disregarded issue for the coach/athlete to be cared about or cared for.

**Chapter III**  
**METHODOLOGY.**

### **3.1 Qualitative Research.**

Qualitative research has come to widespread use in sport, as the demand to acquire informational 'rich data' has also increased (Hardy, Jones and Gould, 1996). Such an approach enables an underlying level of understanding related to participants' experiences, thoughts, feeling and emotions (Gratton and Jones, 2004). Additionally, Gratton and Jones (2004) additionally added that qualitative research intends to examine meanings or qualities that are unable to be quantifiable. Similarly, Denzin and Lincon (1994) proposed that qualitative research is a study of effects/features that attempts to make sense or interpret certain aspects of an individual's experiences and the meanings placed to them.

Flick (2007) described the qualitative approach as an attempt to analyse the world 'out there' by questioning the experiences and knowledge of individuals. Qualitative research then allows for an in-depth and detailed study to be conducted; one, without restrictions from a predetermined structure which, in-turn, permits a greater level of discussion, openness and detail into specific topic area (Patton, 2002). This point is reiterated by Gratton and Jones (2004) who suggested that documenting interactions and communications allow for a detailed examination into how participants behave within their natural social environment giving a meaningful insight to be established.

Gratton and Jones (2010) identify that qualitative research is a much less than straightforward process, due to the seemingly lack of a common and acceptable method compared to an objective approach taken in quantitative studies. Qualitative research has been a much debated area regarding the validity and trustworthiness of related studies (Gratton and Jones, 2010). On the other hand, Lincoln and Guba (1985) summarise that the trustworthiness of a qualitative study is assessed with a criteria based on four areas; credibility, dependability, transferability, and conformability.

The nature of the present study offers a strong rationale for the use of a qualitative approach, as it proposes to gain a better level of understanding into the nature of a coach-athlete relationship, and how coaches use the notion of caring during their practice (Jones et al., 2003). In addition, a quantitative approach would be deemed

unsuitable for this study as the results as based on the participant's thoughts, feelings and experiences and thus, are not of a numerical nature.

### **3.2 Method.**

The means of data collection used within the study involved a series of semi-structured interviews. This is because, the study focuses upon coaches' perceptions of their experience, thoughts and feelings (May, 1999). Kumar (2005) proposed that interviewed participants can express their personal opinion, feelings, emotions and experience. Gratton and Jones (2010) also highlighted that the interviewing process is "undoubtedly the most common method by which qualitative data is collected in sport research" (p, 154). Interviews are commonly used to collect data related to concepts that are often difficult or inappropriate to measure, as they explore questions of 'why' and 'how' rather than 'how many' and 'when' (Gratton and Jones 2010). However, there are several factors to be considered when using interviews as a means of data collection, not least of which is relationship needed to be built between the interviewer and interviewee. Additionally face-to-face interview also offers the interviewer the chance to assess any changes in the participants body language, facial expressions and or tone of voice when discussing certain aspects (Gratton and Jones, 2010).

Flick (2007) deemed that the use of semi-structure interviews would enable a flexible approach to be taken during data collection. Equally, Gratton and Jones (2010) suggested that unstructured or semi-structured interviews also allow for an emergence of key themes that may not be identified through a more structured format. Additionally, Denscombe (2007) proposed that this method of data collection can allow the interviewee to discuss in greater depth any issue that may arise through their open ended answers. Semi-structured interviews can also allow participants to cover specific areas in greater detail with their answers given, gaining a far richer informational content compared to other forms of data collection. They can also permit the interviewer flexibility when asking questions, adding additional questions and probing for greater detail allowing a 'richer' source of qualitative data to be collected (Gratton & Jones, 2004).

The use of a guide within a semi-structured interview presents particular themes of investigation that can be linked to the relevance of the study (Gratton and Jones, 2010). In this context, Noaks and Wincup (2004) explored the process of 'active listening' with regards to the style of interviewing thus allowing the participants freedom to discuss the given topic areas and produce the needed data. This is reiterated by Flick (2007), who proposed that the participant's freedom to talk freely will lead to their own first hand experiences being discussed within the interviews.

### **3.3 Participants.**

Three male University football coaches were selected for interview within the study. Patton (2002) proposed that interviewed participants should be selected on pre-defined criteria to gain "information-rich" data. The participants in this study were selected using purposive sampling techniques, which are deliberate and non-random choices based on the quality of information subjects possess. Here, Quinn-Patton (1990) purposed that such a selection of participants is based on who would provide the strongest informational content, when addressing specific research questions. This point is reiterated by Gratton and Jones (2010), who described the proposed of qualitative research as to generate 'informational rich data'. Consequently, unlike quantitative research which often requires the largest possible sample size groups, qualitative studies require a smaller, more selective sample possessing greater relevant knowledge (Gratton and Jones, 2010). Gratton and Jones (2010) additionally argued that the majority of published qualitative studies have fewer than six participants. Tongco (2007) identified that the purpose of such sampling also allows for individuals to act as guides into their culture and experience in differing situations. Hence, the participants selected must have prior knowledge and the relevant experiences for the aims of the given study thus enabling information rich data to be collected and analysed (Tongco, 2007).

The participants selected each had differing levels of expertise within the sporting context, as all three coaches worked within the realms of a university setting. However, the first coach within the study had only been in charge of the university second/reserve team for 18 months to 2 years with this current job his first management job in the sport. Whereas, the second coach interviewed had been in charge of the university first team for 5 years and was also the 'Director of Football'

at the university, while having many years of experience when working within profession academies and with semi-professional men's teams. Likewise, the third coach interviewed had only taken control of the university third/fourth team for the last 6 months, with previous experience working within children within a develop academy youth set up but his current job being the highest level he had coached adults at.

### **3.4 Procedure.**

Prior to the interviewing process a pilot study was completed, reviewed and reflected upon. This was principally done to ensure the efficiency of the interview guide, thus developing the use of questions and probes. The pilot study also allowed further alterations to be made regarding the organisation and phraseology of individual aspects of the interview (Gillham, 2000). Each interview lasted between 20-30 minutes and were, all conducted by the same primary researcher within a quiet, relaxed and environment agreeable to the participant coaches, where each coach interviewed, participated within one interview each. All interviews were recorded with a Dictaphone to allow a complete record of the interviews to be accessed.

All participants' were made aware of the structure of the interview and the study aims/objectives to allow for suitable reflections on previous practices. Each interview began with introductory questions to enable a demographic understanding to be developed, and to help participants to encourage a free flowing conversational exchange (Patton, 2002). The guide allowed for such guidance to enable participants the freedom to express thoughts, feelings and experiences, therefore generating a free flowing interview and a flexible yet structured approach to be taken. During the interviews the participants were allowed time to reflect on questions with questions being revisited or reworded if participants were unsure or aware of what had been asked of them.

### **3.5 Data Analysis.**

Following the completion of the interviews, transcripts were finalised and analysed. Miles and Huberman (1994) identified that the continuous process of reading and re-reading over the transcripts allow for recurring themes, thoughts, feelings and experiences to be highlighted. Equally, this process allows the researcher to gain a

greater level of overall sense of the interviews' content, permitting an inductive analysis to take place.

Charmaz (2006) recognised the process of coding to be a method of transferring information within the data into analytic interpretations. Charmaz (2006) also identified line-by-line coding to be a technique with sufficient benefit to reduce missed themes. Strauss and Corbin (1990) similarly highlighted the process of open coding as a technique where data are broken down, examined, compared, conceptualized and categorized to develop upon the means of each given statement. However, the related process of clustering allows for the researcher to enhance understanding of the raw data by grouping individual themes which are similar to allow for comparisons to be made (Gratton and Jones, 2010). The process of transferring raw data into the key themes of the study is performed by selecting various themes that run through each interview and individually colour coding or highlighting them to develop relevance towards the studies aims and objectives. As within the interview guide it was broken down into four main sections, each in turn, cover one of the four main objectives of the study, this allowed for precise themes and reiterated points to be easily identified. The highlighting process began with identifying points that the first coach made and the relevance to the study or the given objective, this was then compared to the thoughts of the second and the third interview where a key theme that ran through each was then recognised.

The adopted method for analysis within the study was inductive. This is because Gratton and Jones (2010) highlight, deductive research is generally associated with quantitative studies or studies that develop upon a research idea, hypothesis and/or an existing theory. On the other hand, inductive research is generally allied with interpretative and qualitative studies, as inductive research allows the researcher to collect data, analyse data. Furthermore, Daengbuppha, Hemmington and Wilkes (2006) identify that inductive methods of research are utilised to derive theories embedded within the text, and those that surround the content of the study.

### **3.6 Ethical Considerations.**

Qualitative research in particular provides many ethical dilemmas due to the exploration of individuals' private and personal information (Gratton and Jones, 2010). Equally, McNamee, Oliver and Wainwright (2007) highlighted that prior to the

start of any research study all ethical considerations need to be addressed. Goddard and Melville (2007) recognised that when performing any form of data collection with human participants, individual identities must be anonymised. Similarly, Silverman (2011) proposed that the researcher has responsibility to protect the participant's identities. Therefore, within this study, the participants involved were all made aware of the aims, objectives and purpose of the investigation, before 'informed consent' forms were signed and dated giving them the opportunity to withdraw at any given time (Silverman, 2011). All three coaches signed the necessary consent forms, whilst were also reassured that they did not have to answer any questions they felt uncomfortable with. The resulting transcripts were only seen by the researcher and supervisor, with pseudonyms used in order to keep participants anonymous. The interviews required informed consent forms because much of the content explored personal thoughts, feelings and experience. De Vaus (2001) addressed confidentiality as an important ethical issue by highlighting that if participant's feel that the data will truly be kept confidential then they are more likely speak on sensitive matters allowing for rich data to be collected. In addition, member checking was performed, where each participant read through the relevant information to ensure it reflected what they had said (Gratton and Jones, 2004). Furthermore, the sensitive issues that arose during the interviewing process meant that the interviews needed to be performed within a safe environment, where the participants felt comfortable and relaxed in order to explore their personal thoughts and feeling (Silverman, 2011).

## **Chapter III**

# **RESULTS AND DISSCUSSION.**

#### **4.1 The coaches need and appreciation for a reciprocal relationship.**

Noddings (2005) identified that care “in its most basic form, is a connection or encounter between two human beings; a carer and a recipient of care, or cared for” (p, 15). She also proposed that caring should be the bedrock of a successful education. From the interviews conducted, it was clear that two of the three coaches acknowledged the need for caring to be shown with regards to the athlete’s academic and personal development within the university set-up. For example:

Jonny: “I can develop them as players, because when they leave us, at the end of their 3-year cycle, they leave and go elsewhere, they go into the real world. They have to go and get a job, and I feel as if we can contribute to them being better people, have better communication skills; they can work as a team, they can work on their own, they can be leaders on the pitch and they can be leaders off the pitch.”

This point was reiterated by Ed when he highlighted the need to develop players beyond a sporting sense:

Ed: “It goes beyond just the football sense, it goes to an academic sense, and we look at trying to help them with their work and also in their personal lives... If there are issues or problems that we can possibly address. But also for future actions when they leave, their post-graduate work, possibly future jobs and how we can help them shape their own profile as people, so they better themselves when they leave here.”

In this respect, care in sports coaching has recently been suggested to be based upon the quality of the coach-athlete relationship and the willingness to accept advice given within the coaching environment (Jones, 2006b). Similarly, Jones (2009) identified that sports’ coaching is a relationship of more than just a handover of knowledge or information between the coach and athlete. Rather he posited coaches are educators and have roles allied to teaching, tutoring and mentoring. Equally, Jones (2006b) suggested that ‘educational relationships’ between the coach-athlete help to shape the athletes values, personal choices and experiences gained within the sporting environment. Jones et al. (2011) further reinforced the participant’s statements, by identifying the coach-athlete relationships to be

portrayed as an 'exchange relationship'. This is where coaches bring knowledge, expertise, direction and assistance to the coaching and social environment, whereas the athletes bring a willingness to learn, a degree of compliance and their best efforts.

Two of the coaches in the study also identified the feeling that if they paid greater levels of attention toward the athletes, their relationships would become more reciprocal in nature. For example:

Ed: "I'm not so much a person who always wants to be liked, but the people I associate myself with, some of the players who have passed through the university or who are currently in the system, that they see me as someone that they value and I value them back, our relationships are reciprocal, so we understand it's not all give, give, and take, take, take, it's kind of a bit of both ways, so we'll share the same values and belief."

James: "I think I look after them and I think they pay me respect back. So if I treat them in a certain way, I hope I'll get that in return. So if I treat them emotionally, physically mentally, I think they'd do the same for me."

Ed: "I invest, as do other coaches at the university, a great deal of time in the players. There are no implicit rules to suggest they have to be here, but they do, they turn up, they engage with what we ask, they train hard, they work hard, just as much as the coaches. So in that, as long as the players respect us back, the amount of time we put in as coaches and they put that back into the system, then that's what I start to care about, that shows me that they value what we do; they appreciate what we do for them."

It was apparent throughout the transcripts that the coaches thought of their relationships to be of a reciprocal nature. As Jones et al. (2011) and Jowett (2007) have identified that the coach-athlete relationship must include; the coach and athlete's values and a shared trust and respect. While Jowett (2007) suggested that the notion of trust and respect will have affect upon the quality of the given relationship. Where-as Potrac et al. (2007) proposed that if athletes experiences a lack of trust, this will, in turn, have a damaging effect upon the respect the coach possesses. As a result the coaches within the study have highlighted that the levels

of care, attention and respect shown towards an athlete or a group of athletes can fluctuate and are depended upon many differing factors within the practice.

#### **4.2 Caring for individuals within a group or team environment.**

Care is defined as a “burdened mental state, one of anxiety, fear or solicitude about something or someone” (Noddings, 2005, pg. 9). Noddings (2003) also proposed that to care for something or someone requires levels of concern for what you think, what you feel and what matters to you. The results identified that all three of the coaches within the study supported the statement provided by Noddings (2005), as all three recognised the need for care to be reflected within the coaching environment. For example:

Jonny: “Certain individuals might need different things, so yes, you have to know your players and their personalities, so yes. I suppose it’s your job as a coach, if you do care for or about your athletes, you want to know about them because then you can best distribute your knowledge or distribute actions or instructions which best suit them.”

James: “I really think this is down to different personalities. Because some of them might need praise all the time; some might need feedback all the time. So I think you have to differentiate and make sure everyone’s different and make sure you treat everyone as individuals.”

Ed: “Now, yes I do use certain individuals and I will use certain instances to show how I do care for people, but I won’t always get it right, because if I show care for and about one, no doubt I’m offending somebody else.”

One coach within the study also highlighted a specific example of how care was individually shown towards athletes in the coaching environment:

Ed: “One example I could give is that everybody knew that I thought John Jones was a fantastic football player and it was all ‘Oh, Bobby cares for him loads!’ Rightly, I did as a football player, but I appreciated Alan Richman just as much, the goalkeeper, for everything he had done and I cared for him and about him in every way as I cared for the other player, because he stood for

what I felt the football club was all about, somebody who was totally committed, he believed in the way we thought things should be done.”

The coaches identified that their levels of care can and will fluctuate between different individual within the setting, while Jonny and James also recognised that the care shown was dependent upon the individual’s personalities, traits and the strength of the specific coach-athlete relationship. Owen and Ennis, (2005) further strengthened the statements given, by proposing that the coach must try to attend to the needs, moods and focuses of the athletes. Whereas Armour and Jones (1998) argued that coaches all seem to care about their individual athletes’- health, wellbeing and future development in a sporting and personal context. This is evident within Jonny’s statement in acknowledging that familiarising himself with athletes will aid the distribution of knowledge, actions or instructions. Equally, Cassidy et al. (2009) suggested coaches must endeavour to engage with athlete’s behaviours to aid personal and performance related developments. This will also allow coaches to identify each individual athlete’s personal wants and needs (Lyle and Cushion, 2010). Jones et al. (2008) likewise argued that the engagement and interaction towards how athletes are treated as individuals is important while remaining part of a collective group of team-mates. In this respect, it was recognised by the coaches that if they engaged in individual care for specific athletes, then others in the group or team setting may identify these athletes as players that are attempting to create a close nit relationship in order to gain personal rewards.

#### **4.3 Acts that portray care.**

Noddings (1984) highlighted that to care for the athletes entails a deeper level of personal interest and involvement. Furthermore, Noddings (1984) identified acts that portray care as; friendly eye contact or as little as a smile exchanged. Equally, Noddings (2003) described the acts of care highlighted about (Noddings, 1984) as means allowing athletes to develop the feeling that something special has been added, thus depicting the message that the coaches are interested and engaged within the practice. From the interviews it became apparent that Jonny had used many of Noddings (1984) acts of care within the practice to enhance relationships and demonstrate acts of caring toward the athletes. For example:

Jonny: “Caring for an athlete could mean that every time you see them, you could just give them a little nod and they know what that nod means, they associate that nod with some sort of action. So with certain players, I do smile at them and I do have a laugh and a joke with them because I know that’s their personality. Where-as certain players, I know are slightly grumpier or slightly more naïve and every time I see them I put my hand up or just give them a nod.”

Jonny: “On the pitch, if someone does something well I’ll tell them on the pitch; I’ll clap them, I’ll acknowledge them, give them a thumbs-up, and tell them they’ve done well. Similarly if they don’t do well, I might have a go at them, I might make them acknowledge the fact; sometimes people know they’ve done wrong and they put their hands up and say so.”

Whereas James identified, the importance that he places upon obtaining an open, relaxed and engaging body language throughout the practice to support acts of care. For example:

James: “So if there’s something that goes wrong I’m there to discuss anything that’s of concern to them. So I think positive, open body language; the way you say certain stuff to someone – you just use your words differently to certain people.”

James: “Hands at your side, not folded – open so you’re open to any discussions any players might want. A smile on your face, you’re concentrating on every aspect of everyone’s performance, you’re enthusiastic and engaged in the practice.”

Martens (1997) estimated that around 70% of communications are non-verbal that coaches use during practice. Additionally, Martens (1997) highlights the importance that is needed to be placed on nonverbal communications within the sporting environment. With forms of nonverbal communication including; hand gestures, facial expressions, body movements and acts of kindness (Martens, 1997). This is evident within the statements proposed by James, which identifies the use of body language when reinforcing communication. This is reiterated by Martens (1997) as he suggests that a positive approach enables emphasis to be placed upon

desirable behaviours, whereas a negative approach taken can eliminate undesirable behaviours of athletes.

However, Ed within the study suggested that the main act of care shown towards his athletes is to do with elements of honesty and respect, with regards to the decisions made in non-competitive and competitive practices. For example:

Ed: "But I also think an element of honesty, we show that actually we care so when, for instance you are dropping a player, rather than telling them a load of bullshit and 'No, I'm dropping you because there's this, this and that.' Actually being honest enough with them for me suggests that you respect the player and you care for him, because if you didn't care for him you'd tell him a load of bollocks and run the risk of losing him."

Relating to a practical example of how the honesty that was shown helped to improved and further his relationship with the specific athlete. For example:

Ed: "I dropped him at a game away and he was distraught, he couldn't believe I'd dropped him. He actually wrote an undergraduate thesis on emotions in coaching and that particular relationship between us and that situation when I dropped him and from that I think he valued our relationship in a different way. Again, I was honest in my appraisal of why I was leaving him out and I think he appreciated that and he realised, I think again that I really did care for him."

Ed then, felt importance needed to be placed upon the establishment of a relationship, where elements of trust and respect are portrayed by coaches regarding the decision made. As during the interviewing process he suggested that if levels of trust and respect were established, this would equally, demonstrate that he cares for the athlete. Similarly, Jowett's (2007) identified the notion of trust and respect as factors that may affect the quality of the coach-athlete relationship, which is also reiterated by Cassidy et al. (2004) suggesting that successful working relationships can be established once importance is placed upon maintenance of trust and respect within the practice. While discussing acts that portray caring in practice, Ed also highlighted the element honesty to be significant factor, suggesting that the coach has to take into account the athlete's feelings and emotions when discussing his reasoning for '*dropping*' him. As Noddings (2003) highlights that to

care for the cared-for athlete entails the carer to develop feelings of “regard for you, what you think, feel and desire” (p, 9). While Agne (1999) suggests that caring should involve a commitment and a detached motivational focus from the coach to the cared-for athlete, which has been shown by the coach when removing his own focus of winning or the competition to take the athlete away from the group to talk over his decision made, as he cares for the athlete not to lie or mislead them.

#### **4.4 Negative effects of too much care shown.**

Noddings (2003) suggested that within any given relationship, it is clear that the cared-for will develop levels of dependency for the care, affection and emotional support shown by the carer. While on the other hand, she acknowledged that if the demands for care become too great or the delivery of care becomes ungracious, the coach (as the carer) may come to be resentful towards the cared-for athlete. This can result in the carer turning inwards and/or withdrawing the care. The results suggest that all three participants identified that showing too much care towards the athletes may have detrimental effect upon the relationships, behaviours and the dependency for care to be a consistent factor within the relationship. For example:

Jonny: “But I suppose, as a coach, I feel as if I do care quite a lot but it doesn’t mean I’m fluffy! It doesn’t mean I wrap everybody in cotton wool; it doesn’t mean that I’m trying to get this really perfect, fluffy environment but it doesn’t mean I don’t care.”

Ed: “I apologised and when I reflected on it, it was only my kind of affection towards the player, and I used that comment, that ended up really as a negative for him, because the players really took the mickey out of him so it had a negative effect. He became a bit reserved, and he resented me a little bit for saying it.”

James: “Yes, if I show too much care they might think it’s some kind of weakness. Then players might be too dependent on it, if I do give certain feedback or show to individual that I care more about him, other players might get rebellious in that aspect.”

The results above also indicated that levels of care shown towards individual athletes or the team can in turn, have a negative effect on the coaching environment. This is highlighted by Dension (2007) when recognising that coaches and coaching must be performed with the understanding of the complexities of individuals and their

cultural relationships. On the other hand, Jowett (2007) defines the coach-athlete relationship as a relationship that is based upon the coach and athletes' thoughts, feelings and behaviours that, in turn, will have an effect upon the strength of this given relationship. Jones et al. (2011) meanwhile suggested that social practice can be described as the feelings of belonging to a group or community, where each individual learns the norms of the community and in turn, identifies themselves as a member (Cushion et al., 2006).

Ed, on the other hand, admitted that the affection and regard he held for an individual in the group, became the catalyst for the other team members to alter their perceptions which, in turn, had a negative effect on the individual's confidence and performance levels. For example:

Ed: "An example I referred to earlier is the player called John Jones. The players knew how special I thought he was as a player and I started calling him by a special nickname which everybody knows, is what I call my son. So without me being aware, all of a sudden the players were calling this John Jones by the special nickname as well. So John felt I was aligning him to be close to my son and one day some comments were made, there was joking and some teasing towards John and he turned around to me and said 'Look! Look what you've done, look what they all think about me now.'"

The highlighted example above identifies the neglect shown by the coach to recognise the impact that overwhelming levels of care shown towards the individual athlete had upon the groups behaviours and perceptions. Where Noddings (2003) acknowledged that a successful caring relationship is dependent on many differing factors to be met and accepted by both the cared-for and the carer. Equally, she highlighted that even if caring characteristics are exhibited by the coach as the carer it does not deem the relationship to be one of a caring nature. As the cared-for athlete may not appreciate, want or in fact need the coaches caring, hence the relationship will in turn have something missing or wrong and will be perceived as a relationship that cannot be characterised as one of caring. The statement above reiterates Armour and Jones (1998) argument that within the coaching environment there is no clear meaning of a good caring practice, as it is deemed that all coaches do care for the athlete but each individual coach may care for different aspects of an

athletes' development. This point is also proposed as Noddings (2003) suggests that caring and the intensity of caring shown for individuals varies between the type of relationships, the closeness of relationship and the situational conditions that occur within the coaching environment.

**Chapter V**  
**CONCLUSION.**

## **5.1 Conclusion.**

This study aimed to build upon the literature surrounding the notion of caring within the coaching environment, thus contributing to the understanding of the coach-athlete relationship and the interactions that occur between the coach and athletes during practice. Through the work of Noddings (1984, 2003 and 2005), considering and defining care within an educational setting, Jones (2000, 2006b, 2009) explored the notion of care within the coaching environment, identifying the affects that caring may have upon the athletes behaviours, relationships and interaction. The study thus proposed 'to explore how coaches perceive, portray and use the notion of caring in their practice' with the interviewing process unearthing four main findings.

The first finding that materialised was 'the coaches need and appreciation for a reciprocal relationship'. Here, the participants placed importance that was placed upon the development of a two-way relationship; the coach is not just providing the athletes with the required levels of care and attention within the practice, but the athletes are repaying the coaches with their trust and respect. Furthering researchers work (e.g. Jones et al., 2011; Jowett, 2007) the findings highlight trust and respect to be factors that may affect the quality of the coach-athlete relationship.

The second finding identified the coaches want to 'care for individuals within a group or team setting' as all of the participants suggested that levels of caring can and will fluctuate between certain individuals within the group or team environment. Here, the coaches felt that levels of caring can be dependent upon individuals' personalities, traits and whether the athletes require care to be shown. This expanding upon the research of Jones et al. (2008) suggesting that the engagement and interaction towards how athletes are treated is important while remaining part of a collective group. Noddings (2003) also highlighted that to care for someone requires levels of concern for what you think, what you feel and what matters to you.

The third theme that became apparent during the study was the 'acts that portray care' as each of the three participants recognised the significance of displaying specific acts when coaching that help to portray the notion of caring within the practice, this in turn, will enhance relationships and demonstrate acts of caring toward the athletes. Reflecting upon Noddings (2003) work into caring within an educational setting, where she has acknowledged that acts of care will enable the

cared-for athletes develop the feeling that something special has been added, thus portraying the message that the carer is interested and engaged within the practice.

The fourth and final finding identified within the study was the 'negative effects of too much care shown' where the participants suggested that too much care shown for the athletes within the practice may in turn, damage relationships, alter behaviours of individuals and change the groups perceptions. Conceptualising the work of Armour and Jones (1998) that proposed that there is no clear meaning of a good caring practice, as it is deemed that all coaches do care but each individual coach may care for different aspects of the athletes' development. While Noddings (2003) research in to levels of care shown, equally, suggests that caring and the intensity of caring shown for individuals varies between the type of relationships, the closeness of the relationship and the situational conditions.

Finally, future research could explore the micro interaction that take place within the coaching environment and the consequences that these interactions have upon the athletes' behaviours, relationships and future development. As this could have particular relevance to the notion of caring for and about athletes within the coaching environment. Similarly, another possible direction for research would be to examine how the notion of caring affects athletes, and if they perceived the care shown within the practice. In doing so, this would create a more realistic appraisal of the full effects and feelings into caring within a sports coaching environment.

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**Appendix A.**  
**INFORMATION SHEET.**

**Title of Project: To explore how coaches perceive, portray and use the notion of caring in their practice.**

## **Information Sheet.**

### **Background**

The aims of the study are 'To explore how coaches perceive, portray and use the notion of caring in their practice'. This will be examined through addressing the following objectives;

1. To examine what coaches particularly care 'for' and 'about', and the differences between them. 2. To discover how this caring is reflected in practice. 3. To explore what acts are involved to demonstrate such care; and 4. To ascertain the effects of this caring on the coaching environment. Within the study there will be 3 to 5 University standard football (soccer) coaches, including; a first team coach, a second/reserve team coach and a third or fourth team coach.

### **Why you have been asked**

You have been invited to take part in this study because it will give a great insight into the thoughts, feelings, opinions and experience on this subject matter and the effects this has within the coaching environment.

### **Are there any risks?**

There are not any significant risks to you from taking part in the study. If you are feeling unwell, I would advise that you do not take part. And in any case, you should do anything that you don't want to – just notify me.

### **Your rights**

Participating in this study does not mean that you give up any legal rights. You have the right to withdraw at any point from participation in the study, you have the right to refuse to answer any specific questions, and you have the right to confidentiality and anonymity.

### **What happens to the results of the study?**

After the results are taken then are then stored securely in a locked filing cabinet within my home. They will be coded so that I can remove names. The information will then be used for a student dissertation

### **Are there any benefits from taking part?**

You may learn about stages of the coaching process, the notion of caring while enhancing skills of reflection practice to review personal experiences between the coach and their athlete.

### **How I protect your privacy:**

I have taken very careful steps to make sure that you cannot be identified from any of the information that we have about you. All the information about you will be stored securely away from the consent and assent forms. At the end of the evaluation study I will destroy the information I have gathered about you. I will only keep the consent and assent forms with your name and address. I must keep these for ten years because I am required to do so by UWIC.

### **Further information**

If you have any questions about the research or how we intend to conduct the study, please contact me on:

Ryan Barnes

07837602682

[st20004551@outlook.cardiffmet.ac.uk](mailto:st20004551@outlook.cardiffmet.ac.uk)

**Appendix B.**

**PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM.**

**Participant Consent form.**

**Title of Project:** To explore how coaches perceive, portray and use the notion of caring in their practice.

**Name of Researcher:** Ryan Barnes

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**Participant to complete this section.**

**Please initial each box.**

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information given to me via the information sheet and orally for the above study.
  
2. I have had the opportunity to consider the information and sufficient time to discuss the study with family and friends
  
3. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study and have had these answered satisfactorily.
  
4. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.
  
5. I understand that all of the information gathered during the study will be held in confidence and all the details when published will be anonymous.
  
6. I agree to take part in the above study.

Name of participant: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of participant: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Name of person taking the consent: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of person taking the consent: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix C.**  
**INTERVIEW GUIDE.**

## **Interview Guide.**

### **Aims and Objectives of study.**

To explore how coaches perceive, portray and use the notion of caring in their practice. This will be examined through addressing the following objectives;

1. To examine what coaches particularly care 'for' and 'about', and the differences between them.
2. To discover how this caring is reflected in practice.
3. To explore what acts are involved to demonstrate such care; and
4. To ascertain the effects of this caring on the coaching environment.

### **Demographic Information.**

**Q1).** What sport are you currently involved in?

**Q2).** How long have you been coaching this specific team?

**Q3).** What is the highest level that you have coached at?

**Q4).** Could you please give a brief description of the team that you coach? (Age, ability, standard of play)

**The interview will be a semi- structured interview that will be broken down into four main sections, which will be based on your personal coaching perception, portrayal and use of the notion of caring in your own practice.**

**Section one; what coaches specifically care 'for' and 'about' and the differences between them.**

**Q1).** Do you know the difference between caring for and about an athlete?

- a. Armour and Jones (1998) define caring **about** their athletes, as they will have an underlying level of concern that will be placed upon such individuals' health, wellbeing and future development in a sporting and personal context- **Care about.**
- b. Where as to care **for** athletes requires a deeper level of personal interest as this requires a certain amount of time taken to develop a personal relationship, which Noddings' (1984) has proposed could be performed through either friendly eye contact or as little as a smile exchanged- **Care for.**

**Q2).** What do you think you care about?

- a. How is this reflected?
- b. How often?
- c. Can you give me an example?

**Q3).** What do you think you care for?

- a. How often do you express it?
- b. Why?
- c. Can you give me an example of that?

**Q4).** Do you spend more time caring for things than about things? (In essence what do you really care about when coaching?)

- a. Why these things above others? (What makes them so important for coaches?)
- b. Can you give me an example of these acts?

**Q5).** Do you think that there is a difference between caring for and caring about an athlete?

- a. Why do you think this?
- b. How is this shown?
- c. Can you give an example of this?

**Section two; how coaches reflect caring within their practice.**

**Q1).** Within your practice how is caring shown?

- a. At what points of the given session?
- b. Through what means?
- c. Can you give an example of this?

**Q2).** Is care as an agenda within your thoughts during practice?

- a. Why do you feel it is or isn't?
- b. When is this factor?
- c. Can you give an example of this?

**Q3).** Do you feel that your athletes positively receive your caring?

- a. How do you know this?
- b. What means do you assess this by?

**Q4).** Do previous results or the form of players affect levels of care?

- a. If so why?
- b. How is this demonstrated?
- c. Can you give an example of this?

**Section three; what specific acts will demonstrate such care.**

**Q1).** What means of care do you demonstrate towards your athletes?

- a. Communication?
- b. Eye contact?
- c. A friendly smile?
- d. Applause?
- e. Can you give an example of these?

**Q2).** What specific act recognised above is most used within practice?

- a. How is this used?
- b. When?
- c. Is this a clear signal of praise or accomplishment?

**Q3).** Is the care demonstrated to a specific individual or towards the whole team?

- a. How is this demonstrated?
- b. When is this shown?
- c. At what points of the session is it given?

**Q4).** Do you change your means of feedback to incorporate and or suit individual player's needs?

- a. Why is it important to base care at specific levels?
- b. Can you give an example of this?

**Section four; the effect of caring within the coaching environment.**

**Q1).** Do you feel that care will have a positive effect within the environment?

- a. Why do you personally feel this?
- b. How do you assess the effectiveness of care?
- c. When do you reflect upon this?

**Q2).** Can too much care have a detrimental effect on the coaching environment?

- a. Why do you feel this?
- b. What makes you think this?
- c. Can you give an example of this?

**Q3).** Do specific athletes receive more care than others?

- a. Why is care given here?
- b. Can you give an example of this?

**Q4).** Are individual's needs taken into account?

- a. How do you take individuals needs into account?
- b. When is the specific care given?
- c. Can you give an example of this?

### **Concluding Questions.**

**Q1).** We are coming to the end of the interview, at this point how did you feel that this interview went?

**Q2).** Did you feel comfortable enough to discuss specific aspects of your practice and talk about your experience to the full?

**Q3).** At any point during the interview do you feel that I have influenced your answers or the examples given at any point?

**Q4).** Do you have any further comments you would like to make at this point?

**Appendix D.**  
**ETHICS APPROVAL.**



Cardiff  
Metropolitan  
University

Prifysgol  
Metropolitan  
Caerdydd

Date: 18/03/2014

To: Ryan Barnes

Project reference number: 13/05/019U

Your project was recommended for approval by myself as supervisor and formally approved at the Cardiff School of Sport Research Ethics Committee meeting of 27th November 2013.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "R. Jones".

Supervisor