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‘Who’s who’: Exploring cycling coaches’ biographies

Abstract

Consideration of a learners’ biography is deemed to impact on their engagement with formal education and their connection with, and perceived relevance of, educational course content. It is considered equally important to understand coaches who enrol on formal coach learning in sport – their motivations, beliefs, values, existing knowledge and previous life experiences. This research explored the individual biographies of eight neophyte cycling coaches over an 18-month period following the successful completion of a national governing body coach award. Following 23 formal semi-structured interviews and 26 unstructured interviews, deductive thematic narrative analysis revealed three different typologies of coach: the ‘performance coach’; the ‘parent-coach’; and the ‘community coach’. Although the subjective details of the life stories varied according to their idiosyncratic perspective, all participants’ stories broadly followed one of these three identifiable narratives. Identifying different ‘typologies’ of cycling coaches answers calls from coach developers to account for the specific backgrounds of coaches’ practices. It is hoped this research will begin the process of developing more personalised approaches to coach education.
Introduction

Historically, coaching knowledge was constructed through trial and error, where learning to coach occurred through a process of socialisation and networking (Day & Carpenter, 2016). This approach created prevalent pedagogies – established practices and process, and normalised behaviours – which became ingrained in some sporting and coaching cultures (Walsh & Carson, 2019). Indeed, the knowledge developed through experience forms the basis for expertise in coaching (Lyle & Cushion, 2017a). However, the processes learned through experience might not represent best practice for novice coaches, or serve the coaching profession in the future, meaning that preparation to coach cannot be left to myopic experience alone (Lyle & Cushion, 2017b).

Formal coach learning programmes ‘typically’ define what knowledge is necessary for coaches to practice; accelerating the learning that takes place from experience, and differentiating between good and bad experiences (Lyle & Cushion, 2017b). For the last twenty years, most formal coach education programmes in the United Kingdom (UK) have been aligned to the United Kingdom Coaching Certificate (UKCC). However, some National Governing Bodies of Sport (NGBs), have started to transition away from this framework, following concerns of its ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach to learning, and the lack of opportunities provided within the framework for coaches to take ownership of their own development (Stodter & Cushion, 2017; Werthner & Trudel, 2009). Moreover, it is well established in the literature, that learners who attend formal coach education courses have prior knowledge and past experiences of the sport and its culture, as well as significant events experienced by the individual over the life course (Trudel, Gilbert & Rodrigue, 2016). Thus, previous criticisms of coach education suggest that coach developers have not fully embedded these considerations into course content or assessment outcomes, and, consequently, are incongruous to the routines,
practices, and meanings gained from coaches’ previous lived experience (Chesterfield et al, 2010; Entwistle & Peterson, 2004).

Coach education has, historically, attempted to patch new skills or knowledge onto existing knowledge frameworks (Thompson & Zeuli, 1999; Cushion, 2013), rather than transform an individual’s beliefs, assumptions, knowledge, and habits to rebuild coaches’ practice (Harvey & Knight, 1996). Previous evidence would suggest that the relative success of coach education begins with the learner’s past experiences and networks of existing knowledge, belief and values (Cushion et al, 2003; Stodter & Cushion, 2014; Werthner & Trudel, 2009). For instance, Ludec et al (2012) reported that coaches validated, changed, or intended to change, their practice, depending on their existing biography. Changes to practice were a result of transformed biographies – cognitively, emotively, and practically – where coaches linked new learning to previous cognitive structures. Stodter and Cushion (2017) extended this work further, by proposing that learning occurs through a double-filter, where the first ‘level’ refers to personal knowledge, beliefs, and practice, highlighting the active role coaches take in their learning, and drawing attention to the prominent role that personal biography plays in supporting and hindering change.

Crucially, this means that the same coach education opportunity has a different impact on different individuals depending on each individual’s unique starting point (Griffiths & Armour 2013; Stodter & Cushion, 2017). Therefore, it is imperative for coach developers responsible for designing formal learning programmes to understand “who” the learner is, and appreciate an individual’s previous knowledge and experience(s) (Trudel, Culver & Werthner, 2013; Paquette, Hussain, Trudel, et al, 2014). Evidence-based frameworks, for example Côté and Gilbert (2009), reflect the coach as a finished article, leaving coach developers with an image of the knowledge required, but no ‘signposts’ of how to navigate the journey (Walsh & Carson, 2019). Paquette and Trudel (2019) suggested a collection of recommendations for
coach development administrators to better support learner-centred coach education. Yet, there is a narrative of how coach education could be delivered, rather than evidence-informed insight of how it can be delivered by considering what works and why (Cope, Cushion, Harvey & Partington, 2020).

To best incorporate an individual’s biography into their formal learning experiences, it is important to identify the individuals who attend formal coach education. This backdrop presents a strong rationale to apply narrative inquiry to sport coaching. Implicit here, is our understanding, that through creating and sharing personal stories, people make sense of and bring meaning and coherence to their lives. This psychosocial approach to understanding coaches’ stories may help establish the existence of both complimentary and different narrative types across the coaching workforce. The present study therefore aims to explore the different individual biographies of cycling coaches enrolled on a British Cycling’s (BC’s) coach education programmes. The importance of this work lies in its ability to help inform how formal coach education can be effectively constructed and delivered, by accounting for the different biographies of those attending coach education programmes.

**Methodology**

It is suggested that coaches’ thoughts and actions are value-laden, situated in subjective, lived experiences, which in turn creates individual, self-conscious, intentional, and reflective learners (North, 2013). With these considerations in mind, this study was positioned within an interpretivist research paradigm, as the focus was on understanding the experiences of individuals, which are, naturally, subjective (Coe, 2012). Here, social reality is a product of how people, both individually and collectively, make sense of their social world (Smith, 1989; Markula & Silk, 2011). The interpretivist, qualitative research approach adopted in this study infers, from specific instances, something about a culture or group of people – by seeing the general in the particular (Berger, 1963). This means that the basis for ‘moderate
generalisations’ lie in the consistency between cultures in our respective social worlds (Williams, 2000). Therefore, interpretive qualitative research, as reported in this study, is packed with several ‘layers of truth’ and offers a representation of ‘reality’ by offering an interconnected multi-dimensional narrative experienced by the individuals in question (Salla, 1993).

**Methods**

*Setting and context*

This research study tracked eight cycling coaches over an 18-month period and formed part of a larger body of commissioned research designed to evaluate the coach education provision of a large NGB in the UK (i.e., BC). For context, BC is the NGB responsible for all forms of cycling within the UK, including bicycle motorcross (BMX), mountain biking, cyclo-cross, road, track, and cycle speedway. At the time of writing, BC’s formal education pathway consists of 4 ‘Levels’. The first, Level 1, is for assistant coaches. The second, Level 2, is a generic coaching qualification that enables coaches to operate in various coaching environments, such as playgrounds and fields. There is then a Level 2 discipline specific qualification, which qualifies coaches to operate in discipline specific environments. The highest-level is a discipline specific Level 3 qualification.

*Participants*

Following institutional ethical approval, eight participants were purposively recruited, and following informed consent and verbal assent agreed to participate in this study. Recruitment criteria required each participant to be enrolled on the BC (generic) Level 2 qualification. The eight participants were recruited from geographically diverse locations of the UK and all were coaching cycling at least once per week. Below is a brief biographical introduction to each participant. In the interest of confidentiality, all participants’ names are replaced with pseudonyms.
Joe lives with his wife and two young sons. In Joe’s own words “the boys have surpassed constantly needing me”, meaning that he has more time on his hands, which he now wants to fill. Following comprehensive school, he entered full-time employment and now works as a General Manager. He has trained for triathlons, but due to injury, has spent the last five years focused on cycling and has experimented with every cycling discipline.

James lives with his wife and two teenage children. James’s daughter is a competitive road and track cyclist. Following comprehensive school, James started a job in sales. He now owns a successful company and plans to take early retirement to ease his transition into coaching. He has tried most sports over the years, but is a self-confessed ‘weekend-warrior’ - cycling in his spare time – on his road bike.

Oliver lives with his wife and three children, who have cycled as a family with the local club for the last three and a half years. He attended state school, before studying biochemistry at university, and then entering pharmaceuticals, where is currently a marketing director. He played numerous sports in school, with cycling playing a role in commuting to work to improve fitness and levels of habitual physical activity.

Peter and his wife are both retired teachers. After attending Grammar school, a selective tier of the U.K. state-school system, he worked in industrial catering. Being a stay-at-home Dad ignited Peter’s desire to work with children, which lead him to teaching. Peter played numerous sports growing up and cycled as a means of commuting. He found his love for cycling as he headed into retirement and joined a social cycling club. Combined with his desire to work with children, coaching seemed a logical next step.

Chris lives with his wife and has two children, both in their 40s. He works full-time as a self-employed architect. He attended grammar school, then university. He played numerous sports growing up, and cycling was always a means of commuting. Aged 69, he fell back in
love with cycling and joined the same cycling club as Peter and volunteered for a coaching role with the club.

Beth attended her local Comprehensive school, before studying an Art degree and then turning to teaching, where she has worked for the last thirteen years. Beth became involved in cycling through her husband. Preferring fast riding, she focuses on Downhill racing at a local level.

Louise is single and works in sport full-time. On leaving school, Louise attended university, and then trained in Law. She felt her job in sport influenced her coaching role. She became involved in cycling as a means to commute, but found herself racing other riders when setting off from traffic lights, which led her to seek out formal cycling activity and coaching. She races competitively on a regular basis.

Adam is married with one daughter, now in her 30s. After leaving school, he qualified as a personal trainer. He now works as a self-employed instructor. He has always cycled, initially as a means of commuting, but became involved with competitive cycling after attending a time-trial race as a spectator. He now rides the Track, and is focused on sprint events.

Interviews

Interviews are one of the most widely used qualitative data collection methods in sport and exercise science (Smith & Sparkes, 2016). This is perhaps unsurprising, considering that human beings are conversationalists, and it is through conversations that we get to know other people (Brinkman, 2013). Interviews aim to create conversations that invite participants to tell stories in relation to their perspectives or insights, experiences, feelings, emotions or behaviours in relation to the study’s research question (Smith & Sparkes, 2016). However, interviewing is a craft, more than a prescribed technique (Demuth, 2015). Conducting one-to-one interviews allows for an in-depth examination of an individual’s attitudes, opinions, beliefs and values when researching a particular phenomenon (Purdy, 2014).
The interpretive paradigm acknowledges that researchers cannot come to a study with a pre-established set of neutral procedures to investigate a given problem. Here, the researcher is the primary research tool with which they must find, identify and collect data (Ball, 1990). Therefore, data collection is an ‘inquiry process carried out by human beings’ (Wolcott, 1990, p.202). In line with the interpretivist approach, the focus of data collection was on depth of detail from small populations (Howell, 2013) and highly detailed accounts – evoking ‘thick descriptions’ of the what, why, where, when, who and why (Potrac et al, 2014, p.34). From an interpretivist and constructivist perspective, I (Sam) played an active role in the co-construction of knowledge, as it was impossible to separate myself, as the researcher, from the researched, because I played a part in creating the truth (Smith, 2009; Smith & Deemer, 2000). Interviews are often criticised for only consisting of one interview (Smith & Sparkes, 2016). As such, this research employed multiple interviews, both semi-structured and unstructured, longitudinally. Semi-structured interviews were used at the start of coaches’ participation, to ensure all topics were covered, and structure the conversation to help build rapport. However, once rapport had been established, and participants began to diverge, unstructured interviews were deemed more appropriate. Both are discussed in more detail below.

*Semi-structured interviews*

The semi-structured interviews totalled 1,390 minutes (N=23 interviews), ranging from 30.72 minutes to 101.62 minutes in length (M=60.45; SD=16.84). They included pre-determined questions, informed by both the existing literature and the primary research aim. A pre-determined interview guide was developed, highlighting the main topics of conversation to be covered. This still allowed for a degree of flexibility, exploring areas which emerged through the discussion (Purdy, 2014). Likewise, the phrasing of questions was adaptable, allowing the discussion to follow the issues that emerged during the interview, rather than restricting the interview to a fixed agenda, as a structured interview would (Purdy, 2014).
Unstructured interviews

The unstructured interviews totalled 1,349 minutes (N=26 interviews), ranging from 13.42 minutes to 89.85 minutes in length (M=51.88; SD=20.49). The spontaneous nature of these interviews accommodates for the broad range of interview duration. They focused on the key areas under investigation, but were more spontaneous – more conversational in tone – emphasising the natural flow of the interaction, knowledge and experience of, and between, myself and the participants. This was achieved by varying the question order and being flexible in my approach to the interviews. I adopted the rules of everyday conversation: turn-taking, relevance; and entrance and exit talk (Riessman, 2008). As a neophyte qualitative researcher this initially created a sense of anxiety, as control of the interview was handed to the participant; they were able to discuss anything that they felt was important or relevant, reworking questions to discuss what they felt was important, rather than simply responding in scripted ways to planned questions (Riessman, 2008). Although identifying participants’ biographies was at the heart of the study, it was only considered to be part of the participant’s ‘self’, which meant they were free to discuss whatever they considered important, however much it digressed from the interview agenda.

Data Capture

All the interviews were audio recorded to capture the topic and dynamics of the conversation; however, the true interpretative process began during the interview itself (Riessman, 2008). Through the chosen probes, whether to gain further clarification on a given point, or to delve deeper into the participants’ response, it was important to effectively participate in the interview and actively contribute to the data collected. This created multiple layers of truth, as each person’s character, values, and idiosyncrasies across various situations were uncovered. The audio files however, provided an opportunity to reflect, review and re-listen to the
interview dialogue and make sense of the participants wider experiences (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009).

Data analysis

All audio recordings were transcribed verbatim, producing 694,070 words across 1,380 pages of single-spaced text. Transcripts highlighted the ‘actual words spoken’ by participants (Riley, 1990, p.25) as well as the culture of specific disciplines across the sport of cycling. They presented dynamic talk in a linear, written form, which meant the transcript could not capture the fluid dynamics of words and gestures (Riessman, 2008). Researchers cannot stand in a neutral, objective position during the transcription process, and, as such, the transcript was constructed in line with the interpretivist and constructionist perspective (Riessman, 2008). In this way, the transcripts played a role in creating the narrative, more than simply “finding” the narratives discussed in the interview.

Deductive thematic analysis (TA) developed themes through an analytic process, following six phases (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Braun, Clarke & Hayfield, 2019). This analysis developed over time via a recursive process, back and forth, between: the entire, larger data set; coded extracts of data being analysed; and the data being produced. This analysis highlighted similarities between participants’ cycling experience, motivations, beliefs, and values. However, TA fragmented the narratives. Therefore, thematic narrative analysis (TNA), the most commonly used narrative analysis in sport and exercise science (Riessman, 2008), was employed. The focus was on the themes in stories and the patterns and relationships among these (Smith, 2016). TNA followed a similar iterative process to TA, but with, rather on, the stories within transcripts (Smith, 2016). This facilitated patterns that ran through the set of stories identified. To ensure stories were kept intact, the focus was the thread of each story and the recurrent instances within the whole story. Themes were developed by making notes on the thread of the story and regular occurrences throughout the story, highlighting key sentences
and phrases, summarising apparent and underlying meanings in the data (Smith, 2016). The process focused on more than the themes developed, focusing on describing themes of the story and, therefore, what the story was about (Smith, 2016). This process continued to write, revise, and edit the interpretations of these descriptions.

**Research quality, trustworthiness, and transparency of data**

Positioning this research within the interpretivist paradigm, interviews were socially constructed, with the researcher and participants playing equal roles in creating the narrative (Smith, 2009; Smith & Deemer, 2000). Accounts, stories and conversations constituted experience, reflecting their narrative truth, rather than objective truth in some pristine form (Smith & Sparkes, 2016). Member-checking was avoided because the ontological assumptions clashed with the ontological relativism of the study. To increase credibility, participants’ points were clarified during interviews and consequent probes were used to clarify certain points. In addition, the time frame of data capture and prolonged engagement with participants increased the trustworthiness and credibility of data.

**Findings**

The present study set out to explore the different types of coaches attending formal qualifications based on their personal beliefs and values, their motivations for coaching, and their knowledge and previous experience(s). A narrative type (Frank, 1995) is the ‘most general storyline that can be recognised underlying the plot and tensions of particular stories’ (p.75). Douglas and Carless (2006, 2009, 2015) used Frank’s (1995) concept of narrative types to identify three narratives types in sport contexts and we use these types as a theoretical frame here. Although the specific details of different individual’s stories varied according to participants’ life circumstances, participants’ stories broadly followed one of these three identifiable plots. These typologies are described: 1) performance narratives, whereby the story plot is oriented towards achieving specific goals, such as winning and/or being the best. The
ultimate dream or destination in the story is to win; 2) discovery narrative, which revolves around exploration of the full and multidimensional possibilities of life. There is no single destination, rather a multiplicity of potential journeys that become available through the storyteller’s openness to new experiences; and 3) relational narrative, which is characterised by a story of complex interdependent connection between two or more people in which sport performance is a by-product. The plot of relational stories revolves around creating, experiencing and sustaining relationships with others. Unlike performance stories, there is no single destination in the relational plot (Douglas & Carless, 2015).

**Louise and Adam**

These coaches aligned to a performance narrative (Douglas & Carless, 2006, 2009, 2015). They were focused on achieving specific goals, professional development, and being the best. “Good” coaching was perceived to orient towards explaining ‘what [the rider] could improve on’ - ‘highlighting the teaching points’ (Adam). However, this was balanced with a need for ‘emotional intelligence’ to ‘read’ how what coaches are doing impacts the person in front of them, highlighting the need for coaches to be empathetic, good communicators, and good listeners (Louise). They emphasised an ‘athlete-centred’ and ‘athlete-led’ approach, believed that coaches should be supportive and dynamic in their delivery, and stressed the ‘need to be able to flex’ to ‘meet the needs of the athlete [they’re] coaching’ (Louise).

These coaches were motivated to qualify as coaches so they could take their coaching more seriously. They viewed BC’s formal qualifications as a series that needed accomplishing – certificates that needed collecting, because ‘if there’s a level it needs achieving’ (Louise). However, they were also a ‘means to an end’ for their progression, and served as a way of legitimising their knowledge, giving them the ability to ‘stick [their] head above the parapet’ and say, ‘”I’m endorsed!”… more than a maverick trying to coach’ (Louise). More importantly, however, these coaches were motivated to improve the future of competitive cycling. They
centred on the way coaching improves performance, developing riders’ technical skills. 

Additionally, Louise was passionate about women coaches being represented at competitive 
levels, and about increasing female participation:

I’m really interested in women cycling, and generally, equality across the board. I’m a woman 
and feel that we get treated like crap… we’re horrendously underrepresented… there’s amazing 
talent that people at the top hasn’t even heard of. Cycling is male, pale and stale in terms of the 
NGB and the international federation… There aren’t enough women – female leaders – in sport, 
and that means there are so few female riders at the Club level, there’s no competition for them, 
so they end up racing against boys, and they can’t compete, so they become despondent, and 
and drop out… we need to be doing more to keep the girls we have, without adding more barriers 
for them.

Louise

These coaches had a history of competitive cycling and had ambitions of coaching at the 
highest levels. They had received formal coaching and felt that their knowledge was superior 
to their peers, and therefore, ‘more qualified’ than their peers:

What they should do, really, is have you send in your qualifications, send in your accreditation 
and all that for the Track – how long you’ve been riding at the Track, your background on the 
Track, whether you’ve raced or not… At least if you’ve raced you can at least give people the 
information you’ve learned through racing, so when you go on the course you’ve got even more 
information, whether it’s to do with power meters on the pedals, or the lines on the track, or 
what gear you’re using… To me, it’s a bit like one cap fits all, if you understand what I mean?

Adam

In addition, they saw coaching as a career:

I teach spin classes… A few people that came to my class started coming to the Track because 
I said, “You want to go on [the Track], it’s really good”… then it got about that I was teaching 
the [local] spin classes […] and then I was speaking to the Track manager at [the local 
velodrome], and I said, “What do I need to get this coaching qualification on the Track?” And 
he said, “You just go on this site”, so that’s where we are now.

Adam

These coaches were frustrated by BC’s lack of focus on elite coach education. They felt 
‘elite coach education is often side-lined to UK Sport’s apprentice programme, because it’s 
there and it’s free’ (Louise), rather than taking an active role in developing coaches at that part 
of the coaching pathway. Moreover, Louise, stressed how even club coaches develop riders’ 
skills at an early, ‘formative’ stage, which impacts at a higher level:
I’m not sure what BC want from [their] coaches. Is it damaged limitations [sic], like the minimum standards in as many coaches as possible around the country, versus making incredibly good coaches who do x, y and z, and demonstrate a, b and c? […] If you want that, you need to be more harsh on whether or not every single candidate becomes a coach straight away. People should probably fail… I don’t want to do the tutor a disservice, but nobody is going to get failed, right? I suspect BC just want lots of coaches across the country delivering the minimum standard… But coaching is a huge responsibility. If you want coaching to be professionalised and have more recognition for the impact it has, there needs to be certain qualities - certain standards – that are upheld.

Louise

Again, this links to these coaches’ assumption that they are above average, and highlights a clear disconnect between what they thought BC’s role should be and what they perceived BC’s role to be. The ‘performance coach’ biography is summarised in Figure 1.

[Insert Figure 1]

Joe, James, and Oliver

These coaches aligned to a discovery narrative (Douglas & Carless, 2006, 2009, 2015). They cited their children's involvement in cycling as the reason for their involvement in cycling, and were motivated by exploring new possibilities, a new role, and a new identity – the opportunity to be '[Oliver] the coach’, rather than '[Oliver] the Dad, or '[Oliver] the work colleague’. In this way, coaching offered these participants a journey of self-discovery and personal growth:

I’ve reached a point now where the kids don’t need me constantly, so I have a bit more free time now, and I sort of want to fill it… and I feel good about coaching at sessions. There’s a need for me to coach, and I get something out of it too - that feel good factor.

Joe

These coaches’ newly established social status of ‘coach’ granted them the ‘Coach’ title, which they balanced alongside their 'parent’ role: ‘my son thought it was amazing that Daddy was helping during the sessions’ (Joe):

My kids are riding bikes, and I’m going along to the session, so I’m there anyway. Instead of standing around, moving cones, I might as well get involved and help with the session. I’ve felt a bit of a spare part, on the sidelines of the Club. But the Level 2 will make me more useful - I’ll get insurance, and the ability to do it on my own.

Joe
For James, coaching built a closer relationship with his daughter, who was a competitive cyclist, and he was ‘excited to gain more knowledge’ so that he could ‘help to improve’ her cycling. Here, formal qualifications built a foundation for their new journeys. Yet these participants were motivated to coach by more than their parental role in sport. Firstly, qualifying as Level 2 coaches increased their club’s capacity:

We’ve got kids wanting to be involved and wanting to participate in cycling, and we’ve got the facilities, we just don’t have the coaches to coach them. Unfortunately, a lot comes down to funding the quals, and the lack of funding available to attend coaching quals… You need a rich club who can afford to fund your course. Of course, you can self-fund your way through it, but that’s a barrier to some looking to get involved… it means there’s a regional shortage of coaches, and that needs addressing… The Level 1 remit is quite limiting. The club wanted me to do the Level 2 qualification because it allows me to lead a session on my own, within the club, which means they can take on more riders.

Joe

Equally, James discussed how a formal qualification added weight to what he was saying when he coached. These coaches did not value personal cycling experience, believing that it did not matter how skilled they were as riders. They were experienced cyclists – and had always been involved in cycling – but they were self-taught, having not received any formal coaching. Consequently, these coaches’ ideas of coaching were based on what they had ‘witnessed first-hand’ (Oliver) when assisting in their clubs and they felt their cycling knowledge was ‘above the national average’. Oliver was excited to share knowledge, motivated by seeing ‘someone who didn’t have a clue, just get it’. This links to these coaches’ beliefs that coaching is about influencing people and creating an encouraging environment, where riders left happy and wanting to come back. They valued riders’ efforts, ‘good rapport and communication with riders’ (James), and working to meet riders’ needs. The ‘parent-coach’ biography is summarised in Figure 2.

[Insert Figure 2]

Peter, Chris, and Beth
These coaches aligned with the relational narrative (Douglas & Carless, 2006, 2009, 2015). They were social riders who casually and socially engaged with cycling. They valued how cycling offered the opportunity to keep fit, be outdoors, and meet new people. However, these coaches also believed that coaching had the power to develop people:

You know that you are helping them to build confidence and their abilities so that, hopefully, they will be safer when they ride [...] I’m really pleased, particularly for the ones who aren’t confident, that they’re able to do it... it brings about relationships between the children of helping the ones that are weaker and looking after each other, and being responsible... There are so many things that come out of [coaching] that you’re not aiming for, but they just happen anyway.

Peter

These participants saw coaching as a way of empowering people. They were invested in the growth and broader development of individuals. They valued their friendships formed through cycling and were motivated to extend the friendships that cycling offered. Therefore, their narratives oriented towards people; on creating and sustaining relationships with others through cycling, as well as their shared experiences of cycling with others. For example, Beth’s relationship with cycling started because of her boyfriend – now husband – and a group of female riders who she rode and raced with. Beth’s organic transition into coaching occurred after she developed, technically. As a strong rider she was asked by friends for help and advice on cycling technique and enjoyed helping people. Peter and Chris were two friends who, having established and strengthened their friendship through cycling, ventured on their coaching journeys together.

These coaches were motivated to coach so that they could spread their enjoyment of cycling and grow cycling within their local community. They focused on ‘investing in people’ first and cycling second. They believed that coaches should give learners something to work towards and develop riders’ interest to create lifelong cyclists who love the sport. Here, coaching was not about bettering the sport on a national level, but simply about bettering cycling within their immediate community:
I want to introduce cycling to youth riders, but it’s bigger than just building the club numbers. I want kids on bikes, riding safely - that real-life aspect to cycling is a high priority for me. And although the focus is on young riders, it would be great to get parents on their bikes too, maybe organise a few evening social rides with everyone out together… Maybe even look at connecting with other clubs in the area?

Peter

These coaches struggled to balance coaching with their own riding, missing the social element of cycling and the friendships they had made: Peter discussed trying to ‘temper’ coaching alongside his riding; Chris declined the offer of more coaching because it would impact his ‘own session midweek’; and Beth felt coaching on weekends prevented her from riding with friends:

My friends are like “What are you doing at the weekend? We’re going to such and such a place”, and I’m, like, “I can’t come, I’m coaching”... I’ll try and keep it so that I’ve got at least one day at the weekends, maybe, where I can ride.

Beth

The ‘community coach’ biography is summarised in Figure 3.

[Insert Figure 3]

Discussion

Deductive thematic analysis, and thematic narrative analysis, identified similar narratives across participants, aligning participants to one of the three typologies (Frank, 1995; Douglas & Carless, 2006, 2009, 2015) – performance, discovery and relational. This created three groups of participants; essentially, three types of coaches: the ‘performance coach’; the ‘parent-coach’; and the ‘community coach’. Coaches were broadly grouped based on certain similarities allowing contrasts to be drawn across each ‘type’.

Coaches who aligned to each narrative had previous knowledge, experience(s), beliefs and values specific to their narrative type. Stodter and Cusion (2017) highlighted the active role that coaches take in their learning, drawing attention to the prominent role that personal biography plays in supporting and hindering change. Subsequently, coaches’ biographies act as a lens through which they view and interpret new knowledge – filtering, guiding and
influencing what is learned (Cushion et al, 2003; Trudel et al, 2013). This relates to the first ‘level’ of Stodter and Cushion’s (2017) double-filter model, where learning passes through this first, ‘biography’ filter. The current research findings highlight three potential types of ‘biographical filters’, relevant to the participants in this study, suggesting that it is possible to frame these ‘biography filters’ as the ‘performance coach’, ‘parent-coach’, and 'community coach’, which act as a frame of references and serve a ‘guidance function’ (Mezirow, 2009; Moon, 2001).

Formal coach education is often criticised for not recognising the adult learner. Race’s (2005) summary of effective learning environments highlights how formal education works best when coaches want to learn; when they realise content is relevant to them; and when they can relate content to what is already known. This also links to Paquette and Trudel’s (2019) calls for learner-centred coach education to prioritise making content meaningful for coaches. In addition, Jacobs, Claringbould and Knoppers (2016) call for more practice-oriented coach education which takes into account the specific context and backgrounds of coaches’ practices; and Lyle (2007) called for personal models of coaching to be developed.

Findings from this research propose coaches could be aligned to one of the three typologies identified. Here, coaches would be grouped according to similarities in previous experience, both in cycling and coaching, their values and beliefs. As such, it seems possible to generate three streams, or pathways, each embracing the general background of the individuals aligned to that narrative and emphasising the skill areas deemed important to that group. Moreover, it would be possible to make educational content relevant for coaches by linking it to existing knowledge, drawing out relevant connections between material and their own practice and interests (Paquette & Trudel, 2019). This would avoid learners rejecting valuable information (Stodter & Cushion, 2017) and create a stronger alignment between the expectations of the coaches and their actual educational experiences (Paquette & Trudel, 2019). This would
positively impact coaches’ willingness and capacity to learn, reducing their disengagement and potential drop-out (Voldby & Klein-Døssing, 2019). Further, research into the impact of these identified typologies on learning experiences could potentially recognise coaches’ views of learning, offering a better understanding of learner centred teaching (Paquette & Trudel, 2019).

Conversely, these findings offer a ‘soft start’ to informing changes to the course material of formal coach education. It would be possible for coach developers to use pen-portraits to help trainees align themselves to one of the three different ‘types’ of coach identified. Here, learners would be empowered with increased autonomy and learning options, providing learners with decisional input, individualising their educational experiences in a somewhat inflexible qualification (Paquette & Trudel, 2019). This would save overhauling the whole pathway of qualifications, but still gives the course content purpose at the point of delivery. Moreover, this would allow trainees and coach developers to consider the different reasons for taking part in the formal education, beyond the superficial introduction tasks normally seen on training courses. This recommendation would reshape the validation of coaches’ formal qualifications and illustrate credibility that NGBs were not preaching a one-size-fits-all award.

**Conclusion and recommendations for future research**

This research identified three types of coaches: the performance coach; the parent-coach; and the ‘community’ coach. Ontologically and epistemologically positioned within the interpretivist paradigm, these findings are the result of subjective, multiple realities and do not therefore represent an absolute truth. As such, there is caution required in translating these findings across other sports and to other NGBs. Therefore, the implications discussed are not intended to generalise these findings, but rather to suggest a developmental framework for the planning and delivery of formal coach education, moving forward.

Strengths of this work lies include the length of time tracking and monitoring the coaches and their continued engagement with the research study. However, this work also
contains some limitations. The sample size, although offering a deeper insight into the
experiences of these participants, was modest at best and future studies may consider
expanding the number of participants. It is also feasible that there are more identifiable
narratives, which a larger sample might identify and is worthy of further exploration. Similarly,
it might be possible for coaches to transition from one narrative to another, however at the
moment this is empirically untested. For example, Beth was made redundant mid-way through
this particular study, which resulted in coaching taking a more important role in her life, leaving
her contemplate the prospect of coaching full-time and generating an income from her coaching
business. In the end, it was not a course of action that she pursued, but it highlights the potential
for life events (e.g. overcoming adversity) to create transitions between narratives. Although
transitions between narratives is worthy of further exploration, the current findings are not
intended to suggest that coaches are ‘fixed’ into a narrative ‘for life’. Rather, the practical
implications of this research relate to a coach’s typology when attending formal education in
an attempt to increase the effectiveness of formal coach education and move away from a one-
size-fits all approach to their delivery. Future research should therefore consider how
differences in how the different ‘types’ of coaches identified in this study experience future
coach education provision.

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