DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF THE COACH-ATHLETE

RELATIONSHIP ENHANCEMENT INTERVENTION

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DECLARATION

I, Wim Kuit (199238367), hereby declare that the thesis for Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology

is my own work and that it has not previously been submitted for assessment or completion of

any postgraduate qualification to another university or for another qualification.

2017-11-17

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Wim Kuit   Date

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[1] For brevity not all heading levels have been included.

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ABSTRACT

An expanding body of sport psychology theory and research has highlighted the central role of the coach-athlete relationship (CAR) in the performance, satisfaction and well-being of coaches as well as athletes. Models have been developed that identify the key dimensions of CAR quality and the interpersonal behaviour that maintains it, but there remains a need for interventions that support coaches and athletes to optimise their interpersonal skills. This can be done by harnessing recent advances in personality theory which emphasise a more holistic and developmental view of the person and provide a basis for greater mutual understanding and adaptive interpersonal behaviour change in the CAR. The aims of this study were to develop the *Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement* (CARE) intervention through an integration of the Enneagram personality typology with current models of the CAR, and then to evaluate the impact of the CARE intervention on CAR quality. Sixty-two university-level athletes and their nine coaches participated in the study. Quantitative and qualitative results indicate that the CARE intervention significantly enhanced CAR quality, including direct and meta-perceptions of closeness, commitment and complementarity, as well as co-orientation. Intervention outcomes included enhanced mutual understanding in the CAR, enhanced self-awareness, enhanced team relationships, and adaptive interpersonal behaviour change. These outcomes were associated with a shared awareness between coaches and athletes of their Enneagram personality type traits and motivations. Coach-athlete relationship quality was further enhanced by re-constructing coaches' and athletes' personal narratives based on self-descriptions of Enneagram type strengths, and a redefinition of individuals' core motivations to incorporate adaptive interpersonal behaviour change.

Key words: Coach-athlete relationship, Enneagram personality typology, interventions, sport psychology.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Context of Research

In South African history sport has been the site of socio-political inequality and racial

division. Since 1994 sport has provided a platform for transformation, reconciliation and for

building new relationships both on and off the field. Events such as the IRB Rugby World Cup in

1995 and the FIFA World Cup in 2010 (both hosted by South Africa) demonstrated the power of

sport in uniting a nation of sport lovers recovering from a history of segregation and social

injustice. Sport participation has also played a key role in efforts to empower South Africa's

previously disadvantaged communities (Burnett, 2015; Edwards, 2004; Sandersa, Phillipsa &

Vanreusel, 2012) and in developing culturally diverse talent at both national and international

levels (Desai, 2010; Kruger & Pienaar, 2011).

Despite the role and importance of sport in the South African context, sport psychology

remains structurally underdeveloped with no established training route or professional

registration category for sport and exercise psychology with the Health Professions Council of

South Africa (Edwards & Barker, 2015). In the absence of such structures of professional

accountability and quality assurance there is a need for research that systematically investigates

and advances the theory and practice of sport psychology within the South African context.

Sport Psychology's Relationship Territory

A central premise of sport psychology is that optimal performance in sport requires not

only exceptional physical conditioning and the mastery of tactical and technical competencies,

but also the development of psychological competencies such as mental toughness (Anthony,

Gucciardi & Gordon, 2016; Mahoney, Gucciardi, Ntoumanis & Mallet, 2014), regulating arousal, stress and anxiety (Hanton & Mellalieu, 2014), and motivation (Clancy, Herring, MacIntyre & Campbell, 2016; Gillet & Vallerand, 2016). The prevailing emphasis in sport-psychology practice focused on improving performance remains on developing such intrapersonal psychological competencies or 'mental skills' (Olusoga, Maynard, Butt & Hays, 2014; Vealy, 2012; Weinberg & Gould, 2015). However, a review of recent international trends in sport-psychology research reveals a growing body of investigations focused specifically on the social or interpersonal domain of performance (Lindahl, Stenling, Lindwall & Colliander, 2015; Németh, De la Vega & Szabo, 2016). This research, building on the premise that athletes and coaches do not function in a social vacuum, is focused on themes such as leadership, team psychology, social support, and dyadic relationships within the sport context (Jowett & Lavallee, 2007; Lindahl et al., 2015).

Sport psychology theory and research has thus begun to explore the previously uncharted relationship territory of sport (Wylleman, 2000) and confirmed what many sport directors, managers, coaches and athletes have always intuitively known and appreciated – that interpersonal skills, equally to the intrapersonal skills mentioned above, are fundamental not only to performance success, but also to satisfaction, well-being and enjoyment in sport (e.g., Davis & Jowett, 2014; Felton & Jowett, 2013; Gillet et al., 2010; Jowett, 2005, 2007, 2008; Jowett & Poczwardowski, 2007; Jowett, Shanmugam & Caccoulis, 2012; Lorimer, 2014; Olympiou, Jowett & Duda, 2008; Poczwardowski, Barrott & Henschen, 2002; Stebbings, Taylor & Spray, 2016). It follows that enhancing the quality of the relationships between athletes and their coaches, and between athletes and their teammates, partners, and family members, must be

considered central to improving both the performance outcomes and the psychological well-being of individuals participating in sport.

The Coach-Athlete Relationship

Arguably the relationship with the greatest impact on performance, satisfaction and well-being in sport is the *coach-athlete relationship* (referred throughout this thesis by the acronym CAR). One need not look far into the history of sport, in South Africa and internationally, for examples of coach-athlete partnerships that were not only central to an athlete's or team's success, but also a source of care and support within and outside of the performance domain. A poignant example from South African rugby is that of the relationship between the rugby coach Kitch Christie and the 1995 IRB Rugby World Cup Springbok team – and more specifically the relationship between Christie and the team's captain Francois Pienaar. In his autobiography, *The Rainbow Warrior*, Pienaar (1999) describes his relationship with Christie as a close, committed, and caring bond that instilled in him a sense of security and a desire to deliver outstanding performance, while developing him in non-sport related domains:

> He was the type of strong, disciplined, brave man that I most admired. Since 1993 we had grown together to a point where our relationship could more easily be recognised as that between a father and son than that between a rugby coach and his captain. Time and again I felt the benefit of his support and advice like the rays of the sun on my neck. I knew he supported me, I knew he cared for me. He never let me down. This had been the character of our relationship. I would listen to his advice, I would implement his game-plan. I would learn from him about how to conduct

business, how to invest in property, how to be disciplined, how to be

professional (p. 265).

Clearly their CAR extended well beyond the performance arena and supported Pienaar's

holistic personal development. However, it was also a relationship of mutual care and support.

Pienaar describes how in 1997, when Christie's health started to falter, he was able to support

Christie through a difficult time by visiting him daily in a New York hospital. Pienaar describes

their excursions from the hospital into Central Park where Pienaar would push his mentor on a

wheelchair to a local diner to provide some comfort and enjoyment in the midst of Christie's

suffering.

Equally there are well documented stories of athletes and coaches citing a conflictual and

incompatible relationship with each other as the basis for performance difficulties and negative

psychological outcomes. A recent example (June 2017) is Anil Kumble's sudden resignation

from his role as head coach of the Indian international men's cricket team. Kumble announced

that this unexpected move was due to an untenable relationship with the team captain Virat

Kohli. Kumble reportedly stated that the Board of Control for Cricket in India had attempted to

resolve the misunderstandings between himself and Kohli, but that he (Kumble) had decided it

was best to move on (retrieved June 21, 2017, from

http://www.bbc.com/sport/cricket/40347623).

Another widely publicised example from football is the relationship between acclaimed

Manchester United manager Alex Ferguson and star midfielder, and former England team

captain, David Beckham. Their coach-player relationship was characterised by a series of

unpleasant events and disagreements about Beckham's personal life and choices off the field. As

David Beckham (2003) describes in his autobiography entitled *My Side*, "he (Ferguson) genuinely believed the life I led away from football was interfering with what really mattered: winning games for United. And nothing I could say could convince him he was wrong" (p. 198). Beckham describes how Ferguson (in stark contrast to Christie's holistic mentoring role in Pienaar's life) did not support or recognise the positive impact of valued personal relationships and personal development on his (i.e., Beckham's) performance:

> It didn't matter that I thought that marriage and fatherhood had settled me and had a positive effect on me as a player. The gaffer[2] had always thought my family was a distraction from the serious business of football… I'd long since decided that it wasn't an argument worth having. Was an argument ever worth having with the gaffer? I wasn't going to convince him that being fulfilled as a person could only ever be good for me as a player. And, obviously, nothing he said was going to change how much I loved and cherished my family (p. 261).

Their stormy CAR included a well-publicised post-match locker room row during which Beckham swore at Ferguson after blaming him for the team's loss against Arsenal. In response to this Ferguson kicked a boot up from the floor, striking Beckham on his brow with enough force to draw blood (Beckham, 2003). Despite Ferguson's fall-out with Beckham, as well as apparently strained relationships with a list of other Manchester United footballers, including Roy Keane, Wayne Rooney and Ruud van Nistelrooy (Ferguson, 2013), he is still regarded by many as one of the greatest and most successful managers in football history (Hoye et al., 2009).

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[2] 'Gaffer' is a term that is often used within British contexts to describe the boss or in this case the manager/coach Ferguson.

While Ferguson's winning record is indisputable, a question arises about how much better Manchester United's performance might have been if Ferguson and the aforementioned players had been able to maintain more positive and mutually supportive relationships? While winning championship titles is undoubtedly vital for most if not all coaches and athletes, as the Ferguson-Beckham story suggests, winning is not in itself a measure or guarantee of a stable, lasting and satisfying CAR.

Toward successful and effective coach-athlete relationships. In keeping with this broader understanding of the CAR, theorists have identified two dimensions of CAR quality, namely success and effectiveness (Jowett, 2005). Jowett and Poczwardowski (2007) provide a taxonomy for describing the CAR within these two interrelated dimensions. They posit a prizewinning dimension with the two sub-dimensions of successful and unsuccessful, and a helpful-caring dimension with the two sub-dimensions of effective and ineffective (See Figure 1).

Helpful/Caring

		Effective	Ineffective
Prizewinning	Successful	Effective and successful (E-S)	Ineffective and successful (I-S)
	Unsuccessful	Effective and unsuccessful (E-U)	Ineffective and unsuccessful (I-U)

Figure 1. The motivational nature of coach-athlete relationships: A 2x2 taxonomy. Adapted from *Social Psychology in Sport* (p. 5), by Jowett, S (Ed) and Lavallee, David (Ed), 2007, Champaign, IL, US: Human Kinetics. Copyright 2007 by Human Kinetics Inc.

CARs that are both effective and successful (E-S) would not only produce optimal performance outcomes such as improving skill and achievement (i.e., success), but also ensure the personal growth, psychological well-being, and satisfaction of both coach and athlete (i.e., effectiveness). Relationship effectiveness and success would likely be mutually reinforcing. Effective and unsuccessful (E-U) CARs may not consistently produce outstanding performance results, but would nevertheless facilitate psychologically favourable outcomes for both individuals in the dyad. Successful yet ineffective (S-I) CARs would produce good performance results but, akin to the Ferguson-Beckham relationship, are likely to be associated with negative interpersonal outcomes such as disregard, disrespect, and disintegration (Jowett & Poczwardowski, 2007). Furthermore, research has shown that when maladaptive interpersonal dynamics in the CAR are not appropriately managed and addressed it can result in cases of psychological, physical and sexual abuse (Stirling & Kerr, 2009).

A question arises about how best to support coaches and athletes to develop and maintain both successful and effective partnerships: How can the growing body of interpersonally-focused theory and research in sport psychology be harnessed to develop interventions for enhancing and maintaining successful and effective CARs?

A Need for Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement Interventions

In a White Paper outlining the South African Department of Sport and Recreation's (2012) policy, strategy and 2030 vision for achieving success in high profile sports, effective coaching (along with international competition) is identified as one of the most important ingredients for international sporting success. A key strategic objective identified by the publication is an *Athlete and Coach Support Programme* which aims to "improve the performances of athletes and coaches by providing them with access to a comprehensive range of

support programmes" (2012, p. 32). The proposed programme recognises that development and excellence in high-performance sport require an evidence-based, holistic and coordinated sports science including sport psychology among others.

However, while there is a growing understanding of the importance of the CAR there is a need for more sport-psychology research, both within South Africa and internationally, that investigates interventions aimed at supporting coaches as well as athletes to improve the quality of their relationship (Davis & Davis, 2016; Davis & Jowett, 2014; Langan, Blake & Lonsdale, 2013; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Rhind & Jowett, 2012). In a review of South African research only six studies could be identified that focused directly on aspects of the CAR (i.e., Dhurup & Mathaba, 2015; Le Roux, 2007; Surujlal & Dhurup, 2012; Surujlal & Nguyen, 2011; Van Niekerk & Rzygula, 2010; Zhang & Surujlal, 2015), none of which explored interventions to enhance CAR quality. A review of the last two decades of international research focused on the CAR (including more than 60 publications) also did not identify any studies that developed or evaluated interventions to enhance CAR quality through involving coaches as well as athletes. Although a limited number of coach-focused education interventions have emerged that aim to improve coaches' interpersonal knowledge and skills (see Langan, Blake & Lonsdale, 2013 for a review), there is a lack of research that investigates interventions that simultaneously improve both coaches' and athletes' interpersonal functioning. The current study aimed to address this gap in the research and hopefully contribute to the overall development of interpersonally-focused sport psychology practice both within the South African context and internationally.

The Role of Personality in Enhancing Coach-Athlete Relationships

In contrast to the expansion of interest in the interpersonal domain of coach and athlete performance and development, concern with the domain of *personality* (traditionally viewed as

an intrapersonal domain) has seen a gradual decline in sport-psychology research over approximately the same period (Allen, Greenless & Jones, 2013). Although many factors may have contributed to this decline, it could be argued that it is in part due to the predominant focus on a *trait* view of personality, which has preoccupied sport-psychology researchers with predictions of participation and performance based on certain enduring traits (e.g., Allen, Greenless & Jones, 2013; Allen & Laborde, 2014; Morris, 2011; Piedmont et al., 1999). For interventions aimed at enhancing interpersonal functioning in the CAR a trait view of personality may well enhance coaches' and athletes' awareness of their recurring patterns of behaviour. However, a more dynamic and developmental view of personality may be needed to facilitate adaptive behaviour *change*. What then might the role and value of personality theory still be for developing interventions to enhance the quality of the CAR? If the CAR is understood as a relationship between two individuals, how can their individuality (i.e., personality) be conceptualised to help enhance their interpersonal functioning and thus CAR quality?

Although the field has continued to investigate and identify the influence of personality traits on sport performance (Allen, Greenless & Jones, 2013; Allen & Laborde, 2014), there have also been shifts in focus towards broader personality domains such as mental toughness and coping in sport (e.g., Allen, Frings & Hunter, 2012; Gucciardi & Gordon, 2011; Philippe et al., 2016; Vealey & Perritt, 2015), and towards applying more 'whole person' models of personality (Coulter, Mallett, Singer & Gucciardi, 2016; Vealy, 2002). These shifts signal a need for holistic perspectives of personality that not only describe recurring patterns of thinking, feeling and behaviour (i.e., traits), but also account for the dynamic and multi-dimensional (i.e., motivational, social-cognitive, developmental) aspects of human individuality.

It is proposed here that, within interventions to enhance CAR quality, such holistic

models of personality have the potential for moving the field beyond merely predicting coaches'

and athletes' behaviour towards guiding and facilitating adaptive interpersonal behaviour

change. Stated differently, the domain of personality – when appropriately defined and integrated

with interpersonally-focused theory and research – may be pivotal to developing interventions

for enhancing and maintaining effective, successful CARs.

The Enneagram Personality Theory and Typology

One holistic model of personality with a growing body of empirical research is the

Enneagram Personality Theory and Typology (Daniels & Price, 2009; Palmer, 1995; Tallon &

Sikora, 2006; Wagner, 2010). The Enneagram typology describes nine distinct personality types,

where personality type is conceptualised as both explicit and recurring patterns of behaviour (i.e.,

traits) and as implicit and dynamic motivational, social-cognitive and developmental adaptations

that underpin such patterns of behaviour (Sutton, 2007). The Enneagram model thus provides a

framework for developing greater self-awareness, and a mutual awareness within relationships,

of the dynamic and often unconscious aspects of personality that influence interpersonal

behaviour. Research has demonstrated that this shared awareness of Enneagram personality type

can lead to positive interpersonal outcomes such as improved communication, mutual

understanding and acceptance (Sutton, Williams & Allison, 2015).

As will be described in Chapter Three, the Enneagram typology not only illuminates the

motivations, schemas and developmental adaptations that underpin patterns of interpersonal

behaviour, but also shows how such adaptations are amenable to change. In contrast to a static

trait view of personality, the Enneagram provides a dynamic view of personality and thus a

framework for adaptive behaviour change within relationships (Tallon & Sikora, 2006). While

the Enneagram model has not been investigated within sport-psychology research, the current

study explored how it might be applied within interventions to enhance CAR quality. Therefore,

the current study set out to develop, apply and evaluate an intervention for enhancing CAR

quality that integrates the Enneagram personality typology with models of the CAR that have

gained prominence over the past two decades of sport-psychology research. The specific aims

that guided this research process are described next.

Research Aims

The current study was guided by two related research aims where Aim 1 was a necessary

precursor to Aim 2.

Research Aim 1

To develop the Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement (CARE) intervention through

an integration of the Enneagram personality typology with models of the coach-athlete

relationship

The current study aimed to develop an intervention to enhance the quality of the CAR

through combining the Enneagram personality typology with empirically supported models of

the CAR. Aim 1 thus focused on developing the *Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement* or

CARE intervention in which key definitions and measures of CAR quality from established

theory and research are integrated with the Enneagram typology's holistic and developmental

model of coach and athlete personality.

Research Aim 2

To evaluate the impact on coach-athlete relationship quality of an application of the CARE intervention to athletes and their coaches

Aim 2 consisted of applying the CARE intervention and evaluating its impact on the quality of the relationships between premier-level university athletes and their coaches. More specifically, the impact of the CARE intervention on the effectiveness dimension of CAR quality (Jowett & Poczwardowski, 2007) was evaluated. Aim 2 thus built on and expanded Aim 1 by putting the intervention model into practice. The next section provides a brief outline and description of the current study's structure and an overview of chapter content.

Outline of Study

Chapter Two firstly provides a review of the growing body of theory and research focused on the characteristics of the CAR and its influence on the performance and development of athletes and coaches. The review identifies the strengths and limitations of existing CAR models as well as associated research applications. Secondly, the chapter reviews the models of personality that have been applied in CAR research, identifies their strengths and limitations, and establishes how personality can best be conceptualised within interventions to enhance CAR quality. The chapter sets the basis for introducing the Enneagram personality theory and typology as a model of personality that can be integrated with CAR models to develop interventions for enhancing CAR quality.

Chapter Three provides a review of theory and research focused on the Enneagram personality typology and offers a pragmatic and development-oriented perspective of the typology that illuminates the dimensions of personality that centrally influence coaches' and

athletes' interpersonal functioning. The chapter also outlines how the Enneagram can be combined with models of the CAR to develop behaviour change interventions for enhancing CAR quality.

Chapter Four draws on the integrative theoretical framework developed in Chapters Two and Three and outlines the three parts of the CARE intervention. The chapter describes the CARE intervention as a tripartite process that combines Enneagram personality type awareness (between coach and athlete) with an assessment of CAR quality and maintenance to facilitate adaptive interpersonal behaviour change – and thus enhanced CAR quality.

Chapter Five provides a description of the research methodology, including the research design, research population, sampling procedures, data collection and analysis, and ethical considerations that were employed to develop the CARE intervention and evaluate its impact on CAR quality.

Chapter Six then describes the quantitative and qualitative results for phase one of the study which, in accordance with the research design, evaluated the first part of the CARE intervention, i.e., CARE – Part 1 (Enneagram training session).

Chapter Seven reports the quantitative and qualitative results for phase two of the study where the total CARE intervention (Parts 1, 2 and 3 combined) was evaluated.

Chapter Eight offers an overview and discussion of research findings, highlights implications of the study for sport psychology theory and practice, and outlines the limitations of the study. The chapter also suggests potential future research directions and states the final conclusions of the study.

The next chapter provides a review of CAR theory and research and personality theory and research and establishes how aspects of these two fields of study can be integrated in the development of interventions to enhance CAR quality.

CHAPTER TWO

THE COACH-ATHLETE RELATIONSHIP AND PERSONALITY MODELS

Introduction

The past three decades have witnessed the steady expansion of relationship research in sport and exercise settings where the interpersonal domain, once described as uncharted territory (Wylleman, 2000), has been more extensively investigated. This has led to the development of conceptual frameworks and theoretical applications that shed light on the relationships that constitute and influence sport and exercise endeavours. More specifically, over the past twenty years a particular body of interpersonally-focused research has emerged that investigates the role of the *coach-athlete relationship* (CAR) in the performance and development of athletes and coaches (e.g., Appleton & Duda, 2016; Isoard-Gautheur et al., 2016; Jackson & Beauchamp, 2010a, 2010b; Jowett, 2005, 2007; Jowett & Cockerill, 2002; Jowett & Poczwardowski, 2007; Nicholls & Perry, 2016; Poczwardowski, Barott & Henschen, 2002; Rhind & Jowett, 2010b, 2011). This research has shown that the quality of the relationship established between coaches and athletes is pivotal to athletes' and coaches' well-being, motivation, self-efficacy, satisfaction and performance, amongst other outcomes. It has also led to the emergence of new models of the CAR and an application of existing interpersonal theories in understanding this unique dyadic bond. This growth creates fertile ground from which to develop models of intervention for enhancing the quality of the CAR. This chapter highlights the strengths and limitations of current theories and models of the CAR as the basis for the development of such intervention models.

As stated in Chapter One, the field of sport psychology has seen a gradual decline in personality research over the past three decades. Despite this decline, it has been suggested that personality theory and research can still greatly contribute to the development of applied

interventions focused on both interpersonal performance domains (e.g., CARs, team integration and communication), and intrapersonal performance domains (e.g., self-awareness and emotional regulation) (Allen, Greenless & Jones, 2013). This chapter reviews, therefore, some of the views of personality that have been applied in CAR research with the view to identifying their strengths and limitations, and establishing how personality can best be conceptualised for interventions to enhance the quality of CARs. The aforementioned review of personality in CAR research provides the backdrop to the introduction of the Enneagram personality theory and typology (Daniels & Price, 2009; Palmer, 1988, 1995; Tallon & Sikora, 2006; Wagner, 1996, 2010) as a model of personality that provides a holistic, dynamic and developmental conceptualisation of personality for interventions aimed at enhancing CAR quality.

Models of the Coach-Athlete Relationship

As stated above, a number of models of the CAR have been developed over the past three decades, building on varying theoretical bases (Iso-Ahola, 1995; Jowett, 2005, 2007; Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Meek, 2000; Mageau &Vallerand, 2003; Poczwardowski, Barrott & Henschen, 2002; Rhind & Jowett, 2010b; Shepherd, Lee & Kerr, 2006; Wylleman, 2000). These models aim to describe the key characteristics of the CAR, the effective interpersonal behaviour that contributes to the quality of the CAR, and the supports and barriers to such effective interpersonal behaviour.

Defining CAR Quality

Relationship quality within the coach-athlete dyad is unique since it is a relationship formed and motivated by factors unique to the sport context. Hence, as stated in Chapter One, quality within the CAR can be defined in terms of both a prizewinning dimension (i.e., successful/unsuccessful), and a helpful-caring dimension (i.e., effective/ineffective) where the

latter relates to the personal growth, psychological well-being, and satisfaction of both coach and athlete. In light of this definition, current theories and models of the CAR are discussed with reference to their strengths and limitations for interventions to enhance the effectiveness dimension of CAR quality. Strengths and limitations are discussed with regard to each model's identification of: (1) the characteristics of effective CARs, (2) the interpersonal behaviour that contributes to effective CARs, and (3) the supports and barriers to adaptive interpersonal behaviour within the CAR. It is demonstrated that, although current models provide insights regarding the characteristics and adaptive interpersonal behaviour of effective CARs, additional frameworks are needed to identify and address the supports and barriers to effective interpersonal functioning.

Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Factors (IIF) Model

Iso-Ahola (1995) proposed one of the earliest models of athletic performance that emphasised and integrated what he described as the intrapersonal and interpersonal domain, with a central recognition of the CAR's influence. Although not strictly speaking a model of the CAR itself, the IIF three-layer framework (see Figure 2) prioritises the athlete's relationship with his or her coach as one of the four most important interpersonal influences, along with team spirit/cohesiveness, social support, and audience/media.

The IIF model suggests that the individual/athlete possesses a psychological core, consisting of basic beliefs about self and his or her own competence, which influences a second layer of intrapersonal factors (i.e., intrinsic/self-motivation, cognitive capacity and coping skills, affective orientation, and mental training skills). Iso-Ahola proposed that mastery within the intrapersonal domain was essential but not sufficient for optimal performance. How well an

athlete uses intrapersonal skills within a relational context is seen as determining the level of actual performance.

SOCIAL
SUPPORT

SELF-MOTIVATION/
INTRINSIC
MOTIVATION

TEAM SPIRIT/
COHESIVENESS

EMOTIONAL/
AFFECTIVE
ORIENTATION

PSYCHOLOGICAL
CORE:
BELIEF IN
ONESELF

COGNITIVE
CAPACITY &
COPING
SKILLS

AUDIENCE/
MEDIA

MENTAL-
TRAINING SKILLS

COACH-ATHLETE
RELATIONSHIP
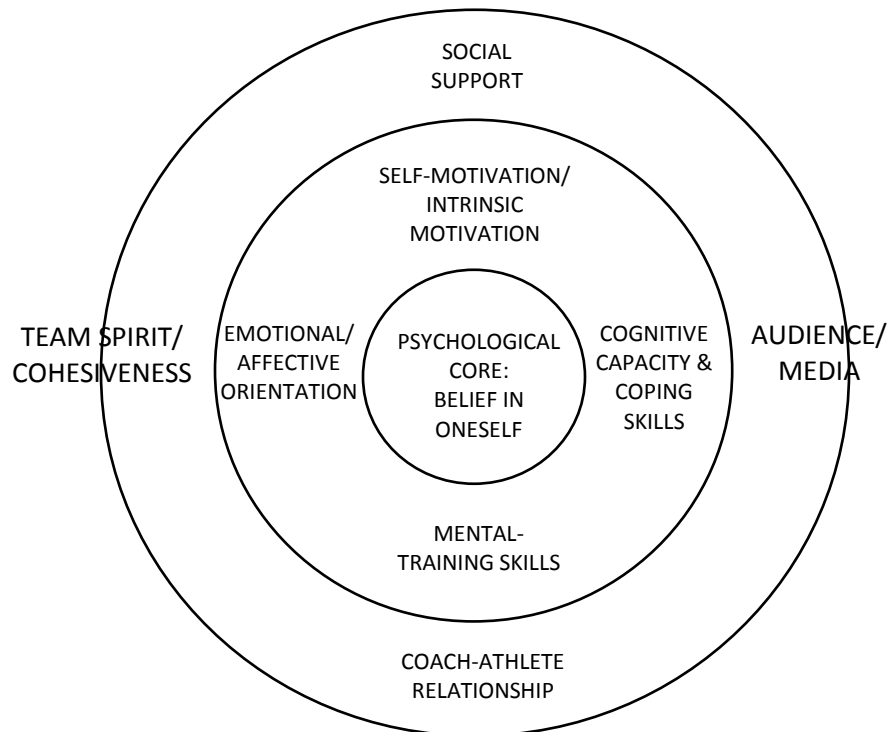
Figure 2. A schematic illustration of the key intrapersonal and interpersonal factors in athletic performance. Adapted from "Intrapersonal and interpersonal factors in athletic performance" by S. E. Iso-Ahola, 1995, *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports*, 5, p. 191. Copyright 1995 by Munksgaard.

Strengths and limitations. The strength of the IIF model lies in its recognition of the interdependence between intrapersonal and interpersonal characteristics of the CAR. The model identifies specific intrapersonal influences on athletes' functioning (i.e., core beliefs, cognitive-

affective patterns, and motivation) as well as the contextual and interpersonal factors that may in turn influence intrapersonal factors.

However, the IIF model provides little indication of what an athlete's effective interpersonal behaviour would actually look like. In contrast, the model does provide some suggestions for coaches in developing more effective interpersonal functioning i.e., cultivating athletes' intrinsic motivation, helping them set personal performance goals and standards, and providing technical assistance and competence feedback for achieving such standards (Iso-Ahola, 1995). A key limitation of the model lies in its inadequate consideration of the influences that might act as supports or barriers to the coach's adaptive intrapersonal and interpersonal functioning. In this the IIF model lacks an in-depth understanding of the bi-directional interactions that shape the relationship between coach and athlete. Thus, in not providing guidance on how either athletes or coaches can identify specific barriers to effective interpersonal functioning, the IIF model poses limitations for developing relationship enhancement interventions.

Research applications. Although the IIF model was unique at its time of publication in advancing the relationship focus in understanding athletic performance, it is a model that has not been applied or updated since. It could be argued that the limitations identified above have prevented a practical application of the model.

Facet-analytical Model

Wylleman (2000) conducted a review of sport psychological research focused on the interpersonal domain and identified three approaches that had (at that point) emerged since the late 1970s: (1) leadership models such as the Mediational Model of Leadership (Smoll, Smith, Curtis & Hunt, 1977) and the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai & Saleh,

1978, 1980), which emphasised the influence of the coach's leadership behaviour (e.g., decision-making style) on the athlete, (2) athletic triangle models, which included the influence of the athlete's parent along with that of the coach (especially in youth sport) in the coach-athlete-parent triad (Brustad, 1993; Helstedt, 1987, 1990, 1995; Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1984, 1988), and (3) social network models which focused on the impact of athletes' entire social network of resources (e.g., social support). Wylleman proposed that existing approaches were limited due to their mostly uni-directional focus (e.g., identifying the coach's or parent's influence on the athlete and not vice versa), their lack of in-depth explication of socio-emotional behaviours, and their limited operationalisation of athlete-parent interpersonal behaviour.

Hence, employing Vertommen's (1979) facet analytical approach to interpersonal relationships, Wylleman (2000) proposed that interpersonal behaviour in sport be translated within a three facet-analytical structure including: (a) an acceptance-rejection facet (i.e., having a positive or negative attitude towards the relationship), (b) a dominance-submission facet (i.e., taking a strong or a weak position within the relationship), and (c) a socio-emotional facet (i.e., taking a social or personal role within the relationship). Wylleman argued that a facet-analytical structure allowed the complementarity of a dyad's interactions to be operationalised. Wylleman defines complementarity as reciprocal and/or correspondent responses where interpersonal behaviour reflects a dominance-submission facet (e.g., dominance from the coach attracts a reciprocal submission from the athlete, and vice versa), and an acceptance-rejection facet (e.g., acceptance from the athlete attracts a correspondent acceptance from the coach). Transactions are complementary when they result in satisfaction and security for both actors involved. The facet-analytical framework was further operationalised into the Sport Interpersonal Relationship Questionnaire (SIRQ) (Wylleman, 1995) to assess athletes' perceptions of the bi-directional,

socio-emotional behaviour between themselves and their coaches, but also their partners/parents

when relevant.

Strengths and limitations. The strength of the facet-analytical model lies in identifying

the bi-directionality of interpersonal behaviour (i.e., reciprocation and correspondence) within

CARs. It marked a departure from the then dominant coach-focused models and set the stage for

more in-depth understandings of the socio-emotional transactions that take place between

coaches and athletes. However, as Jowett and Poczwardowski (2007) have suggested, the facet-

analytical model does not explain when, how, and why complementary reciprocal and

corresponding interpersonal behaviour occurs. It is thus limited in its definition of adaptive

interpersonal behaviour and its conceptualisation of the supports and barriers to such effective

interpersonal functioning.

Research applications. As far as the author is aware, the facet-analytical model has not

been practically applied within any studies focused on the CAR.

Qualitative-Interpretive (Holistic) Model

Poczwardowski, Barrott and Henschen (2002) developed a qualitative-interpretive

framework for describing the psychosocial processes that characterise the coach-athlete dyad.

This framework aimed to provide a holistic view of the CAR by drawing on concepts from

psychodynamic and personality, cognitive, behavioural, and interactional approaches to sport

and exercise research. The qualitative-interpretive process identifies three major characteristics

or categories for describing the CAR, namely activity, interaction and care. Activity refers to the

range of actions coaches and athletes perform either with or without the other being present (e.g.,

exercising, walking, checking equipment etc.), whereas interaction describes social situations

where both the coach's and the athlete's behaviours are affected by the presence and actions of

the other (e.g., talking, listening, questioning and answering). Care was conceptualised as recognising the other person on both a cognitive and affective level and considering their welfare as meaningful and important. Ultimately the CAR was defined as the recurring pattern in the athlete's and coach's activity, interaction, and mutual care. The two most important attributes of this recurring pattern emerged as intensity (i.e., whether the relationship was strong or weak) and connotation (i.e., whether the relationship was associated with positive or negative emotional and cognitive states). Poczwardowski et al. thus identified the four types of CAR as positive-strong, positive-weak, negative-weak, and negative-strong.

Strengths and limitations. The holistic model's strength lies in its clear description of the characteristics and mutually reinforcing interpersonal processes within the coach-athlete dyad. It identifies the adaptive interpersonal behaviour, such as mutual care (between both athlete and coach), relationship-oriented activity/interactions, and shared positive meanings/interpretations about the relationship, that contribute to effective CARs. It also illustrates how the personal and professional growth of both coach and athlete is facilitated by a positive-strong relationship. However, the model's limitation is that it does not suggest processes for enhancing care (i.e., stimulating positive cognitive and affective consideration of the other), nor does it elucidate the supports or barriers to more adaptive interpretations of behaviour within the relationship. Hence, Poczwardowski, Barrott and Henschen's (2002) proposal for further research to investigate the mechanisms that influence the meaning-making process (e.g., personality).

Research applications. As with the facet-analytical model, the qualitative-interpretive model is yet to be applied within further CAR research.

Motivational Model

Mageau and Vallerand (2003) propose a motivational model of the CAR (see Figure 3) where the fundamental role of the coach is to influence and develop athletes' intrinsic and self-determined extrinsic motivation. Grounded in self-determination theory (SDT: Deci & Ryan, 1985; Vallerand, 2001), the motivational model suggests that athletes who derive pleasure and satisfaction from their sport activities will engage with a strong sense of volition (i.e., they are intrinsically motivated).
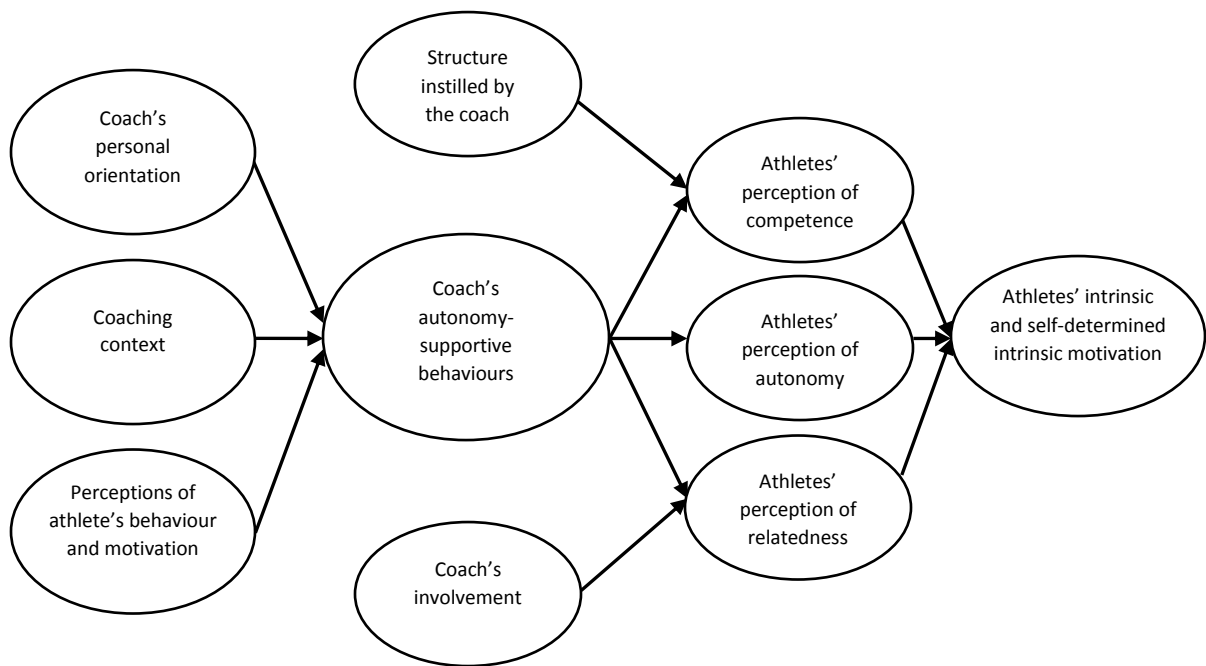
Figure 3. The motivational model of the coach-athlete relationship. Adapted from "The coach–athlete relationship: A motivational model" by G. A. Mageau and R. J. Vallerand, 2003, *Journal of Sport Sciences*, 21, p. 884. Copyright 2003 by Taylor & Francis Ltd.

Athletes who engage for external outcomes such as tacit reward, status, or approval (i.e., extrinsic motivation) may experience these extrinsic motives as either imposed, or as coherent with their sense of self. Extrinsic motivation can thus be self-determined (i.e., endorsed by the athlete) or non-self-determined (i.e., experienced as coercive).

Extensive research has shown that both intrinsic motivation and self-determined types of extrinsic motivation are associated with optimal athletic performance and functioning (e.g., Vallerand & Rousseau, 2001).The motivational model's basic proposition is thus that the coach's role is to nurture these types of motivation through (1) supporting the athlete's autonomy, (2) providing structure for the athlete, and (3) being actively involved in the athlete's welfare. Mageau and Vallerand's (2003) extensive review of empirical evidence suggests that an autonomy-supportive interpersonal (coaching) style consists of at least seven behaviours including: providing as much choice as possible, providing a rationale for tasks, limits and rules, acknowledging the athlete's feelings, allowing opportunities to take independent initiatives, providing non-controlling competence feedback, avoiding overt control, criticisms and tangible reward, and preventing ego-involvement.

The motivational model also incorporates Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT: Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci & Vansteenkiste, 2004) which proposes that self-determined extrinsic motivation is enhanced by social support for not only autonomy, but also for competence and relatedness needs. The model thus identifies two further optimal coaching behaviours as providing structure (e.g., guidelines and information) to support athletes' self-perception of competence, and being positively emotionally involved in athletes' welfare so as to meet their need for relatedness and social support. The motivational model further emphasises that the degree to which coaches adopt the above coaching behaviours is mediated by at least three

influences, including the coach's personal orientation (e.g., being controlling, permissive or autonomy-supportive), the coaching context (e.g., high degrees of pressure to achieve), and the coach's perception of athletes' behaviour (e.g., highly talented) and level of motivation.

Strengths and limitations. The motivational model draws on a well-established theory (i.e., SDT) which has been empirically supported in sport and exercise psychology as well as other fields that hold relevance to the CAR (i.e., occupational psychology, health care and education). A key strength of the motivational model lies in its clear identification of the effective interpersonal *coaching* behaviours (i.e., autonomy-support, providing structure, and welfare involvement) that foster athletes' motivation, performance and development. Also, the model identifies the factors (i.e., coaching style, context, and perceptions of athletes) that may act as supports or barriers to coaches in developing an autonomy-supportive coaching style. However, Mageau and Vallerand (2003) suggest that further research is needed to understand how an autonomy-supportive style of coaching can be fostered. Intervention research has a role to play in this regard by applying models and methods that might assist coaches in recognising what shapes their personal orientations (e.g., personality, beliefs, and values) and how they might adapt their behaviour to optimally support athletes' basic psychological need satisfaction.

A major limitation of the motivational model lies in its mostly uni-directional focus from coach to athlete. Although it takes into account the intrapersonal factors of athletes (i.e., basic psychological needs and type of motivation), the active interpersonal role and behaviours of athletes, in shaping the nature and effectiveness of the relationship, is underemphasised. Hence, apart from the role of the coach in supporting basic psychological needs, little insight is provided regarding the supports and barriers to the effective interpersonal functioning of athletes.

Research applications. The motivational model has been applied in at least two further investigative research studies (i.e., Popea & Wilson, 2015; Solstad, Van Hoye & Ommundsen, 2015) which will be reviewed in a later section focusing on personality models within CAR research.

Reversal Theory Model

Shepherd, Lee and Kerr (2006) proposed a structural phenomenological basis for the CAR that employs reversal theory (Apter, 1982, 1989, 2001) to describe and explain the dynamic interactions between coaches' and athletes' perceptions, motivations and emotions. Reversal theory identifies four pairs of metamotivational states that people frequently alternate (i.e., reverse) between. The four pairs of metamotivational states are described as telic–paratelic, negativistic-conformist, mastery–sympathy and autic–alloic states with each pair consisting of a range of binary, characteristic behaviours and motives that individuals tend to reverse between (see Table 1).

The telic-paratelic and negativistic-conformist state pairs are mostly associated with an individual's perception of felt arousal and are therefore called somatic states. The mastery–sympathy and autic–alloic state pairs, which are especially pertinent to the interpersonal domain, are concerned with how much an individual experiences a sense of loss or gain during an exchange or transaction with another. They are thus known as transactional states and are focused on transactional outcomes (i.e., loss or gain). Shepherd, Lee and Kerr (2006) posited that the effectiveness of the CAR is primarily mediated by the mastery-sympathy and the autic-alloic metamotivations since reversals and state shifts at this level most influence the transactions between coach and athlete. Reversal theory further suggests that one of the four state pairs is active at any given time but that continuous metamotivational state shifts occur over time (e.g.,

from telic to negativistic to autic and so on). Each individual also has a degree of internal bias

towards one of the four state pairs which results in metamotivational dominance and an overall

motivational style. Table 1 follows next and outlines the four pairs of metamotivational states

identified in reversal theory.

Table 1

The Four Pairs of Metamotivational States in Reversal Theory

Telic	Paratelic
Arousal-avoiding	Arousal-seeking
Goal-oriented	Sensation-oriented
Serious-minded	Playful
Future-oriented	Present-oriented
Planning ahead	Spontaneous
Prefer important activity	Prefer unimportant activity
Attempt to complete activity	Attempt to prolong activity
Conformist	Negativistic
Desire to comply with rules	Desire to break rules
Compliant	Rebellious
Cooperative	Stubborn
Agreeable	Angry
Mastery	Sympathy
Willingness to compete	Willingness to cooperate
Desire for control	Desire for harmony/unity
Focus on toughness and strength	Focus on tenderness and sensitivity
Autic	Alloic
Concern with self	Concern with other(s)
Desire to gain	Desire to give
Suffering loss unpleasant	Suffering loss pleasant
Not identifying with other(s)	Identifying with other(s)
Egoistic	Altruistic
Focus on own feelings	Focus on feelings of others

Adapted from "Reversal theory: A suggested way forward for an improved understanding

of interpersonal relationships in sport" by D. J. Shepherd, B. Lee and J. H. Kerr, 2006, *Psychology*

of Sport and Exercise, 7, p. 145. Copyright 2005 by Elsevier Ltd.

Shepherd et al. propose that a psychologically healthy CAR would be metamotivationally diverse and flexible, allowing appropriate states and interactions to occur at the appropriate times. However, incompatible dominances can occur when one party's inflexible bias for a particular metamotivational state leaves the other party experiencing what in reversal theory terms is known as tension stress – i.e., a "mismatch in levels of felt and preferred levels of arousal or transactional outcome" (Shepherd, Lee & Kerr, 2006, p. 146). For instance, a telic-conformist dominant coach may experience a great deal of (somatic) tension stress when he or she perceives a paratelic-negativistic dominant athlete as being insubordinate and not taking practices seriously enough. From a transactional perspective, a mastery-autic dominant coach may be perceived as using a sympathy-alloic dominant athlete's achievements for his own gain – leading to (transactional) tension stress for the athlete. A range of incompatible state problems can also arise in any CAR at any time due to the dynamic moment-to-moment changes individuals experience in social interaction. Even with a strong dominance for one particular state, a person will nevertheless experience the opposing non-dominant state for at least some time during the relationship. Reversal theory thus provides a framework to account for the complex and dynamic nature of the interpersonal domain.

Strengths and limitations. The strength of the reversal theory model lies in the aforementioned capacity to frame and organise the complex interactions and the dynamic characteristics of the CAR. It also posits the concept of metamotivational flexibility as the hallmark of effective interpersonal functioning to strive for. In providing a 'quasi-typological' model of metamotivational dominances (also called profiles), it allows coaches and athletes to recognise their unconscious motivational biases and the potential for psychological rigidity as barriers to effective interpersonal behaviour. Also, in providing a dynamic model of

unpredictable state reversals, reversal theory can explain behaviour (from self and other) that

may not fit with expectations. The implication is that, with increased self-awareness, both parties

could develop more constructive ways of responding to their own and the other person's biases,

unexpected reversals, state incompatibilities, and the tension stress these may produce.

However, a limitation of the reversal theory model is a potential overemphasis on the

contingencies that determine biases, reversals and the resulting tension stress. Reversals and state

dominances are viewed as contingent on environments and the states and reversals of others

(Apter, 2001). Interventions to enhance the CAR would thus need to caution against an

overemphasis on manipulating the environment or social context to adapt or satisfy certain

metamotivational states in either coach or athlete (e.g., making time for fun during a training

session to ease the boredom of a paratelic athlete). Additional models/interventions that focus on

individual agency and responsibility for change may thus need to be incorporated (e.g.,

supporting metamotivational flexibility in the paratelic athlete by developing his or her focusing

skills or goal-orientation). Self-regulation and arousal management techniques have also been

proposed as viable interventions to achieve such metamotivational flexibility (Kerr, 1993).

Another limitation of reversal theory is the complexity of its structural

phenomenological approach, which may require longer-term interventions to facilitate an

assessment of coaches' and athletes' reversal patterns and motivational dominances (Kerr, 1993).

Although reversal theory provides a comprehensive understanding of the adaptive and

maladaptive interpersonal behaviour between coaches and athletes, as well as the unconscious

motivations that underpin these, practical applications of the theory may not always be feasible

within time-pressured sport contexts.

Research applications. Such pragmatic barriers may account for why the model has not been widely applied within CAR research. The only study that could be identified in the literature searches was Males, Kerr, Thatcher and Bellew's (2006) qualitative investigation of a national volleyball team's psychological responses to failure as framed within reversal theory constructs. The study identified that a negative coaching style affected individual athletes' motivation and emotions by inducing inappropriate metamotivational reversals in players. Recommendations from the study included understanding athletes' individual motivational needs, and making coaches aware of the need for more flexible coaching or leadership styles that are sensitive to the situation and the athletes concerned.

3C and 3 + 1Cs Models

Jowett and Meek (2000) and Jowett and Cockerill (2002, 2003) pioneered the development and investigation of a sport-specific framework for systematically examining different types of coach-athlete dyads. This work is based on the social-exchange model and the interdependence theory of Kelley and Thibaut (1978). Interdependence theory proposes that interpersonal behaviour has the function of establishing close and adaptive social bonds that increase positive and fulfilling experiences while minimising harmful or aversive experiences. It emphasises that in a dyadic relationship, two individuals' emotions, thoughts and behaviours are mutually and causally interconnected. Jowett and Meek's (2000) review of broader interpersonal research identified that the emotional, cognitive, and behavioural aspects of relationships had been studied independently but not within an integrative framework (e.g., Berscheid, Snyder & Omoto 1989a, 1989b; Kenny & Kashy, 1994; Kiesler, 1997; Newcomb, 1953). Therefore, they established (through a series of qualitative investigations) the utility for sport settings of a 3C model of the CAR that integrated the constructs of *closeness* (emotional aspect), *co-orientation*

(cognitive aspect), and *complementarity* (behavioural aspect). Research results supported the validity and utility of the 3C model and thus the definition of the CAR as the situation where coaches' and athletes' emotions, thoughts, and behaviours are mutually and causally interconnected (Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004).

Drawing on insights gained from further research on the 3C conceptualisation by Jowett and Ntoumanis (2004), Jowett (2005, 2007) suggested the 3+1Cs model of the CAR where the concept of *commitment* (i.e., both members' intention to maintain the relationship at present and in the future) was introduced. The concept of 'co-orientation' remained as the "+1C'' dimension and refers to the degree to which athletes' and coaches' perceptions are interconnected and reflective of shared understanding (Rhind & Jowett, 2010b).

The 3 + 1Cs model thus identifies the four constructs or core interpersonal dimensions of the CAR as closeness, commitment, complementarity, and co-orientation. *Closeness* is the affective dimension of the CAR and refers to feelings of being cared for, liked, respected and valued, as well as the ability to trust each other. *Commitment* is viewed as a cognitive dimension and refers to coaches' and athletes' intention to maintain their athletic relationship for the long-term. *Complementarity* is the behavioural dimension of the relationship and refers to acts of co-operation and affiliation marked by a sense of readiness, easiness, and responsiveness to each other. As stated earlier, *co-orientation* refers to the degree of interconnectedness between the coach's and athlete's perceptions of the relationship and each other.

Co-orientation contains a dual perspective – i.e., the direct perspective of how one person feels, thinks, and behaves towards the other (e.g., 'I trust my coach/athlete'), and the meta-perspective, i.e., the athlete's or coach's perception of how the other person feels, thinks and behaves (e.g., 'My coach/athlete trusts me'). Jowett (2007) further identifies three dimensions of

co-orientation namely, assumed similarity, actual similarity, and empathic understanding.

Assumed similarity is the degree to which a coach or athlete assumes that how they feel, think,

and behave (e.g., 'I am committed to my coach') is shared by the other in the partnership (e.g.,

'My coach is committed to me'). Actual similarity refers to the extent that the coach and athlete

are similar in how they actually feel, think, and behave (e.g., 'I am committed to my coach' and

'I am committed to my athlete'). Finally, empathic understanding is the degree to which coaches

and athletes understand each other's feelings, thoughts, and behaviours (e.g., 'My coach is

committed to me' and 'I am committed to my athlete'). Empathic understanding allows coaches

and athletes to make more accurate inferences regarding the other's cognitive, affective and

behaviour patterns. Jowett proposes that all three dimensions are essential indicators of CAR

quality that coordinate actions, goals and worldviews and contribute to overall relationship

functioning.

Strengths and limitations. The strength of both the 3C and the 3+1Cs models lies in

their accessible yet comprehensive description of the key characteristics of effective CARs.

These models have been developed specifically for sport settings and through systematic

investigations involving both athletes and coaches and thus reflect 'real-world' coach-athlete

dyad experiences. It has also led to the development of the direct and meta-versions of the

Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q: Jowett, 2009a, 2009b; Jowett &

Ntoumanis, 2004) which provide reliable, validated and sport-specific measures of quality (i.e.,

effectiveness) within the CAR. The CART-Qs also provide empirical impact measures of

interventions aiming to enhance the CAR.

A limitation of the 3C and 3+1Cs models is that they do not in themselves identify the

adaptive interpersonal behaviour that enhances the closeness, commitment, complementarity,

and co-orientation within CARs. The models also do not identify supports or barriers to such

adaptive behaviour. Ideally the 3C and 3+1Cs models would be combined with complementary

models that identify how closeness, commitment, complementarity and co-orientation can be

maintained and enhanced between coach and athlete.

Research applications. Both the 3C and 3+1Cs have been successfully applied in a

number of studies focused on aspects of the CAR. For example, Rhind, Jowett and Yang (2012)

used the 3+1Cs model and the CART-Q to investigate and identify key differences in how

individuals from team and individual sports view the quality of the CAR. Results suggested that

individual sport athletes felt closer and more committed to their coach while also believing that

their coach felt closer, more committed, and complementary when compared to the perceptions

of athletes from team sports. Lorimer (2014), also using the 3+1Cs model and CART-Q,

examined the association between athletes' views of how their coaches' perceive the quality of

the relationship (i.e., an athlete's meta-perception) and athletes' views of themselves (i.e., self-

representational concerns). Results confirmed the importance for athlete self-concept and

performance of the quality of the relationship that coaches foster with them.

Qualitative studies that have also applied the 3C and/or 3+1Cs constructs include Li,

Dittmore and Park's (2015) investigation of the difference between the CARs of Chinese

Olympians and that of Western Olympians, as well as Philippe and Seiler's (2006) qualitative

exploration of the quality of the CAR as perceived by five male elite-level swimmers. Other

recent applications of the 3+1Cs and 3C models in CAR research have focused on the

associations between relationship quality and the coaching/motivational climate (e.g., Choi, Cho

& Huh, 2013; Felton & Jowett, 2013; Olympiou, Jowett & Duda, 2008), relational efficacy

beliefs (e.g., Jackson, Grove & Beauchamp, 2010; Jowett, Shanmugam & Caccoulis, 2012) and

coach-athlete attachment bonds (e.g., Davis, Jowett & Lafrenière, 2013)[3]. These applications

demonstrate the versatility of the 3+1Cs and 3C models in identifying both the characteristics of

the CAR and the influence of a range of factors on relationship effectiveness.

COMPASS Model

Rhind (2008), and Rhind and Jowett (2010b, 2012), recognising the need for research

focused on *how* coaches and athletes maintain the quality/effectiveness of their relationships (as

described in the 3+1Cs model), conducted investigations to assess coaches' and athletes'

perceptions of the strategies they use to maintain their relationship. Rhind and Jowett's (2010b)

initial qualitative investigation, building on the work of Canary and Stafford (1994), suggested

that seven relationship maintenance strategies, namely conflict management, openness,

motivation, positivity, advice, support, and social networks (forming the COMPASS acronym),

were most relevant to maintaining the quality of the CAR. The COMPASS model was thus

proposed as a framework for identifying the maintenance strategies (i.e., adaptive interpersonal

behaviour) that would enhance relationship quality, with the corollary that the absence of these

strategies would have a negative effect on relationship quality. The COMPASS model was also

suggested as a framework for understanding how the elements within the 3+1Cs model (i.e.,

closeness, commitment, complementarity, and co-orientation) can be maintained and enhanced.

As Rhind and Jowett (2010b) state, "the COMPASS model, therefore, complements the 3+1Cs

conceptualization, and combining these two theoretical frameworks could provide an integrated

approach to the understanding of the nature, content, and the quality of coach-athlete

relationships" (p. 118).

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[3] These applications of the 3C and 3+1Cs models will be discussed in more detail in a later section of the current chapter focused on personality models and research as applied to the CAR.

Rhind and Jowett (2012) continued their initial investigations of the COMPASS model through the development of the *Coach-Athlete Relationship Maintenance Questionnaire* (CARM-Q) in two studies involving a combined total of more than 460 coaches and athletes. The two COMPASS model elements not supported by these studies were positivity and advice. It was found that positivity and advice runs throughout the majority of the maintenance strategies rather than being single factors in themselves. Although positivity and advice were statistically supported in more general relationship-maintenance research (Stafford, Dainton & Hass, 2000), their omission in Rhind and Jowett's findings highlighted a unique dimension of the CAR.

Rhind and Jowett's (2012) revised COMPASS model identified the seven key CAR maintenance strategies as: *conflict management* (identifying, discussing, resolving, and monitoring potential areas of conflict within the relationship), *openness* (sharing relevant information and maintaining a good level of communication), *motivational strategies* (setting and achieving goals, making interactions enjoyable, and thereby maintaining reasons for continuing the relationship/working partnership), *preventative strategies* (clarifying expectations and dealing with the consequences of unmet expectations), *assurance* (the knowledge that support would be there should the need arise in the future – i.e., perceived support), *support* (helping one's sporting partner to overcome sport-related or personal problems – i.e., received support), and *social networks* (having mutual friends and socialising together).

Strengths and limitations. The strength of the COMPASS model lies in its sport-specific, empirically supported, and accessible framework for identifying adaptive interpersonal behaviours (i.e., relationship maintenance strategies) between coach and athlete. The CARM-Q measure also provides a practical tool for use in both interpersonal research and interventions to evaluate and enhance coaches' and athletes' interpersonal functioning. Although primarily a

taxonomy of interpersonal behaviour, the COMPASS model also points to the characteristics of effective CARs (i.e., open, motivated, preventative, assuring, and supportive). However, as stated earlier, the COMPASS model can be combined with the 3+1Cs model to provide an integrated understanding of the characteristics and effective interpersonal behaviour that constitute effective CARs. A limitation of the COMPASS model lies in the fact that it does not identify supports or barriers to the seven identified relationship maintenance strategies. The COMPASS model would thus need to be combined with frameworks that identify such supports and barriers and guide interventions to address them.

Research applications. Rhind and Jowett (2011) conducted an investigation, including 146 athlete and 105 coach participants, of the relationship between the seven COMPASS relationship maintenance strategies and CAR quality as defined by the 3+1Cs conceptualisation. Results indicated that for coaches as well as athletes the use of openness and social networks strategies were associated with closeness, whereas motivational and support strategies were associated with commitment. Complementarity was linked with the use of the preventative strategy. Interestingly, conflict management and assurance influenced coaches' perception of relationship quality more than that of athletes, which the authors proposed highlights the role differences between coaches and athletes. Rhind and Jowett conclude that further research is required to understand how coaches and athletes can be supported to use the COMPASS strategies more effectively.

Summary of Models of the Coach-Athlete Relationship

The preceding overview of CAR models reveals that, over the past 30 years of interpersonal research within sport, a progressive and collective shift has taken place from a uni-directional focus on the coach's interpersonal behaviour (e.g., early leadership models) towards

bi-directional frameworks that identify the mutuality and *interdependence* between coaches' and

athletes' motivations, perceptions, emotions, and interpersonal behaviour, amongst other factors.

The analysis of each model's strengths and limitations found that the characteristics of effective

CARs have been described using different theoretical frameworks and reaching varying degrees

of integration of both coach and athlete perspectives. There is also much conceptual overlap

between models around the theme of interdependence. Although each model offers unique

insights regarding the interdependent nature of effective CARs, the 3+1Cs model arguably

provides the most accessible yet comprehensive structure for not only identifying, but also

measuring (i.e., using the CART-Q) the outcomes of the bi-directional cognitive, emotional,

behavioural and perceptual interdependencies between coach and athlete. Also it is the only

model that has been developed through empirical research with coaches and athletes themselves

and it has been most widely applied within sport-specific contexts.

The aforementioned analysis also showed that the adaptive interpersonal behaviour that

contributes to effective CARs was identified in all models with varying degrees of specificity

and bi-directional focus. Whereas the IIF and motivational model provide specific guidance for

coaches' interpersonal functioning (i.e., supporting autonomy/self-determination), the facet-

analytical, qualitative-interpretive, and reversal theory models describe more global adaptive

interpersonal patterns (i.e., correspondence and reciprocation, mutual care and relationship-

oriented activity, metamotivational flexibility), but with a bi-directional focus. The COMPASS

model is unique in that it delineates very specific adaptive behaviours, for both coach and

athlete, in the form of the seven discrete relationship maintenance strategies to enhance

relationship quality. As with the 3+1Cs model, the COMPASS framework is also the only model

(in this case focused on interpersonal behaviour) that has been developed through purposive

research with athletes and coaches.

Prominent in the analysis of each CAR model's strengths and limitations is the limited

identification by most models of the supports and barriers to adaptive interpersonal behaviour

within the CAR. While the motivational model does identify certain influences, such as the

coach's personal orientation and perceptions of athletes, as potential barriers or supports to an

autonomy-supportive coaching style, it is not clear what underpins these influences. In contrast,

the reversal theory model does provide a motivational structure for identifying the biases (i.e.,

metamotivational dominances) and state incompatibilities that underpin the maladaptive

interpersonal behaviours of both coach and athlete. In doing so, the reversal theory model

provides a useful heuristic method for highlighting and addressing habitual responses that limit

interpersonal effectiveness. However, as suggested in the analysis above, the model's

requirement for longer-term interventions to identify coaches' and athletes' complex

interpersonal (reversal/motivational) patterns may not be feasible within time-pressured sport

contexts. There thus remains a need for a user-friendly model that can not only rapidly identify

the supports and barriers to adaptive interpersonal functioning, but also the change mechanisms

and personal development processes for optimising interpersonal behaviour.

An Intervention Model for Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement

The preceding analysis supports the selection of the 3+1Cs and COMPASS models as

frameworks for describing, identifying and measuring the characteristics (i.e., closeness,

commitment, complementarity, co-orientation) and the adaptive interpersonal behaviour (i.e.,

conflict management, openness, motivational, preventative, assurance, support, and social

networks) of effective CARs. However, the two models do not elucidate the factors that

influence the extent to which effective relationship maintenance strategies are applied. If it is

accepted that the CAR is constituted by the interdependent cognitive, affective and behavioural

patterns of two individuals (Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004), then the influence of each individual's

unique *personality* could be considered central to understanding the supports and barriers to

adaptive interpersonal behaviour. It is thus proposed that the domain of personality, when

understood not only as a set of *traits*, but also as the varied *characteristic adaptations* and

personal narratives that shape psychological individuality (see McAdams and Pals, 2006),

provides an appropriate framework for identifying the influences that support or hinder adaptive

interpersonal behaviour. This proposal is supported by Jowett and Poczwardowski's (2007)

integrated research model of the CAR which identified personality as one of the central

antecedent influences on relationship quality.

An integrative framework for developing interventions aimed at enhancing CAR quality

is therefore proposed (see Figure 4). This integrative model combines the 3+1Cs and COMPASS

models with a model of personality to identify the characteristics and adaptive interpersonal

behaviour of effective CARs as well as the personality-based supports and barriers to such

relationships. However, whereas the above theory review highlighted the 3+1Cs and COMPASS

models as the preferred frameworks for such interventions, an appropriate model of personality,

that can be applied to facilitate interpersonal behaviour change, needs to be identified. The next

section of this chapter will therefore review the personality theories and models that have been

applied to CAR research within three dimensions of personality, including dispositional traits,

characteristic adaptations and personal narratives (McAdams & Pals, 2006).
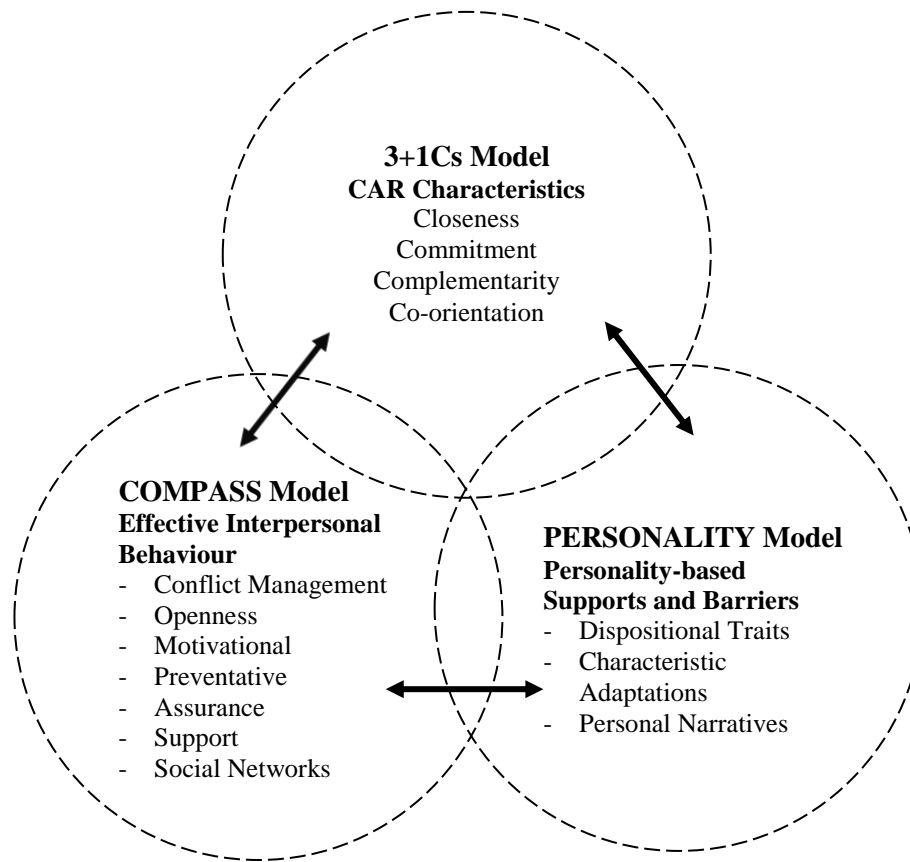
Figure 4. An integrative model for developing coach-athlete relationship enhancement

interventions.

Models of Personality in Coach-Athlete Relationship Research

The preceding review of CAR models suggests that the domain of personality provides a

potential and necessary framework for identifying some of the supports and barriers to adaptive

interpersonal functioning within the CAR. Furthermore, Davis, Jowett and Lafrenière (2013)

have suggested that, despite recent advancements in the understanding of CARs, research

focused on the personality characteristics that are likely to shape interpersonal functioning

remains limited. Personality psychology has developed into a highly complex field of study

consisting of diverse views of what constitutes the domain of personality (McAdams, 1997). A number of views or approaches have emerged over the years including psychodynamic, trait, social-cognitive, phenomenological, evolutionary, and constructivist approaches amongst others (Pervin & Cervone, 2013). This diversity is also mirrored in the varied views of personality currently adopted within sport and exercise psychology research and practice (Weinberg & Gould, 2015).

A question arises then about what theory or model of personality, when combined with the 3+1Cs and COMPASS models, is best suited to identifying supports and barriers to effective CARs while also supporting adaptive interpersonal behaviour change. In light of the vast theoretical terrain of personality psychology the following section focuses on the models, theories and dimensions of personality that have been applied specifically to the domain of the CAR. The review establishes each theory's strengths and limitations for an intervention model and provides the basis for proposing a more optimal theoretical model of personality.

A Holistic View of Personality for Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement

Personality psychology's theoretical diversity has given rise to the development of holistic or integrative views of personality that aim to bring together multiple theoretical perspectives within a coherent structure. Two prominent examples are the personality systems framework (Mayer, 2005, 2015), and the three-dimensional personality framework (McAdams, 2013; McAdams & Pals, 2006).

Recently, Coulter, Mallett, Singer and Gucciardi (2016) proposed that McAdams's (2013) three-dimensional personality framework provides sport and exercise psychology researchers and practitioners with a more holistic view of personality within which to develop both research and applied practice. Coulter et al. argue that the narrow focus in sport and

exercise settings on individual differences (e.g., identifying predictive traits) and motivation

(e.g., identifying motivational orientations) has led to "dismantling athletes and exercisers into a

series of detached and testable constructs" (Coulter et al. 2016, p. 25). They argue further that the

"strength of studying isolated constructs helps develop a broad understanding of how and why

one variable impacts behaviour without any other variables confounding this relationship"

(Coulter et al., p. 25), but that this does not allow different theories to be integrated into a more

holistic concept of the individual. The following section utilises the three dimensions of

personality identified by McAdams and Pals (2006) to discuss the strengths and limitations of

personality theories that have been applied to the CAR. This provides further insight into the

relevance of each dimension of personality for identifying supports and barriers to interpersonal

effectiveness, and for facilitating a process of adaptive behaviour change. It also aids the

development of an intervention model based on a more holistic concept of the individual coach

and athlete.

Three-dimensional Personality Framework: Current Views in Coach-Athlete Relationship Research

McAdams and Pals (2006) describe the three-dimensional view of personality as an

integrative framework for understanding the whole person. The three-dimensional model

identifies the three dimensions of personality as: (1) *dispositional traits*, (2) *characteristic*

adaptations, and (3) *personal narratives*. Each of these dimensions is briefly defined and used to

structure a critique of current views and applications of personality in CAR research.

Dispositional traits. McAdams and Pals (2006) define dispositional traits as the "broad,

nonconditional, decontextualized, generally linear and bipolar, and implicitly comparative

dimensions of human individuality" (p. 207). Essentially dispositional traits are the individual

differences between people that account for the consistency and continuity of behaviour, cognition and emotion across varying contexts (see Cattell, 1965; Eysenck, 1952).

   Dispositional traits: five factor model. Within research focusing on the CAR, the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality (McCrae & Costa, 2008) has been the most widely applied dispositional trait approach. The FFM identifies five enduring personality factors, namely Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism and Openness to Experience that are believed to be associated with particular interpersonal outcomes. Authors differ in their use of terminology and labels to define the five factors (Sutton, 2007). However, Jackson, Dimmock, Gucciardi & Grove (2011), drawing on general interpersonal outcomes research, provide the following descriptions of the five factors:

   Extraversion: active, outgoing, talkative, sociable, and associated with outcomes such as larger peer networks, peer acceptance, conversational skills, and relationship satisfaction.

   Agreeableness: altruistic, trusting, tenderminded, cooperative, collegial in nature, and associated with outcomes such as open communication, adaptive conflict resolution strategies, increased relationship quality/stability, and empathy.

   Conscientiousness: reliable, diligent, organised, and disciplined, and associated with outcomes such as reduced delinquency during adolescence, fewer unhealthy behaviours, and improved performance in education and work settings.

   Neuroticism: susceptibility to anxiety, depression, irritability, and self-consciousness, and associated with outcomes such as maladaptive coping efforts, reduced job satisfaction, feelings of inadequacy, and negative mood states.

   Openness to experience: open-minded, inquisitive, unconventional, receptive to others' ideas and feelings, and associated with outcomes such as enhanced creativity, greater time spent

in education, liberal political tendencies, and enhanced performance in artistic work

environments.

Research applications. Within CAR research, the FFM has primarily been used to

establish the relationship between dispositional personality traits and perceptions of relationship

quality. For instance, Yang, Jowett and Chan (2015) employed a measure of the FFM (Yang et

al., 1999) and the direct and meta-versions of the CART-Q (Jowett, 2009a; Jowett & Ntoumanis,

2004) to investigate the influence of personality traits on the quality of Chinese CARs and

established associations between neuroticism, extroversion, conscientiousness, and perceptions

of relationship quality. Results indicated that each relationship member's personality trait

contributed independently to direct and meta-perceptions of relationship quality. Similarly,

Jackson et al. (2011) investigated whether FFM traits predicted relationship commitment and

relatedness (i.e., closeness and trust) for members of established coach-athlete dyads. Findings

indicated that greater dissimilarity between partners' extraversion and openness was linked to

reduced commitment and relatedness for coaches as well as athletes. Aşçi, Kelecek and

Altintaş's (2015) investigation of athletes' FFM personality characteristics and their perception

of CAR quality indicated that the depth (i.e., perceived importance) of the relationship was not

predicted by athletes' personality factors but that the support dimension of relationship was

predicted by athletes' neuroticism and extraversion. Finally, Jowett, Yang and Lorimer (2012)

explored the relationship between FFM personality characteristics, relationship quality, empathy

and satisfaction, and surprisingly[4] found that the only personality factor associated with

relationship quality was agreeableness.

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[4] This result is in contrast to the findings of other studies discussed here which suggest that other FFM traits are also associated with perceptions of relationship quality. Jowett, Yang and Lorimer (2012) attributed this contradictory finding to a small sample size which may have introduced errors that reduced potential significant associations.

Strengths and limitations. The strength of the FFM for CAR enhancement interventions lies in establishing potential correlations between personality traits and specific interpersonal outcomes within the CAR. Jackson et al. (2011) describe this application of the FFM as providing trait-based diagnostic information (e.g., measuring dissimilarity of traits) that can be an indicator of CAR quality. In short, the FFM provides an accessible method of identifying the dispositional traits that may act as barriers or supports to adaptive interpersonal behaviour.

A limitation of the Five Factor model is that it does not elucidate the more dynamic and implicit features of personality (McClelland, Koestner & Weinberger, 1989), such as the more unconscious motivations, social-cognitive strategies and developmental adaptations (McAdams & Pals, 2006) which may have an influence on interpersonal functioning. Measuring personality at the trait level generally relies on self-report methods (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1992) that identify consciously held self-concepts, values, preferences, and goals but not the implicit aspects of personality (Robinson, Vargas & Crawford, 2003; Sutton, 2007; Westen, 1996). This is important since measures of implicit personality within the domain of interpersonal functioning (e.g., dependence and attachment) have been found to be poorly correlated with measures of explicit personality (Bartholomew & Shaver 1998; Bornstein 1995; Wilson, Lindsey & Schooler, 2000).

The FFM is therefore not well-suited to identifying unconscious and dynamic personality influences on interpersonal behaviour. Stated differently, the FFM provides a psychometric description of the behavioural outcome of personality processes rather than insight into the processes themselves (Westen, 1996). Thus, in not providing an understanding of *why* coaches and athletes might demonstrate certain personality traits/behaviours, the FFM provides little guidance for how interventions might address (i.e., enhance or moderate) the adaptive or

maladaptive cognitive, affective and motivational processes that underpin and influence coaches'

and athletes' interpersonal behaviour. Within the three-dimensional framework of personality

(McAdams & Pals, 2006) the dimension of characteristic adaptations is where the more implicit

and dynamic processes of personality are identified and described.

      Characteristic adaptations. McAdams and Pals (2006) describe characteristic

adaptations as the range of "motives, goals, plans, strivings, strategies, values, virtues, schemas,

self-images, mental representations of significant others, developmental tasks, and many other

aspects of human individuality that speak to motivational, social-cognitive, and developmental

concerns" (p. 208). This level of personality emphasises the explicit and implicit motivations and

core beliefs that underpin varied expressions of human individuality (Schultheiss & Brunstein,

1999). In contrast to dispositional traits, characteristic adaptations are more situationally

anchored and amenable to change through environmental and cultural influences (including

psychological interventions). Furthermore, this level of personality emphasises how the

motivational and social-cognitive particularities of individuality can change over time in both

predictable and unpredictable ways. Characteristic adaptations also include both conscious

personality processes and unconscious processes that are not typically identified in self-report or

observational assessment of personality (Winter, John, Stewart, Klohnen & Duncan, 1998)

      Within CAR research three prominent theories have been applied with each theory

emphasising one of the three broad dimensions of characteristic adaptation identified by

McAdams and Pals (2006) (i.e., motivational, social-cognitive and developmental). Each of these

theories has illuminated unique characteristic adaptions of personality that influence coaches'

and athletes' interpersonal behaviour. These three theories, as well as their application within

CAR research, are reviewed next with reference to their strengths and limitations for CAR

enhancement interventions.

   Motivational characteristic adaptations: Self-determination theory. Self-determination

theory (SDT: Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) has been widely used as a framework for investigating

the impact on the CAR of characteristic adaptations such as self-determined motivation, basic

psychological needs, and the coaching behaviours that foster an empowering motivational

climate (Appleton & Duda, 2016). SDT proposes that motivation exists along a continuum of

relative self-determination. The most self-determined form of motivation is intrinsic motivation

where an activity (e.g., sport participation) is engaged in for the innate satisfaction and pleasure

derived from it. In contrast, extrinsic motivation involves engaging in activities for instrumental

benefits that are separable from the activity itself (e.g., rewards for successful performance).

SDT identifies four types of extrinsic motivation ranging from least to most self-determined (i.e.,

external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation). In

essence, self-determined motivation involves the regulation of behaviour through an experience

of volition or self-endorsed choices and actions.

   A sub-theory within SDT known as Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT: Ryan &

Deci, 2000, 2002) posits three universal and cross-developmental psychological needs which,

when met, underpin self-determined motivation and enhanced well-being and performance

(Lonsdale, Hodge & Rose, 2009; Ryan, Williams, Patrick & Deci, 2009). The three universal

psychological needs identified by BPNT are the needs for competence, autonomy, and

relatedness. Competence refers to the perception and experience of being able to effectively

master relevant tasks and roles, while autonomy involves the experience of volition, choice, self-

directedness and that actions are congruent with one's values and sense of self. Relatedness

refers to a perception and experience of belonging and connectedness with others.

Research applications. SDT-informed CAR research has primarily focused on the

motivational/coaching climate (created by coaching behaviours), its relationship to athletes'

psychological need satisfaction, and related outcomes such as perceptions of relationship quality,

performance and well-being. For example, Olympiou, Jowett, and Duda (2008) investigated the

relationship between athletes' perceptions of the coach-created motivational climate and CAR

closeness, commitment, and complementarity and found that a task-involving coaching climate

(emphasising athlete role importance, co-operative learning, and efforts to improve) was

associated with athletes' direct and meta-perceptions of closeness, commitment, and

complementarity. Similarly, Choi, Cho, and Huh (2013) investigated the relationship between

athletes' perception of CAR closeness, commitment, and complementarity and perceived

satisfaction of basic psychological needs. Their results indicated that commitment, closeness, and

complementarity were all positively correlated with athletes' perceived competence and

autonomy. In another related study, Felton and Jowett (2013) investigated the effects of coaching

behaviours and relationship quality on athletes' perceptions of basic psychological need

satisfaction and well-being, and found that supportive-autonomous coaching behaviours and

effective CARs fulfill important psychological needs and promote athletes' well-being.

Deploying Mageau and Vallerand's (2003) motivational model of the CAR (grounded in

SDT), Popea and Wilson (2015) found moderate to strong correlations between rugby players'

perceptions of their coaches' interpersonal styles (i.e., autonomy support, providing structure,

and being involved), their perceived satisfaction of corresponding needs (i.e., autonomy,

competence and relatedness), and their evaluation of their own performance. Also applying the

motivational model, but focusing on the coach-perspective, Solstad, Van Hoye and Ommundsen (2015) examined and established a positive relationship between coaches' perceptions of their sport context, their self-determined motivation for coaching, their total need satisfaction, and their provision of autonomy-supportive coaching.

Along similar lines, Gillet, Vallerand, Amoura, and Baldes (2010) tested Vallerand's (1997, 2001) hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and found that (as the model suggests) coaches' autonomy support does facilitate athletes' self-determined motivation toward sport activity. Jowett (2008) investigated the impact of coaches' intrinsic and/or extrinsic motives for coaching on coaches' and athletes' satisfaction in the CAR and found that coaches' enjoyment, happiness and satisfaction with their coaching involvement is largely dependent on experiencing high levels of intrinsic motivation, but that extrinsic rewards can enhance intrinsic motivation. Also focusing on the coach perspective, Lafrenière, Jowett, Vallerand, and Carbonneau (2011) found that harmonious passion for coaching (defined as a strong desire to engage freely in coaching that results from an autonomous internalisation of the activity into one's identity) positively predicted autonomy-supportive coaching behaviours, while obsessive passion for coaching (defined as a controlled internalisation of coaching activities into one's identity where particular contingencies are attached such as self-esteem or maladaptive excitement) predicted controlling behaviours. Autonomy-supportive behaviours were also found to predict effective CARs as perceived by athletes.

Strengths and limitations. As the above reviewed studies suggest, the strength of SDT lies in its explication of the varied dimensions of motivation and their implications for the CAR. In identifying the basic psychological needs that underpin adaptive/self-determined motivation for both coach and athlete, as well as the interpersonal coaching behaviours (i.e., coach-created

motivational climate) that satisfies those needs, SDT and BPNT illuminate important

characteristic adaptions of personality that influence the effectiveness of the CAR. These insights

can make valuable contributions to coach-focused interventions aimed at developing more

autonomy-supportive, 'psychological need-satisfying' coaching behaviours. However, (as stated

in the earlier critique of Mageau and Vallerand, 2003), auxiliary models and methods may be

needed to assist coaches in recognising what shapes their coaching styles (e.g., personality traits,

harmonious/obsessive passion, values, and beliefs), and how these can best be adapted. SDT

does recognise *causality orientations* that develop in response to an environment's need

satisfaction or need-thwarting, and which determine how likely an individual is to experience

self-determined motivation. However, SDT does not identify how, apart from adapting the

motivational climate, individuals can be supported to develop more adaptive orientations.

A further major limitation of SDT (addressed in the earlier critique of Mageau and

Vallerand, 2003) is its uni-directional focus from coach to athlete that underemphasises the

active interpersonal role and behaviours of athletes in shaping the nature and effectiveness of the

CAR. Hence, apart from the role of the coach in supporting basic psychological needs, little

insight is provided regarding the interpersonal functioning of athletes. SDT is thus limited in

identifying supports and barriers to athletes' effective interpersonal behaviour (other than those

within the coaching climate). Consequently, as is the case with facilitating more effective

coaching behaviour, other models and methods may be required to support athletes in identifying

such supports and barriers, as well as the means to the end of adaptive interpersonal behaviour

change.

Social-cognitive characteristic adaptations: Self-efficacy theory. Self-efficacy is a

central construct within Social-Cognitive Theory (SCT; Bandura, 1986) and is defined as an

individual's perception of his or her capacity to execute a course of action that will lead to anticipated or desired outcomes (Bandura, 1997). Bandura (1999) describes the pivotal role of self-efficacy theory (SET) as recognising the human capacity to exercise self-influence through goal setting and evaluative reaction to one's own performances. Self-efficacy is thus viewed as a central cognitive dimension of motivation and self-directedness.

Lent and Lopez (2002) have proposed a 'tripartite' network of complementary efficacy beliefs within close relationships – i.e., relational efficacy beliefs. Lent and Lopez proposed that individuals develop both self-efficacy beliefs about their own capabilities within a relationship, and 'other-efficacy' beliefs that signify their confidence in the other person's capabilities. Furthermore, Lent and Lopez articulated the role of relation-inferred self-efficacy (RISE) which represents a person's beliefs about his or her partner's other-efficacy (i.e., beliefs about a relationship partner's confidence in oneself). Another construct relevant to CAR research is that of collective efficacy, which refers to a group's shared confidence in their conjoint capabilities as well as each individual's perception of the team's capacity to perform collective tasks successfully (Hampson & Jowett, 2014).

Research applications. Self-efficacy has been empirically supported as a key mechanism in predicting adaptive cognitive, affective, and behavioural outcomes within sport performance contexts (Moritz, Feltz, Fahrback & Mack, 2000). More recently, relational efficacy beliefs and collective efficacy beliefs have been shown to have important implications for the quality of the CAR (e.g., Beauchamp & Whinton, 2005; Hampson & Jowett, 2014; Jackson & Beauchamp, 2010a, 2010b; Jackson, Grove & Beauchamp, 2010; Jowett, Shanmugam & Caccoulis, 2012). Applications of relational efficacy constructs to CARs have found that other-efficacy for coaches as well as athletes is positively related to the other's relationship commitment, while coach RISE

beliefs correlated to athlete commitment, but athlete RISE beliefs were negatively related to coach commitment (Jackson & Beauchamp, 2010a). Jackson, Grove, and Beauchamp (2010), incorporating the 3+1Cs model of the CAR, similarly found that all three (tripartite) efficacy beliefs predicted important relational outcomes. Other-efficacy predicted enhanced commitment for both dyad members, whereas self-efficacy predicted greater personal complementarity. Furthermore, actor effects for other-efficacy on both closeness and complementarity were more pronounced for athletes than coaches, i.e., having confidence in the other dyad member was more strongly related to intra-individual outcomes for athletes than for coaches.

Jowett, Shanmugam and Caccoulis (2012) showed that collective efficacy accounts for the association between the quality of the CAR and athlete satisfaction, while CAR quality in turn predicts collective efficacy more than either task or social cohesion. Similarly, Hampson and Jowett (2014) investigated the influence of coach leadership behaviour and CAR quality on collective efficacy. Results indicated that both coach leadership and CAR properties are associated with collective efficacy. More specifically, athletes' direct perceptions of commitment and meta-perceptions of closeness had the greatest influence.

Strengths and limitations. The aforementioned investigations demonstrate the strength of SET as a model for identifying some of the social-cognitive characteristic adaptions (i.e., self, relational and collective efficacy beliefs) that influence the effectiveness of the CAR. An assessment of athletes' and coaches' perceived self and relational/collective efficacy provides an insight into the conscious cognitive-perceptual supports and barriers to adaptive interpersonal behaviour. Intervention strategies for adapting and optimising efficacy beliefs could thus form a crucial part of enhancing relationship quality (Beauchamp, 2007). Central to SET is the notion of human agency which reinforces a view of coaches and athletes as capable of producing desired

changes through their own actions. As Bandura (1999) posits, "the human mind is generative, creative, proactive, and self-reflective not just reactive. People operate as thinkers of the thoughts that serve determinative functions" (p. 23). This makes SET a potentially useful framework for identifying intrapersonal resources for facilitating adaptive behaviour change.

The primary limitation of SET is its lack of consideration of how implicit psychological processes, such as unconscious motives (McClelland, Koestner & Weinberger, 1989) and implicit self-concept (Asendorpf, Banse & Mücke, 2002) may influence interpersonal functioning. The theory's focus on the primacy of the conscious cognitive domain (i.e., self-reported efficacy perceptions) also neglects to account for how emotional factors (e.g., psychological needs) and dispositional factors (e.g., traits and temperament) contribute to personality patterns and interpersonal behaviour. Furthermore, SET has been criticised for its limited consideration of how efficacy beliefs change over time as new sources of efficacy (e.g., the effects of maturation) allow individuals to experience differential levels of success and failure across contexts (Beauchamp, 2007). In short, SET provides CAR enhancement interventions with a useful social learning framework for identifying and optimising the conscious, cognitive characteristic adaptations that influence interpersonal effectiveness, but it lacks a consideration of implicit and developmental personality processes.

Developmental characteristic adaptations: Attachment theory. Attachment theory (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters & Wall, 1978; Bowlby, 1982) has been proposed as a model for exploring how both athletes' and coaches' attachment orientations influence their own and each other's experience and perceptions of relationship quality (Davis & Jowett, 2010). Attachment theory, rooted in developmental psychology, posits that the quality and type of interpersonal bonds that individuals establish over the course of their lives is shaped by their early

psychosocial attachments with primary caregivers. It is proposed that the availability, sensitivity, and responsiveness of caregivers during infancy and childhood leads to related patterns of interpersonal behaviour or 'attachment styles' in adult relationships.

Three primary attachment styles are identified: (1) a secure attachment style – resulting from consistent and responsive caregiving, and characterised by exploration, trust and confidence within the social domain; (2) an anxious-ambivalent attachment style – resulting from inconsistent and variably responsive caregiving, and characterised by mistrust and preoccupation with establishing security in interpersonal relationships; and (3) an avoidant attachment style – resulting from neglectful or rejecting and overwhelming caregiving, and characterised by emotional detachment and inexpressiveness in relationships with others (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters & Wall, 1978). Each attachment style is said to be underpinned by unconscious internal working models (IWMs) of self and other that result from internalised experiences with attachment figures. As Davis, Jowett and Lafrenière (2013) explain, "a model of *self* represents how adequate, supported, and loveable one feels, and a model of *other* represents one's perceptions of how responsive and available the attachment figure is when needed" (p. 157). Secure attachment styles are generally underpinned by adaptive IWMs of self as worthy of support, love, and attention, and of others as supportive, responsive, and available. Insecure attachment styles (i.e., anxious-ambivalent and avoidant) are considered to be underpinned by maladaptive IWMs of self as unworthy of love, support and attention, and an IWM of others as unsupportive, unavailable, and unresponsive. IWMs are considered central influences on the patterns of cognition, affect, and behaviour that emerge within interpersonal relationships. Attachment theory proposes further that secure attachments occur when attachment figures fulfill three core functions: (1) proximity maintenance – being close and available when required; (2)

providing safe haven – meeting critical needs for comfort and security; and (3) being a secure

base – providing a platform from which to explore autonomous activities (Ainsworth, 1989;

Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Parish & Eagle, 2003).

    Research applications. Applications of the above principles of attachment theory to

investigations of the coach-athlete dyad have found that insecure attachment styles tend to be

associated with lower perceptions of relationship quality and overall dysfunction within the

CAR, while secure attachment styles are generally associated with more adaptive interpersonal

outcomes. For instance, Davis and Jowett (2014) found that athletes with an avoidant attachment

style are more likely to perceive lower levels of support from their coach and to perceive the

CAR as less important, while secure attachment styles predicted social support and relationship

depth. Similarly, Davis, Jowett and Lafrenière, (2013) identified a negative association between

athletes' and coaches' avoidant attachment styles and their perceptions of relationship quality –

i.e., high levels of avoidant attachment may be associated with lower levels of relationship

quality. Furthermore, it was found that athletes' perceptions of relationship quality are likely to

remain unaffected by coaches' attachment style, but that coaches' perceptions of relationship

quality are likely to be affected by an athlete's avoidant attachment style.

    Davis and Jowett (2010) investigated the pervasiveness of the three main functions of

attachment within the context of the CAR and found that coaches fulfill the basic functions of an

attachment figure within the athletic relationship (i.e., secure base, safe haven, and proximity

maintenance). It was found that athletes are likely to seek a level of closeness and comfort from

coaches and rely on them as a secure base from which to explore important aspects of the

sporting environment. Furthermore, Davis and Jowett (2013) established the initial psychometric

properties of the Coach-Athlete Attachment Scale (CAAS) which promises to be a useful tool for

assessing attachment styles within the CAR context.

Strengths and limitations. The strength of attachment theory as a model of characteristic

adaptations (within CAR enhancement interventions) lies in potentially providing clear and

concise descriptions of the unconscious adaptive and maladaptive attachment processes that

shape the interdependent cognitive, emotional, and behavioural patterns between coaches and

athletes. In this regard, attachment theory provides a useful framework for identifying supports

and barriers to adaptive interpersonal behaviour. It has been proposed that attachment theory can

guide and inform interventions if an accurate assessment of attachment styles is used to assist

athletes and coaches with insecure attachment orientations in developing more secure attachment

strategies and adaptive IWMs (Davis & Jowett, 2014). Davis and Jowett propose that enhancing

coaches' and athletes' awareness of more proactive strategies (e.g., steps to clarify expectations)

and adaptive reactive strategies (e.g., cooperation during the discussion of disagreements) could

expand their viewpoints and create connections leading to positive interpersonal outcomes.

Attachment theory suggests that a level of plasticity exists in the attachment system across the

life span and that recurring and influential interactions with security-enhancing relationship

partners can lead to more adaptive mental representations of self and others, attachment patterns,

and psychological functioning (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2006, 2008). The attachment theory model

may be well suited therefore to inform interventions aimed at identifying dysfunction and

facilitating adaptive behaviour change.

A limitation of attachment theory lies in potentially overemphasising the influence of

early attachment experiences, and pathologising early attachments/caregivers and, by extension,

the CAR itself. Knestrict (2002) has argued that attachment theory reinforces stereotypical and

prescriptive roles that discriminate against caregivers/attachment figures that do not meet the theory's narrow expectations. There is a risk of applying similar narrow and discriminatory expectations to coaches in their attachment figure roles within the coach-athlete bond. Athletes also run the risk of being pathologised when their interpersonal functioning is described in the theory's deficit and dysfunction terminology (i.e., insecure, anxious, ambivalent, and avoidant).

Furthermore, attachment theory has been criticised for its constricted view of the genesis of both adaptive and maladaptive attachment patterns (i.e., located at the mother/infant dyadic bond) that discounts the impact of both temperament (i.e., dispositional traits) and a range of other environmental influences on human development (Birns, 1999; Brumariu, Bureau, Nemoda, Sasvari-Szekely & Lyons-Ruth, 2016). Also, since attachment styles are primarily unconscious, measuring them may prove difficult. In short, attachment theory has the potential to illuminate influential characteristic adaptations within the CAR. However, how these insights are applied within relationship enhancement interventions would need to caution against the above limitations.

Other theories and constructs. A number of other characteristic adaptational theories and constructs have been used recently with promising potential to illuminate key personality influences on the quality of the CAR, including stress and coping appraisals (Nicholls, Levy, Jones, Meir, Radcliffe & Perry, 2016; Nicholls & Perry, 2016), dyadic coping (Staff, Didymus & Backhouse, 2017), mental toughness (Philippe, Sagar, Gerber & Hauw, 2016; Rodahl, Giske, Peters & Hoigaard, 2015), fear of failure and self-control (Sagar & Jowett, 2015), coach leadership (Hampson & Jowett, 2014; Jowett, 2017; Vellaa, Oadesb & Crowea, 2013), and athlete burnout and achievement goals (Isoard-Gautheur, Trouilloud, Gustafsson & Guillet-Descas, 2016). Sport-psychology research is thus making steady progress mapping out the

motivational, social-cognitive, and developmental adaptations that influence the CAR. However, McAdams and Pals (2006) propose that beyond dispositional traits and characteristic adaptations lie the personal narratives that individuals construct to make meaning of their experiences and establish a sense of identity.

Personal narratives. McAdams and Pals (2006) and McAdams (2006) have described the emergence over the past two to three decades of *narrative* approaches to personality in which human beings are viewed as constructing evolving personal narratives to make sense of and integrate their varied and diverse experiences over time. These stories in turn provide a coherent sense of identity and shape a person's perceptions and behaviour within the social context. McAdams and Pals state that a narrative approach to personality makes "more explicit the kinds of stories that are commonly told, the relations between life stories and other features of human individuality, the impact of narrative processing on growth and well-being, and the complex interplay between narrative identity and culture" (p. 210).

The relations between personal narratives and other features of human individuality (e.g., traits and characteristic adaptations) are of particular relevance within CAR interventions. Although individual differences in narrative identity are not reducible to differences in dispositional traits or characteristic adaptations, research has demonstrated empirical relations between personality traits, and the themes, emotional tone, and structure of personal narratives (McAdams, Anyidoho, Brown, Huang, Kaplan & Machado, 2004). It is thus conceivable that dispositional traits and characteristic adaptations may influence personal narratives, or at least be associated with certain expectable themes and patterns. The complex interplay between narrative identity and culture also expands the construct of personality to consider the cultural discourses (e.g., class, gender and ethnicity) that underpin the stories that are commonly told (i.e., dominant

narratives) and by which athletes and coaches organise and interpret their experiences. As McAdams (2006) posits:

>Culture provides people with a menu of narrative forms and contents from which the person selectively draws in an effort to line up lived experience with the kinds of stories available to organise and express it. Indeed, the story menu goes so far as to shape lived experience itself: We live in and through our stories (p. 16).

It follows that culturally sanctioned stories or dominant narratives within sport (e.g., stories that define what a successful coach/athlete should do and be) would influence the expression of traits and characteristic adaptations, while traits and characteristic adaptations (e.g., characteristic motivational and social-cognitive patterns) would influence how coaches and athletes incorporate dominant narratives within their personal and CAR stories. This view has implications for how CAR enhancement interventions might facilitate *narrative processing* to have a positive impact on athletes' and coaches' growth and interpersonal functioning – i.e., the interface between personal narratives, dispositional traits and characteristic adaptations may provide a useful framework facilitating adaptive behaviour change through *narrative re-construction*.

Research applications. The field of sport and exercise psychology has seen a steady increase in narrative-oriented research focused on professional athletes (Douglas & Carless, 2015) and the relationship between physical activity, sport and mental health (Carless & Douglas, 2010). However, only a handful of studies have applied the narrative construct to

investigations focused on the CAR. These studies have not explicitly investigated the

relationship between traits, characteristic adaptations, and personal narratives, but demonstrate

how culturally influenced coach-athlete narratives influence relationship quality, and how CAR

narratives can be re-constructed to support more effective interpersonal functioning. For

example, Douglas and Carless (2006) used a narrative approach to explore the kinds of stories,

vocabularies and beliefs (i.e., those held by coaches, psychologists, governing body officials, and

performance directors) which influence the professional development of golfers. The study

identified a dominant narrative that portrays development and progression as dependent on

following a regimented, training-dominated approach that neglects holistic issues such as

emotional, social, and psychological well-being. In contrast to the dominant and regimented

'training narrative', the authors propose an 'education narrative' where the athlete is viewed, not

as a machine repeating prescribed drills, but as an intelligent being who is offered opportunities

for personal choices as well as rationales behind decisions and views of, for example, coaches.

Jowett and Frost (2007) conducted a qualitative analysis which explored the influence of

race/ethnicity experiences on athletes' narratives of the CAR. The analysis of these narratives

was framed within the interpersonal constructs of closeness, commitment, complementarity, and

co-orientation (Jowett, 2005). The study, investigating black athletes' perceptions of stereotyping

and discrimination in relationships with white coaches, showed that athlete narratives

emphasised the importance of ethnic background in the quality of communication and empathy

within the coach-athlete bond.

Finally, Toner, Nelson, Potrac, Gilbourne and Marshall (2012) used an autoethnographic

approach to explore the principal author's narrative of a 'dysfunctional relationship' with his top-

level golf coach. The research demonstrated how a process of reflexive and critical reflection

resulted in a re-construction of the author's CAR narrative. The author's narrative of himself as a 'blameless victim of bad coaching practice' was supplanted by a re-construction of the coach-athlete story that included an identification of his own contribution to the process of relationship breakdown (i.e., through conscious decisions to 'test' the coach in a way that undermined the coach's effectiveness).

Strengths and limitations. The above studies demonstrate the diversity of narrative approaches in understanding the CAR. A key strength of a narrative approach within relationship enhancement interventions is the recognition that every individual has a unique personal narrative that is not reducible to any trait description or characteristic adaptational category. This ensures that the rich and multifaceted experiences of athletes and coaches are not reduced to 'narrow descriptions' of isolated constructs (Coulter et al. 2016). However, a focus on narrative singularity, without a guiding framework for identifying the possible "menu of narrative forms" (McAdams & Pals, 2006, p. 16) or themes that may emerge within the coach's or athlete's experiences, may result in a lack of a clear direction and focus for behaviour change interventions. Douglas and Carless' (2006) identification of a dominant 'training narrative' and an alternative 'education narrative' illustrates the potential value of having accessible *narrative resources* to draw from in constructing more adaptive personal and CAR narratives.

Summary of Models of Personality in Coach-Athlete Relationship Research

The preceding review of personality models in CAR research reveals that a dynamic, developmental and holistic view of personality has emerged in understanding the interdependent cognitive, affective, behavioural, and motivational patterns (both conscious and unconscious) of coaches and athletes. Theoretical applications within each of the three identified dimensions of personality have demonstrated particular strengths and limitations with regard to identifying

supports and barriers to adaptive interpersonal behaviour, and facilitating a process of behaviour change to enhance the effectiveness of the CAR.

Within the dimension of *dispositional traits* the FFM was shown to provide an accessible, trait-based diagnostic indicator of CAR quality. However, the FFM provides little guidance for how interventions might identify or address (i.e., enhance or moderate) the implicit and dynamic psychological processes that underpin and influence coaches' and athletes' interpersonal behaviour.

Within the *motivational* dimension of characteristic adaptations, SDT provides an empirically supported model for identifying the basic psychological needs that underpin adaptive/self-determined motivation for both coach and athlete, as well as the interpersonal coaching behaviours that satisfy those needs in athletes. However, auxiliary models and methods may be needed to assist coaches in recognising what shapes their coaching styles and how these can best be adapted. Furthermore, SDT's uni-directional focus from coach to athlete underemphasises the active interpersonal role of athletes in shaping the effectiveness of the CAR. Other models and methods (apart from basic psychological need satisfaction by the coach) may thus be required to support athletes in identifying supports and barriers to adaptive interpersonal behaviour, and a means to the end of interpersonal behaviour change.

Within the *social-cognitive* dimension of characteristic adaptations SET provides a model for identifying coaches' and athletes' interdependent conscious cognitive-perceptual supports and barriers to adaptive interpersonal behaviour (i.e., the self, relational and collective efficacy beliefs). SET also provides a direction for CAR enhancement intervention in the form of facilitating interpersonal behaviour change through optimising efficacy beliefs. However, SET

does not account for the implicit or unconscious motives, implicit self-concept, affective needs, and dispositional traits that influence interpersonal behaviour.

Within the *developmental* dimension of characteristic adaptations Attachment Theory provides a concise description of the unconscious attachment processes that act as supports and barriers to adaptive interpersonal behaviour. An accurate assessment of attachment styles can be used to assist athletes and coaches to develop more adaptive/secure attachment strategies and internal working models. A limitation of attachment theory lies in potentially overemphasising the influence of early attachment experiences, and pathologising (through a deficit and dysfunction terminology) the CAR itself. Measuring unconscious attachment styles may also present difficulties.

The *personal narrative* dimension of personality demonstrated a diversity of application possibilities that have in common the key recognition that every individual athlete and coach has a unique, yet culturally shaped, personal narrative that is not reducible to any trait description or characteristic adaptational category. However, a focus on narrative singularity, without a guiding framework for identifying certain narrative types and themes (that could support or hinder adaptive interpersonal functioning) may result in a lack of a clear direction and focus for behaviour change interventions. Finally, the interface between personal narratives, traits and characteristic adaptations (e.g., motivations and beliefs) may provide a useful framework facilitating adaptive behaviour change through narrative re-construction.

Conclusion

This review of personality models that have been applied within CAR research provides the basis for suggesting a model of personality that has the potential to address limitations of the models reviewed, while corresponding to or enhancing their strengths. It is proposed that the

Enneagram personality theory and typology (Daniels & Price, 2009; Palmer, 1995; Tallon &

Sikora, 2006; Wagner, 2010) provides a unifying personality model that can illuminate the

dispositional traits, characteristic adaptations, and narrative resources that may act as barriers or

supports to adaptive interpersonal behaviour within the CAR. It will be proposed that the

Enneagram typology when combined with the COMPASS model (Rhind & Jowett, 2010b, 2012)

can facilitate enhanced CAR quality as defined by the 3+1Cs model (Jowett, 2005, 2007). The

next chapter describes the Enneagram typology as framework for developing CAR enhancement

interventions.

CHAPTER THREE

THE ENNEAGRAM AND COACH-ATHLETE RELATIONSHIP ENHANCEMENT

Introduction

The previous chapter identified that holistic, dynamic and developmental approaches to personality are key to developing interventions for enhancing the coach-athlete relationship (CAR). A three-dimensional model of personality (McAdams & Pals, 2006) was employed to review the strengths and limitations of personality theories that have been applied within CAR research. The review explored how personality could best be conceptualised for interventions to enhance CAR quality. It is proposed that the Enneagram personality theory and typology (Daniels & Price, 2009; Palmer, 1995; Tallon & Sikora, 2006; Wagner, 2010) may provide an optimal model for such interventions in that it addresses the limitations of personality theories reviewed, while corresponding to or enhancing their strengths.

This chapter uses the three-dimensional model of personality to demonstrate that the Enneagram[5] can be an optimal personality framework for developing CAR enhancement interventions by illuminating the dispositional traits, characteristic adaptations, and narrative resources that influence coaches' and athletes' interpersonal functioning (see Figure 5). The Enneagram is proposed as a pragmatic tool for enhancing self-awareness and mutual-awareness between coaches and athletes of the personality-based supports and barriers to adaptive interpersonal functioning, and for facilitating interpersonal behaviour change that enhances CAR quality.

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[5] From this point forward the Enneagram personality theory and its typology will be referred to as 'the Enneagram' unless otherwise specified.
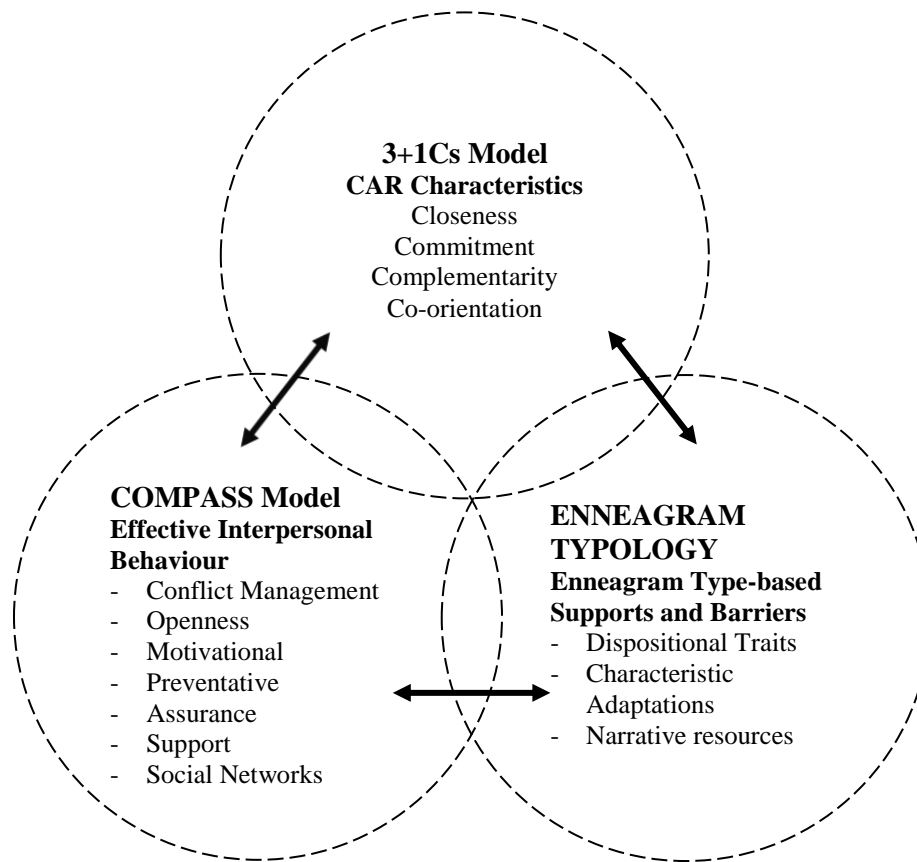
Figure 5. An integrative model for developing coach-athlete relationship enhancement

interventions incorporating the Enneagram typology.

Enneagram Personality Theory and Typology

The word 'enneagram' is derived from the Greek word 'ennea' – meaning nine – and

'grammos', meaning figure. The enneagram referred to here is a nine-pointed geometric figure

inscribed within a circle (see Figure 6). This enneagram figure has been used to represent nine

personality types and their dynamics, where each type is marked by a recurring pattern of

cognition, emotion and behaviour underpinned by a distinct system of motivational, social-

cognitive and developmental adaptations (Daniels & Price, 2009; Palmer, 1995; Tallon & Sikora,

2006; Wagner, 2010). The Enneagram also provides a structure for integrating explicit personality, i.e., the dimensions of personality which a person is aware of, and implicit personality, i.e., the dimensions of personality that operate unconsciously (see Sutton, 2007 in this regard). From a three-dimensional personality framework perspective, the Enneagram describes implicit and explicit dispositional traits and characteristic adaptations associated with each of the nine personality types.
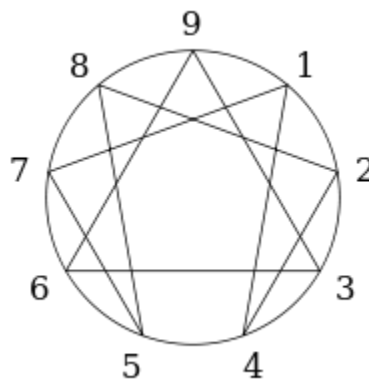
Figure 6. The Enneagram of personality types.

Although research has yet to investigate the relationship between the Enneagram personality types and personal narratives, it is argued here that the personality traits and characteristic adaptations identified by the Enneagram may influence how individuals construct narratives to make sense of their experiences (i.e., narrative processing), and how individuals negotiate the dominant cultural narratives available within a particular context. The Enneagram typology is also regularly taught through what is known as the oral or 'narrative tradition' where individuals who have already identified their Enneagram types share their stories of being a particular type, thus acting as exemplars for students to learn from.

Each point on the Enneagram diagram represents one of the nine personality types (or Enneagram types), while the lines between the points represent particular psychological dynamics and behaviour changes that each type demonstrates under certain circumstances. Enneagram theory proposes that each type at times displays some of the traits, patterns, and strategies of the two types to which it is connected via the internal lines on the diagram. This is discussed further in a later section of this chapter. Despite these changes, Enneagram theory suggests that every person has one dominant personality type and that the dynamic aspects of each type are part of that type.

Although the enneagram figure itself has a long history, possibly dating back to ancient Greece (see Goldberg, 1999; Wagner, 2010), the original application of the figure in developing a comprehensive theory of personality type emerged in the second half of the 20th century (Ichazo, 1982; Naranjo, 1994; Palmer, 1988). More recently, a number of authors have expanded, interpreted and applied the Enneagram of personality within their respective fields, making for a diverse body of knowledge from which to draw in developing CAR enhancement interventions.

The Enneagram's expansion and development has been paralleled by a growing body of empirical research which has demonstrated the reliability and validity of the Enneagram typology (e.g., Brown & Bartram, 2005; Sutton, 2007; Sutton, Allinson & Williams, 2013; Sutton, Williams & Allinson, 2011; Wagner & Walker, 1983; Wyman & Magidson, 2008). Research has also investigated and found support for the psychometric properties of self-report questionnaires for identifying/measuring Enneagram type (Dameyer, 2001; Giordano, 2010; Newgent, 2001; Newgent, Parr, Newman & Higgins, 2004; Scott, 2011; Sharp, 1994; Wagner, 1999; Warling, 1995). However, as suggested earlier, the Enneagram model describes not only

explicit personality dimensions but also implicit psychological processes that are not necessarily

reflected by self-report questionnaires. Therefore, research has also investigated the use of

experiential learning methods, peer and expert observation, and interview approaches for

accurately identifying or assessing Enneagram type (Brown & Bartman, 2005; Daniels & Price,

2009; Gamard, 1986; Sutton, 2007; Thrasher, 1994; Wagner, 1981, Wagner & Walker, 1983).

These studies suggest that a combination of methods may increase the chances of correct

identification of an individual's Enneagram type.

Only one study could be identified where the Enneagram was investigated in relation to

sport. Foruzesh, et al. (2016) compared the Enneagram types of athletes and non-athletes and

found that certain types were more prevalent among a sample[6] of athletes than in a sample of

non-athletes, and vice versa. However, while the Enneagram has not been applied extensively

within a sport context or in CAR research, it has been applied in other fields, including

education, psychotherapy, healthcare and the workplace as a tool for facilitating adaptive self-

awareness and interpersonal functioning (e.g., Arthur, 2008; Ball, 2009; Hilke, 2015; Luckcock,

2007; Ormond, 2007; Sutton, Williams & Allison, 2011, 2015). However, Sutton (2009) has

suggested that further research is required to validate the Enneagram model as an effective tool

for enhancing interpersonal relationships.

A Definitive Enneagram Model for Intervention

The recent expansion and development of the Enneagram model by various authors poses

a challenge for further research within the interpersonal domain. As Sutton, Allinson and

Williams (2013) suggest, "the numerous independent attempts at definition of Enneagram types

in the popular literature have inevitably led to some lack of clarity" (p. 246). In contrast to many

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[6] The sample included 150 athletes and 150 non-athletes. Enneagram types 7, 1, 9 and 3 were observed more in athletes while types 4, 2 and 5 were observed more in non-athletes.

other personality typologies (e.g., FFM, 16PF, MBTI)[7], no authoritative set of theoretical

assumptions and vocabularies has been unanimously adopted in describing the features and

genesis of the nine Enneagram types. Although there are a limited number of more popular

schools of thought which describe the nine basic personality types and their key features in

comparable ways (e.g., Daniels & Price, 2009; Palmer, 1995; Riso & Hudson, 1999b), there are

also some differences between these interpretations (e.g., in how the theory/typology is taught

and applied). Furthermore, there are emerging understandings within Enneagram literature that

provide novel views of the development of personality type and of how the Enneagram

framework should be applied to facilitate adaptive interpersonal behaviour change (e.g., Rhodes,

2009; Sikora, 2013, Tallon & Sikora, 2006; Wagner, 2010). There is thus a need to outline and

clarify the key theoretical assumptions which constitute the current study's understanding and

application of the Enneagram. A three-dimensional review of Enneagram theory and research is

used to define the Enneagram in a way that may be best suited to CAR enhancement

interventions.

<div align="center">

Three-dimensional Review of Enneagram Theory

</div>

The Enneagram and Dispositional Traits

In Chapter Two, dispositional traits were defined as the individual differences between

people that account for the consistency and continuity (i.e., recurrence) of behaviour, cognition

and emotion across varying contexts. It was identified that research focusing on the CAR has

predominantly applied the Five Factor Model (FFM) to identify the dispositional filters by which

coaches and athletes appraise their relationships. However, the FFM was shown to provide little

insight regarding the implicit and dynamic psychological processes that underpin and influence

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[7] FFM - Five Factor Model, 16PF - Sixteen Personality Factor Model, MBTI - Myers–Briggs Type Indicator.

coaches' and athletes' typical behaviour and appraisal patterns. The Enneagram addresses this limitation by providing an understanding of dispositional traits as a function of implicit characteristic adaptations.

In a seminal description of Enneagram theory Naranjo (1994) proposed that the Enneagram model provides an integration of a 'trait view' of personality with a focus on the unconscious processes and motives that underpin behaviour. The Enneagram views a separation of patterns of cognition, emotion and behaviour from the implicit motivations that underpin them as artificial and thus proposes that these must be integrated in order to truly understand human individuality and Enneagram type (Sutton, 2007). It is also the ultimate aim of the Enneagram to make more explicit the unconscious patterns and adaptations that influence human functioning for better or worse. As Riso and Hudson (1999b) suggest,

> Understanding our personality type and its dynamics, therefore, offers an
> especially potent approach to the unconscious… The Enneagram shows us where
> our personality most "trips us up". It highlights both what is possible for us, as
> well as how self-defeating and unnecessary many of our old reactions and
> behaviours are (p. 28-29).

While elucidating the implicit dimensions of personality, the Enneagram provides extensive trait-based descriptions of each type. Enneagram literature often introduces the nine types through such descriptions as a way of orientating readers to the key differences between types and to facilitate a process of initial identification or dis-identification with certain of the type profiles. For example, Wagner (1999) employed the dispositional trait dimension of

Enneagram type to develop the Wagner Enneagram Personality Style Scales (WEPSS) in which

respondents are asked to rate their relative identification with trait-like descriptors of behaviours

and personal qualities commonly associated with each of the nine Enneagram types. Along with

demonstrating the theoretical consistency, reliability, and validity of the WEPSS as a self-report

measure of Enneagram type, Wagner showed that the WEPSS items which contribute to a

particular Enneagram type score are associated most strongly with other items that contribute to

that same type score. This lends credence to the suggestion that certain trait descriptors are more

commonly associated with certain Enneagram types.

Wagner (1999) also distinguishes between the adaptive traits of each Enneagram type,

which he suggests are most commonly associated with positive interpersonal outcomes, and the

maladaptive traits, which are said to be associated with negative interpersonal outcomes for each

type (see Table 2). While some preliminary research has supported these associations (Wagner,

2008), it could be argued that Enneagram type traits are not inherently adaptive or maladaptive,

but rather contextually adaptive or maladaptive. Stated differently, while the patterns of

cognition, emotion and behaviour associated with certain traits may be adaptive in one context,

the same patterns may be maladaptive in another context. As suggested later in this chapter, all

aspects of personality (i.e., traits, motivations, schemas) can be adaptive in so far as they are

used and defined flexibly to support positive interpersonal outcomes.

Enneagram dispositional traits and CAR enhancement. The limitations of

dispositional trait descriptions and self-report measures of Enneagram type in not accounting for

implicit psychological processes were discussed earlier.

Table 2

A Dispositional Trait Description of the Nine Enneagram Types

E-Type	Adaptive Traits	Maladaptive Traits
Type 1	Excellence, high standards, high ideals, accountable, disciplined, principled, high morals, exact, zealous, high-minded, painstaking	Judgmental, critical, preaching, critique, resentful, rigid, righteous, uptight, correctness-seeking, try hard, perfectionist
Type 2	Giving, supportive, comforting, helpful, soft-hearted, generous, empathic, other-oriented, pleasing , compliment, praise	Mothering, caretaker, overprotective, smothering, need to love and be loved, flattery, placater, approval-seeking, stroke to be stroked, dependent, difficult to receive
Type 3	Executive, selling, entrepreneur, marketing, engineer, succeed, accomplish, productive, multi projects, professional	Image-maker, opportunistic, upwardly mobile, smooth operator, salesmanship, achievement-seeking, performer, popularity, looking good, Type A behaviour, on the go
Type 4	Poetic, aesthetic, artistic, beautify, life as drama, sense of tragic, original, romantic, tasteful, ritual maker, deeply feeling	Longing, suffering, abandoned, melancholy, yearning, moody, self-absorbed, intensity-seeking, envious, aristocratic, special
Type 5	Knowledgeable, scholar, synthesise, wise, insightful, behind the scene, objective observer, dry, reserved, quiet, private	Invisible, uninvolved, withholding, withdraw, hide and peek, move away from, don't display warmth, isolated, loner, stingy
Type 6	Dutiful, obedient, careful, cautious, lawful, propriety, honour commitments, get details, sober, vigilant, faithful	Follower, worrying, fearful or counter-fearful, hesitant, security-seeking, doubting, imagine the worst, legalist, suspicious, cautioning, look for hidden intentions
Type 7	Talkative, entertaining, excited, sparkling, playful, cheerful, wow, enjoy, many possibilities, carefree, fascination	Dreamer, too many options, self-indulgent, dilettante, pleasure-seeking, chatty, addicted to highs, spotlight-seeker, fantasy, rose-coloured glasses, avoid pain
Type 8	Confront, stand up for rights, blunt, tough-minded, assertive, strength, powerful, independent, take charge, self-assured, self-directed	Bossy, abrasive, intimidate, vengeful, move against, aggressive, debunking, power-seeking, need to triumph, impulsive, tough-skinned
Type 9	Laid-back, relaxed, no big deal, let it be, contented, settled, harmonious, unassuming, peacemaker, unpretentious, blend in	Lethargic, indifferent, unambitious, avoid conflict, resignation, procrastinate, vague, inattentive, self-forgetful, what's the difference, lazy

Adapted from *Wagner Enneagram Personality Style Scales Manual* (p. 65-70), by J. P.

Wagner, 1999, Los Angeles, USA: Western Psychological Services (WPS). Copyright 1999 by

WPS.

Nevertheless, within CAR enhancement interventions, trait-based descriptions and self-report measures of Enneagram type provide useful tools for facilitating a process of self-reflection in determining Enneagram type. Once coaches and athletes have identified their Enneagram types, trait descriptions can facilitate enhanced self-awareness and mutual-awareness (i.e., shared understanding) of the recurring and interdependent patterns of cognition, emotion, and behaviour that constitute the CAR. This shared understanding can create a mutual appreciation of each other's interpersonal strengths, which may increase feelings of being respected and valued (i.e., enhanced closeness), and facilitate acts of co-operation and affiliation (i.e., enhanced complementarity).

A shared awareness of Enneagram type could also improve the accuracy of the coach's and athlete's perceptions of the relationship and of each other (i.e., enhanced co-orientation). Furthermore, because Enneagram theory conceptualises personality traits as a function of dynamic motivational and social-cognitive processes such traits are viewed as dynamic and amenable to change. The Enneagram is therefore not only a model for enhancing personality trait awareness, but also a developmental model for facilitating adaptive interpersonal behaviour change within the CAR.

Enneagram and dispositional trait research. Although the Enneagram's orientation is towards development rather than a mere description of traits, a number of studies have demonstrated correlations between Enneagram type and the personality traits identified by established personality theories. For example, Wagner and Walker (1983) found that results from the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (1976) and the Millon-Illinois Self-Report Inventory (1974) demonstrated significantly differentiated profiles for each of the nine Enneagram types. Result profiles were also congruent with what would be expected from each Enneagram type. Warling

(1995) found significant correlations between scales on a self-report measure of Enneagram type called the Riso-Hudson Enneagram Type Indicator (RHETI: Riso & Hudson, 1999a) and factors identified within the 16PF measure of personality traits (Cattell, et al., 1993).

Brown and Bartram (2005) explored the association between Enneagram type and personality traits measured by the Occupational Personality Questionnaire 32 (OPQ32; Saville et al., 1984) and confirmed significant differences between the Enneagram types for 31 of the 32 OPQ scales (OPQ Forward Thinking was not significantly different for different Enneagram types). Newgent (2001) and Newgent et al. (2004) found strong and predictable relationships between the Riso-Hudson Enneagram Type Indicator, Version 2.5 (RHETI, 2.5; Riso & Hudson, 1999a) and FFM personality trait scores on the NEO Personality Inventory (NEO PI-R; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Similarly, Sutton (2007) confirmed a number of hypothesised relationships between Enneagram type and the FFM dispositional traits measured by a 50-item International Personality Item Pool (IPIP: 2001) questionnaire. Furthermore, Sutton, Allinson and Williams (2013) found that Enneagram type strongly predicted job attitudes and cognitions (in one case even more effectively than the FFM).

Collectively, these studies suggest that each Enneagram type is associated with distinct and recurring patterns of cognition, emotion and behaviour. Similar to the FFM, the Enneagram can facilitate an identification of the trait-based supports and barriers to effective interpersonal behaviour. However, as stated earlier, Enneagram theory views personality traits in the context of the implicit and dynamic characteristic adaptations that underpin them. Trait descriptions of Enneagram type provide an entry point to exploring the motivations and beliefs that underpin coaches' and athletes' behaviour. Therefore, the Enneagram addresses a key limitation of the FFM by elucidating the dynamic psychological processes that influence interpersonal

functioning. The next section of the chapter explores how Enneagram theory accounts for these characteristic adaptations and how an awareness of them can facilitate adaptive interpersonal behaviour change and enhance CAR quality.

The Enneagram and Characteristic Adaptations

While the reviewed evidence supports an association between Enneagram type and certain dispositional traits, Enneagram theory proposes that understanding *why* individuals demonstrate certain patterns of thinking, feeling and behaviour is central to conceptualising and identifying Enneagram type. Within a three-dimensional framing of Enneagram theory dispositional traits are viewed as a function of a more or less stable system of underpinning characteristic adaptations. Enneagram type is viewed as determined not primarily by the presence of certain traits, but by the motivational, social-cognitive, and developmental characteristic adaptations that are particular to each type.

This conceptualisation of personality type is consistent with Mischel and Shoda's (1995) cognitive-affective system (CAS) theory of personality where recurring patterns of behaviour are viewed as resulting from a relatively stable cognitive-affective system (influenced by developmental history, situational factors and behavioural outcomes) that mediates how individuals select and interpret social information and thus generate interpersonal behaviour. Mischel and Shoda propose that the role of personality assessment is to identify "meaningful patterns that characterise the person's behaviour across seemingly diverse situations, and to discover the dynamics – the interactions among mediating process variables – that underlie that patterning and that can explain it" (1995, p. 247). The Enneagram provides a framework for exploring such meaningful patterns and dynamics within the interpersonal functioning of coaches and athletes.

The Enneagram and motivational characteristic adaptations. In Chapter Two Self-determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) was shown to identify certain motivational characteristic adaptations in the form of three basic psychological needs (i.e., autonomy, competence and relatedness) which, when satisfied, lead to optimal athlete and coach motivation, performance and well-being. The effective interpersonal coaching behaviours that satisfy those needs (in athletes) were also identified by an SDT framework. However, it was suggested that auxiliary models are needed to assist coaches in recognising what shapes their coaching/interpersonal styles and to support athletes in identifying how they can nurture self-determined motivation and adaptive interpersonal behaviour. The Enneagram provides such an auxiliary model in that it describes the motivational characteristic adaptations that underpin interpersonal behaviour.

Deconstructing deficiency motivation. Early iterations of Enneagram theory proposed that each Enneagram type is primarily motivated by a habitual emotional pattern or 'passion' that develops as an adaptation to basic psychological need thwarting within the early developmental environment (Palmer, 1988). Naranjo (1994) describes this passion as a form of deficiency motivation that organises thoughts, feelings and behaviour in characteristic and mostly dysfunctional ways. These interpretations reinforce a view of each Enneagram type's motivational adaptations as primarily maladaptive. Accordingly, Riso and Hudson (1999b) propose that the basic motivations for each personality type result from unmet developmental needs and the consequent blockage of an essential self. Riso and Hudson draw a distinction, common within Enneagram theory, between the essential self as the "wider range of potentials that we all possess" (p. 27) and personality as a fear-based and limited repertoire of strategies,

self-images, and behaviours that serve to protect the individual against the dysfunction of early

nurturing environments, but which are largely maladaptive for adult life.

This theorised dichotomy between an a priori and essential self, viewed as fundamentally

adaptive, and personality, viewed as fundamentally maladaptive and formed by need thwarting,

leads to a broadly pathologising view of personality development and of human functioning in

general[8]. Furthermore, when developmental psychological theory (often underpinned by a deficit

discourse[9]) is used to explain the essential self vs. personality dichotomy, a deficit narrative of

early developmental experiences is constructed that also pathologises primary caregiver

relationships. In contrast, Rhodes (2009) has suggested that the Enneagram types could equally

be described as essence types in the sense that the personality structure can be viewed as a

necessary and positive motivating aspect of temperament that provides the resources for the

development of a mature and adaptive personality in adulthood.

However, although this perspective replaces an essentially maladaptive view of

personality with an essentially adaptive one, it could be argued that within CAR enhancement

interventions, the notion of essence or an essential self could be discarded altogether without

losing the benefits of using the Enneagram as a heuristic device for exploring the motivational

adaptations which influence interpersonal functioning for better or worse. The adaptiveness of

each Enneagram type's motivations could be viewed as determined, not by their postulated

relationship with or dissociation from an essential self, but by the interpersonal behaviour and

relationship outcomes associated with them. More specifically, coaches' and athletes'

motivational characteristic adaptations can be viewed as adaptive in so far as they result in

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[8] See Sikora (2013) for a more comprehensive critique of the essentialist view within Enneagram theory.
[9] Gergen (1994) has described the deficit discourse in modernist western psychology theory and practice where an instrumentalist ethos and focus on problem-solving paradoxically creates ever-expanding terminologies of mental illness and disorder that in turn constructs pathologised identities for individuals who encounter it.

interpersonal behaviour that enhances the degree of perceived closeness, commitment,

complementarity, and co-orientation in the CAR (Jowett, 2005, 2007). Furthermore, in light of

research reviewed in Chapter Two, demonstrating an association between enhanced CAR quality

and the effective use of COMPASS relationship maintenance strategies (Rhind & Jowett, 2010b,

2011, 2012), it could be proposed that the motivational dimension of each Enneagram type is

adaptive in so far as it supports the effective use of the COMPASS strategies within the CAR.

The application of this proposal within an intervention to enhance the CAR is more fully

described in Chapter Four.

Proficiency motivation. Wagner (2010) has proposed a less pathologising view of

Enneagram personality type that identifies core values as the "motivating and organizing

tendencies" (p. 28) that guide each type's energies, perceptions, attitudes, emotional responses,

and behaviours (see Figure 7). Wagner suggests that each Enneagram type's core value lies at the

root of what they are striving to become and that this striving leads to certain proficiencies or

adaptive behaviour. As Wagner states, "we become experts at what we attend to and passionately

pursue. In a reciprocally rewarding loop, we value what we are good at and we become good at

what we value" (p. 30). Wagner does suggest, however, that an idealisation of the core value and

an over-use of its associated strengths can lead to a restricted range of habitual behaviour.

In line with this perspective, Tallon and Sikora (2006) have proposed that each

Enneagram type is shaped by a unique striving for a desired ontological state. Each type's

'striving to be' is conceptualised as a *preferred strategy* for negotiating the interpersonal domain

and performance tasks (see Table 3).

Peace

Power   9   Goodness
                    8   1

Joy   7   2   Love

Loyalty   6   3   Efficacy

                    5   4

Wisdom   Originality
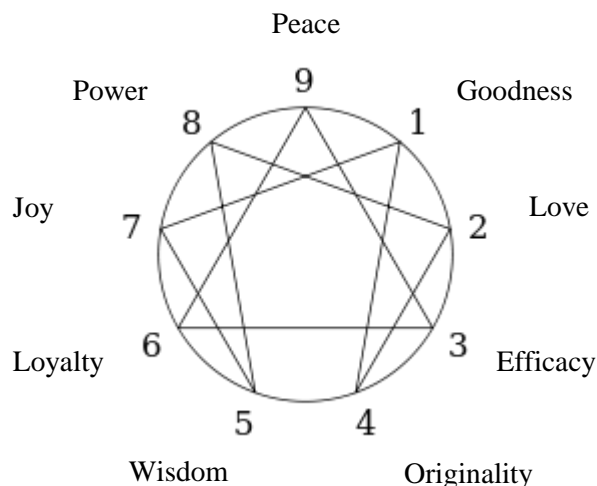
Figure 7. The core values of the Enneagram types. Adapted from *Wagner Enneagram Personality Style Scales Manual* (p. 65-70), by J. P. Wagner, 1999, Los Angeles, USA: Western Psychological Services (WPS). Copyright 1999 by WPS.

Although Wagner (2010) and Tallon and Sikora (2006) have presented independent interpretations of the Enneagram types there is an evident coherence between the core value and the desire that underpins the preferred strategy of each type. Similar to Wagner, Tallon and Sikora propose that the preferred strategy of each Enneagram type supports the development of certain interpersonal strengths, but that an over-reliance on and narrow definition (i.e., idealisation) of the preferred strategy can lead to maladaptive interpersonal outcomes. In the context of the CAR, preferred strategies could be viewed as optimally adaptive in so far as they incorporate an effective use of the COMPASS relationship maintenance strategies (Rhind & Jowett, 2010b, 2012) while being maladaptive in so far as they neglect or conflict with those strategies (see Figure 8).

Table 3

The Nine Enneagram Type Strategies

E-Type	Preferred Strategy
Type 1	*Striving to be perfect* – desire to be flawless, good, and to feel that everything is right with you and the world.
Type 2	*Striving to be connected* – desire to be appreciated and deeply united with others and with your own feelings
Type 3	*Striving to be outstanding* – desire to stand out as an exemplary member of the group, and to be seen as valuable, successful, and accomplished
Type 4	*Striving to be unique* – desire to be different, autonomous, creative, and to be understood and appreciated for your special qualities
Type 5	*Striving to be detached* – desire to be self-sufficient, independent, and be able to find serenity with your own thoughts
Type 6	*Striving to be secure* – desire to be safe and a part of a group, cause, or philosophy; to trust others and your own judgement
Type 7	*Striving to be excited* – desire to be stimulated, happy, enthusiastic, to have fun, and to inspire others
Type 8	*Striving to be powerful* – desire to be strong, to take action, and to be able to express your will, influence, and vitality
Type 9	*Striving to be peaceful* – desire to be in harmony with your world, other people, and your own thoughts; to be calm and relaxed

Adapted from *Awareness to action: The Enneagram, emotional intelligence, and change* (p. 3), by R. Tallon and M. Sikora, 2006, Scranton, USA: University of Scranton Press. Copyright 2006 by R. Tallon & M. Sikora.

For example, an Enneagram type 8 coach who is motivated by the striving to be powerful may develop interpersonal strengths such as a decisive and self-assured personal style that

provides his or her athletes with the clear structure and boundaries within which to pursue their

performance goals (i.e., autonomy support).
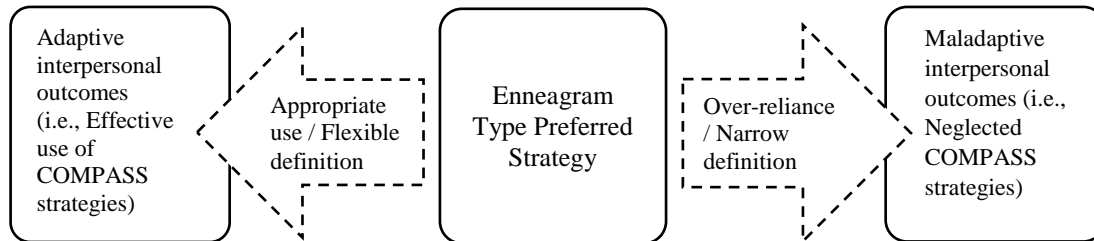
Figure 8. Enneagram preferred strategies and interpersonal outcomes for the CAR.

The coach's vitality and challenging approach may include an effective use of

motivation, support, and assurance COMPASS strategies (Rhind & Jowett, 2010b, 2012) which

encourages athletes to reach optimal levels of performance. However, if the type 8 coach over-

relies on the striving to be powerful and defines power narrowly as avoiding any form of

dependence on others and remaining in control at all times, this may develop a demanding and

domineering interpersonal style that undermines the effective use of openness and conflict

management COMPASS strategies amongst others. The motivating preferred strategy of each

Enneagram type thus remains adaptive in so far as it is used appropriately and defined flexibly,

while becoming maladaptive when excluding more appropriate behavioural choices.

Enneagram motivational characteristic adaptations and CAR enhancement. While

trait descriptions of Enneagram type enhance a mutual awareness and appreciation between

coach and athlete of each other's interpersonal strengths, a 'strategy view' of Enneagram type

illuminates the motivations that underpin those strengths. It also develops an understanding of

the *reasons* and benign intentions that lie behind less adaptive patterns of behaviour. This more

in-depth understanding between coaches and athletes can facilitate less defensive and more

accurate inferences regarding each other's patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving, thus

enhancing empathic understanding (i.e., enhanced co-orientation). This understanding may

further enhance feelings of trust and mutual appreciation (i.e., enhanced closeness) and a

willingness to invest in the partnership (i.e., enhanced commitment). A further benefit of the

strategy view of Enneagram type for CAR quality enhancement lies in providing coaches and

athletes with a dynamic and developmental view of personality and thus of interpersonal

functioning. Coaches and athletes who recognise that an inflexible preferred strategy is resulting

in maladaptive outcomes for the CAR can redefine and expand that strategy to incorporate more

responsive and cooperative behaviour in their relationship (i.e., enhanced complementarity).

   Redefining motivation. Tallon and Sikora (2006) suggest that the core motivation for

Enneagram type, the preferred strategy, can be redefined in a way that incorporates more

adaptive behaviour. In the context of CAR enhancement interventions this could take the form of

incorporating the COMPASS relationship maintenance strategies. For example, a type 6 athlete

who is primarily motivated by striving to be secure and defines this as always deferring to the

coach's guidance and advice may begin to recognise that this pattern paradoxically undermines a

feeling of self-confidence (i.e., insecurity). It may be identified that an excessive dependence on

the coach is leading to tension in the CAR and that this reinforces a fear of losing the coach's

support and assurance. This fear could be undermining the athlete's use of effective conflict

management and openness COMPASS strategies.

   With an awareness of this the athlete could be encouraged to redefine striving to be

secure as developing more self-reliance and protecting and securing the CAR by addressing

areas of conflict, and sharing his or her fears and opinions with the coach. While striving to be

secure remains the athlete's core motivation, it is redefined to include more adaptive

interpersonal behaviour. The advantage of redefining the preferred strategy (rather than

attempting to resist or replace it) lies in placing coaches' or athletes' motivating drives in the

service of behaviour change. The process of redefining the preferred strategy as part of a CAR

enhancement intervention will be discussed in further detail in Chapter Four.

Expanding the strategic repertoire. Another way of enhancing coaches' and athletes'

interpersonal functioning is to expand their strategic repertoire to incorporate the connecting

point strategies that may support effective behaviour. As described earlier in this chapter, each

point or strategy on the Enneagram diagram is connected to two other points via internal lines on

the diagram (see Figure 9).
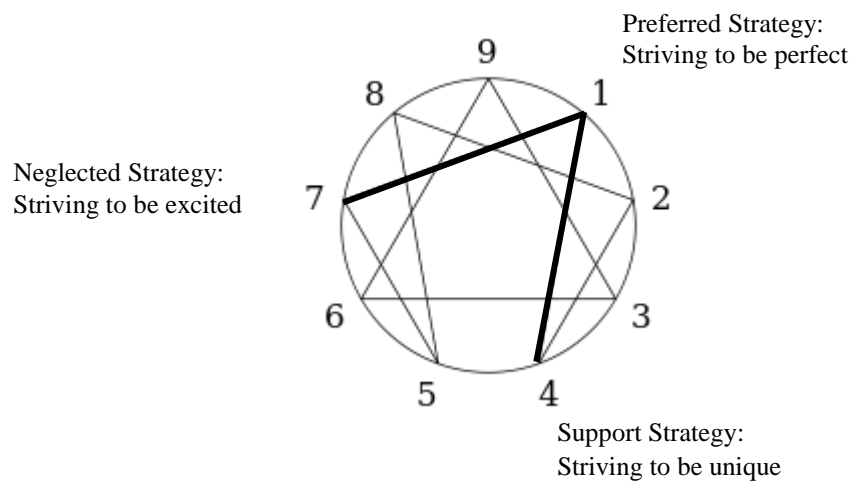
Figure 9. Enneagram type 1 connecting point strategies. Adapted from *Awareness to action: The Enneagram, emotional intelligence, and change* (p. 31), by R. Tallon and M. Sikora, 2006, Scranton, USA: University of Scranton Press. Copyright 2006 by R. Tallon & M. Sikora.

Enneagram theory proposes that these internal lines represent the predictable ways that each Enneagram type, in times of stress or in times of security, displays some of the traits and strategies of the two types to which it is connected. Empirical studies have not yet validated these type dynamics or established a clear connection between them and stress or security (see Thrasher, 1995 and Twomey, 1995).

However, Tallon and Sikora (2006) have proposed the connecting points as a framework for expanding an awareness of the strategic repertoire of each Enneagram type. Tallon and Sikora propose a heuristic framework that describes the two connecting point strategies as a *neglected strategy* and *support strategy* for each type. In this model one of the connecting point strategies for each type is viewed as neglected since it is experienced as a contradiction to the preferred strategy, while the other connecting point strategy is viewed as a support to the preferred strategy's goals or as an alternative response when the preferred strategy is not effective. Tallon and Sikora suggest that each type can benefit from recognising the influence of the connecting point strategies and from using them in a more flexible manner.

For example, an Enneagram type 1 athlete may view the striving to be excited at connecting point 7 (neglected strategy – see Figure 9) as potentially leading to irresponsible and impulsive behaviour that may undermine the athlete's core motivation, – i.e., striving to be perfect and behave correctly in training sessions or performance situations. However, making time for enjoyment, relaxation and fun with the coach and team mates within a highly disciplined and strict training regime (i.e., social networks COMPASS strategy) may enhance the CAR and ultimately support the athlete's striving for flawless performances. The type 1 athlete may use striving to be unique (strategy at connecting point 4) as a support to a focus on high standards and strict regimes, which may require a willingness to be seen as different or not drawn into the

prevailing norms of fellow team members. While this may be adaptive, an over-reliance on the support strategy could alienate the athlete from her team and coach.

While a redefinition of the preferred strategy remains more fundamental to enhancing interpersonal functioning, the connecting point strategies do provide an auxiliary model for exploring adaptive behaviour change. As Tallon and Sikora (2006) suggest,

> As your definition of your Preferred Strategy expands to include a wider range of behaviours and attitudes… This broader understanding of the strategy loosens the strategy's hold on you and, eventually, the other strategies begin to feel more comfortable and you find yourself using them more (p. 2).

Within the context of a CAR enhancement intervention Tallon and Sikora's (2006) description of the motivational characteristic adaptations of the Enneagram types provides a pragmatic and dynamic auxiliary model that complements SDT by identifying the core motivations and psychological dynamics that influence athletes' and coaches' interpersonal behaviour. An emphasis on using the Enneagram strategies as a framework for enhancing self-awareness and mutual understanding, as well as interpersonal behaviour change, makes this interpretation of the Enneagram particularly suitable for enhancing CAR quality.

Enneagram and motivational characteristic adaptation research. Although the association between the Enneagram types and the basic psychological needs proposed by SDT (i.e., autonomy, competence, relatedness) has not been empirically investigated, Sutton (2007) has explored the relationship between Enneagram type and two other models that address both the conscious (i.e., explicit) and unconscious (i.e., implicit) dimensions of motivation.

Sutton (2007) initially demonstrated associations between Enneagram type and explicit motivations in the form of consciously held values. By administering the Schwartz Value Survey (Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz & Knafo, 2002) to individuals who already had identified their Enneagram type, Sutton confirmed 21 of 23 hypotheses about the association between Enneagram type and the ten values identified in the Schwartz (1992) values model (i.e., benevolence, conformity, tradition, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, and universalism[10]). These results suggest that the Enneagram types are differentiated by the conscious characteristic motivational adaptations that may underpin their dispositional traits.

Sutton (2007) then investigated the association between Enneagram type and three major implicit motivational needs identified in the work of McClelland et al. (1989), namely *achievement, power* and *affiliation*. The need for achievement is defined as a concern with doing things to a higher standard of excellence, while the need for power is concerned with having impact, control or influence. Finally, the need for affiliation is described as a concern with establishing and maintaining a positive and close affective relationship with another or with a group. There is a noteworthy overlap between these three motivational constructs and the three basic psychological needs identified in SDT. Both the need for power and the need for autonomy are concerned with personal influence and self-directed action, while the need for achievement echoes the competence need in a concern with effective mastery of tasks and roles. Also, both the need for affiliation and the need for relatedness emphasise relational connectedness and closeness (i.e., maintaining positive affective relationships).

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[10] Although there is not a complete correspondence between Wagner's (2010) Enneagram type core values and Schwartz's (1992) values model, there is a noteworthy similarity between some constructs – e.g., goodness/benevolence, efficiency/achievement, originality/self-direction, loyalty/tradition, joy/hedonism, power/power, and peace/universalism.

Sutton (2007) employed a semi-projective measure known as the Multi-Motive Grid (MMG-S) (Sokolowski, Schmalt et al., 2000) where participants who had identified their Enneagram type were asked to respond to an ambiguous stimulus with a restricted choice of possible attributed meanings. The process measures an 'approach' and 'avoid' component in relation to each of the three implicit motives (i.e., hope of affiliation, success and power, and fear of rejection, failure and power). Results from Sutton's investigation supported 14 of 18 hypotheses about expected associations between Enneagram type and the three implicit motives. A further 14 relationships (not hypothesised) were established. In short, Sutton (2007) has demonstrated how the Enneagram provides a framework for integrating both explicit motivational characteristic adaptations (i.e., conscious values which guide behavioural choices, strivings and evaluations of actions) and implicit motivational characteristic adaptations (i.e., unconscious needs or desires for particular emotional outcomes). The results suggest that distinct relationships may exist between basic psychological needs and Enneagram type.

Future research could thus explore the relationship between the values and motivating strivings of each Enneagram type and the basic psychological needs identified by SDT. This could provide insight into whether the Enneagram may provide a framework for coaches as well as athletes to identify the psychological need satisfaction that is most central to their self-determined motivation and thus supportive of optimal performance and well-being. Enneagram theory proposes that each personality type's motivational adaptations are imbricated with social-cognitive adaptations which influence how the preferred strategy is defined. These will be discussed in the following section.

The Enneagram and social-cognitive characteristic adaptations. Chapter Two recognised self-efficacy theory (SET; Bandura, 1986, 1997, 1999) as a framework for identifying

coaches' and athletes' interdependent social-cognitive adaptations in the form of self, relational and collective efficacy beliefs. It was proposed that SET could guide CAR enhancement interventions with a focus on identifying and optimising such beliefs. However, it was suggested that SET does not adequately account for the influence of implicit beliefs and self-concept. Furthermore it was argued that SET's cognitive perspective neglects the role of motivation, emotions, and dispositional traits on interpersonal functioning. This section of the chapter will review the potential contribution of Enneagram theory in addressing these limitations by identifying the implicit social-cognitive adaptations associated with Enneagram type.

Generalisations and schemas. In the previous section it was suggested that enhancing coaches' and athletes' awareness of an over-reliance on their preferred strategies forms the basis for redefining them to incorporate more effective behaviour. Enneagram theory suggests that there are implicit social-cognitive adaptations associated with each type that influence how the preferred strategy is used and defined. Tallon and Sikora (2006) describe these adaptations as generalisations about reality associated with each type. These generalisations are consistent with what cognitive psychology describes as schemas or "specific networks of information/knowledge about some aspect of the person's world that enable him/her to engage in a particular activity" (James, Southam & Blackburn, 2004, p. 370). Schemas are cognitive maps of reality that are formed from memories and which allow individuals to interpret their experiences and negotiate their physical and social environment. James et al. explain that schemas are adaptive in reducing the amount of mental processing capacity needed to deal with the demands of a situation but that they become maladaptive when they become patterns of cognition, emotion and behaviour that are repeated habitually and inflexibly. Schemas are said to consist of two implicit sub-components, namely core beliefs (i.e., verbal representations of a schema that a person strongly

identifies with) and self-referent beliefs (i.e., persons' perceptions of themselves in relation to others).

Palmer (1995) and Palmer and Brown (1997) delineate the generalisation or schema associated with each Enneagram type, and describe it as a basic worldview consisting of specific core beliefs and self-referent beliefs, and associated with a focus of attention (see Table 4).

Table 4

Enneagram Type Schemas (Worldview and Focus of Attention)

E-Type	Basic Worldview	Focus of Attention
Type 1	The world is an imperfect place. I work toward perfection.	Error
Type 2	People depend on my help. I am needed.	Other people's needs
Type 3	The world values a champion. I must avoid failure.	Success
Type 4	Something is missing. Others have it. I have been abandoned.	What's missing
Type 5	The world is invasive. I need privacy to think and to refuel my energies.	Intrusion
Type 6	The world is a threatening place. I question authority.	Hazard
Type 7	The world is full of opportunity and options. I look forward to the future.	Pleasant future possibilities
Type 8	The world is an unjust place. I defend the innocent.	Power
Type 9	The world won't value my efforts. Stay comfortable. Keep the peace.	Other people's agendas

Adapted from *The Enneagram in Love and Work* (p. 37), by H. Palmer, 1995, Harper Collins. Copyright 1995 by the Center for the Investigation and Training of Intuition.

For example, the type 3 basic worldview 'The world values a champion. I must avoid failure' is associated with a focus of attention on attaining success and achievement. This may

define striving to be outstanding (type 3 preferred strategy) as 'gaining approval and recognition by avoiding failure at all costs'. Each Enneagram type schema, although providing a necessary 'map' for negotiating reality (James et al., 2004), can reinforce patterns of cognition, emotion and behaviour that are repeated habitually and inflexibly. While gaining approval and recognition for achievements is not in itself maladaptive, a type 3's habitual avoidance of failure and obsessive pursuit of success may lead to a neglect of effective CAR maintenance behaviour (e.g., limited openness for fear of appearing a failure).

However, with an awareness of their Enneagram type schemas coaches and athletes can explore more flexible definitions of their preferred strategies that incorporate more adaptive interpersonal behaviour to enhance CAR quality.

Enneagram social-cognitive characteristic adaptations and CAR enhancement. In the context of the CAR an athlete's or coach's schema could be considered adaptive when it supports a preferred strategy that incorporates the COMPASS relationship maintenance behaviours (see Figure 10). Maladaptive schemas may result in a neglect of the COMPASS strategies, thus limiting CAR quality.

For example, an Enneagram type 2 athlete who views the world as a place where others are dependent on his or her help and who therefore focuses attention on the needs of the coach and teammates (i.e., type 2 schema), may begin to narrowly define striving to be connected as pleasing others by meeting their needs and avoiding his or her own. This may result in the neglect of COMPASS strategies such as openness (i.e., sharing information about own needs) and the preventative strategy (i.e., dealing with unmet expectations), which could limit the athlete's perception of CAR closeness, commitment and complementarity (Jowett, 2005, 2007).
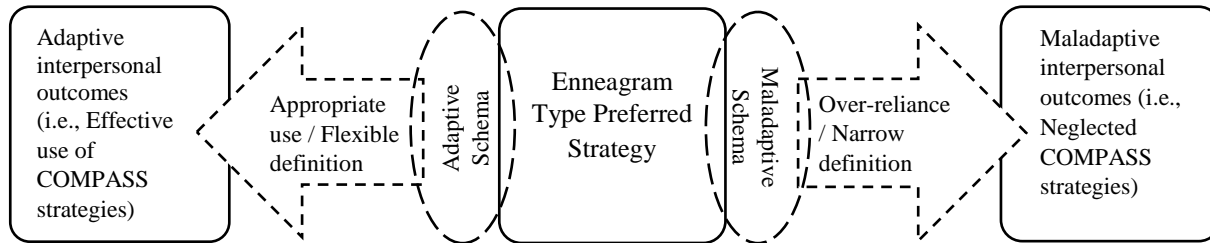
Figure 10. Enneagram schemas and interpersonal outcomes for the CAR.

Recognising the type 2 athlete's support to others as an interpersonal strength, the coach may begin to rely on the athlete to help fellow teammates in various ways. Although this may to an extent be an adaptive role in the team, the type 2 athlete may begin to find it difficult to communicate his or her own needs to the coach, further undermining an experience of closeness in the CAR. The athlete may be left emotionally and physically disconnected, paradoxically undermining the striving of the preferred strategy.

In CAR enhancement interventions identifying and adapting implicit schemas are central to redefining the preferred strategy. For example, the aforementioned type 2 athlete could be supported to identify how the implicit schema (i.e., people depend on my help – I am needed) has paradoxically undermined feelings of closeness and connection to the coach. Alternative and more adaptive beliefs could then be explored. For example, the belief 'I am most connected when I express my real feelings, desires and needs to my coach' could allow the athlete to expand a focus of attention (to his or her own needs) and to incorporate sharing feelings openly as *integral* to striving to be connected. This alternative schema belief would place the athlete's core motivation (i.e., striving to be connected) in service of enhancing CAR quality.

Furthermore, the coach's awareness of the athlete's preferred strategy and schema could encourage the coach to reinforce expressions of need by the athlete through a more intentional use of COMPASS strategies such as assurance and support (Rhind & Jowett, 2010b, 2012). Interventions based in the Enneagram can facilitate an adaptive interdependence between coach and athlete behaviour through a shared awareness of Enneagram type schemas.

Adaptive Enneagram type schemas. Wagner (1996, 2010) has proposed certain adaptive schemas for each Enneagram type which he describes as accurate and objective representations of reality which help the individual effectively negotiate their world. The core beliefs and self-referent beliefs within Wagner's framework of adaptive schemas are presented[11] in Table 5. As Wagner (1996) states, "schemas represent patterned ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving. Adaptive cognitive schemas faithfully record, code, and organise external and internal data, so our cognitive maps are accurate reflections of the territory" (p. 17). Within CAR enhancement interventions the adaptive schemas of each Enneagram type provide a useful exploratory framework for helping coaches and athletes redefine their preferred strategies to incorporate more adaptive interpersonal behaviour.

In summary, the Enneagram illuminates the dynamic relationship between the motivational characteristic adaptations (preferred strategies) and social-cognitive characteristic adaptations (schemas) that centrally influence coaches' and athletes' interpersonal functioning.

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[11] Wagner's language has been adapted to retain the main schema belief theme as far as possible while avoiding terminology that implies the 'essential self vs. personality' dichotomy discussed in a previous section of this chapter.

Table 5

Adaptive Enneagram Type Schemas

Enneagram Type	Adaptive Schema
Type 1	*Core belief*: Perfection is a process and life is unfolding as it should. *Self-referent beliefs*: I am good without containing all perfection within myself. I accept and appreciate myself and others as they are.
Type 2	*Core belief*: Freedom means living within the limits of giving and receiving. *Self-referent beliefs*: I am most connected when I express my real feelings, desires and needs. I am free to say 'yes' and permitted to say 'no'.
Type 3	*Core belief*: All will keep running smoothly even when I am not working. *Self-referent beliefs*: I am valuable because I exist, not because of the role I play. My value comes from being, not being productive.
Type 4	*Core belief*: That which I am yearning for is already present in my life as it is. *Self-referent beliefs*: I am whole and complete as I am now. I am already original and significant.
Type 5	*Core belief*: Wisdom and understanding come from experience and participation. *Self-referent beliefs*: Knowledge includes body, feelings and mind. In sharing my inner life I enrich the world.
Type 6	*Core belief*: The world is trustworthy. *Self-referent beliefs*: The world and others are out to do me good, not do me harm. I trust myself and my own authority.
Type 7	*Core belief*: The fullness of joy and of life are experienced by living in the present. *Self-referent beliefs*: Every person has a part to play in the evolution of humankind. I can stay with something even when it ceases to be fun, easy, and interesting.
Type 8	*Core belief*: The natural laws that govern life are already inherently fair and just. *Self-referent beliefs*: I come to each moment without preconceptions of what ought to be happening. True power lies in embracing both my strength and my vulnerability.
Type 9	*Core belief*: Each individual life, including my own, has value. *Self-referent beliefs*: I have a purpose and sense of direction. I am intentional and proactive.

Facilitating coaches' and athletes' awareness and understanding of this dynamic relationship creates the basis for interventions that enhance CAR quality. As Mischel and Shoda (1995) suggest:

Persons who have some understanding of their processing dynamics may be able

to better predict the events and conditions that will activate certain cognitions and

affects in them. Such metacognitive knowledge may help the person to recognize

some of the key internal or external stimuli that activate or deactivate the

problematic affects, cognitions, and behaviors and the dynamics that occur in

relation to those stimuli. With this knowledge, individuals may be better able to

influence their personality states and behaviors (p. 260-261).

Enneagram and social-cognitive characteristic adaptation research. Limited

empirical research has been conducted to investigate the adaptive and maladaptive schemas that

Enneagram theory suggests are associated with each Enneagram type. However, two studies

have explored the association between Enneagram type and distinct schema processes.

Wagner (2008) explored the relationship between Enneagram type and 11 of the 18

maladaptive schemas identified by Young (1999). Young identified 18 distinct maladaptive

schemas which he described as stable and enduring themes that develop during childhood,

elaborate throughout an individual's lifetime, and are dysfunctional to a significant degree. The

presence of the 11 most common schemas is measured by the Lifetraps Questionnaire (Young &

Klosko, 1994). Young and Klosko use the term lifetraps to refer to the maladaptive schemas

identified by Young. Although the Lifetraps Questionnaire has not been psychometrically

validated it was developed as a therapeutic tool for identifying the presence and prominence of

eleven of the most common maladaptive schemas identified in schema theory.

 In Wagner's study 125 participants completed the Lifetraps Questionnaire and the

Wagner Enneagram Personality Style Scales (WEPSS: Wagner, 1999) to determine the

association between maladaptive schemas and Enneagram type. Results showed that the WEPSS

scales for measuring each Enneagram type's proposed maladaptive characteristics correlate

consistently more highly with the eleven maladaptive schemas (i.e., lifetraps) than do the scales

for measuring the adaptive aspects of Enneagram type. This suggests that Young's maladaptive

schemas are more likely to be associated with the maladaptive patterns of cognition, emotion,

and behaviour Wagner identified for the Enneagram types. Secondly, correlation coefficients for

all variables (including adaptive, maladaptive and total scale WEPSS scores) demonstrated a

statistically significant relationship between Enneagram type and the eleven maladaptive

schemas. Furthermore, Wagner found that the relative presence or prominence of particular

schema types for each Enneagram type was consistent with what Enneagram theory and schema

theory would predict.

In another study Tolk (2006) integrated the Enneagram typology with schema therapy

(Young, 2002). Schema therapy is a branch of cognitive therapy that was developed for the

treatment of long-standing personality psychopathology (Young, 1999). The schema therapy

process identifies the maladaptive core beliefs that underpin dysfunctional patterns of behaviour

and aims to change these beliefs as well as the behaviours that maintain them. Tolk proposed that

both schema therapy and the Enneagram are congruent systems for helping individuals overcome

maladaptive behaviour through the identification and correction of cognitive distortions.

Demonstrating that the two theories can be integrated into a systematic therapeutic approach,

Tolk described and applied specific schema therapy strategies and interventions for each of the

nine Enneagram types.

Although further research is required to expand the empirical support for the relationship

between distinct schemas and Enneagram type, Wagner's (2008) investigative research and

Tolk's (2006) theoretical and applied integration of the Enneagram with schema therapy

provides preliminary support for such a relationship.

The Enneagram and developmental characteristic adaptations. Chapter Two

identified that, within a developmental dimension of characteristic adaptations, Attachment

Theory (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters & Wall, 1978; Bowlby, 1982) provides a typologically

oriented description of the unconscious attachment processes that may act as supports or barriers

to coaches' and athletes' adaptive interpersonal behaviour. It was proposed that an accurate

assessment of attachment styles can be used to assist athletes and coaches to develop more

adaptive attachment strategies and internal working models. However, it was suggested that

attachment theory may overemphasise the influence of early attachment experiences and

pathologise these through a deficit and dysfunction terminology. Measuring unconscious

attachment styles may also present difficulties.

It is proposed that the Enneagram provides an alternative developmental and typological

model of interpersonal behaviour that addresses the limitations of attachment theory identified

above. While recognising the importance of a developmental understanding of interpersonal

functioning within the coach-athlete dyad, the interpretation of the Enneagram theory offered in

this chapter does not privilege or pathologise childhood developmental experiences (for example,

primary caregiver attachments) as the principal site of developmental characteristic adaptation.

Rather, every coach's and athlete's motivating preferred strategy and schema can be viewed as a

continuously developing adaptation to the social environment[12] that influences (in both adaptive

and maladaptive ways) how the CAR is formed and maintained. Furthermore, the interpretation

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[12] Social environment here refers not just to the early primary caregiver attachment, but also to the range of social and cultural factors that an individual is influenced by over the course of life including relationships with primary caregivers, teachers, coaches, siblings, peers, community groups, norms, and traditions.

of the Enneagram proposed here avoids attachment theory's deficit and dysfunction terminology for describing interpersonal behaviour. Instead, combining the Enneagram with the COMPASS model orientates interventions towards facilitating adaptive interpersonal behaviour change rather than merely identifying deficits in functioning.

Enneagram developmental characteristic adaptation research. Research has yet to validate some of the Enneagram theory's claims that Enneagram type is fundamentally an adaptation to the early developmental environment. However, Arthur (2008) has examined the validity of an integrated typology which combines the Enneagram with attachment theory and found that the Enneagram types do have a predictable association with the anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment proposed by attachment theory. As described in Chapter Two, the avoidant attachment style is associated with managing and protecting against a rejecting and/or overwhelming or neglectful caregiving environment, while the anxious (or anxious-ambivalent) attachment style is associated with maximising attachment within an inconsistent and variably responsive caregiving environment.

Arthur (2008) tested two hypotheses that predicted differences between Enneagram types with regard to attachment related anxiety and avoidance and then investigated whether certain Enneagram types would be associated with specific attachment styles more often than would be predicted by chance. Results of the study provided support for all three hypotheses, which supports the notion that the Enneagram types are characterised by distinct (and sometimes maladaptive) patterns of establishing, monitoring, and repairing close emotional relationships. Arthur concludes that the Enneagram types can in themselves be conceptualised as attachment styles or attachment strategies.

Arthur's (2008) study supports the notion that Enneagram type is a continuous adaptation to the social environment that fundamentally influences how the CAR is formed and maintained. Interestingly, Arthur proposes that integrating the Enneagram with attachment theory requires an alternative conceptualisation of adult security (to that proposed by attachment theory) where secure attachment results, not from a particular pattern of attention with regard to one or a few other human beings, but from flexible attention and a minimisation of the "strategy for keeping the habitual thought pattern in place" (p. 86). This is highly consistent with what has been proposed earlier as the basis for coaches' and athletes' interpersonal effectiveness, i.e., flexibly used and defined preferred strategies associated with adaptive schema beliefs, leading to an integration of more adaptive interpersonal behaviour. In another study Carpenter (2015) explored the relationship between Enneagram type and attachment styles in couples and found that, while a secure attachment style was associated with marital satisfaction, Enneagram personality type did not predict marital satisfaction. This reinforces that relationship quality is not determined by the particular Enneagram types of a dyad, but rather by the flexibility of each person's interpersonal behaviour regardless of personality type.

The Enneagram and Personal Narratives

In Chapter Two the personal narrative aspect of a three-dimensional framework of personality was discussed with reference to the interface between culturally influenced narrative identity, characteristic adaptations, and dispositional traits. It was proposed that culturally sanctioned stories or 'dominant narratives' within sport may influence the expression of coaches' and athletes' dispositional traits and characteristic adaptations, while dispositional traits and characteristic adaptations may influence how coaches and athletes incorporate dominant narratives within their personal and/or CAR stories. It was suggested that a framework for

identifying certain narrative themes or narrative types may provide direction and focus for

behaviour change that is facilitated through narrative re-construction.

It is proposed that the Enneagram, as described in this chapter, provides such a

framework for identifying the dispositional traits and characteristic adaptations that influence

how coaches and athletes construct narratives to make sense of their experiences and how they

negotiate the culturally shaped narrative forms available within the sport context. Research has

yet to investigate the influence of Enneagram personality type on how cultural discourses in

sport are negotiated, internalised or resisted. However, Carless and Douglas (2013) have shown

that athletes develop distinct strategies for negotiating the culturally dominant narratives they

encounter in elite sport contexts and that these strategies can have both adaptive and maladaptive

outcomes for personal well-being and interpersonal relationships. Analogous to the training

narrative identified by Douglas and Carless (2006) (see Chapter Two), Carless and Douglas

describe another dominant narrative type known as the *performance narrative* in which elite

athletes foreclose their identity development and sacrifice personal relationships in the single-

minded pursuit of competitive success[13]. These researchers show that certain athletes develop

strategies to resist or deviate from the performance narrative by drawing on alternative narrative

types such as a relational narrative (i.e., prioritising interconnectedness, relationships, and living

or being with and for another) or a discovery narrative (i.e., exploring and discovering

multifaceted and diverse life experiences). Other athletes develop a strategy of playing the part

of athlete and modifying their personal narrative and actions depending on the requirements of

the sociocultural context they find themselves in at any particular point. These athletes covertly

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[13] This is reminiscent of the narrow definition of 'striving to be outstanding' discussed earlier in the chapter.

maintain a multidimensional life story, but silence this story when powerful others require

performance stories (Carless & Douglas, 2013).

It could be argued that the core motivations (i.e., preferred strategies) of each Enneagram

type may be central to how individuals negotiate the culturally sanctioned stories of sport

participation and of CARs that pervade a particular context. It is conceivable that certain

Enneagram preferred strategies could be defined in such a way as to resist, adapt or incorporate

certain narrative types offered by a particular cultural context. For example, striving to be

powerful (preferred strategy for Enneagram type 8) and striving to be unique (preferred strategy

for Enneagram type 4) may both be associated with a resistance to and deviation from a

prescriptive discourse or set of cultural expectations when these are experienced as being in

conflict with striving for power and uniqueness.

It is conceivable that certain Enneagram preferred strategies could be defined in such a

way as to be consistent with narrative types identified by Carless and Douglas (2013). For

example, the aforementioned relational narrative could be consistent with striving to be

connected (preferred strategy for Enneagram type 2), while the discovery narrative and its focus

on embracing diversity and multiplicity could be seen as consistent with the striving to be

excited (preferred strategy for Enneagram type 7). Similarly, the 'playing the part' of athlete

strategy and silencing a multidimensional personal narrative when required (i.e., to meet the

standards of the performance narrative), could be viewed as consistent with a particular

definition of the striving to be outstanding (preferred strategy for Enneagram type 3). Thus, in

identifying their Enneagram type, coaches and athletes may be able to identify how their

preferred strategy and schemas may interface with the menu of narrative forms (of coach or

athlete identity) within their cultural context and how this shapes their personal and CAR narratives.

Furthermore, each Enneagram type's social-cognitive characteristic adaptations (i.e., schemas) may be associated with particular interpersonal scripts or relatively stable and consistent narrative themes across various interpersonal contexts. Although research has not yet demonstrated the association between Enneagram type schemas and personal narrative themes, Siegel and Demorest (2010) have proposed that schemas can be viewed as affective scripts that guide sequences of behaviour (i.e., narrative events) and the regulation of emotion within interpersonal relationships. Siegel and Demorest showed that in the verbal accounts of psychotherapy clients, standard content categories can be used to code narrative descriptions of interpersonal behaviour in order to develop "a representation of an interpersonal schema with idiographic structure but nomothetic content" (p. 370). Stated simply, personal stories of experiences in relationships can be clustered and categorised according to the common and underlying themes shared by certain types of story. Although Siegel and Demorest focus primarily on maladaptive schemas or pathological affective scripts, the notion that an idiographic structure (i.e., a unique personal narrative) represents nomothetic content (i.e., common themes and patterns) applies equally to adaptive schemas. It is thus reasonable to suggest that a recursive relationship may exist between Enneagram type-specific schemas (affective scripts) and narrative themes or narrative types that emerge in the personal narratives of individuals of a particular Enneagram type.

Enneagram narrative processing and CAR enhancement. Further research is required to corroborate the theoretical proposition that Enneagram type preferred strategies and schemas are associated with particular narrative themes or narrative types. However, in the context of

CAR enhancement interventions, the description of coaches' and athletes' Enneagram

dispositional traits and characteristic adaptations can in itself be viewed as an act of narrative

construction. The Enneagram model could be viewed as providing 'narrative resources' within

the CAR to construct individual coach and athlete narratives, as well as a shared CAR narrative.

Developing a shared CAR narrative based on a description and mutual appreciation of the

adaptive dispositional traits (i.e., personality strengths) associated with both the coach's and

athlete's Enneagram type may be particularly useful in enhancing perceptions of closeness,

commitment, complementarity and co-orientation within the CAR. Also, the process of defining

the preferred strategy and its impact on the CAR, and then redefining and expanding it to be

more inclusive of adaptive beliefs and interpersonal behaviour (i.e., incorporating COMPASS

strategies), could be viewed as a process of coach/athlete narrative re-construction. It is proposed

that this too has the potential of enhancing the perceived closeness, commitment,

complementarity, and co-orientation within the CAR. The next chapter describes in more

practical detail how this can be achieved within a structured intervention process.

Conclusion

This chapter has used a three-dimensional framework to describe how the Enneagram

illuminates the dispositional traits, characteristic adaptations, and personal narratives that

influence coaches' and athletes' interpersonal functioning. The Enneagram was proposed as a

framework for developing a shared understanding and appreciation (between coach and athlete)

of their interdependent traits, motivating preferred strategies, and schemas that act as supports or

barriers to adaptive interpersonal behaviour. This framework was also suggested as providing the

narrative resources for re-constructing both coaches' and athletes' personal and CAR narratives.

Furthermore, the Enneagram combined with the COMPASS model of relationship maintenance

was proposed as a pragmatic framework for facilitating adaptive interpersonal behaviour change

and further CAR enhancement. The following chapter describes in more detail how the *Coach-*

Athlete Relationship Enhancement (CARE) intervention was developed to practically utilise the

Enneagram typology in combination with the COMPASS model (Rhind & Jowett, 2010b, 2012)

to enhance CAR closeness, commitment, complementarity and co-orientation (3+1Cs) as

perceived by coaches as well as athletes (Jowett, 2005, 2007

CHAPTER FOUR

THE COACH-ATHLETE RELATIONSHIP ENHANCEMENT INTERVENTION

The previous chapters outlined the theory and research foundations for Aim 1 of the study (i.e., *to develop the Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement (CARE) intervention through an integration of the Enneagram personality typology with models of the coach-athlete relationship*). The current chapter further addresses Aim 1 and describes the CARE intervention through an integration of the Enneagram personality typology with the 3+1Cs and COMPASS models of the CAR. The CARE intervention is described as a tripartite intervention to enhance CAR closeness, commitment, complementarity and co-orientation.

The Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement (CARE) Intervention

The CARE intervention comprises three interrelated and mutually reinforcing parts (see Figure 11) that are aimed at enhancing the quality of the CAR as defined by the 3+1Cs model (Jowett, 2005, 2007). The first part of the intervention, CARE – Part 1, focuses on facilitating an awareness between coaches and athletes of their Enneagram types as the basis for a shared understanding of their interdependent patterns of interpersonal behaviour and motivation. The second part of the intervention, CARE – Part 2, focuses on re-constructing coaches' and athletes' personal narratives based on self-descriptions of Enneagram type strengths (i.e., adaptive behaviour) as expressed in the CAR. CARE – Part 3 then focuses on further enhancing coaches' and athletes' interpersonal functioning through a structured behaviour change process that redefines and expands their Enneagram type preferred strategies to incorporate more adaptive behaviour such as the COMPASS relationship maintenance strategies.

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│            CARE – Part 1                 │
│      Enneagram Training Session          │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘

     Shared understanding of interdependent
        patterns of cognition, emotion,
          behaviour and motivation

┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│            CARE – Part 2                 │
│ Re-authoring conversations and outsider-witness practice │
│  drawing from Enneagram type self-awareness  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘

     Re-constructed personal narratives based
      on self-descriptions of Enneagram type as
        expressed in the coach-athlete relationship

┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│            CARE – Part 3                 │
│ Coach-Athlete Relationship Maintenance Questionnaire, │
│         Awareness to Action Process      │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘

     Interpersonal behaviour change based on a
     redefinition of Enneagram type preferred
    strategy to incorporate COMPASS strategies
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Figure 11. Outline of the Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement (CARE) intervention.

CARE – Part 1

      CARE – Part 1 is based on the assumption that shared awareness between coaches and athletes of their interconnected Enneagram type patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaviour, and of the motivations and schemas that underpin those patterns, enhances CAR closeness, commitment, complementarity and co-orientation. CARE – Part 1 supports coaches and athletes to identify their own and each other's Enneagram types, with an emphasis on recognising interpersonal strengths, core motivations (i.e., preferred strategies), and basic worldviews and foci of attention (i.e., schemas).

      This shared understanding of Enneagram type is achieved through a structured Enneagram training session that incorporates self-reflection exercises, a self-report measure of Enneagram type (Daniels & Price, 2009), group and dyadic discussions (between coaches and athletes), and learning about the Enneagram types based on the Enneagram interpretations of Daniels and Price (2009), Palmer (1995), Tallon and Sikora (2006) and Wagner (2010).

      Enneagram training session. The CARE – Part 1 Enneagram training session is based on an introductory Enneagram workshop validated by Sutton, Williams and Allison (2015). Sutton et al.'s workshop has been adapted by tailoring reflection exercises, terminology and discussions to a sport-specific context. The Enneagram training session is a group-based activity that introduces coaches and athletes to the Enneagram typology, supports them in identifying their Enneagram type, and sets the foundation for self-awareness and mutual-awareness between coaches and athletes of their interdependent traits, motivations and worldviews. In team sports the entire team and their coach would ideally participate in the training session, while individual sport athletes and their coaches can be grouped with other individual sport dyads.

Self-report measure of Enneagram type. CARE – Part 1 facilitates coaches' and athletes' identification of Enneagram type partly through an empirically validated self-report measure known as the Essential Enneagram Paragraph Test (EEPT: Daniels & Price, 2009). The EEPT consists of nine short paragraphs that describe the essential features of the nine Enneagram types including each personality type's worldview, focus of attention, emotional and cognitive pattern, and positive attributes. Participants are asked to read each of the nine paragraphs and initially to select the three paragraphs that describe them most accurately. Participants then rank the three selected paragraphs according to their accuracy of self-description. Ultimately one of the paragraphs (i.e., Enneagram type) is selected as the most accurate description.

However, as stated previously, the implicit motivations that determine Enneagram type may not necessarily be reflected in self-report measures such as the EEPT. CARE – Part 1 thus facilitates a further process of self-reflection, discussion, individual feedback, and education about the Enneagram types and their characteristic adaptations. This manifold approach to Enneagram type identification is supported by research (see Chapter Three). In the event that a coach or athlete, after completing the EEPT and participating in the Enneagram training session, is still not able to distinguish their Enneagram type, an individual interview can be conducted to help determine their Enneagram type. By facilitating a shared awareness of Enneagram type between coach and athlete, CARE – Part 1 sets the foundation for a further dyadic process of mutual understanding and CAR enhancement in CARE – Part 2. The activities that constitute the Enneagram training session are outlined next in Table 6.

Table 6

CARE – Part 1: Enneagram Training Session

Activity	Description	Time
1. Introduction	• Purpose and outcomes of the session are described (i.e., Identifying personality type and thus a mutual understanding between coach and athlete of each other's motives, beliefs and interpersonal strengths/challenges) • Overview of session – trainer emphasises confidentiality and importance of non-judgemental orientation to enhancing self-awareness *Resources:* Presentation slides	10 min (*Times are provided as a guideline, but can be adapted if needed*)
2. Self-reflection exercise	• Participants select two items of sport equipment - a slide containing 22 such items is provided, however, participants can select any other items of their choice • Participants are asked to identify which of the two items could represents a personal strength/skill and which of the two items represents a personal quality they would like to develop • Example provided by trainer: A rugby ball may represent the ability to withstand a lot of pressure and being spontaneous. A balance beam may represent developing a more balanced and considerate approach to relationships • Participants are asked to share in pairs what their items are and what personal qualities they represent. *Resources*: Presentation slide images of a series of sport equipment items	10 min
3. Essential Enneagram Paragraph Test	• Participants are provided with a copy of the Essential Enneagram Paragraph Test (Daniels & Price, 2009) and complete the measure by identifying which of the nine paragraphs (one per Enneagram type) describes them most accurately • In pairs, participants discuss their paragraph selection and reasons for it • Plenary discussion after pairs discussion • The Enneagram model is briefly introduced – emphasising the notion of each point on the figure representing a personality type and that, while aspects of each type are present in all individuals, every person develops a core type based on their primary motivation *Resources*: Essential Enneagram Test (including detailed instructions); slide with Enneagram figure	25 min

Table 6 - Continued

4. Enneagram types in detail	• Ice breaker – emphasising that a unique motivation underpins each Enneagram type
	• Presentation of each type with a focus on:
	
	  - Motivation (Preferred strategy)
	  - Video clip of type exemplar
	  - Focus of attention
	  - Core beliefs (worldview)
	  - Interpersonal strengths/challenges
	  - Type-specific coach functioning
	  - Type specific athlete functioning
	
	Resources: Presentation slides; Video clips
		1hr 30 min

5. Break	• Meal for participants during which facilitator remains available for questions *Resources*: Light meal	30 min
6. Collage exercise	• Participants are asked to divide themselves according to type • Each type sub-group, pair or individual is asked to create a collage (from drawings, words, and images) that represents their Enneagram type • Collages are then presented in a plenary discussion *Resources*: Flip chart paper, markers, glue sticks, magazine images	1hr
7. Conclusion	• Final reflection for both coach and athlete shared in group discussion: - What do you appreciate more about yourself and your coach/athlete after today's Enneagram training session? • Provide information booklet including a summary of the key aspects of type covered during the session *Resources*: Presentation slides; information booklet	15 min
		TOTAL: 4hrs

CARE – Part 2

CARE – Part 2 is based on the assumption that the shared understanding and Enneagram type awareness established in CARE – Part 1 provides the narrative resources for constructing personal and CAR narratives that further enhance perceptions of CAR quality. CARE – Part 2 thus aims to re-construct coaches' and athletes' personal narratives based on self-descriptions of their Enneagram type strengths and motivations, and to do so in a context of mutual validation and appreciation between coach and athlete. CARE – Part 2 incorporates practices from narrative therapy (Carey & Russell, 2003a, b; Denborough, 2014; White & Epston, 1990) to facilitate this narrative re-construction.

Re-authoring conversations. Based on the assumption that no one story can encapsulate the whole of a person's experience, re-authoring conversations involve "the identification of and co-creation of alternative story-lines of identity" (Carey & Russell 2003b, p. 61) that emphasise an individual's personal resources and competencies as well as the values, desires and commitments that underpin these. Re-authoring conversations in the context of CARE – Part 2 aim to re-construct coaches' and athletes' personal narratives through conversations that underscore Enneagram type-specific interpersonal strengths and the motivation or preferred strategy (Tallon & Sikora, 2006) that underpins them. The re-authoring conversations map (White, 1995) guides this process.

Re-authoring Conversations Map. The re-authoring conversations map is a simple framework that identifies two dimensions of personal narratives that can be explored in re-constructing such narratives, including the landscape of action and the landscape of identity (White, 1995). The landscape of action refers to the actions and events that constitute the narrative, while the landscape of identity refers to the significance and implications that the

narrative events have for an individual's perceptions of self and others. In CARE – Part 2 the

facilitator's role is to ask questions that encourage the coach or athlete to describe both

landscapes in richer detail. Examples of potential landscape of action and identity questions

(posed to an Enneagram type 1 coach) are presented below:

Landscape of action questions

- *Could you describe a situation where the striving to be perfect had a positive*

   impact on your relationship with your athlete?

- *What actions demonstrated this positive striving for high standards?*

- *What was the impact of this focus on continuous improvement on your athlete?*

- *Have there been other occasions when the striving for perfection had a positive*

   impact?

Landscape of identity questions

- *As you think about the positive effect of your actions, how does it impact the way*

   you see yourself as a coach?

- *How does it affect the way you view the coach-athlete relationship?*

- *What do you think all this says about what is most important to you as a coach?*

In order to validate and embed coaches' and athletes' Enneagram type narratives within

the CAR, the re-authoring process in CARE – Part 2 includes an outsider-witness practice

process.

Outsider-witness practice. Outsider-witnesses (in narrative therapy) are individuals or

groups who have been invited to form an audience to a re-authoring conversation with the

purpose of listening to and validating a person's preferred personal narrative. The outsider-

witness practice process is grounded in the notion that the re-construction and articulation of a personal narrative is not a private and individual process, but a social achievement where the sense of identity established by the personal narrative is validated by others (of significance) in the person's social context. Within CARE – Part 2 the coach and athlete alternate between re-authoring their own story and then acting as a witness to the other's re-authoring conversation. While CARE – Part 2 is primarily a dyadic intervention, within team sports other members of the team can be invited to form part of an outsider-witness group for the coach's and athletes' re-authoring conversations[14]. In individual sports, others of significance to the coach-athlete relationship (e.g., parents, peers or friends) can also be invited to act as outsider-witnesses.

The outsider-witness practice process consists of four parts. The first part involves a re-authoring conversation to which the outsider-witnesses listen without interrupting. In the second part outsider-witnesses are asked to reflect on their experience of witnessing the conversation. Reflections from outsider-witnesses that validate personal narratives generally fall into one of two categories namely, resonance and transport (Carey & Russell, 2003a). Responses of resonance describe an identification, concurrence, or emotional connection with particular aspects of the interviewee's personal narrative, while responses of transport describe an experience of being personally impacted or changed in some way by witnessing the interviewee's accounts (Carey and Russell, 2003a). Examples of questions that might be used in CARE – Part 2 to invite reflections of resonance and transport are:

- *What captured your attention as you heard your coach talk?*

- *Why do you think these parts of the conversation really stood out for you?*

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[14] A comprehensive application of the CARE intervention would afford every athlete in a team the chance to engage in a re-authoring conversation in front of an outsider witness group of fellow team members and the coach. Due to the limitations of the current study, only a limited number of coach-athlete dyads within participating teams have been guided through the re-authoring and outsider-witness process.

- *How have you been impacted by hearing your coach talk about his or her experiences today?*

- *What do you appreciate more about your coach as a result of listening?*

- *How might your experience of the coach-athlete relationship be different after witnessing today's conversation?*

In the third part of the outsider-witness practice process the interviewee coach/athlete is invited to reflect on the impact of witnessing the discussion with the outsider-witnesses. This gives the interviewee an opportunity to further expand on his/her personal narrative by incorporating (or revising) the validating outsider-witness reflections. In concluding the process a plenary reflection is facilitated. Table 7 follows next and provides an outline of the re-authoring and outsider-witness process in CARE – Part 2[15].

Table 7

CARE – Part 2: Re-authoring Coach and Athlete Personal Narratives

Activity	Description	Time
1. CARE – Part 2: Introduction	<u>Clarifying aims and expectations</u> • The participating coach-athlete dyad is engaged in an initial discussion/clarification of the aims of CARE – Part 2. It is explained that each individual will be provided with the opportunity to speak about how they believe their Enneagram type has positively influenced the CAR and to get feedback from their coach/athlete about this. • The dyad's hopes and expectations are identified and discussed. • The benefits of the intervention are explained as gaining a greater understanding and appreciation of their own and each other's interpersonal strengths and motivations for behaviour	5 min (*Times are provided as a guideline, but can be adapted if needed*)

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[15] While CARE – Part 2 is presented as a single 90 minute session, the process can be spread over more contact sessions with the dyad. For example, one or more sessions might be dedicated to only on person's re-authoring conversation if needed. While the length and number of sessions can be adapted, the focus must remain on a mutual validation of both the coach's and athlete's Enneagram type (strengths) narrative.

Table 7 - Continued

2. Re-authoring conversation with outsider-witness	Coach re-authoring conversation (Athlete as outsider-witness) • The coach and athlete are provided with a brief summary of the coach's Enneagram type preferred strategy and strengths • The coach is asked to review the summary of his/her Enneagram type after which the re-authoring conversation and outsider-witness process is facilitated *Resources*: Brief summary of coach's Enneagram type	40 min
3. Re-authoring conversation with outsider-witness	Athlete re-authoring conversation (Coach as outsider-witness) • The athlete and coach are provided with a brief summary of the athlete's Enneagram type preferred strategy and strengths • The athlete is asked to review the summary of his/her Enneagram type after which the re-authoring conversation and outsider-witness process is facilitated *Resources*: Brief summary of athlete's Enneagram type	40 min
4. Conclusion	Plenary reflection The participating coach and athlete are invited to reflect on the impact of CARE – Part 2 on their perceptions of themselves, each other, and the CAR	5 min
		TOTAL: 1hr 30min

CARE – Part 1 and 2 establish the foundation for CARE – Part 3 which includes a behaviour change process aimed at redefining and expanding Enneagram type preferred strategies to further enhance CAR quality.

CARE – Part 3

CARE – Part 3 is based on the Enneagram's dynamic and developmental 'strategy view' of personality and aims to facilitate an expansion of personality type to enhance interpersonal functioning in the CAR. As stated in Chapter Three, the strategy view considers the motivations and schemas that underpin Enneagram personality patterns as amenable to change and redefinition. In CARE – Part 3 the Enneagram preferred strategies (i.e., core motivations of type)

are redefined to incorporate more adaptive behaviour such as the COMPASS relationship

maintenance strategies (Rhind & Jowett, 2011).

      The COMPASS strategies. The COMPASS model provides a sport-specific framework

for describing adaptive interpersonal behaviour within the CAR. The *Coach-Athlete Relationship*

Maintenance Questionnaire (CARM-Q, Rhind & Jowett, 2012) provides a measure of

interpersonal functioning by identifying the degree to which the COMPASS strategies are

utilised (or not) by an individual coach and athlete (see Figure 12).
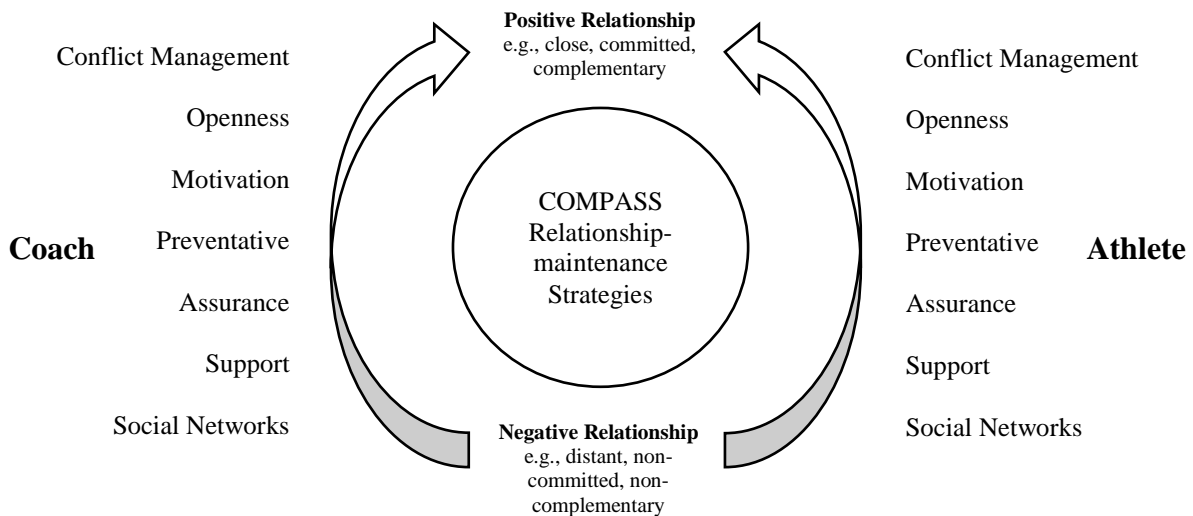
Figure 12. The COMPASS model of relationship maintenance in the coach-athlete

relationship. Adapted from "Relationship Maintenance Strategies in the Coach-Athlete

Relationship: The Development of the COMPASS Model," by D. J. A, Rhind and S. Jowett,

2010b, *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 22*, p. 118. Copyright 2010 by the Association for

Applied Sport Psychology.

The COMPASS model and the CARM-Q provide a framework in CARE – Part 3 for identifying behaviour change that can enhance CAR quality (Rhind & Jowett, 2011). The CARM-Q contains 28 items and 7 subscales measuring both coaches' and athletes' use of conflict management, openness, motivational, preventative, assurance, support, and social network strategies. The CARM-Q has established psychometric properties, including content validity, internal consistency, criterion validity, factorial validity and structural validity (Rhind & Jowett, 2012). Evidence for content validity, internal consistency and criterion validity was found in a study including 251 participants (146 athletes and 105 coaches), while a second study with an independent sample of 212 coaches and athletes established the measure's structural validity.

Cronbach's alpha ratings for both the internal consistency and structural validity of all seven sub-scales of the CARM-Q exceeded the 0.70 value suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Alpha ratings for internal consistency were: conflict management $\alpha = 0.95$; openness, $\alpha = 0.91$; motivational, $\alpha = 0.99$; preventative, $\alpha = 0.96$; assurance, $\alpha = 0.71$; support, $\alpha = 0.94$; and social networks, $\alpha = 0.95$. Alpha ratings for structural validity were: conflict management, $\alpha = 0.86$; openness, $\alpha = 0.83$; motivational, $\alpha = 0.88$; preventative, $\alpha = 0.86$; assurance, $\alpha = 0.82$; support, $\alpha = 0.79$; and social networks, $\alpha = 0.80$.

In CARE – Part 3, coaches and athletes first complete the CARM-Q as a measure of interpersonal functioning. Assessment results are then used to identify the COMPASS strategies that are being utilised effectively and those that are neglected by each member of the coach-athlete dyad. Effectively used COMPASS strategies can be integrated into the coach's and athlete's 'interpersonal strengths narrative' while neglected COMPASS strategies become the

focus of a behaviour change process known as the *Awareness to Action Process* (ATAP: Tallon & Sikora, 2006)

The Awareness to Action Process. In CARE – Part 3 the ATAP provides a model for redefining coaches' and athletes' Enneagram type strategies to incorporate more adaptive behaviour such as the COMPASS strategies. Central to the ATAP is the understanding that individuals' definition of their preferred strategy is linked to certain schemas and personal narratives. A narrowly defined preferred strategy that neglects certain COMPASS strategies is likely to be associated with maladaptive schemas and a limiting personal narrative. This narrative develops into a 'static story' and consists of three phases: autopilot, uncertainty, and story.

The static story. The *autopilot* phase is when the Enneagram preferred strategy excludes more situation-appropriate behaviour by becoming an automatic and habitual response to relationships and tasks. A coach or athlete's Enneagram type schema will tend to reinforce the autopilot phase. For example, an Enneagram type 7 athlete may develop a narrow definition of striving to be excited as always being pleasure-seeking and future-focused. While this definition may at times have some adaptive value, the autopilot mode would prevent the athlete from incorporating a wider range of interpersonal behaviour into the CAR. For instance, while the type 7 athlete's definition of striving to be excited may contribute a level of enthusiasm and fun to the CAR, there may be times when the athlete avoids addressing unmet expectations and commitments (i.e., neglecting the preventative COMPASS strategy). The coach may increasingly begin to confront the athlete about this avoidance, which the athlete may experience as more negativity to avoid.

The *uncertainty* phase of the static story refers to the state of anxiety that occurs when the preferred strategy's negative impact confronts the individual with the need to change. Tallon and

Sikora (2006) propose that, in aiming to eliminate the discomfort of this uncertainty, individuals create a personal narrative that aims to reinforce the legitimacy of the preferred strategy as it is defined. For example, the type 7 athlete, rather than adjusting his or her behaviour to address unmet expectations, may develop a static story of herself as being 'a more positive and optimistic person than his or her coach' and as 'being held back by the coach's unnecessary negativity and problem focus'.[16] The type 7 athlete and the coach may develop ever decreasing perceptions of closeness, commitment, and complementarity in their relationship as a result of the static story and its impact on the athlete's interpersonal functioning. The static story, although eliminating a degree of uncertainty for the individual, ultimately perpetuates inflexible behaviour and reinforces negative interpersonal outcomes. The ATAP is therefore aimed at developing an alternative to the static story based on a redefinition of the preferred strategy.

An alternative story – from awareness to action. Tallon and Sikora (2006) identify the three phases of the ATAP, which facilitates an alternative to (and reversal of) the static story, as *build self-awareness*, *develop authenticity* and *take action*. In CARE – Part 3 each person within the coach-athlete dyad is guided through the three stages of the ATAP on an individual basis.

Build self-awareness. The build self-awareness phase consists of identifying the current impact of the preferred strategy on interpersonal functioning. In the context of CARE – Part 3, Enneagram type self-awareness and CARM-Q results can facilitate a discussion about the impact of the preferred strategy on the use of COMPASS strategies. Examples of questions that could explore this in conversation with the aforementioned type 7 athlete are presented below:

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[16] The coach's own preferred strategy and schema beliefs would influence how he or she responds to the athlete's behaviour. Within a dyadic intervention, the influence of both individuals' preferred strategies would have to be considered.

- *What does being excited mean to you? How does the striving to be excited influence your behaviour in relation to your coach?*

- *How has the striving to be excited contributed to your high scoring COMPASS strategies? What positive impact has this had on your relationship with your coach?*

- *How has the striving to be excited at times perhaps hindered you in using some of the low scoring COMPASS strategies? What impact has this had on the coach-athlete relationship?*

The type 7 athlete may identify that a low score for the preventative COMPASS strategy is associated with a focus on positive possibilities and options at the expense of dealing with current or past problems with the coach. The athlete may recognise that the core belief that 'it's better not to talk about problems' is making it difficult to communicate with the coach in an authentic manner, which might explain a low score for the openness COMPASS strategy. The build self-awareness phase is the foundation for shifting coaches and athletes from autopilot to recognising the impact of their Enneagram type on their interpersonal behaviour. An important aspect of the build self-awareness phase is to facilitate a recognition that the current expression of the preferred strategy may be associated with negative interpersonal outcomes.

Develop authenticity. Tallon and Sikora (2006) suggest that awareness alone does not in itself ensure lasting behaviour change or a reversal of the static story, and therefore they identify the need for the develop authenticity phase. The develop authenticity phase as applied in CARE – Part 3 consists of two parts:

1. Identify the conflict between the preferred strategy and neglected COMPASS strategies
2. Redefine the preferred strategy to incorporate the neglected COMPASS strategies

The first part of the develop authenticity phase identifies a dissonance of the conflicting

commitments. Here it is identified how the neglected COMPASS strategies may be hindered by

the conflict between a conscious commitment to incorporate the adaptive behaviour and an

unconscious commitment to the comfort and security of the static story. In the context of CARE

– Part 3 coaches and athletes are essentially invited to explore how they believe the COMPASS

strategy might undermine the goals of their preferred strategy. Questions that might explore these

conflicting commitments with the type 7 athlete could include:

- *What are some of your concerns about using the low scoring COMPASS strategies in*
   your relationship with your coach? What has prevented you from using them?
- *How do you think those COMPASS strategies may hinder your striving to be excited?*

Tallon and Sikora (2006) propose that the dissonance, once recognised and

acknowledged, can be resolved by redefining the preferred strategy to incorporate the very

behaviour change it seemed to be in conflict with. Returning to the example of the type 7 athlete,

the CARE – Part 3 process might reveal the athlete's belief that dealing with unmet expectations

openly and directly would exacerbate the already tense relationship with the coach. The second

part of the authenticity phase would then include helping the athlete redefine his or her preferred

strategy in such a way that the neglected COMPASS strategies are viewed as integral to striving

to be excited – thus placing the core motivation of the athlete in service of adaptive interpersonal

behaviour. This is where alternative, adaptive schema beliefs (see Chapter Three - Wagner,

2010) can be introduced as the foundation for a review of the schema that underpins the narrowly

defined preferred strategy. Questions that could be explored to facilitate an adaptive redefinition

of the type 7 athlete's preferred strategy could include:

- *How could using the low scoring COMPASS strategies in relation to your coach actually help you be more positive?*

- *How could we think of striving to be excited in a different way so that the low scoring COMPASS strategies become part of you developing a positive relationship with your coach?*

The type 7 athlete could thus be encouraged to identify how clarifying mutual expectations in open and direct communication (preventative and openness COMPASS strategies), although initially uncomfortable, may ultimately be a positive opportunity to enhance a mutual understanding in the relationship as the foundation for a more enjoyable and complementary partnership. Striving to be excited in the CAR can thus be redefined as creating a fun, inspiring and happy relationship by maintaining a shared understanding of each other's expectations, needs and preferences.

Connecting point and COMPASS strategies. Expanding coaches' and athletes' strategic repertoire by exploring their connecting point strategies is another avenue in CARE – Part 3 for incorporating COMPASS strategies into coaches' and athletes' interpersonal behaviour. During CARE – Part 3 coaches and athletes can be encouraged to consider how both their neglected and support strategies may be supports or barriers to implementing the COMPASS strategies.

For example, the type 7 athlete may recognise that he or she tends to neglect more detached, factual and focused discussions with the coach (striving to be detached – point 5, see Figure 13), which undermines openness and preventative COMPASS strategies. The athlete may also identify that trying to please the coach as a way of avoiding criticism and

negativity (striving to be perfect – point 1) is a barrier to effective conflict management.

While the primary focus remains on redefining the preferred strategy, an awareness of the

influence of the connecting point strategies can aid in building self-awareness and

developing authenticity.

Take action. The take action phase in the ATAP consists of implementing the new

interpersonal behaviour (COMPASS strategies) through creating and following an action

plan.
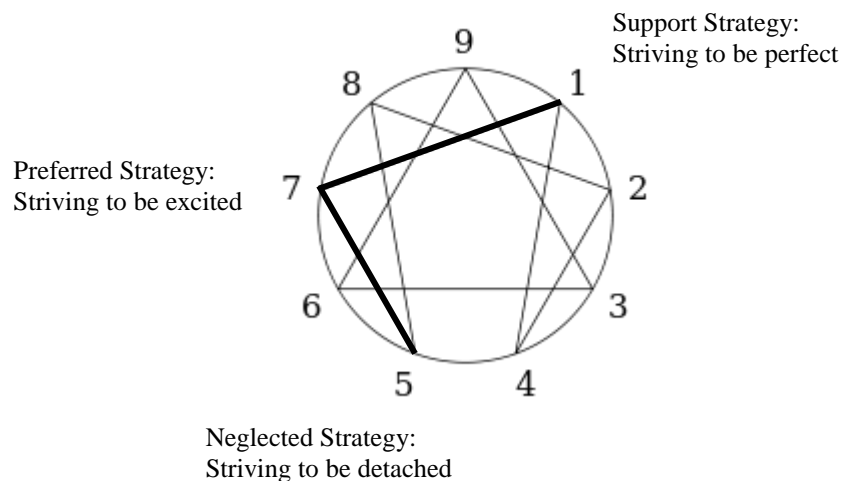
Figure 13. Enneagram type 7 connecting point strategies. Adapted from *Awareness to action: The Enneagram, emotional intelligence, and change* (p. 125), by R. Tallon and M. Sikora, 2006, Scranton, USA: University of Scranton Press. Copyright 2006 by R. Tallon & M. Sikora.

Tallon and Sikora (2006) propose developing an action plan that includes a clear

definition of the desired behaviour, the motivation for the change, barriers to the change

process and methods for overcoming them, signs of progress, and a review date. A template

for the action plan that is completed with coaches and athletes during CARE – Part 3 is

presented in Appendix A. Each component of the action plan can be collaboratively

completed with the active support of the CARE facilitator or given to the coach or athlete to

complete in their own time. CARE – Part 3 is outlined in Table 8 as a two-session process.

However, in practice the behaviour change process may require further sessions to explore

barriers encountered in the action taking phase and how to overcome them through a further

redefinition of the preferred strategy and expansion of the Enneagram type personal

narrative. Table 8 follows next and outlines CARE – Part 3.

Table 8

CARE Part - 3: Interpersonal Behaviour Change Intervention[17]

Activity	Description	Time
1. CARM-Q Assessment	• Both coach and athlete complete the CARM-Q as a measure of the degree to which they individually use the COMPASS strategies in the CAR *Resources*: CARM-Q	10 – 15 min (*Times are provided as a guideline, but can be adapted if needed*)
2. CARE – Part 3 – Session 1	CARM-Q Results Feedback • The coach/athlete is provided with their CARM-Q results on a graph plotting their scores for each of the COMPASS strategies • Lower scores are identified as neglected COMPASS strategies (i.e., potential focus of interpersonal behaviour change) • Higher scores are identified as effectively used COMPASS strategies (i.e., interpersonal strengths) • The aim of CARE – Part 3 is explained as using the CARM-Q results and an awareness of Enneagram type to develop an interpersonal behaviour change plan	1hr

[17] CARE – Part 3 is an individual intervention - the coach and athlete participate in sessions separately. However, the interpersonal behaviour change outcomes that result from CARE – Part 3 can be integrated into a dyadic re-authoring process as outlined in CARE – Part 2

Table 8 Continued

	ATAP – Build Self-awareness Phase • Explore the influence of the preferred strategy, schema beliefs, and the focus of attention on the utilisation of COMPASS strategies (as identified in the CARM-Q results) • Identify possible associations between the preferred strategy and neglected COMPASS strategies ATAP – Develop Authenticity Phase • Identify possible conflict between the preferred strategy and the neglected COMPASS strategies • Redefine preferred strategy in a way that incorporates the neglected COMPASS strategies • Identify the influence of the neglected and support strategies on the use of the COMPASS strategies ATAP – Take Action Phase • Create action plan – Action Plan Template • Set progress review date
	Resources: CARM-Q results/graph, brief summary of Enneagram type and type-specific adaptive beliefs (from CARE – Part 1 booklet), description of Enneagram type connecting point strategies, Action Plan Template
3. CARE – Part 3 – Session 2	Progress Review • A review is conducted of the coach's/athlete's progress in relation to the action steps, barriers, and key indicators of change identified in the initial action plan. If required, the ATAP phases are worked through again to further enhance self-awareness and to refine the action plan accordingly *Resources*: Completed Action Plan (for review), CARM-Q results/graph, brief summary of Enneagram type (from CARE – Part 1)
	TOTAL: 1hr 15min

Conclusion

This chapter described the three parts of the Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement

(CARE) intervention. CARE – Part 1 facilitates a shared awareness and understanding between

coach and athlete of their interdependent traits, motivations and schemas. CARE – Part 2 re-constructs coaches' and athletes' personal narratives within a context of mutual validation and appreciation. CARE – Part 3 then facilitates a redefinition and expansion of personality type strategies and narratives that incorporate more adaptive interpersonal behaviour.

It is proposed that the outcomes for the CAR of the combined parts of the CARE intervention would include enhanced CAR closeness, commitment, complementarity and co-orientation. The methods used to apply the tripartite CARE intervention to a sample of coaches and athletes, and to evaluate its actual impact on the aforementioned dimension of CAR quality, are described in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

As previously outlined in Chapter One, the current study included two research aims. Aim 1 focused on the theoretical development and description of an intervention to enhance coach-athlete relationship (CAR) quality (see Chapters Two, Three and Four). Aim 2 focused on applying the intervention and evaluating its impact on CAR quality. Aim 1 was thus a necessary precursor to Aim 2. The next section briefly reviews the research activities for Aim 1. However, since this is comprehensively addressed in Chapters Two, Three and Four, the bulk of the current chapter describes the research design, research sample, sampling technique, and data collection and analysis procedures that were utilised for Aim 2. The chapter also addresses the ethical considerations that guided the participant selection, the fieldwork, and the data analysis processes.

Research Design

The study's research design included the formulation of two aims. Aims, rather than hypotheses, were suited to the exploratory nature of the research. Hypotheses are predictive statements and are more appropriate for designs where researchers have sound reasons to make those predictions (Plano Clark & Badiee, 2010). Aims simply express what researchers want to accomplish and are more consistent with the current study's focus on the development and evaluation of an intervention. Future research could, however, develop more specific hypotheses or predictions based on this study's findings. The two research aims for this study are described in further detail in the next section.

Research Aim 1

To develop the Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement (CARE) intervention through

an integration of the Enneagram personality typology with models of the coach-athlete

relationship

For Aim 1 of the study the *Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement* (CARE)

intervention was developed through reviewing and theoretically integrating three areas of

literature including: (1) CAR theory and research, (2) personality theory applications within

CAR research, and (3) the Enneagram personality theory and its research (see Chapters Two and

Three). This provided the foundation for a pragmatic description of the CARE intervention that

integrates the Enneagram personality typology, the 3+1Cs and COMPASS models of the CAR,

and narrative models of change to enhance CAR closeness, commitment, complementarity and

co-orientation. The CARE intervention was described as a three part intervention, including

CARE – Part 1 (Enneagram training session), CARE – Part 2 (dyadic coach-athlete

intervention), and CARE – Part 3 (individual coach/athlete intervention).

Research Aim 2

To evaluate the impact on coach-athlete relationship quality of an application of the

CARE intervention to athletes and their coaches

Mixed-Method Design

For Aim 2 a mixed-method design (Dures, Rumsey, Morris & Gleeson, 2011) was

employed where both quantitative and qualitative methodologies were used to evaluate the

impact of an application of the CARE intervention on coaches' and athletes' perceptions of CAR

quality. Figure 14 provides an overview of the research design, data collection, and data analysis methods that were employed. These are described in further detail below.

Pragmatist epistemology. While quantitative and qualitative research methods are grounded in divergent epistemological assumptions, a pragmatist orientation (Cornish & Gillespie, 2009) suggests that both methodologies produce commensurate, though different, types of knowledge about the subject under investigation. From this perspective the value and validity of knowledge is not simply a function of its accurate reflection of an underlying reality (i.e., realist/quantitative epistemology) or its rich and singular description of contextually located meaning-making processes (i.e., constructionist/qualitative epistemology).

Mixed-methods approaches in fact can draw on both these advantages and a pragmatist orientation recognises, in addition, that the value of knowledge lies in its usefulness and practical application for the research interests in question. Within mixed-method research, pragmatism suggests that researchers should choose the appropriate methods for the purpose of their research interests and then make decisions about how to integrate quantitative and qualitative data. Yardley and Bishop (2015) have suggested that, in order to maximise the benefits of both quantitative and qualitative methods, it may be best to complete the qualitative and quantitative dimensions of mixed-method studies separately and then to establish the subsequent inter-relation between quantitative and qualitative data.

3+1Cs: A shared evaluation framework. In the current study quantitative and qualitative components were utilised for their respective capabilities for evaluating the impact of the CARE intervention on CAR quality.
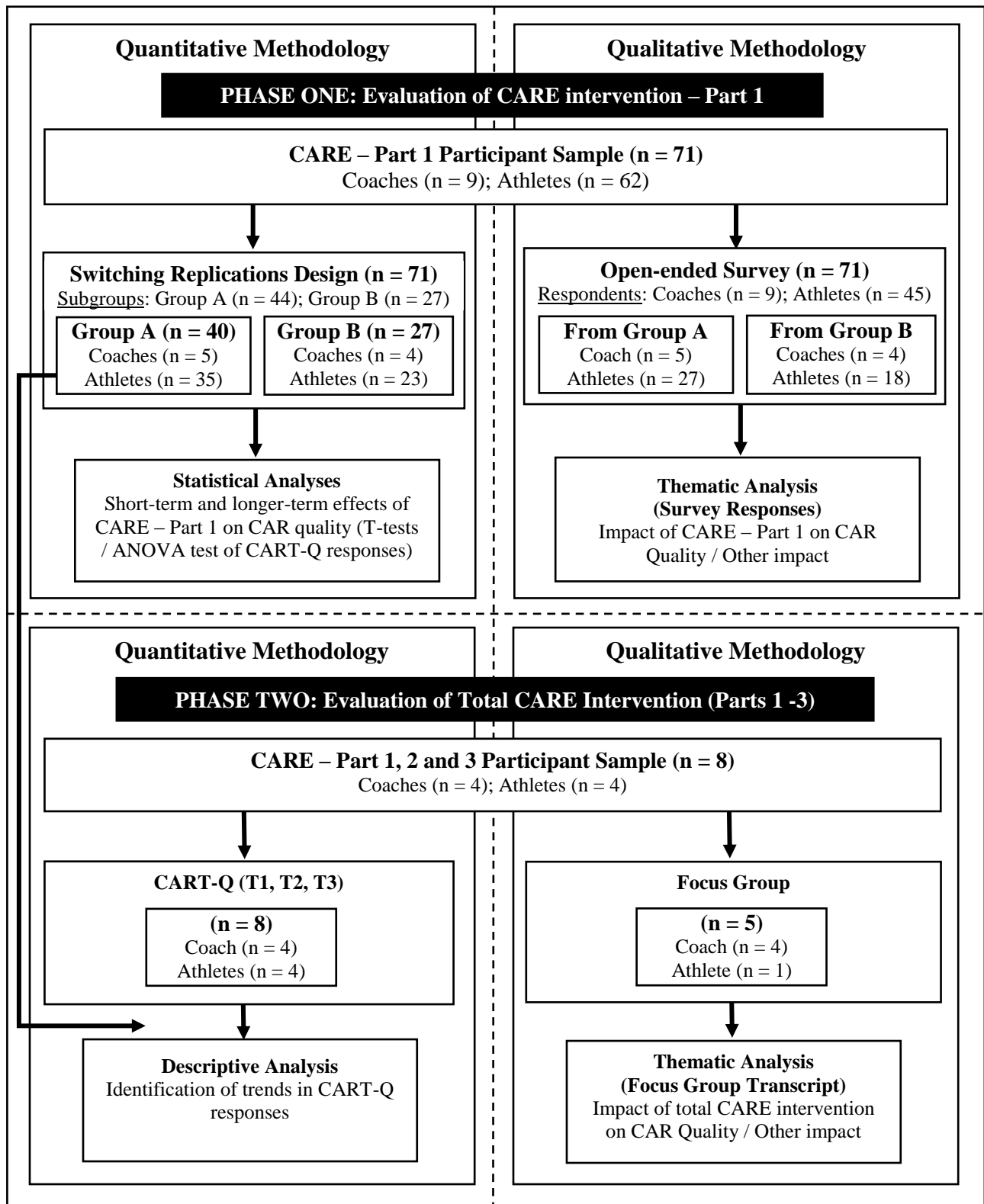
Figure 14. Outline of research methodology.

Both quantitative and qualitative components based their evaluation of the impact of the

CARE intervention on the definition of CAR quality outlined by the 3+1Cs model (Jowett, 2005,

2007). This definition thus provided the 'common ground' that focused both quantitative and

qualitative data collection and analysis processes. The 3+1Cs model allowed the inter-relation

between quantitative and qualitative data to be established through a shared framework for both

data collection and analysis. Quantitative data could thus be contextualised and interpreted in the

context of more in-depth descriptions of individual participants' experiences, while qualitative

data could be interpreted in light of general trends and patterns identified within the larger

research sample.

Two Phase Evaluation of the CARE Intervention

The research activities for Aim 2 consisted of two related but distinct phases of

fieldwork, data collection and data analysis. Phase one consisted of evaluating the impact of

CARE – Part 1 (Enneagram Training Session) on perceptions of CAR quality, while phase two

evaluated the impact on perceptions of CAR quality of the complete CARE intervention (i.e.,

Parts 1, 2 and 3 combined). While the fieldwork for phase one (i.e., applying CARE – Part 1)

was integral to the evaluation of the total CARE intervention, the sampling and data analysis

procedures for each phase was distinct (see Figure 14). They are thus presented separately.

<p style="text-align:center">**Phase 1 – Evaluation of CARE Intervention - Part 1**</p>

Method

Design. For the quantitative dimension of phase one a quasi-experimental, switching-

replications design (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002) was utilised. The switching-replications

design generally consists of obtaining pre-test data from two sample groups, then administering

an intervention or treatment to only one group. Following this, a second assessment or measure

is conducted with both groups. The same intervention or treatment is then administered to the second group, after which a third and final assessment measure with both groups is conducted (Bell, 2010). Table 9 follows next and outlines the switching-replications design structure.

Table 9

Switching-replications Design Structure

Group	Test	Intervention	Test	Intervention	Test
1	✓	✓	✓		✓
2	✓		✓	✓	✓

The benefit of the switching-replications design lies in not denying any participants the intervention, while retaining a comparison between two sample groups. Furthermore, since the same intervention is administered to each subgroup but at different times, any consistency of treatment effect between subgroups enhances the validity of the results (Bell, 2010). It is, however, essential that any potential variance between the two administrations is minimised by replicating elements such as timing, environment and delivery style.

A potential disadvantage of interventions not occurring simultaneously is 'leakage' or diffusion effects (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Diffusion in experimental designs occurs when the experimental and control groups communicate with each other and information transfer occurs, potentially undermining the internal validity of the study (Craven, Marsh, Debus & Upali, 2001). Isolating intervention groups in the current study's fieldwork process was not feasible considering the large sample size and their likely interactions within a shared social context (i.e., a university setting). However, it is proposed that the experiential nature of the CARE intervention (including facilitated discussion, personal self-reflection, and coach-athlete

dialogues) is less susceptible to diffusion effects than would be an intervention based on standard knowledge transfer. Nevertheless, the researcher aimed to address any potential biases (positive or negative) that may have resulted from 'leakage' of information about the CARE intervention by emphasising the unique and highly personal nature of each coach's and athlete's self-awareness and interpersonal development process.

Other threats to internal validity often associated with experimental designs are mostly averted within a switching-replications design. These threats include compensatory equalization (i.e., providing additional benefits to control group participants to compensate for not receiving the intervention), compensatory rivalry (i.e., control group participants compensating for not gaining the benefit of the intervention), and resentful demoralisation (i.e., control group participants reducing effort due to feeling demoralised by not receiving the intervention) (Cook & Campell, 1979).

Although the switching-replications design has not been widely applied in sport-psychology research focused on CARs, it has been used to evaluate the effects of psychological skills training (PST) on self-reported knowledge, perceived importance, and use of psychological skills in male intercollegiate lacrosse players (Brewer & Shillinglaw, 1992). In Enneagram research a recent study used the switching-replications design to evaluate an Enneagram-based intervention for improving dispositional self-awareness at work (Sutton, Williams & Allinson, 2015). In psychological intervention research the design has recently been used to evaluate the impact of an Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT) intervention on the psychological flexibility/health and academic commitment of Canadian university students (Grégoire, Lachance, Bouffard, Hontoy & De Mondehare, 2016). In the field of education the switching-replications design has been used to evaluate the impact of positive psychology interventions

(Buchanan, 2008), teaching methodologies (Winship, 2008), and online professional development interventions (Wolf, 2014). A switching-replications design was thus well suited to the study's focus on intervention impact.

Measuring CAR quality. The current study applied the switching-replications design to evaluate the impact of CARE – Part 1 (Enneagram Training Session) on CAR quality. Participants from the total research sample (n = 71) were assigned to one of two subgroups of approximately equal size (i.e., Group A and Group B). Participants were assigned to a subgroup based on availability for scheduled Enneagram Training Session slots as per the switching-replications design timings. Participant availability was largely determined by individual and team practice schedules since coaches and athletes had to be assigned to the same intervention group. Figure 15 follows next and outlines the timings of CAR quality assessment and intervention per subgroup.

T1 - Assess CAR Quality	**CARE – Part 1**	**T2** - Assess CAR Quality	**CARE – Part 1**	**T3** - Assess CAR Quality
Group A (n = 44) Group B (n = 27)	Group A (n = 44)	Group A (n = 44) Group B (n = 27)	Group B (n = 27)	Group A (n = 44) Group B (n = 27)

Part One – Week 1   Part Two – Week 2
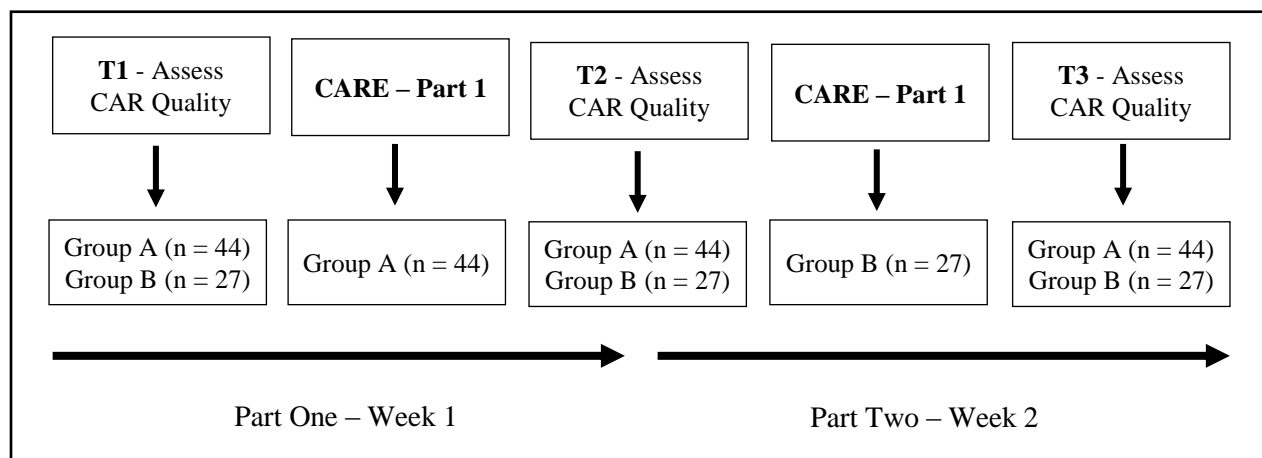
Figure 15. Switching-replications design.

At T1 all participants completed a measure of CAR quality (see measures section for detailed description), while only Group A initially participated in CARE – Part 1. In the second

part of the design all participants repeated the measure, after which Group B participated in

CARE – Part 1. All participants then completed a third quality measure (see Figure 15).

Sample

Phase one evaluated CARE – Part 1 as applied to a total sample of 30 male and 32 female

athletes and their 9 coaches (7 male and 2 female) who participate in premier-level university

sports including field hockey, waterpolo, cricket, soccer, chess[18], squash, golf and tennis. The

selection of participants within a university context was based on the availability of coaches and

athletes who participate in a wide range of sport codes within a single context. The inclusion of a

variety of sport codes, including individual and team sports, ensured that the relevance and

impact on CARs across a range of sport codes were evaluated. Table 10 provides a sample

description by sport code and gender distribution.

Table 10

Total Sample: Sport Code and Gender Distribution

Sport Code	Athletes (Male)	Athletes (Female)	Coach (Male)	Coach (Female)
Field Hockey (Men)	9		1	
Field Hockey (Women)		11	1	
Waterpolo (Women)		7		1
Cricket (Men)	9		1	
Soccer (Women)		10		1
Chess	3		1	
Squash	3	3	1	
Golf	5	1	1	
Tennis	1		1	
TOTAL	30	32	7	2

The focus on premier-level athletes and their coaches was based on the high degree of

involvement between coaches and athletes at this level of sport participation where CAR quality

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[18] While some debate has occurred regarding the status of chess as a sport, the International Olympic Committee
has recognised it as a sport federation (https://www.olympic.org/world-chess-federation)

is likely to have an important impact on performance outcomes and coach/athlete satisfaction and well-being (Jowett & Nezlek, 2011; Jowett & Poczwardowski, 2007).

The heterogeneity of the sample introduced certain variables that needed to be considered for their potential influence on the CAR and on research findings related to enhancing relationship quality. Research suggests that athlete gender and sport type (i.e., individual or team) can influence aspects of athlete behaviour such as self-regulation and coping (Jonker, Elferink-Gemser & Visscher, 2010; Nicholls, Polman, Levy, Taylor & Cobley, 2007). Some evidence also suggests that individual sport athletes feel both closer and more committed to their coach while also perceiving that their coach felt closer, more committed, and complementary than athletes who performed in team sports (Rhind, Jowett & Yang, 2012). Athlete gender has also been shown to affect the experience and compatibility of the CAR (Lee, Magnusen & Cho, 2013), while coach gender has been shown to influence empathic accuracy within the coach-athlete dyad (Lorimer & Jowett, 2010). Furthermore, the empathic accuracy of coaches in individual sports has been shown to be higher than that of coaches in team sports (Lorimer & Jowett, 2009).

Despite the influence of gender and sport type variables, the heterogeneity of the proposed sample did not undermine the objectives of evaluating the CARE intervention. Enhancing athletes' and coaches' awareness of personality patterns and their influence on interpersonal functioning remains relevant within any gender constitution of the CAR and in both individual and team sports.

Sampling. The study utilised an operational construct sampling method (Patton, 2002). This sampling procedure involves selecting cases that represent real-world examples of the constructs under investigation. In this study the CAR was the construct under investigation.

Therefore, 71 participants, including premier-level university athletes and their coaches, were

selected to participate in the study. As stated earlier, the total sample was divided into two

subgroups: Group A (n = 44) and Group B (n = 27) with coaches and their athletes assigned to

the same subgroup. While attempts were made to create more equal size subgroups, group size

was ultimately determined by participant availability. Group A consisted of five coaches and 39

athletes, while Group B consisted of four coaches and 23 athletes. Each of the nine coaches in

the total sample was randomly assigned to one of their athletes to form nine dyads. This was for

the purpose of measuring the impact of CARE – Part 1 on perceptions of CAR quality within the

dyadic partnership (see data collection section). Table 11 provides biographical sample

description.

Table 11

Sample Description and Biographical Information

Sample Group	No. of Participants	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	English First Language	Highest Education Level
Group A (Total = 44)	Athletes = 39	M = 17 F = 22	Range = 18-24 years Average = 20.5 years	Arab = 1 Asian = 2 Black = 4 Multiracial = 7 White = 25	Yes = 28 No = 11	High School = 35 Bachelor's = 4
	Coaches = 5	M = 4 F = 1	Range = 24-42 years Average = 33.2 years	Multiracial = 2 White = 3	Yes = 4 No = 1	High School = 1 Tertiary Tech = 1 Bachelor's = 2 Honour's = 1
Group B (Total 27)	Athletes = 23	M = 13 F = 10	Range = 19-28 years Average = 21 years	Black = 13 Multiracial = 2 White = 8	Yes = 10 No = 13	High School = 19 Bachelor's = 3 Honour's = 1
	Coaches = 4	M = 3 F = 1	Range = 40-60 years Average = 44 years	Multiracial = 1 White = 3	Yes = 1 No = 3	Bachelor's = 4

Also, as illustrated in Figure 14, four coach-athlete dyads (n = 8) from Group A completed CARE Part 2 and 3 in addition to Part 1. This sub-sample's data were analysed separately to account for further intervention in addition to CARE – Part 1 (i.e., CARE – Parts 2 and 3) between T1, T2 and T3. After T1 the men's cricket head coach from Group B withdrew from the research process. While the assistant coach for cricket was selected to continue as participating coach the data for the cricket team and coach (n = 10) at T1 could not be used for comparative quantitative analyses at T2 and T3.

Ethics approval for the proposed study was obtained (see Ethical Considerations subsection in this chapter) after which the relevant university sport department was contacted to identify potential participant coaches and athletes from existing university sports teams. A letter of information and invitation to participate in the study was sent to coaches via email attachment and/or delivered in person (see Appendix B). Coaches then liaised with their athletes to establish interest and availability to participate in research activities after which a final participant selection was completed, fieldwork schedule confirmed, and the relevant information disseminated to both coach and athlete participants.

Data Collection

Quantitative data. Quantitative data for phase one was collected through the direct and meta-versions of the Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q; Jowett, 2009a, 2009b; Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004)[19]. The direct and meta CART-Qs together contain 22 items (see Appendix C) that assess perceptions of closeness, commitment, complementarity, and co-orientation within a dyadic coach-athlete relationship. Items on the direct version of the CART-Q

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[19] The initial validity of a longer version of the CART-Q has been established (Rhind & Jowett, 2010a). While the longer version provides a more in-depth assessment of CAR quality the psychometric properties of the shorter versions have been more widely investigated and supported. The shorter versions were also more suitable to a repeated measures research design (i.e., to prevent 'questionnaire fatigue').

measure coaches' and athletes' direct perceptions of CAR quality (e.g., 'When I am coached by

my coach, I am responsive to his/her efforts'), while the meta-version measures how athletes and

coaches perceive each other's view of the relationship (e.g., 'My coach is responsive to my

efforts when he/she coaches me'). Items are rated on a likert response scale ranging from 1

(strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Jowett and Ntoumanis (2004) established internal

consistency for the direct CART-Q's subscales in a dual study investigation where Cronbach's

alpha ratings were calculated as: closeness $\alpha = 0.80$, co-orientation $\alpha = 0.78$, and

complementarity $\alpha = 0.85$ in the first study and as: closeness $\alpha = 0.87$; commitment $\alpha = 0.82$, and

complementarity $\alpha = 0.88$ in study two. The alpha rating for the total Coach–Athlete

Relationship scale was $\alpha = 0.93$. All coefficients exceeded the minimum level of 0.70

recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Furthermore, Pearson's correlation coefficients

indicated positive and moderately high relationships between the variables of interpersonal

satisfaction and closeness ($r = 0.75$; $P < 0.01$), commitment ($r = 0.62$; $P < 0.01$), and

complementarity ($r = 0.59$; $P < 0.01$), lending support to the predictive validity of the CART-Q.

Convergent validity was established for the CART-Q by examining whether each of the items

had substantial loadings to their hypothesized factors. All factor loadings were high, ranging

from 0.68 to 0.90 (M factor loading = 0.80) and statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). Since the

initial validation of the CART-Q, the psychometric properties of the both direct and meta-

versions have been confirmed (e.g., Jowett, 2009a, b; Yang & Jowett, 2010; 2012).

The measures were administered to each sample subgroup on three separate occasions

(T1, T2 and T3) as outlined within the switching-replications design. The first two of the three

CART-Q assessments were administered in a 'pencil-and-paper' format in sessions facilitated by

the researcher. For Group B the first CART-Q assessment session took place at the participants'

sports practice venues (prior to practices), while for Group A the first CART-Q assessment was facilitated just prior to CARE – Part 1. Then, in the reverse of this, Group B's second CART-Q assessment session took place just prior to their CARE – Part 1 intervention, while Groups A's second CART-Q assessment took place prior to sports practice sessions. To ensure a high response rate (i.e., enhancing accessibility and ease of response), the final CART-Q assessment was administered electronically via a web-based and secure online platform. The layout and presentation of the online format was consistent with the pencil-and-paper version.

Since the direct and meta CART-Qs assess relationship quality within a dyad, all athletes completed the measures as an assessment of the CAR with their participating coach. The nine coaches in the sample for phase one were randomly assigned to one athlete only on which to base their CART-Q responses. Therefore, for phase one there were nine dyads from which data could be collected for an analysis of enhanced co-orientation (see data analysis section).

Qualitative data. Qualitative data for phase one was collected via an open-ended (online) survey (Appendix D). As outlined in Figure 14, all 71 participants were invited to complete the survey. An individual email was sent to each participant containing a web link to a secure and confidential online platform where the survey could be completed. Responses were received from 9 coaches and 45 athletes (see distribution according to subgroup in Figure 14). Survey questions were grounded in the 3+1Cs model (Jowett, 2007) and Enneagram personality theory.

As discussed in Chapters 2 and 4, Jowett proposes that closeness characterises the affective dimension of the CAR, commitment the cognitive dimension, and complementarity the behavioural dimension. Also, as discussed in Chapter Three, the Enneagram theory identifies the patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaviour that influence interpersonal functioning. The survey

therefore focused specifically on the impact of CARE – Part 1 on participants' feelings, thoughts

and behaviours in relation to their coach or athlete(s). To reduce the survey length questions

focused on participants' direct perceptions only. Below are extracted example questions from the

athlete survey:

- Has understanding your coach's Enneagram type made a difference to your relationship

  with him/her?

- If no, please state why you think it has not made a difference?

- If yes, how has it changed the way you *think* about your coach?

- If yes, how has it changed the way you *feel* about your coach?

- If yes, how has it changed the way you *behave* in your coach's company?

Survey questions also explored the general impact of Enneagram type awareness (of self

and others) and the impact of CARE – Part 1 on team interpersonal relationships. The main

advantage of the online survey was that it provided an accessible, inexpensive and convenient

method of generating rich qualitative data from a large number of participants (Dillman, Smyth

& Christian, 2014). A disadvantage of this method is that the level of detail in participants'

responses may have been limited by the absence of an interviewer to provide prompts and

encouragement to expand and provide more in-depth responses. In order to maximise both

response rates and depth, recommended best practices for administering electronic surveys were

followed, including pre-testing the survey, advance notice of survey, optimal email/message

design, timing of email delivery, scheduled reminders, non-material incentives[20] and thank you

messages (Sue & Ritter, 2017).

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[20] E.g., appealing to participants' self-perceptions of being 'helpful' in completing the survey.

A limited number of studies focused on the Enneagram have utilised qualitative survey methods in their design with positive outcomes (e.g., Coker & Mihai, 2017; Sutton, Allinson & Williams, 2013). Only one study focused on the Enneagram, and one study that included a focus on the CAR could be identified where an online survey format was used (Hebenstreit, 2008; Schmid, 2015). However, recent advances in technology (including increased access to internet on mobile devices) and the high level of technology literacy of the sample involved made this a viable data collection method.

In sport-psychology research, online methodologies have previously been shown to collect data which is consistent with pencil-and-paper methods, but with the added benefit of increased speed of response and less missing data (Lonsdale, Hodge & Rose, 2006). The online format and the use of email communication also allowed the researcher to follow up with further prompts (e.g., sending reminder emails) which increased response rates.

Biographical questionnaire. Participants completed a brief biographical questionnaire (see Appendix E) which ensured that the necessary demographic data and background information were collected. The questionnaire collected data for coaches as well as athletes related to age, gender, ethnicity, home language, highest completed education level, current sport type/code, length of relationship with current coach/athlete, and amount of time spent with coach/athlete. Certain questions related to athletes only (i.e., sport participation history, type of academic study), while others pertained to coaches only (i.e., coaching experience, coaching qualifications, type of coaching). While the aforementioned biographical information enhanced the overall description of the sample not all of the data were used for the purposes of statistical analyses.

Phase 2 – Evaluation of Total CARE Intervention (Parts 1 – 3)

Method

Phase two evaluated the impact of the total CARE intervention on the perceptions of

CAR quality of a smaller sub-sample of coach-athlete dyads. The dyads participated in CARE –

Parts 2 and 3, in addition to Part 1. All three parts of the CARE intervention were completed by

the participants over the two week period of the switching replications design. CARE – Part 2

(dyadic session with both coach and athlete) was completed within one to two weeks of the Part

1 while Part 3 (individual session) was completed before T3.

Sampling. Four coach-athlete dyads[21] (n = 8) were selected from Group A to participate

in CARE – Parts 2 and 3 in addition to Part 1. This limited number was due to the time

constraints on the fieldwork period and to ensure that a thorough intervention was delivered

within the limited timeframe. The four dyads were randomly selected prior to the initial CART-

Q assessment at T1 from coaches and athletes who indicated their availability to participate in all

three parts of the intervention.

Data Collection

Quantitative data. CART-Q measures of CAR quality completed by the dyads in the

switching replications design (T1, T2 and T3) provided quantitative data for evaluating the

impact of the complete intervention. While the small sample size did not allow for statistical

analyses to be conducted the collected data has been used for descriptive purposes.

Qualitative data. A semi-structured focus group provided the qualitative data collection

method for phase two. The focus group collected data about the impact of the total CARE

intervention on coaches' and athletes' perceptions of CAR quality. The focus group format

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[21] The athletes in these four dyads were not the same athletes that were selected for phase one's dyadic CART-Q assessments analysis.

allowed for the exploration of the impact on perceptions of CAR quality at a more in-depth level than allowed by quantitative measures (Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook, 2007). A key advantage of the focus group method was its time-efficiency and ability to infuse a number of diverse perspectives within a single discussion. However, a potential limitation of the focus group format may have been that discussions were dependent on the particular group constitution and the dynamics that emerged in the group (Grumbein & Lowe, 2010).

A systematic review of recent focus group research in psychology yields an average of nine participants per session as standard and optimal, with a range of six to twelve participants as acceptable (Millward, 2012). This number is also consistent with the recommendations of focus group methods literature (Wilkinson, 2004). The four coach-athlete dyads who participated in all three parts of the CARE intervention were selected to comprise a focus group. However, due to unexpected personal circumstances and changes in academic schedules, only four participants (i.e., 3 coaches and 1 athlete) were able to attend the focus group session. Furthermore, a coach participant from Group A who had not completed CARE Part 2 and 3 volunteered to participate in the focus group. It was decided to include him in the focus group to enhance group dynamics. However, the data collected from the coach relates to CARE – Part 1 only.

Focus group research and literature suggest that between one and two hours is the standard duration for a session involving adults (Millward, 2012). In line with this suggestion a 75-minute focus group was conducted as the qualitative data collection process. The focus group was facilitated by a semi-structured interview guide (Appendix F) exploring the impact of the CARE intervention on perceptions of the CAR and CAR quality. For the focus group, the researcher acted as moderator and relied on the interview guide to collect pertinent data. The

interview guide included initial open-ended questions focused on participants' experience of the intervention:

- How would you describe the overall impact on you as a coach or athlete of the CARE experience?

- Has the CARE experience changed your relationship with your coach or athlete in any way? If so, how?

These were followed by more targeted questions focused on the impact of the intervention on perceptions of CAR quality. The interview guide was developed to explore how participants' direct and meta-perceptions of closeness, commitment, and complementarity were impacted by participation in the CARE intervention. Consistent with the online survey questions from phase one, focus group interview questions explored changes in participants' feelings, thoughts and behaviours in relation to the CAR that resulted from participating in the CARE intervention. In contrast to the survey, the interview guide included a focus on meta-perspectives. For example:

Direct perspective

- Has the CARE experience affected how you *feel* about your coach or athlete? If yes, how?

Meta-perspective

- How do you think the CARE experience has affected how your coach or athlete *feels* about you?

Focus group conversations were recorded on a password-protected audio recording device and transcribed for analysis. All personal information was anonymised during the

transcription process to protect confidentiality; however, participants were assigned with an identifier code including their subgroup, sport code (male or female; individual or team) and their Enneagram type. All collected data, including the audio recordings and transcripts, were stored electronically in password protected files.

Although no Enneagram-based studies have used focus groups as such, qualitative methods, often as part of mixed-method designs, have been widely used to evaluate Enneagram applications in a number of settings including the workplace context (Ball, 2009; Hilke, 2015; Ormond, 2007; Sutton, Allinson & Williams, 2013; Sutton, Williams & Allinson, 2011, 2015), education (Luckcock, 2007) and couple/family counselling (Arthur, 2008; Choucroun, 2013). In sport and exercise psychology there has been a steady increase in the use of qualitative methods including focus groups and semi-structured interviews (Culver, Gilbert & Sparkes, 2012). For example, two pertinent and recent studies utilised focus groups to explore the challenges faced by South African sport coaches (Kubayi, Coopoo & Morris-Eyton, 2015), and the mental toughness of Australian Football League coaches and athletes (Coulter, Mallett & Singer, 2016).

Data Analysis

Phase 1 - Quantitative data analysis. To determine the impact of CARE – Part 1 on perceptions of CAR quality, two inferential data analysis methods were used. These included paired sample t-tests, t-tests, and a one-way ANOVA. Inferential methods allowed the researcher to determine the probability of observed intervention effects extending beyond the immediate data to similar population groups (Howel, 2013).

Paired sample t-tests are generally used to compare the same sample in relation to a continuous variable (in this case CAR quality) but under two different conditions or at two different times (Pallant, 2010). One-way ANOVAs compare the variability of scores *between*

different groups (believed to be due to an independent variable) with the variability *within* each of the groups (believed to be a result of chance) (Pallant, 2010).

A paired sample t-test was used in the study to determine the effect on perceptions of CAR quality of completing the direct and meta CART-Q measures. This was done as the first of a two-step process to establish if Group A and B data could be combined into one data set. A t-test then compared the variability of Group A and B CART-Q results immediately prior to the intervention. This was T1 for Group A and T2 for Group B (represented by variables labelled 'STpre'). A further paired sample t-test was then conducted to compare the combined pre-intervention results for Group A and B (i.e., STpre) with combined post-intervention results (i.e., 'STpost'). Chapter Six provides a comprehensive explanation of data re-structuring. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare Group A mean scores from T1, T2 and T3, thereby establishing the short-term, longer-term and delayed intervention effects of CARE – Part 1.

Finally, to determine the impact of CARE – Part 1 on CAR co-orientation a descriptive analysis of corresponding mean differences was conducted of CART-Q results for the identified nine coach-athlete dyads in the sample.

Phase 2 - Quantitative data analysis. For the sub-sample (n = 8) from Group A quantitative data collected via CART-Qs in the switching-replications design was used for descriptive purposes only. The small sample size (n = 8) did not allow for inferential statistical analyses to be conducted and instead, a descriptive analysis of mean differences for all the subscales of the direct and meta CART-Qs was conducted. This includes, as in phase one, an analysis of corresponding mean differences to explore the total CARE intervention's impact on co-orientation.

Phase 1 and 2 - Qualitative data analysis. The qualitative data analysis method for both phase one and phase two applied Braun and Clarke's (2006) approach to *thematic analysis.* Braun and Clarke describe thematic analysis as a comprehensive qualitative method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (i.e., themes) within data. The authors provide a practical description of the theory and method of thematic analysis and propose that, while identifying themes is a foundational method for all qualitative analysis, thematic analysis is a distinct method in its own right (also see Boyatzis, 1998). Qualitative data collected for phase one (i.e., coach and athlete survey responses) and phase two (i.e., focus group transcript) were analysed using a theoretical and inductive thematic analysis process.

Thematic analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that thematic analysis is compatible with a range of epistemological positions including realist positions (i.e., where analysis is viewed as revealing the reality of research participants' experiences) and constructionist positions (where analysis is viewed as investigating the effects of the social context and a range of discourses on how participants' experiences – and their meanings - are constructed). The authors also distinguish a *contextualist* position from which thematic analysis would acknowledge "the ways individuals make meaning of their experience, and, in turn, the ways the broader social context impinges on those meanings, while retaining focus on the material and other limits of 'reality'" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 81). Researchers using thematic analysis must be explicit, therefore, about their epistemological assumptions and these must be consistent with their research aims.

The thematic analysis conducted in the current study is situated broadly within a *critical realist* epistemology (Bhaskar, 1998; Frauley & Pearce, 2007) which, similar to a contextualist

position, emphasises both an independent reality and the contextual constructions or

approximations of that reality. As Wagner (2010) has succinctly explained:

> The philosophical position of critical realism holds that reality exists
>
> independently of the mind and it is what the mind seeks to construe or represent.
>
> As we refine our constructions of reality, we draw ever closer to what is real
>
> through a series of successive approximations. Reality is the limit toward which
>
> we tend, without ever reaching it fully (p. 72)

It is therefore acknowledged that the data collected (i. e., the transcribed focus group

interviews and survey responses) and the analysis thereof reflect a unique meaning making

process between researcher and participants, influenced by a particular social context and guided

by the researcher's explicit and implicit theoretical assumptions. However, at the same time it is

proposed that the data collection and analysis also approximates something of the 'reality' of

participants' experiences relating to the impact of the CARE intervention on CAR quality.

Braun and Clarke (2006) also identify a number of decisions which researchers must

make in conducting a thematic analysis. These decisions must be acknowledged and must make

explicit the epistemological assumptions and specific methods that were employed. Braun and

Clarke's decision-making framework is used in the following section to describe the current

study's analytic methods. The framework is presented below as a series of questions.

What counts as a theme? Braun and Clarke (2006) state that a theme "captures something

important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of

patterned response or meaning within the data set" (p. 82). While the prevalence of such themes

within the data set may be important, the significance of a theme is not necessarily dependent on

quantifiable measures (i.e., how often it appears). Rather, a theme must capture something

significant in relation to what the research is aiming to establish or investigate. In the current

study, themes were identified as those patterned responses that reflected participants' changed

perceptions of their coach-athlete relationship, more specifically their perceptions of enhanced

CAR quality resulting from participating in the CARE intervention. However, other themes that

relate either directly or indirectly to the CAR and CAR quality were also included. These themes

allowed the researcher to explore the possible effects of the CARE intervention that may be

associated with enhanced CAR quality.

   A rich description of the data set, or a detailed account of one particular aspect? Braun

and Clarke (2006) propose that a rich thematic description of the entire data set (e.g., all sections

of an interview transcription or all survey responses) provides the reader with an overall sense of

the predominant themes, but inevitably sacrifices some complexity. Alternatively, a more

detailed and nuanced analysis of one particular theme, or group of themes, within the data can be

used to shed light on a specific area of interest. For the purposes of the current study, both a rich

thematic analysis and a more focused analysis was conducted. The focused analysis paid specific

attention to sections of the focus group transcript and survey responses that related to the CARE

intervention's impact on perceptions of CAR quality. This approach was also more suited to a

theoretical thematic analysis (see section below) where the data analysis process is already more

focused on a particular aspect of the data. The rich thematic analysis of the entire data set

allowed the researcher to identify other predominant themes related to the CARE intervention's

impact. This was more suited to the inductive analysis process.

Inductive versus theoretical thematic analysis? An inductive approach to qualitative

analysis purports to code data "without trying to fit it into a pre-existing coding frame, or the

researcher's analytic preconceptions" (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 83). Inductive analysis thus

claims to be more data-driven in the sense that it is not explicitly guided by the researcher's

theoretical assumptions or predetermined focus. However, both a constructionist and a

contextualist perspective would suggest that, even when aiming to remain neutral or objective in

reflecting the 'reality' of the data, researchers inevitably bring certain theoretical, perceptual and

epistemological biases to their engagement with it.

In contrast, a *theoretical* thematic analysis explicitly states what the researcher's analytic

interests and theoretical orientations are. Themes (and the codes used to identify them) are thus

largely predetermined while the analysis is detailed in relation to a particular aspect of the data.

The current study employed both a theoretical thematic analysis based on predetermined themes

and analytic codes provided by the 3+1Cs model of CAR quality (Jowett, 2005, 2007), and an

inductive analysis of other themes related to the impact of the CARE intervention. The

theoretical analysis thus identified the degree to which data reflected changes in coaches' and

athletes' perceptions of CAR quality within the themes of closeness, commitment and

complementarity. The inductive analysis identified themes, related to the CAR and CAR quality,

but not necessarily falling under the theoretical analysis framework. Therefore, despite the

explicitly theoretical orientation of the analysis, allowance was made for an analysis of codes

and themes relating to the impact of the CARE intervention that were not captured within the

predetermined analytic framework. The focus group's interview guide and the online survey also

contained questions that allowed participants to reflect on the broader impact of the CARE

intervention beyond the CAR itself.

Semantic or latent themes? Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest that researchers need to decide if they will identify themes at a semantic (i.e., explicit) level and then interpret their significance in relation to theory and/or previous literature, or whether they will identify themes at the latent (i.e., underlying or implicit) level where an interpretation of what is giving rise to semantic content occurs at the time of coding (e.g., discourse analysis). Within both the theoretical and inductive analytic orientations a *semantic* level analysis was used. In the theoretical analysis explicit participant statements were identified that related to predetermined codes and themes. Within the inductive analysis, themes were identified from explicit participant statements relating to the impact of the CARE intervention that did not fall within the predetermined analytic framework. Then in Chapter Eight the connection between theoretical and inductive themes is discussed in relation to the theory and research covered in Chapters One to Four.

A series of questions. Braun and Clarke (2006) also emphasise that a series of ongoing questions constitute the qualitative research endeavour. The overall research question that drives the research project is of course central, but so are the questions used for data collection (i.e., the interview guide, survey questions and the questions that arise during the analysis process). Braun and Clarke warn against simply using the questions put to participants during interviews or surveys as the 'themes' identified in the analysis. Thus, while thematic analysis can be guided by a pre-existing theoretical framework, a disjuncture should exist between the analytic frame for data analysis and the interview/survey questions for data collection. Therefore, while both the data collection and data analysis of the current study were guided by the 3+1Cs model (Jowett, 2005, 2007), the impact of the CARE intervention on coach and athlete participants' perceptions

of CAR quality (i.e., the overall research question) was explored through interview/survey

questions that allowed for a wider discussion and elaboration of participants' experiences.

　　　　The six phases of thematic analysis. Braun and Clarke (2006) provide an outline of six

phases of analysis which they suggest as a flexible framework to be applied recursively to the

analysis and presentation of data. The six phases have been used to describe the thematic

analysis processes for both phase one and phase two that were conducted in the current study.

　　　　Phase one (thematic analysis) – familiarising yourself with the data. The first steps in the

current study's thematic analyses were collating survey responses into a format suited to analysis

and the transcription of the audio recorded focus group interview. This allowed the researcher to

immerse himself in the data and to initially appreciate the depth and breadth of its content. Braun

and Clarke (2006) suggest that, while thematic analysis is not bound to strict conventions

associated with methods such as conversation, discourse or narrative analysis, it requires a

thorough orthographic/verbatim transcription of all verbal (and sometimes non-verbal)

utterances. This was applied to the transcription of focus group dialogues with special attention

to punctuation that accurately reflected what was said. Survey responses were collated and

anonymised using participant identifier codes including respondents' sample subgroup, sport

type (male or female; individual or team), Enneagram type and gender. After being collated the

survey data were read thoroughly.

　　　　Phase two (thematic analysis) – generating initial codes. In thematic analysis, codes are

used to identify the most basic elements of the raw data that represent something of potential

interest to the researcher. Whereas codes help the researcher organise data extracts into

meaningful groups, themes are the broader units of analysis that are generated from codes

through an interpretive process (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The first round of coding and theming

for both phase one and phase two was theory-driven in the sense that the researcher first

approached the transcripts and survey responses with existing themes and codes in mind. This

was then followed by a data-driven (i.e., inductive) coding process where themes and codes

emerged from the data. Themes for the theoretical analyses were derived from the 3+1Cs model

of the CAR (Jowett, 2005, 2005) and identified as direct and meta-perceptions of *enhanced*

closeness, commitment, and complementarity resulting from participation in the CARE

intervention. Drawing from the following definitions of closeness, commitment and

complementarity (Yang & Jowett, 2012), themes and codes were developed (see Table 12) to

identify perceptions of enhanced CAR quality resulting from the CARE intervention:

Closeness refers to the relationship between members' affective ties, such as

interpersonal liking, respecting, trusting, and appreciating one another.

Commitment refers to the relationship between members' thoughts (i.e.,

intentions) about developing a close and lasting partnership. *Complementarity*

refers to the relationship between members' behavioural transactions of

cooperation that are willing, responsive, relaxed, and friendly (p. 36-37)

In the CART-Q (direct and meta-versions) a dimension of commitment is also

highlighted by an item assessing perceptions of having a promising career with the other (i.e., I

think that my sport career is promising with my coach/athlete / My coach/athlete feels that

his/her career is promising with me). A code was thus also generated for this dimension of

commitment.

Table 12

Themes and Codes for Thematic Analyses of Focus Group Transcripts and Survey Responses

Theme	Codes
Enhanced Direct Closeness	1. Enhanced interpersonal liking of the other 2. Enhanced trust of the other 3. Enhanced respect for the other 4. Enhanced appreciation of the other
Enhanced Meta-closeness	1. Enhanced interpersonal liking from the other 2. Enhanced trust from the other towards self 3. Enhanced respect from the other for self 4. Enhanced appreciation by the other of self
Enhanced Direct Commitment	1. Enhanced intention to develop a close partnership with the other 2. Enhanced intention to develop a lasting partnership with the other 3. Enhanced perception of having a promising career with the other[22]
Enhanced Meta-commitment	1. Enhanced other's intention to develop a close partnership with self 2. Enhanced other's intention to develop a lasting partnership with self 3. Enhanced other's perception that their career is promising with self
Enhanced Direct complementarity	1. Enhanced willingness to cooperate with the other 2. Enhanced responsiveness to the other 3. Enhanced sense of being relaxed with the other 4. Enhanced friendliness towards the other
Enhanced Meta-complementarity	1. Enhanced willingness of other to cooperate with self 2. Enhanced responsiveness from the other 3. Enhanced sense of the other being relaxed with self 4. Enhanced friendliness from the other towards self

The coding process consisted of initially reading through the focus group interview

transcript and survey responses and identifying (i.e., highlighting) all extracts pertaining to

participants' perceptions of the CAR that were directly or indirectly related to the impact of the

CARE intervention. Extracts were initially divided into those that could potentially be matched

to the existing codes and those that did not obviously correspond to existing codes, but which

---

[22] While the code/concept of having a promising career with the other is not part of Yang and Jowett's (2012) definition, it is an item in the CART-Q's commitment sub-scale/definition.

nevertheless related to the impact of the CARE intervention. Excerpts that matched existing

codes were then assigned to the specific code or codes they best corresponded to, while any

remaining excerpts were assigned to newly created codes. As stated earlier in this chapter,

allowance was made for an analysis of codes and themes related to the impact of the CARE

intervention that were not captured within the theoretically-driven analytic framework. The

thematic analysis also investigated enhanced co-orientation by identifying a correspondence

between participants' enhanced direct and meta-perceptions.

Phase three – searching for themes. The third phase of Braun and Clarke's (2006)

guidelines was relevant to codes that were not within the predetermined analytic framework and

thus needed to be analysed and considered for how they may combine to form a new overarching

theme.

Phase four – reviewing themes. Phase four consists of reviewing themes and ascertaining

if there are enough data to support them. Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest using Patton's (1990)

criteria of internal homogeneity (ensuring that themes cohere together meaningfully) and

external heterogeneity (ensuring that themes are clearly distinguishable from each other). To

enhance the trustworthiness and inter-rater reliability of the analysis, phase four was conducted

by an independent expert reviewer with a background in sport psychology and extensive

experience in qualitative research methods. The independent reviewer conducted two levels of

review. Firstly, the reviewer evaluated the coherence of the collated extracts for each

predetermined and newly identified theme (i.e., do they all fit?). Secondly, the reviewer assessed

the validity and accuracy of the individual themes in relation to the whole data set (i.e., do the

themes reflect participants' experiences as a whole?). The independent review concurred with

the vast majority of the researcher's allocation of extracts and newly created themes. After

further discussion between the researcher and the independent reviewer two of extracts were re-allocated to more appropriate themes within the predetermined framework, and two of the inductive themes were combined into one overarching theme. Finally, in line with Braun and Clarke's model, the researcher reread the entire data set, after initial coding and independent review, to code any additional data within themes that were overlooked.

Phase five – defining and naming themes – The fifth phase in Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis guideline includes defining and refining themes to be presented in analysis and identifying what is most central to each theme and its associated extracts. Themes must be considered in relation to each other and in relation to the overall 'story' the researcher is telling about the data to ensure coherence and consistency. In the current study this phase was particularly pertinent to identifying the relationship between predetermined and newly created themes and to ensure that the latter were not merely sub-themes within the existing theoretical framework of CAR quality.

Phase six – producing the report. Braun and Clarke (2006) make a number of recommendations for producing a thematic analysis report. The analysis should provide sufficient evidence of themes identified and include vivid data extracts to demonstrate the prevalence of the theme. Such extracts must be embedded within an analytic narrative that makes a compelling argument in relation to the research question. As Braun and Clarke suggest,

> The extracts in thematic analysis are illustrative of the analytic points the
> researcher makes about the data, and should be used to illustrate/support an
> analysis that goes beyond their specific content, to make sense of the data, and tell
> the reader what it does or might mean… (p. 94).

The current study's thematic analysis report is presented in Chapter Six and Seven. First, however, a number of ethical considerations related to the data gathering and analysis procedures are highlighted in the next subsection.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical rules of conduct for practitioners registered under the South African Health Professions Act (Health Professions Amendment Act 29 of 2007) were adhered to during the course of the study. Permission for the study was requested from relevant bodies and individuals including Nelson Mandela University's (NMU) Faculty Postgraduate Studies Committee, the NMU Research Ethics Committee (Human), NMU Madibaz Sport, and coach/athlete participants. Participation was voluntary and participants could withdraw from the study at any point without exception. Participants were fully informed regarding the nature and purpose of the research and the requirements regarding their participation. This was achieved by means of written documentation (see Appendix G) and verbal communication (i.e., a preparatory group information session and individual conversations with participants)[23].

Informed consent was obtained from all participants. While participation in the research did not result in any participants experiencing psychosocial needs that could not be addressed within the context of the CARE intervention, provision was made for participants to be referred to the NMU student and/or staff psychological support services if required. The anonymity and confidentiality of all participants was maintained by anonymising data during analysis and presentation. Since discussions of personality type were shared within sample subgroups, a

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[23] These forms of verbal communication were facilitated by the researcher himself where possible, but also by one of the research supervisors who had a greater level of access to the sample within the university premises (e.g., being located near the relevant sport departments).

written within-group confidentiality agreement was signed by all participants (see Appendix H).

Feedback was given to all participants on conclusion of the study by means of a written

(anonymised) summary of findings and through access to the completed dissertation.

Summary

The current chapter has described the research aims, activities, sample, and methodology

that were employed to develop and evaluate the CARE intervention's impact on CAR quality.

The next two chapters describe the results and findings yielded from the data collection and

analysis process.

CHAPTER SIX

RESULTS - PHASE ONE

Introduction

This chapter addresses phase one of Aim 2 of the study and presents results of the quantitative and qualitative evaluation of CARE Part 1's impact on perceptions of CAR quality as defined by the 3+1Cs model (Jowett, 2005; 2007). Results for phase two (evaluation of CARE – Parts 1, 2 and 3 combined) are presented separately in Chapter Seven (see overview of results presentation in Figure 16).

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│     CHAPTER SIX - Phase One: Evaluation of CARE – Part 1      │
│  ┌───────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐   │
│  │               Quantitative Results                    │   │
│  │  Short-term and longer-term effects of CARE – Part 1  │   │
│  │  on CAR quality (T-tests / ANOVA test of CART-Q       │   │
│  │  responses)                                           │   │
│  └───────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘   │
│                            │                                  │
│                            ▼                                  │
│  ┌───────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐   │
│  │                Qualitative Results                    │   │
│  │  Detailed analysis of CARE – Part 1 effects on CAR    │   │
│  │  quality (Theoretical and Inductive Thematic Analysis │   │
│  │  of Open-ended Survey responses)                      │   │
│  └───────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘   │
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                             │
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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  CHAPTER SEVEN - Phase Two: Evaluation of the total CARE     │
│                  intervention (Parts 1 – 3)                  │
│  ┌───────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐   │
│  │               Quantitative Results                    │   │
│  │  Descriptive statistics and identification of trends  │   │
│  │  in CART-Q responses                                  │   │
│  └───────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘   │
│                            │                                  │
│                            ▼                                  │
│  ┌───────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐   │
│  │                Qualitative Results                    │   │
│  │  Detailed analysis of total CARE intervention's       │   │
│  │  effects on CAR quality (Theoretical and Inductive    │   │
│  │  Thematic Analysis of Focus Group transcript)         │   │
│  └───────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘   │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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Figure 16. Overview of results chapters.

While results are presented according to each phase and separated into quantitative and qualitative dimensions, Chapter Eight integrates results in further discussion of the CARE intervention's impact on CAR quality.

Phase One: Evaluation of CARE – Part 1 (Enneagram Training Session)

Quantitative Results

This section describes the analysis of data collected via the direct and meta-versions of the CART-Q to evaluate CARE – Part 1's impact on perceptions of CAR quality. Presented first are the descriptive statistics, alpha reliabilities and intercorrelations established for the CART-Qs during data collection, as well as details of sample completion rates. This is followed by a detailed description of the data analysis process and quantitative results.

Descriptive statistics and alpha reliabilities. Means, standard deviations and Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for each of the direct and meta CART-Q subscales as well as for the total direct and meta scales at each time point in the study (see Table 13).

Table 13

Total Sample Means and Alpha Reliabilities for the Direct and Meta CART-Q at T1

	Subscale	n	Mean	S.D.	Alpha
CART-Q (direct)	D-Close T1	66	6.31	.76	.77
	D-Commit T1	66	5.39	.95	.61
	D-Compl T1	66	5.94	.90	.81
	D-CAR Total T1	66	5.88	.73	.78
CART-Q (meta)	M-Close T1	66	5.78	.81	.77
	M-Commit T1	66	5.11	1.11	.77
	M-Compl T1	66	5.84	.97	.76
	M-CAR Total T1	66	5.58	.82	.81

Table 13 shows the descriptive statistics and alpha reliabilities at T1 for the entire sample. As described, all reliabilities except for the direct commitment subscale exceeded the

minimum level of 0.70 recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Further alpha

reliabilities were also calculated for Groups A and B separately at T1, T2 and T3. This was done

to ensure that further analyses of results and comparisons between research sample groups were

based on equivalent data.

As presented in Table 14, for Group A all reliabilities exceeded minimum levels except

for direct commitment (T3). For Group B all reliabilities, except for direct commitment (T1, T2,

T3) and meta commitment (T1), exceeded the minimum level. The lower reliability level of the

direct and meta commitment subscales is likely due to the smaller sample sizes rather than

underlying issues with the scale. Group B also contained more participants who do not have

English as their first language. Linguistic barriers and cultural bias may thus have affected

reliability levels. However, since previous research has established good reliability for these

subscales in larger samples (Jowett, 2009a, 2009b; Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004; Yang & Jowett,

2012) they were included in the following analyses.

Table 14

Group A and Group B Alpha Reliabilities for the Direct and Meta CART-Q

	Subscale	Alpha (Group A)			Alpha (Group B)		
		T1 (n = 49)	T2 (n = 49)	T3 (n = 47)	T1 (n = 17)	T2 (n = 27)	T3 (n = 27)
CART-Q (direct)	D-Close	.76	.77	.85	.79	.73	.86
	D-Commit	.73	.75	.68	.22	.63	.63
	D-Compl	.83	.83	.88	.77	.77	.76
	D-CAR Total	.74	.79	.86	.89	.85	.94
CART-Q (meta)	M-Close	.79	.83	.88	.76	.86	.87
	M-Commit	.79	.82	.84	.69	.79	.81
	M-Compl	.77	.83	.86	.76	.79	.79
	M-CAR Total	.78	.87	.88	.90	.92	.91

Further details of group differences are provided in later tables as relevant for each

statistical test.

Intercorrelations. Correlations between all direct and meta CART-Q subscales and total

scales at T1 for the total sample were calculated and are presented in Table 15. All correlations

were found to be statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level. This included correlations between

direct subscales and meta subscales respectively, and correlations between direct and meta

subscales. The high level of correlation between subscales is consistent with findings from

previous research (Yang & Jowett, 2012) and reflects the interdependence between the

dimensions of CAR quality identified by the 3+1Cs model (Jowett, 2007). High correlations

between the total direct and meta scales would be expected since total scales incorporate all the

subscales. However, while intercorrelations reflect an interdependence previous research has

supported discriminant validity for all the direct and meta factors of closeness, commitment and

complementarity (Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004; Jowett, 2009a). These subscales are thus

considered as interdependent but separate variables.

Table 15

Intercorrelations between CART-Q Subscales (Total Sample at T1)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. D-Close T1								
2. D-Commit T1	.634*							
3. D-Compl T1	.631*	.351*						
4. D-CAR Total T1	.880*	.830*	.816*					
5. M-Close T1	.481*	.527*	.611*	.646*				
6. M-Commit T1	.515*	.822*	.351*	.679*	.648*			
7. M-Compl T1	.497*	.423*	.757*	.667*	.742*	.463*		
8. M-CAR Total T1	.582*	.705*	.653*	.775*	.906*	.463*	.841*	

Note. * Significant at the $p < .05$ level.

Completion rates. Completion rates remained high throughout the fieldwork and data collection process (see Table 16). However, after T1 and before the commencement of the intervention the head coach for the men's cricket team in Group B withdrew from the research process due to personal circumstances. Since the assistant coach was also included in the sample he continued as the identified coach for further CART-Q assessments and intervention. The T1 CART-Q data (i. e. the measure of CAR with the head coach) for the cricket team was excluded from further analyses. Furthermore, two participants from Group A did not complete the CART-Q at T3. Where calculations required scores from all three CART-Q administrations the data for the aforementioned two participants was excluded. Also, the data of four coach-athlete dyads (n = 8) from Group A were analysed as part of phase two to account for further intervention (CARE – Part 2 and 3) in addition to CARE – Part 1.

Table 16

Sample Completion Rates

Subgroup	CARTQ - T1	Intervention	CARTQ – T2	Intervention	CARTQ – T3
Group A	n = 44	n = 44	n = 44		n = 42
Group B	n = 28		n = 27	n = 27	n = 27

Data Analysis Process and Results

Restructuring data. Before initiating an analysis of CARE – Part 1's intervention effects, a two-step calculation was conducted to establish if data from Groups A and B could be combined. This was to determine if a larger data set could be created in order to establish both the short-term and longer-term effects of CARE – Part 1 and to enhance the statistical validity of the analyses.

The first step in restructuring the data was to establish whether completing the CART-Q in itself affected perceptions of CAR quality. While establishing 'measure effects' is relevant to research findings in general, the focus of the analysis was primarily to determine whether Group B (n = 17) results at T2 remained a base-level pre-assessment of CAR quality for use in further combined-group calculations. A paired sample T-test was conducted on Group B's results at T1 and T2 for all the CART-Q subscales and total scales. Results indicated that no statistically significant changes occurred in direct or meta-perceptions of CAR quality for Group B between T1 and T2. As presented in Table 17, significance levels were calculated at p>.05 for all six subscales. This result increases the likelihood that observed changes in participants' perceptions of CAR quality were intervention effects rather than a result of participants' reflections on the CAR stimulated by the measure. It also eliminates concerns regarding test-retest unreliability.

Table 17

Paired Sample T-test: Group B T1 and T2

Pair	CART-Q Subscale	t	p (d.f. = 16)
	D-Close	-0.10	.919
	M-Close	0.27	.791
	D-Commit	-0.26	.802
T1 & T2	M-Commit	1.19	.253
	D-Compl	0.19	.855
	M-Compl	0.07	.946
	D-CAR Total	-0.07	.947
	M-CAR Total	0.49	.627

After determining that the completion of the CART-Q had no significant effect on Group B's perceptions of CAR quality, there was a need to establish if the data of Groups A and B could be combined. Variables were created (labelled 'STpre') to represent scores directly prior to

the intervention for both groups. This allowed for an investigation of base level differences

between Groups A and B scores immediately pre-intervention. For Group A, STpre variables

were CART-Q scores at T1, while for Group B they were scores at T2. A t-test was then

conducted to compare the results for both groups. As indicated in Table 18, there were no

significant differences at p<.05 between the two groups across all CART-Q subscales. The data

of groups A and B could thus be combined for further analyses.

Table 18

T-test: STpre Variables Group A and B

Group	Variable	t	p(d.f. = 74)
	STpreD-Close	0.45	.655
	STpreD-Commit	0.77	.445
	STpreD-Compl	-0.27	.787
Group A (n = 49) &	STpreD-CAR	0.39	.700
Group B (n = 27)	STpreM-Close	0.34	.738
	STpreM-Commit	0.88	.384
	STpreM-Compl	0.71	.478
	STpreM-CAR	0.75	.453

Short-term, longer-term and delayed effects of CARE – Part 1. Since the analysis

above demonstrated that Groups A and B could be combined, the combined sample was used to

determine CARE – Part 1's short-term intervention effects. However, tests of longer-term and

delayed effects included Group A only since it was the only group that completed a second

CART-Q measure post intervention.

Short-term intervention effects. As the CART-Q results at T2 were at the post

intervention stage for Group A but not for Group B, another set of variables was created

(labelled STpost) representing the post-intervention CART-Q scores for both groups. Therefore,

STpost variables are the T2 results for Group A and the T3 results for Group B. Paired sample t-

tests were conducted to compare the means of the combined pre-test subscales (STpre) with the

combined post-test subscales (STpost) (see Table 19).

Table 19

Paired sample T-test: STPre and STPost

Pair	CART-Q Subscale	t	p (d.f. = 67)
	D-Close	-1.09	.279
	M-Close	0.47	.643
	D-Commit	2.92	.005*
STpre & STpost	M-Commit	3.06	.003*
	D-Compl	1.11	.273
	M-Compl	1.60	.115
	D-CAR Total	1.66	.101
	M-CAR Total	2.18	.033*

Note. * Significant at the p<.05 level.

Results indicated that there was a significant increase in scores for direct and meta

commitment, as well as for total meta CAR quality at the p<0.05 level.

Short-term, longer-term and delayed intervention effects. To determine further short-

term effects, as well as the longer-term and delayed impact of CARE – Part 1, a one-way

repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to compare Group A mean scores from T1, T2 and

T3. ANOVA results indicated that a significant effect of time was observed for all subscales

except direct closeness and direct commitment (see Table 20). Further post-hoc inferential

calculations were conducted (i.e., Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) post hoc test -

see Appendix I) to determine whether the above intervention effects were observed at T1→T2

(i.e., immediate short-term effect), at T1→T3 (i.e., longer-term effect) or at T2→T3 (i.e., delayed

effect). Cohen's d calculation was also used to determine effect sizes.

Table 20

Repeated Measures ANOVA: Group A

Source	Subscale (n = 39)	F	p
	D-Close	0.19	.829
	D-Commit	16.22	<.0005*
	D-Compl	2.14	.124
T1, T2 & T3	M-CAR Total	15.27	<.0005*
	M-Close	6.04	.004*
	M-Commit	15.95	<.0005*
	M-Compl	4.59	.013*
	D-CAR Total	8.40	.001*

Note. D.F. = 2; 76; * Significant at the p<.05 level.

Table 21 provides a summary of the short-term, longer-term and delayed effect sizes

identified for each of the direct and meta CART-Q subscales and total scales.

Table 21

Summary of CARE – Part 1 Intervention Effects Over Time

Subscale	Short-term effect	Long-term effect	Delayed effect
D-Close	-	-	-
D-Commit	.045 (0.39)	<.0005 (.91)	.005 (.52)
D-Compl	-	-	-
D-CAR Total	-	<.0005 (.65)	.046 (.39)
M-Close	-	.004 (.53)	.034 (.41)
M-Commit	.017 (.45)	<.0005 (.90)	.017 (.45)
M-Compl	-	.010 (.48)	-
M-CAR Total	-	<.0005 (.88)	.004 (.53)

Note. Only significant results at p<.05 are shown. Cohen's d value is provided in brackets.

Figures 17 to 21 provide graphic illustrations of the short-term, longer-term and delayed

intervention effects for all the relevant CART-Q subscales and total scales.

Enhanced closeness. Figure 17 represents the medium longer-term intervention effect

and the small but significant delayed effect that were observed for meta closeness. The analysis

did not identify an intervention effect for direct closeness.

Enhanced commitment. Figure 18 represents the large longer-term intervention effect and the small but statistically significant short-term effect that were observed for both direct and meta commitment. Significant delayed intervention effects were also observed for both direct and meta commitment.
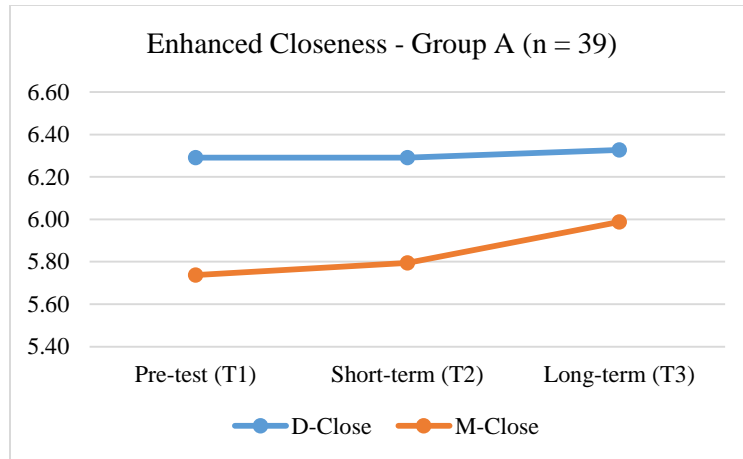
Figure 17. CARE – Part 1 intervention effects: Enhanced meta closeness.
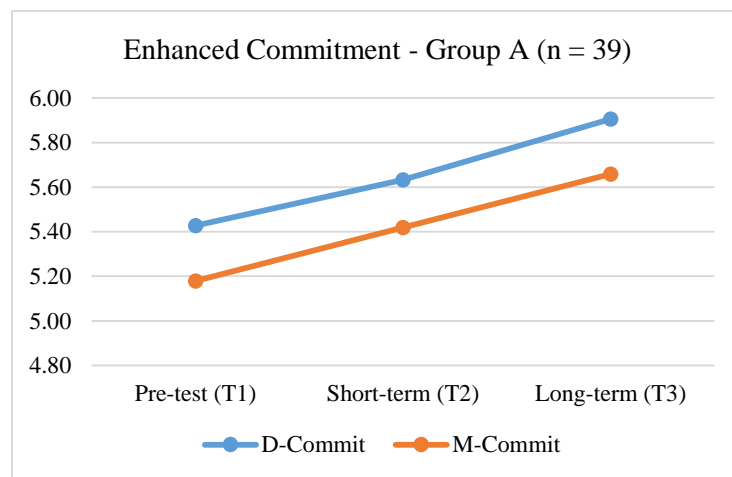
Figure 18. CARE – Part 1 intervention effects: Enhanced direct and meta commitment.

Enhanced complementarity. In Figure 19 the small but significant longer-term intervention effect for meta complementarity is represented. While no significant effect was identified for direct complementarity an upward trend in mean scores can be noted.
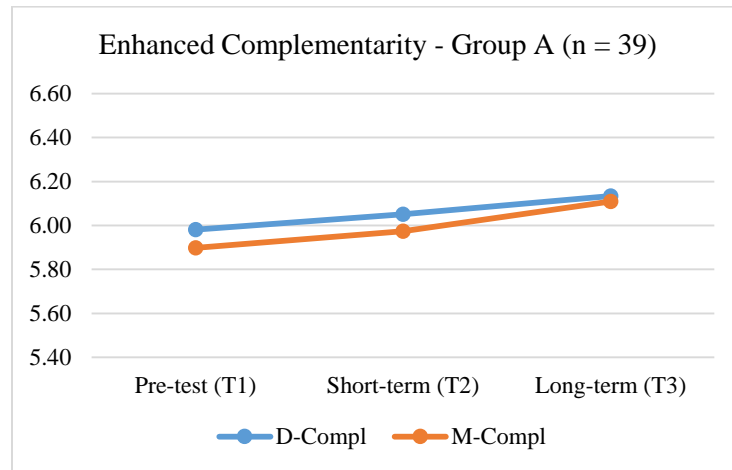
Figure 19. CARE – Part 1 intervention effects: Enhanced meta complementarity.

Enhanced CAR quality total. Figure 20 represents the large longer-term and medium delayed intervention effects that were observed for overall and meta CAR quality. For total direct CAR quality a medium long-term intervention effect and small but significant delayed effect were identified.

Enhanced co-orientation. CARE – Part 1's effect on the three aspects of co-orientation, i.e., assumed similarity, actual similarity and empathic understanding, was explored by describing the corresponding changes in direct and meta CART-Q means for the nine dyads in the sample. While the small sample did not permit inferential statistical calculations, a number of observations can be made from the data (see Table 22).
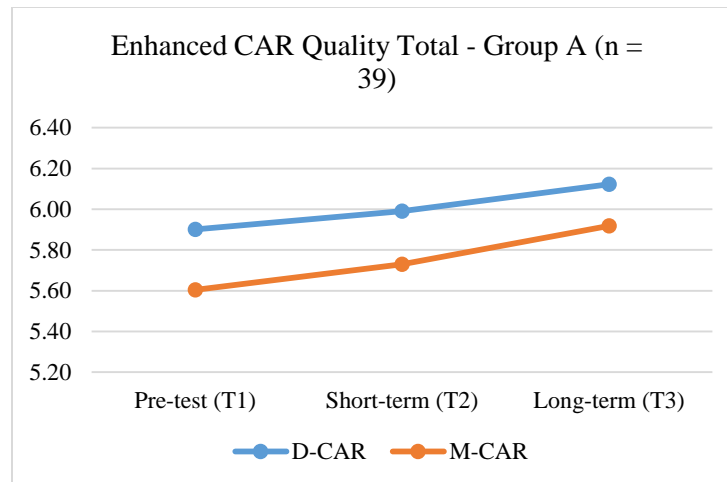
Figure 20. CARE – Part 1 intervention effects: Enhanced direct and meta CAR quality.

A trend towards enhanced assumed similarity is suggested by coaches' perceptions of themselves and of their athletes as more committed and complementary and athletes' perceptions of themselves and their coaches as more complementary. Enhanced actual similarity is thus indicated by corresponding mean increases for coaches' and athletes' direct complementarity.

A trend towards greater empathic understanding is supported by an increase of coaches' direct perceptions of commitment and complementarity and a corresponding increase in athletes' meta-perceptions of commitment and complementarity. Stated differently, athletes accurately perceived that their coaches felt more committed and complementary to them. Similarly, athletes' perceptions of themselves as more complementary corresponded to their coaches' perceptions of them (see Figure 21).

Table 22

Co-orientation of Coach-Athlete Dyad Perceptions (CARE – Part 1)

	Coach (n = 9)				Athlete (n = 9)		
Subscale		Mean		Subscale		Mean	
	STpre	STpost	Diff.		STpre	STpost	Diff.
D-Close	5.94	5.78	-0.16	M-Close	5.78	5.85	0.12
D-Commit	5.11	5.19	0.08	M-Commit	5.30	5.57	0.27
D-Compl	5.56	5.78	0.22	M-Compl	5.73	5.83	0.10
D-CAR Total	5.54	5.58	0.04	M-CAR Total	5.60	5.75	0.15
M-Close	5.56	5.56	0	D-Close	6.45	6.25	-0.2
M-Commit	4.85	5.11	0.26	D-Commit	5.87	5.8	-0.07
M-Compl	5.64	5.69	0.05	D-Compl	6.05	6.15	0.1
M-CAR Total	5.35	5.45	0.10	D-CAR Total	6.12	6.07	-0.05
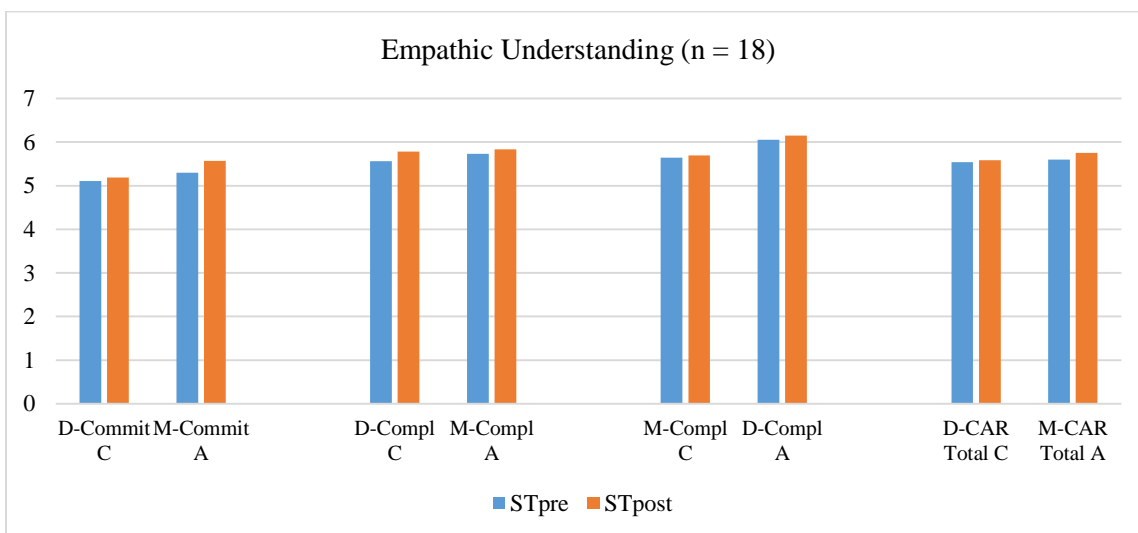
Figure 21. Enhanced co-orientation for coach-athlete dyads (quantitative).

Summary of Quantitative Results

Quantitative analyses identified that CARE – Part 1 significantly enhanced coaches' and athletes' perceptions of CAR quality over the short-term and longer-term. Short-term intervention effects were observed for direct and meta commitment, as well as for total meta CAR quality. Longer-term intervention effects were identified for all direct and meta CART-Q

subscales and total scales, except for direct closeness and commitment. Delayed intervention

effects were also identified for all subscales and total scales except direct closeness and direct

and meta complementarity. Collectively, the results indicate that after participating in CARE –

Part 1 coaches and athletes viewed themselves as more committed to the CAR and viewed the

other in the relationship as feeling closer, more committed and more complementary.

Furthermore, a sample of nine coach-athlete dyads demonstrated a trend towards enhanced co-

orientation.

Qualitative Results

This section describes thematic analyses of open-ended survey responses. The analysis

integrates coach and athlete responses in order to draw comparisons and highlight similarities. A

theoretical thematic analysis is presented first followed by an inductive analysis. The inter-

relationship between the two analyses will be discussed in Chapter Eight. Where illustrative

extracts are provided, participant identifier codes have been assigned to protect confidentiality

while identifying the participant's sample subgroup (i.e., Group A or B), unique participant I.D.,

sport type (i.e., male or female, individual or team), Enneagram type, and gender[24] (see Figure

22 where an example of a coach participant identifier code is provided in boldface). The

identification of participants' Enneagram types in the analysis has been used to demonstrate the

connections between the intervention process (i.e., enhancing awareness of Enneagram type) and

the intervention outcome reflected in the results (i.e., enhanced CAR quality).

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[24] The gender identifier is omitted for athletes since gender is already identified for athletes in the sport type identifier code.

A 10 (FT) 8 F

Subgroup A/B   Participant ID   Sport Type: M/F, Individual/Team   Enneagram Type   Participant Gender
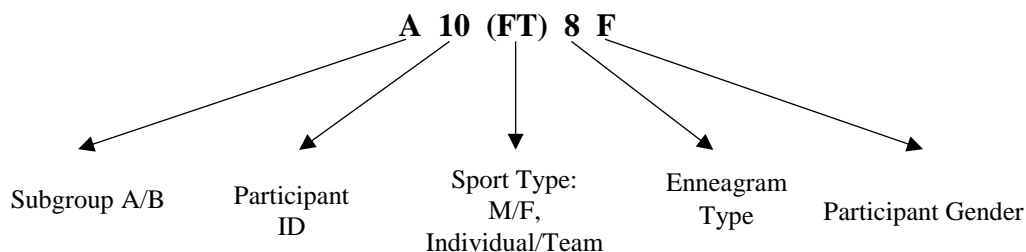
Figure 22. Participant identifier code composition.

Theoretical analysis themes and codes are consistent with the 3+1Cs themes identified in Chapter Five. However, it emerged during analysis that codes were often supported by sufficient data to be considered as 'sub-themes'. Where sufficient data were identified, results are presented in descriptive tables for the relevant CAR quality dimension.

Theoretical Thematic Analysis – Open-ended Surveys

Table 23 provides a description of the coach and athlete sample that completed the open-ended surveys including subgroup, gender, sport type and Enneagram type. This is followed by a detailed description of themes and sub-themes, including illustrative examples from survey data.

Table 23

Coach and Athlete Survey Sample Description

Total Sample (n = 54)	Subgroup	Gender	Sport type	Enneagram Type (ET)
Coaches (n = 9)	Group A = 5 Group B = 4	M = 7 F = 2	M/FI = 4 MT = 2 FT = 3	ET1 = 2; ET2 = 1; ET3 = 2; ET8 = 4
Athletes (n = 45)	Group A = 27 Group B = 18	M = 22 F = 23	M/FI = 10 MT = 15 FT = 20	ET1 = 10 ; ET2 = 5; ET3 = 3; ET4 = 2; ET5 = 2; ET7 = 2; ET8 = 15; ET9 = 6

Enhanced closeness. As described in Table 24, 2 coaches and 21 athletes reported enhanced direct perceptions of closeness (in 27 extracts) as a result of participating in CARE – Part 1. Male and female participants from all sport types (except female individual sport) reported enhanced direct closeness. There was also representation in this group from all but one of the Enneagram types in the sample (i.e., type 5).

One athlete A41(MI)2 identified enhanced interpersonal liking of his coach stating: "*We have become friends off the course*." Nine athletes reported enhanced trust of their coach. For instance, A25(FT)2 stated: "*I trust him more because now I understand a lot more about how he is*", while B10(MT)8 responded: "*I have more confidence in what he says now*."

Table 24

Enhanced Direct Perceptions of Closeness

Theme	Sub-theme (Code)	Number of respondents	Number of extracts	Gender (M/F)	Sport type	Enneagram types (ET)
Enhanced direct closeness	Enhanced interpersonal liking of the other	Athlete = 1	1	M = 1	MI = 1	2
	Enhanced trust of the other	Athlete = 9	9	M = 5 F = 4	MI = 2 MT = 3 FT = 4	1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9
	Enhanced respect for the other	Athlete = 6	6	M = 3 F = 3	MT = 3 FT = 3	1, 2, 7, 8
	Enhanced appreciation of the other	Coach = 2 Athlete = 9	11	M = 8 F = 3	MI = 4 MT = 4 FT = 3	1, 2, 4, 8, 9
Total enhanced direct closeness		Coach = 2 Athlete = 21 Total = 23 (43%)	27	M = 16 F = 7	M/FI = 5 MT = 11 FT = 7	ET1 = 2 ET2 = 3 ET3 = 3 ET4 = 2 ET7 = 1 ET8 = 10 ET9 = 2

Four of the aforementioned nine athletes related their enhanced trust to a greater awareness and realisation of their coach's benevolent intentions. As indicated by A31(FT)8: "*I am less guarded and more trusting to his methods. I understand he has good intentions*" and B12(MI)9 stated: "*I feel that my coach has my best interests at heart, and not his best interests.*"

Six athletes reported an enhanced respect for their coach. As B21(FT)2 described this respect: "*I can now find common grounds with my coach since I know her in that level and can freely have a conversation with her. It is no longer bound by intimidation but respect and acceptance.*" Two coaches and nine athletes reported enhanced appreciation of the other. As coach participant A10(FT)F8 stated about her athletes: "*I feel a great appreciation for their patience in dealing with someone like myself*", and A1(MT)M3: "*I appreciate my athletes much more.*" Two athletes in A1(MT)M3's team reported co-orientated perceptions of enhanced appreciation. For example, A2(MT) stated: "*Yes it has changed the way I see and think about him… now I've realized that he actually always wants the best and sees the best and is doing everything that he can to get us to perform the best.*" Athlete B12(MI)9, described an appreciation of his coach's benevolent motivations resulting from an awareness of his coach's perfectionist (referring to his Enneagram type 1) personality:

> *I now understand that my coach does not purposefully mean to always hassle us in terms of knowing the basics. Being a perfectionist is in his nature and he is only trying to imprint good self-help skills into us for us to improve. I now understand that he is not necessarily being pushy, but being helpful in his own way.*

Another athlete, A25(FT)2, described her increased insight into her coach's style of coaching and her appreciation of his willingness to learn and adapt to her personality (i.e., 'someone like me'): "*It helped me understand why he reacts the way he does and coaches the way he does and why he needs to learn to coach someone like me and it's nice to see him trying and learning.*"

For the theme of enhanced meta-perceptions of closeness only one respondent/extract could be identified. This was A41(MI)2's statement of enhanced personal liking between him and his coach: "*We have become friends off the course.*"

Enhanced commitment. As outlined in Table 25, one coach and six athletes reported enhanced direct perceptions of CAR commitment (in seven extracts) as a result of participating in CARE – Part 1. Both male and female participants from all sport types reported enhanced direct perceptions of commitment. All Enneagram types in the sample except types 2, 5 and 7 were represented.

Describing a closer and more committed partnership with his athlete, A36(M/FI)1M stated: "*We are now more focused as we have the same goals. The relationship is stronger as we know each other better.*" His athlete, A2.8(MI)9 , reported a co-orientated perception of enhanced direct commitment stating: "*I know that he is always giving his best. That really puts me at ease and makes me want to work harder not just for myself but for my coach as well.*"

Two athletes reported an enhanced intention to develop a lasting relationship with their coach. As A12(FT)8 stated: "*I have always respected her and backed her decisions. I will however be more committed.*"

Table 25

Enhanced Direct Perceptions of Commitment

Theme	Sub-theme (Code)	Number of respondents	Number of extracts	Gender (M/F)	Sport type	Enneagram types (ET)
Enhanced direct commitment	Enhanced intention to develop a close partnership with the other	Coach = 1 Athlete = 1	2	M = 2	M/FI = 1 MI = 1	1, 9
	Enhanced intention to develop a lasting partnership with the other	Athlete = 2	2	M = 1 F = 1	MI = 1 FT = 1	8, 9
	Enhanced perception of having a promising career with the other	Athlete = 3	3	M = 1 F = 2	MT = 1 FT = 2	1, 3, 4
Total enhanced direct commitment		Coach = 1 Athlete = 6 Total = 7 (13%)	7	M = 4 F = 3	M/FI = 4 MT = 1 FT = 2	ET1 = 2 ET3 = 1 ET4 = 1 ET8 = 2 ET9 = 1

Three athletes described an enhanced perception of having a promising career with their coach and related this to enhanced trust. For example, A2(MT)1stated: "*I feel more open to approach my coach now and also back him more and trust him more to handle me as an athlete and my future as an athlete.*" A28(FT)3 stated: "*I believe my coach has good intentions and will benefit me as a player*", while A35(FT)4 reported: "*I feel he wants the best for us as a team and will get us to where he would like us to be.*"

Support for meta commitment is found in A36(M/FI)1M's above description of having the same goals as his athlete, and A2.8(MI)9's co-orientated view of his coach always giving his best.

Enhanced complementarity. As identified in Table 26, seven coaches and 29 athletes reported enhanced direct perceptions of complementarity (in 61 extracts) as a result of participating in CARE – Part 1. Both male and female participants from all sport types reported enhanced direct complementarity and all Enneagram types except for type 5 were represented.

Table 26

Enhanced Direct Perceptions of Complementarity

Theme	Sub-theme (Code)	Number of respondents	Number of extracts	Gender (M/F)	Sport type	Enneagram types (ET)
Enhanced direct complementarity	Enhanced willingness to cooperate with the other	Coach = 4 Athlete = 12	24	M = 8 F = 8	M/FI = 2 MI = 2 MT = 4 FT = 8	1, 2, 3, 8, 9
	Enhanced responsiveness to the other	Coach = 5 Athlete = 14	24	M = 13 F = 6	M/FI = 1 MI = 3 MT = 8 FT = 7	1, 3, 8, 9
	Enhanced sense of being relaxed with the other	Coach = 1 Athlete = 10	16	M = 6 F = 5	MI = 5 MT = 1 FT = 5	1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9
	Enhanced friendliness towards the other	Coach = 2 Athlete = 1	3	M = 2 F = 1	MI = 1 MT = 1 FT = 1	2, 3, 8
Total enhanced direct complementarity		Coach = 7 Athlete = 29 Total = 36 (67%)	61	M = 21 F = 15	M/FI = 10 MT = 10 FT = 16	ET1 = 6 ET2 = 5 ET3 = 5 ET4 = 2 ET7 = 1 ET8 = 15 ET9 = 3

Four coaches and 12 athletes identified an enhanced willingness to cooperate with the other. For instance, coach A1(MT)3M identified an increased willingness to adapt his approach

based on changes in his perceptions of athletes: "*Yes, it has definitely changed the way I think and see my athletes. It has made me more aware of how I can get more out of them by changing my approach.*" A10(FT)8F referred specifically to cooperating more with athletes based on an increased awareness of personality: "*I'm constantly thinking about their personalities and how to use my own to work together better.*"

One of A10(FT)8F's athletes, A14(FT)1, described her co-orientated, enhanced willingness to cooperate with her coach, also based on an awareness and understanding of personality type:

> *With my coach having a strong personality type, I try be more considerate to the way she feels, and as I said before, it makes me take a step back and try understand why she feels the way she does about a certain situation before putting my input in, as I would always want to support her and make her feel good about any given situation.*

Similarly, referring to the influence of personality type awareness on enhanced cooperativeness in the CAR, A31(FT)8 stated: "*I have realised that we share the same personality and at times it could be the cause of conflict. I am more understanding now as to his views and opinions*" and in another extract from the same athlete: "*I have always been respectful, but I now approach him in a more open minded manner.*"

Five coaches and 14 athletes reported enhanced responsiveness to their athletes. For example, A17(M/FI)3M described an increased responsiveness to his athletes' emotions and enhanced awareness of adapting his coaching behaviour to improve athletes' confidence:

It has changed me in a way where I am now way more interested in how my

athlete feels emotionally. Also I have become more aware and trying to find out if

I'm engaging with the athlete and am I fulfilling what they are wanting to get out.

Am I answering their questions and making them believe they are improving or

will be improving?

A23(FT)8M identified an increased responsiveness to his athletes based on an awareness of the preferences of their personality types: "*I am sensitive to the various personality types. Those who wanted to be pushed harder will get that but those who need more sensitivity and space will get that.*" Athletes also identified how insight into their coach's personality and motivations contributed to their enhanced responsiveness. As B7(MT)1 explained: "*I understand the way he reacts and handles situations by knowing which personality type he has and I know how to handle situations with my coach much more efficiently if they arise.*" A14(FT)1 also stated: "*I feel more considerate towards her and I feel that I can relate to her more after gaining insight into why she is the way she is, and how she deals with situations.*" A2(MT)1 described an enhanced readiness to respond to his coach in performance efforts and in sharing emotions:

I have always given of my best to the coach but I feel now I can give that extra

when you think you've given all but have a little reserve left. I also am more

responsive now to the coach and almost share more in his emotion around the

sports field.

One coach and 10 athletes reported an enhanced sense of being relaxed with the other after participating in CARE – Part 1. For example, A32(FT)4 explained: "*I can behave more relaxed but also disciplined when asked to do.*" B21(FT)2 related her sense of ease in communication with her coach to a new shared understanding or common ground: "*I can now find common grounds with my coach since I know her in that level and can freely have a conversation with her.*" Two coaches and one athlete reported an enhanced friendliness towards the other. As A1(MT)3M stated: "*I have changed my demeanour and have tried to give them more positive feedback on a 1-on-1 basis.*"

As identified in Table 27, one coach and five athletes reported enhanced meta-perceptions of complementarity. Male individual and female team participants reported enhanced meta complementarity and all Enneagram types but for types 3, 5 and 7 were represented.

Two athletes described an enhanced willingness from their coach to cooperate with them. A2.8(MI)9 stated that: "*I believe my coach to be more open-minded than ever before.*" In another extract he attributed this enhanced complementarity to an awareness of personality type: "*I feel we understand each other better and know where our personalities can help each other.*" Two athletes identified an enhanced responsiveness from their coach. A35(FT)4 associated her coach's more responsive communication with a meta-awareness of personality type: "*He has also been more aware of our different personality types in the way he communicates.*" B23(FT)8 described a mutual responsiveness in the CAR: "*We are closer now cause we now know where one lacks and where one needs help and she helps me work on it.*"

A36(M/FI)1M described his athletes as being more relaxed with him as a result of adapting his coaching style to their personalities. In this regard he stated: "*Understanding my athletes' personality gives me information on how to coach them so that they feel more*

comfortable." A2.8(MI)9 confirmed his coach's meta-perceptions and described a mutual sense

of being more relaxed with A36(M/FI)1M: "*We are more comfortable… I believe we are more at*

ease with each other."

Table 27

Enhanced Meta-Perceptions of Complementarity

Theme	Sub-theme (Code)	Number of respondents	Number of extracts	Gender (M/F)	Sport type	Enneagram types (ET)
Enhanced meta complementarity	Enhanced willingness of other to cooperate with self	Athlete = 2	4	M = 1 F = 1	MI = 1 FT = 1	2, 9
	Enhanced responsiveness from the other	Athlete = 2	2	F = 2	FT = 2	4, 8
	Enhanced sense of the other being relaxed with self	Coach = 1 Athlete = 1	2	M = 1	M/FI = 1 MI = 1	3, 9
	Enhanced friendliness from the other towards self	Athlete = 1	1	M = 1	MI = 1	2
Total enhanced meta complementarity		Coach = 1 Athlete = 5 (11%)	9	M = 3 F = 3	M/FI = 3 FT = 3	ET1 = 1 ET2 = 2 ET4 = 1 ET8 = 1 ET9 = 1

Summary of Theoretical Thematic Analysis – Open-ended Surveys

Results from the theoretical thematic analysis are summarised next. Further discussion

and integration of these results will follow in Chapter Eight where results from phase one and

phase two are integrated.

As outlined in Table 28, the theoretical thematic analysis of coach and athlete survey

responses found considerable support for CARE – Part 1's enhancement of direct perceptions of

closeness and complementarity. A degree of support was also found for enhanced direct

commitment and meta complementarity. Survey responses did not identify enhanced meta-

perceptions of closeness and commitment.

Table 28

Summary of Theoretical Thematic Survey Analysis

CAR Quality Dimension	Enhanced closeness		Enhanced commitment		Enhanced complementarity	
% Coaches & Athletes	Direct	Meta	Direct	Meta	Direct	Meta
	43%	< 1%	13%	< 1%	67%	11%

Enhanced closeness. For direct CAR closeness coaches reported a greater appreciation

of their athletes while athletes reported increased liking, trust, respect and appreciation of their

coach. Athletes related their enhanced closeness to a realisation of their coaches' benevolent

intentions based on enhanced awareness and understanding of their coach's motivations,

personality type and coaching style.

Enhanced commitment. Within the dimension of direct CAR commitment athletes

reported a stronger intention to develop a lasting relationship with their coach. Athletes also

described a greater sense of having a promising career with their coach and related this to

increased trust in the CAR. One coach-athlete dyad demonstrated co-orientated enhanced meta-

perceptions of commitment in their relationship.

Enhanced complementarity. For direct CAR complementarity coaches reported being

more cooperative, responsive and friendly towards their athletes and related this to an increased

awareness of athletes' emotions, individual needs and personality-based preferences. Similarly,

athletes described enhanced cooperativeness, responsiveness, sense of being relaxed, and

friendliness towards their coach. Athletes related this enhanced direct complementarity to an

increased awareness and understanding of their coaches' personality type and motivations and to

a new shared understanding within the CAR.

Enhanced co-orientation. The theoretical thematic analyses found support for enhanced

co-orientation in the form of actual similarity (i.e., corresponding coach and athlete enhanced

direct perceptions of CAR quality). As represented in Figure 23, a similar percentage of the

respective coach and athlete samples reported enhanced direct perceptions of closeness,

commitment and complementarity.
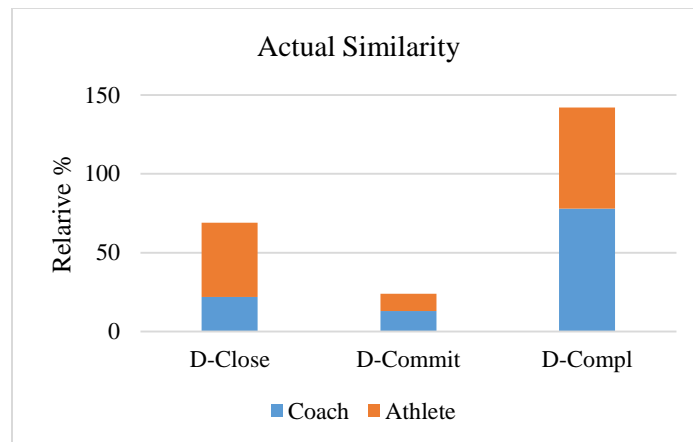
Figure 23. Enhanced co-orientation for coach-athlete dyads (qualitative).

It is worth noting that survey questions were not designed to explore meta-perceptions of

CAR quality (see Appendix D). This very likely contributed to the limited support in survey

responses for enhanced meta-perceptions of CAR quality as was found in the quantitative results

of phase one.

Inductive Thematic Analysis – Open-ended Surveys

This section presents the results of the inductive thematic analysis of coach and athlete

survey responses. An overview of analysis results is provided in Figure 24. An inductive analysis

was conducted to identify themes, related to the impact of CARE – Part 1 on the CAR and CAR

quality, but which did not necessarily fall within the theoretical analysis framework. This

provided a rich analysis of the entire data set that complements the detailed focus of the

predetermined 3+1Cs framework with a broader view of participants' experiences.

Inductive Thematic Analysis

Main Theme
Enhanced Understanding of the other in the CAR
Sub-Themes:
- General understanding of the other
- Athletes' individuality
- Coach's thinking, feeling and behaviour
- Communication with the other in the CAR
- Motivation for the other's behaviour

Main Theme
Enhanced Self-awareness
Sub-Themes:
- General self-awareness
- Adaptive and maladaptive behaviour
- Motivation for own behaviour
- Adaptive behaviour change

Main Theme
Enhanced Team Relationships
Sub-Themes:
- Understanding team members
- Team cohesion
- Motivation for team members' behaviour
- Communication between team members

Figure 24. Themes for coach and athlete survey thematic analyses.

As outlined in Figure 24, three main themes emerged during the analysis including enhanced understanding of the other in the CAR, enhanced self-awareness and enhanced team relationships. These are described next with illustrative extracts and table summaries.

Enhanced understanding of the other in the CAR. An overview of results for the theme of enhanced understanding of the other in the CAR is presented in Table 29.

Table 29

Enhanced Understanding of the Other in the CAR

Theme	Sub-theme	Number of respondents	Number of extracts	Gender (M/F)	Sport type	Enneagram types (ET)
Enhanced under-standing of the other in the CAR	General understanding of the other	Coach = 4 Athlete = 14	20	M = 10 F = 8	M/FI = 3 MI = 2 MT = 5 FT = 8	1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 9
	Athletes' individuality	Coach = 7	9	M = 5 F = 2	M/FI = 3 MT = 1 FT = 3	1, 3, 8
	Coach's thinking, feeling and behaviour	Athlete = 10	12	M = 2 F = 9	FI = 2 MT = 2 FT = 7	1, 2, 4, 8, 9
	Communication with the other in the CAR	Coach = 5 Athlete = 5	12	M = 7 F = 3	M/FI = 3 MI = 2 FI = 1 MT = 1 FT = 3	1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9
	Motivation for the other's behaviour	Coach = 1 Athlete = 19	25	M = 13 F = 7	MI = 4 FI = 1 MT = 9 FT = 6	1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9
Total enhanced understanding of other in the CAR		Coach = 8 Athlete = 34 Total = 42 (78%)	79	M = 23 F = 19	MF/I = 4 MI = 9 FI = 1 MT = 11 FT = 17	ET1 = 10 ET2 = 5 ET3 = 3 ET5 = 1 ET7 = 1 ET8 = 17 ET9 = 5

As indicated, 8 coaches and 34 athletes demonstrated this theme (in 79 different extracts).

Responses are divided into five sub-themes. Both male and female participants representing all

sport types, as well as all Enneagram types present in the sample, identified enhanced

understanding of the other in the CAR as a result of participating in CARE – Part 1.

General understanding of the other. Four coaches and 14 athletes identified a general

enhanced understanding of the other in the CAR. For example, A17(M/FI)3M responded: "*It has*

given me a more personal understanding of my athlete. In the past I kept the personal side

separate. Having now a slight greater personal understanding I feel I can be more impactful as a

coach." B1(MT)8M referred to a better understanding of his athletes' behaviour: "*gives me*

better understanding of their behaviour and reactions to certain things." One of his athletes,

B8(MT)9, echoed his coach's enhanced understanding stating: "*I still respect him just as he is I*

just understand him better now." Athletes identified a mutual understanding with their coach

based on shared awareness of personality. As A41(MI)2 stated: "*It strengthened my relationship*

with my coach as I believe it gave us a greater understanding of each other's personalities."

Similarly A29(FT)2 responded: "*I think it has made the team to coach relationship closer as we*

all have a better understanding of each other's personalities."

Athletes' individuality. Seven coaches described a greater awareness of athletes'

individuality. As A17(M/FI)3M stated: "*I am now aware that not all are like me. Yes athletes*

want to win, but show it and act in different ways." B1(MT)8M simply stated: "*I see my athletes*

more as individuals." Three coaches identified how understanding personality type makes it

easier to adapt coaching behaviour to athletes' individual needs. As A36(M/FI)1M reported:

"*The personality of the athlete is important as it creates the need for a certain approach to*

coaching them. Not all individuals have the same needs and it makes it easier to understand

these needs." Similarly, A23(FT)8M described developing an individualised coaching approach

based on understanding personality type:

> *It makes me look at more than just the technical and tactical side of my athlete, it*
>
> *makes me think that the effort they are putting in can't be rated on a blanket*
>
> *rating but rather needs to be looked at from an individual scale according to*
>
> *personality type.*

Coach's thinking, feeling and behaviour. Eleven athletes identified an enhanced

understanding of their coach's thinking, feeling and behaviour. Three of these athletes made

specific reference to better understanding their coach's thinking and expectations. A24(FT)1

stated: "*It's given me an opportunity to understand the mind mechanics of my coach…*" and

A20(FI): "*It helped me understand… his possible expectations of me.*" Two athletes reported an

enhanced understanding of their coach's feelings and a connection between their own behaviour

and those emotions. B8(MT)9 stated: "*I behave different because I know how he sees things and*

how he feels about things now", while A2(MT)1 responded: "*I also see the frustrations he goes*

through and also how I frustrate him by actions that trigger behaviours in him."

Six of the athletes described a better understanding of their coach's behaviour and overall

coaching style. A34(FT)8 linked this understanding to personality type awareness: "*It has made*

me understand his coaching style a lot more, especially the way he engages with each player.

His coaching style is highly reflecting of his personality type." Athletes also made reference to an

enhanced awareness of their coach's specific traits. As B16(FT)9 explained: "*It has made me see*

her more as a protector than I did before and I understand her personality a little bit better."

One athlete, B21(FT)2, reported an enhanced acceptance of her coach's actions: "*It made me to come to an understanding of my coach… and also to come to an acceptance of her reactions and decisions.*"

Communication with the other in the CAR. Five coaches and five athletes reported improved communication with the other in the CAR related to an enhanced understanding of them. As B11(MI)1M explained: "*Showed me, by knowing the athlete better, it allows me to get the topic across, so much faster.* Similarly, A17(M/FI)3M reported, "*It has definitely made a big impact on me as a coach. Giving me more insight to my athletes and opened doors and pathways of communication which were not open before.*" One of his athletes, A20(FI)1, echoed this view and referred to personality type awareness in enhanced communication with him and the team: "*It enabled me to have a better understanding of how to communicate with my team and coach due to their different personality types.*" A29(FT)2 also connected enhanced communication with personality type awareness: "*It helped me get a better understanding of where he may come from in certain situations, and how to confront him as I know his personality type.*"

Motivation for the other's behaviour. One coach and 19 athletes described an enhanced understanding of the motivation for the other's behaviour. Coach A10(FT)8F reported: "*…we all found out why each of us act in a certain way to particular situations, so knowing that we understand each other a lot better*" and in a further response: "*I can be both stern and goal driven and very professional, with everyone having complete understanding as to why.*"

Fourteen athletes described a general insight into their coach's motivations. For example, B7(MT)1 reported: "*Yes, it has helped understand why he responds to certain situations in certain ways*" and A26(FI)9 stated: "*I feel a greater understanding of why he tries to motivate me and push me towards achieving goals.*" Two athletes referred to an awareness of the specific

traits and motivations of their coach's personality type. A9(MT)8 stated: "*I now understand that him pushing us and going so hard at us is because he is very success driven and he'd do anything to succeed*", and A19(MI)8 stated: "*I now know why my coach always pushes us to be the best as he has a very competitive personality and is used to being the best at what he does and pushes us to do the same.*" Both of the two aforementioned athletes are coached by Enneagram type THREEs and are accurately describing some of common traits and motivations of that type (i.e., success driven, competitive, being the best.).

For three athletes an enhanced awareness of their coach's motivations also resulted in a heightened perception of their coach's benevolence. For example, A2(MT)1 describing a change in perception of his coach, reported:

> *Yes it has changed the way I see and think about him. I used to see him as a dictator and a hard, stubborn person. But now I've realized that he actually always wants the best and sees the best and is doing everything that he can to get us to perform the best…*

Three athletes associated a shared awareness of motivation with clarified expectations in the CAR. As A11(FT)1 described: "*...it has created a better understanding of what is expected from each other, and why someone would react to situations differently to others.*"

Enhanced self-awareness. An overview of results for enhanced self-awareness is provided in Table 30. As described, 8 coaches and 45 athletes demonstrated this theme (in 159 extracts) in describing the impact of CARE – Part 1. Both male and female participants of all

sport types, as well as all Enneagram types present in the sample, identified enhanced self-awareness. Responses are divided into four sub-themes.

Table 30

Enhanced Self-awareness

Theme	Sub-theme	Number of respondents	Number of extracts	Gender (M/F)	Sport type	Enneagram types (ET)
Enhanced self-awareness	General self-awareness	Coach = 4 Athlete = 37	59	M = 22 F = 19	M/FI = 3 MI = 6 FI = 3 MT = 13 FT = 16	1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9
	Adaptive and maladaptive behaviour	Coach = 8 Athlete = 29	56	M = 15 F = 22	M/FI = 3 FI = 2 MT = 7 FT = 21	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9
	Motivation for own behaviour	Coach = 3 Athlete = 14	19	M = 11 F = 6	M/FI = 3 MI = 2 FI = 1 MT = 6 FT = 5	1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9
	Adaptive behaviour change	Coach = 7 Athlete = 15	25	M = 5 F = 2	M/FI = 4 MT = 1 FT = 2	1, 2, 3, 8
Total enhanced self-awareness		Coach = 9 Athlete = 45 (100%)	159	M = 29 F = 25	MF/I = 4 MI = 7 FI = 3 MT = 17 FT = 23	ET1 = 12 ET2 = 6 ET3 = 5 ET4 = 2 ET5 = 2 ET7 = 2 ET8 = 19 ET9 = 6

General self-awareness. Four coaches and 37 athletes described an enhanced general self-awareness as a result of participating in CARE – Part 1. A10(FT)8F stated: "*I also feel like I know myself better*", while B11(MI)1M responded: "*Made me understand my way of approaching tasks and life.*" Five athletes also described their enhanced self-awareness in its

most general sense. For example, B2(MT)8 stated: "*I would say I have become a lot more self-aware*" and B13(MI)1: "*…I am more self-aware of my personality…*"

Three athletes described an enhanced general awareness of their behaviour. As A16(FT)9 reported: "*I'm more aware of how I interact with others, especially those with different personality types to me.*" Another four athletes described it as a form of self-recognition. For example, A35(FT)4 stated: "*It has confirmed my thoughts about my personality and helped me understand myself better.*"

Twenty athletes described their enhanced self-awareness as a form of self-discovery. For example, B23(FT)8 explained: "*The overall impact is quite great as I have discovered things that I was never aware of*" and A31(FT)8 similarly reported: "*It was definitely an eye opener seeing and discovering more aspects to myself than I initially thought.*" Three athletes also associated their enhanced self-awareness with a change in self-perception. As A7(MT)1 said: "*Helped me re-evaluate myself after injury and setbacks*" and A19(MI)8 stated: "*I would say it changed the way I think regarding myself...*" Finally, 13 athletes referred to a greater level of self-understanding. For example: A26(FI)9 stated: "*I have a better understanding of who I am, what my needs are...*", while B3(MT)7 described understanding himself better in relation to his own and his coach's mental state: "*It gives me a better understanding as to how I react to training, my coach's and my mental state with regards to my cricket.*"

Adaptive and maladaptive behaviour. Eight coaches and 29 athletes identified a greater self-awareness of their adaptive and maladaptive behaviour. A17(M/FI)3M referred specifically to the importance of avoiding an over-reliance on his Enneagram type patterns:

So I need to be who I am but have to be aware who they are and limit some

tendencies of my enneagram type to connect better with the athlete. Getting them

to use their strengths in the best way to improve their sport and abilities.

Also referring to the importance of a flexibility of Enneagram type behaviour,

B15(FT)8F described: "*The realization that in order to be a good coach, you probably have to*

be a bit of every Enneagram type" and in another response: "*It's important to have a good sense*

of self. Knowing my strengths and learning how to counter my weaknesses, to me is fundamental

to being in any leadership position". Four coaches reported a general awareness of their

strengths and weaknesses. A36(M/FI)1M reported: "*I now understand my strengths and*

weaknesses" and A10(FT)8 stated: "*I have realised and accepted my weaknesses…*"

Seven athletes referred specifically to recognising adaptive and maladaptive behaviour

within the CAR itself. For instance, A14(FT)1 described responding to her coach's behaviour

with an awareness of personality in mind:

I realise that it may not always be me doing wrong, but rather the way in which

she approaches and deals with situations. I respect coaches a lot and need to

consider their personality traits before taking something they've said to heart.

Similarly A2.8(MI)9 described using an awareness of his adaptive and maladaptive

behaviour to enhance the CAR: "*I understand what my strengths and weaknesses are, and how I*

should use them to get the most out of the time I spend with my coach." Five athletes identified

an enhanced awareness of more adaptive behaviour in the performance context. For example,

A24(FT)1 stated: "*…it allowed me to have a greater understanding of how my personality type contributes towards my performance both in and out the pool*", while A12(FT)8 responded: "*It has made me be more aware of how to deal with situations within a game or practice.*" Six athletes identified more adaptive behaviour through an awareness of personality type. As A31(FT)8 reported: "*It was also informative to know how to deal with the personality types… I now look at some of my team mates differently as I now understand certain things they do more than what I did before.*"

Fifteen athletes within this sub-theme reported an enhanced awareness of their adaptive and maladaptive behaviour within relationships more generally. For example, B27(MI)3 reported: "*It gave me a more in depth understanding on my strengths and weakness and how to use it in different situations*", while A35(FT)4 stated: "*It has made me more aware of my personality and how it affects my personal life and relationship with others and to appreciate things more.*"

Motivation for own behaviour. Three coaches and 14 athletes described an enhanced awareness of the motivation for their own behaviour. For example, A1(MT)3M described how CARE – Part 1 had affirmed his passion and actions as a coach: "*It has verified some of the feelings and passion I have for the sport of hockey. I now have more conviction in my actions and there is a method behind the madness.*" B26(MI)2M reported a greater awareness of his worldview and its influence on behaviour: "*Yes, made a difference. Received more clarity about why I see the world the way I do and how that impacts on my views, interactions and decisions.*"

Two athletes referred specifically to recognising their motivation as individual athletes. B7(MT)1 stated: "*As an athlete it is great to know why you react a specific way to specific situations*" and A2(MT)1 responded: "*The training session has opened my eyes as to what*

triggers me as an athlete." Two athletes identified a greater awareness of their motivation as team members. As B18(FT)8 indicated: "*It gave me a chance to see why I make decisions regarding the team and my type of commitment and play*."

Ten athletes identified an enhanced awareness of the motivation underpinning their general patterns of thinking, feeling and behaviour. In describing the overall impact of CARE – Part 1 A34(FT)8 explained: "*Great difference, as now I have more understanding surrounding my personality and traits, and as to why I react to certain situations in a certain manner*." A5(MT)8 simply stated: "*I understand why I think and do things in certain ways now*."

Adaptive behaviour change. Seven coaches and 15 athletes reported adaptive behaviour change related to their increased self-awareness of personality type. As A36(M/FI)1M described: "*The fact that you now understand your own personality better, I can make improved discussions when it comes to how I coach my athletes and how I put my information across*". Similarly, A17(M/FI)3M stated: "*It has also encouraged me to find out how I can use the positives and find areas where my positives and strengths will be more impactful to those I coach and work with*". Furthermore, B26(M/FI)2M described adapting his coaching style to the personality traits of his athlete: "*Able to plan training, discussions and interventions based on his personal traits*."

Four athletes described developing more adaptive behaviour in performance and training contexts. For example, A35(FT)4 explained: "*I try to take personal emotions out of practice times and focus on the task at hand without being too hard on myself*" and A19(MI)8 stated: "*I now understand more about my own weaknesses and strengths and can adjust my game accordingly*." A14(FT)1 described adapting her communication in a team context based on an awareness of others' feelings and thoughts:

It makes me consider their feelings about a situation before giving my input, as I

would now word my thoughts and feelings in a more considerate and uplifting

manner to not upset any of them or feel that I am isolating them based on their

feelings or thoughts about a certain situation.

Eleven athletes described a more general adaptive behaviour change, with some athletes

including areas of their lives outside of the CAR and sport context. B13(MI)1 responded: "*I am*

able to compromise with others as I understand that I like things my way but others need to be

considered" and A9(MT)8 said: "*It also improved my all round relationships as I feel that I am*

more aware of my dominant personality."

Enhanced team relationships. An overview of results for enhanced team relationships is

provided in Table 31. As described, nine coaches and 40 athletes demonstrated this theme (in

121 extracts) in describing the impact of CARE – Part 1. Both male and female participants of all

sport types, as well as all Enneagram types represented in the sample, identified enhanced team

relationships. Responses are divided into four sub-themes.

Understanding team members. Twenty-three athletes described an improved

understanding of their team mates after participating in CARE – Part 1. Eleven athletes identified

a better general understanding of their peers. As B19(FT)5 stated: "*It has made me understand*

my teammates more and what kind of people they are." Eight athletes referred specifically to an

enhanced understanding of their team members' patterns of thinking, feeling and behaviour. For

example, A16(FT)9 stated: "*I feel like I understand the way my team mates interpret and*

respond to certain situations better" and B8(MT)9 simply said: "*I understand how they feel."*

A39(MI)8 described his changed perception of his team mates: "*I now look at some of my team*

mates differently as I now understand certain things they do more than what I did before." Four

athletes also described a better understanding of their team members' adaptive and maladaptive

behaviour. As B21(FT)2 explained: "*I now know my teammates well, their weaknesses and*

strengths…"

Table 31

Enhanced Team Relationships

Theme	Sub-theme	Number of respondents	Number of extracts	Gender (M/F)	Sport type	Enneagram types (ET)
Enhanced team relationships	Understanding team members	Athlete = 23	31	M = 13 F = 10	MI = 6 FI = 2 MT = 7 FT = 8	1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9
	Team cohesion	Coach = 8 Athlete = 20	33	M = 18 F = 10	MF/I = 3 MI = 4 FI = 1 MT = 10 FT = 10	1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9
	Motivation for team members' behaviour	Coach = 2 Athlete = 16	22	M = 9 F = 9	MI = 3 MT = 6 FT = 9	1, 2, 7, 8, 9
	Communication between team members	Coach = 2 Athlete = 14	19	M = 6 F = 10	M/FI = 1 MI = 2 FI = 2 MT = 3 FT = 8	1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 9
Total enhanced team relationships		Coach = 9 Athlete = 40 (90%)	121	M = 27 F = 22	MF/I = 4 MI = 8 FI = 3 MT = 14 FT = 20	ET1 = 10 ET2 = 5 ET3 = 5 ET4 = 2 ET5 = 2 ET7 = 2 ET8 = 18 ET9 = 5

Team cohesion. Eight coaches and 20 athletes reported that a greater level of team

cohesion and closeness had resulted from CARE – Part 1. Five coaches made reference to the

shared awareness of Enneagram type that underpinned enhanced cohesion. For example,

B15(FT)8F stated: "*Some of them are a lot closer now that they've realized that they're the same*

Enneagram type." A17(M/FI)3M described a greater mutual acceptance between team members

based on an awareness of Enneagram type traits:

> *Also there is a bit of understanding between them and they seem to be accepting*
>
> *who people are and their characteristic traits. With them all now knowing the*
>
> *different enneagram types, what sometimes happens is they don't take things as*
>
> *serious because they brush it aside; to that is how the person is.*

From an athlete's perspective A4(MT)8 echoed the role of personality type awareness in

building cohesion: "*How to deal with various people with different personality types, this in the*

future will be of great help and boost our team cohesion." A2.8(MI)9 described an already

improved team spirit and empathy resulting from CARE – Part 1:

> *I believe it has built a lot of team spirit and empathy for the group and its*
>
> *individual members. It has taught us constructive criticism and how to deal with*
>
> *each person in their own way. I believe the team will also get along a lot better.*

Motivation for team members' behaviour. Two coaches and 16 athletes reported

improved team relationships based on an awareness of the motivation for behaviour through

knowing their Enneagram types. A10(FT)8F stated: "*HUGE differences, we make reference to*

people's types often and understand why they act in a certain way…", while B15(FT)8F

explained: "*They also understand when a certain player "acts out" on the field, it's because she sets high expectations for herself and in turn wants her team mates to have the same ambitions and goals as her.*" A21(MI)8 described gaining new perspective from discovering longstanding team members' Enneagram types and motivations:

> *It kind of puts things into perspective, I've spent a lot of time with my team mates, during varsity and school times and it's nice to see what they're classified as and I can see why they react to some situations differently than what the others do.*

Communication between team members. Two coaches and 14 athletes referred to the positive effect of Enneagram type awareness on communication between team members. B26(M/FI)2M reported: "*Participation in the course created an opportunity to learn more about each other's enneagrams and therefore improved communication…*" and A23(FT)8F stated: "*Its opened communication channels…*". Athletes described adapting communication based on Enneagram type awareness. As A32(FT)4 stated: "*…if any conflict or situation arises I can handle it according to how the person is and what their Enneagram type is*" and A26(FI)9 responded: "*By understanding my team mates' enneagrams it makes communication easier as I know what their needs are according to the enneagrams.*"

No change in the CAR. Ten athletes reported that the program had not changed either the way they behave in their coach's company or how they feel about their coach. However, five of the aforementioned athletes explained that their relationship was already positive before CARE – Part 1 and had continued that way. A12(FT)8 explained: "*Still feel close to her*", while

B2(MT)8 stated: "*It has not changed the way I behave. I have always carried myself well with my coach.*" No athletes reported a negative impact on their perceptions of CAR quality.

Summary of Inductive Thematic Analysis

Results from the inductive thematic analysis are summarised next. Further discussion and integration of results will follow in Chapter Eight. Table 32 summarises inductive themes related to the intervention effects of CARE – Part 1 that were in addition to those identified within the theoretical thematic analysis. A summary of each theme is then provided.

Table 32

Summary of Inductive Survey Analysis

Theme	Enhanced understanding of the other in the CAR	Enhanced self-awareness	Enhanced team relationships
% Participants Reporting Intervention Effects	78%	100%	90%

Enhanced understanding of the other in the CAR. Coaches reported how a better general understanding of athletes and a greater awareness of athletes' individuality supports them in delivering more effective coaching. Coaches identified how understanding athletes' personality types makes it easier to individualise their coaching approach to adapt to athletes' individual needs. Athletes similarly reported an improved general understanding of their coach and a mutual understanding within the CAR based on personality awareness. Athletes described an enhanced understanding of their coach's thinking, feeling and behaviour, including their coach's expectations and coaching style. Athletes were able to accurately identify the traits and motivations of their coach's Enneagram type.

Coaches as well as athletes reported enhanced communication and mutual understanding between each other based on a shared awareness of personality type and of the motivation for the other's behaviour. Athletes identified that this awareness heightened a perception of their coach's benevolence, and clarified expectations in the CAR.

Enhanced self-awareness. Coaches and athletes reported an improved general self-awareness including nuanced dimensions such as self-recognition, self-discovery, changes in self-perception and self-understanding. They also reported an enhanced awareness of their own adaptive and maladaptive behaviour. Coaches referred specifically to recognising their coaching strengths and weaknesses and of the importance of not over-relying on Enneagram type-specific behaviour. One coach recognised the influence of his worldview on his interpersonal behaviour, while a number of coaches and athletes described an enhanced awareness of the motivation for their patterns of thinking, feeling and behaviour.

Coaches as well as athletes associated an increased self-awareness of their Enneagram type with adaptive behaviour change and described using their personality strengths to improve the CAR. Athletes also described developing more adaptive behaviour in performance, training and team relationships, as well as other areas of their lives outside of the sport context.

Enhanced team relationships. Athletes described an improved general understanding of their team members as well as of their specific patterns of thinking, feeling and behaviour. Coaches and athletes described a greater level of team cohesion and closeness underpinned by a shared awareness of Enneagram type traits and motivations. Coaches specifically identified a mutual acceptance between team members based on an awareness of the motivations for each other's behaviour. Coaches and athletes reported enhanced team communication associated with adapting communication to personality type.

For all the above themes both male and female participants of all sport types as well as all Enneagram types present in the sample were represented.

Closing

This chapter has addressed phase one of Aim 2 of the study. The next chapter describes the quantitative and qualitative results for an evaluation of the total CARE intervention (CARE Parts 1 - 3). A description of quantitative data (CART-Q means) is presented first followed by a detailed theoretical and inductive thematic analysis of the focus group transcript.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESULTS - PHASE TWO

Introduction

This chapter addresses phase two of Aim 2 of the study and presents results of the quantitative and qualitative evaluation of the total CARE intervention's impact on perceptions of CAR quality as defined by the 3+1Cs model (Jowett, 2005; 2007).

Phase Two: Evaluation of the total CARE intervention (Parts 1 – 3)

Quantitative Results

While the sample (n = 8) of coaches and athletes for phase two did not allow for inferential statistical analyses Figure 25 and Figure 26 show there was a trend towards enhanced perceptions of CAR quality indicated by mean increases for all direct and meta CART-Q subscales and total scales.
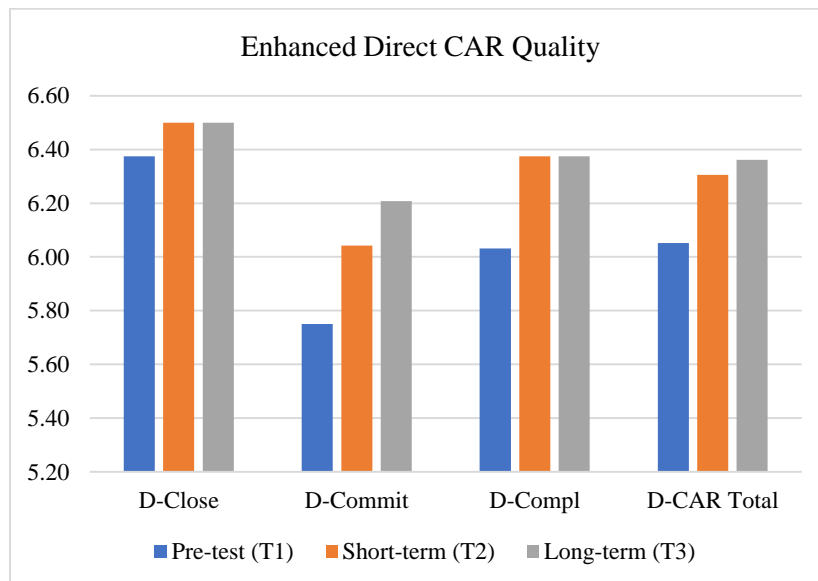
Figure 25. Total CARE intervention and direct CAR quality.

As indicated by Figure 25 there was a trend towards longer-term and short-term intervention effects for all direct CART-Q subscales and the total direct scale. A trend towards delayed intervention effects can also be noted for all scales except for direct closeness and complementarity.

Enhanced Meta CAR Quality
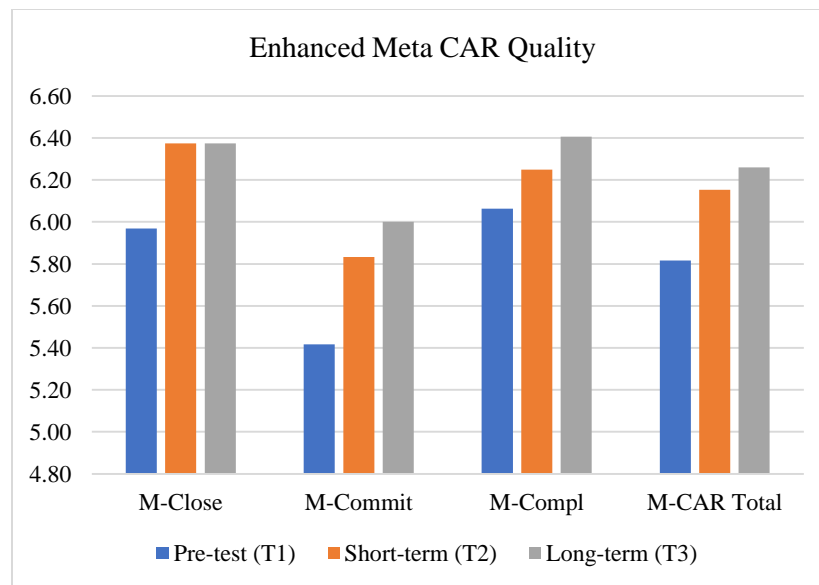
Figure 26. Total CARE intervention and meta CAR quality.

As indicated by Figure 26 there was a trend towards longer-term and short-term intervention effects for all meta CART-Q subscales and the total meta scale. A trend towards delayed intervention effects can also be noted for all scales except for meta closeness.

Enhanced co-orientation. The total CARE intervention's effect on the three aspects of co-orientation, i.e., assumed similarity, actual similarity and empathic understanding, was explored by describing the corresponding changes (between T1 and T3) in direct and meta CART-Q means for the four dyads in the sample. While the small sample did not permit statistical calculations, certain observations can be made from the data (see Table 33).

Table 33

Co-orientation of Coach-Athlete Dyad Perceptions (Total CARE Intervention)

	Coach (n = 4)				Athlete (n = 4)		
Subscale		Mean		Subscale		Mean	
	T1	T3	Diff.		T1	T3	Diff.
D-Close	6.38	6.56	.18	M-Close	5.81	6.13	0.32
D-Commit	5.75	6.17	.32	M-Commit	5.42	5.67	0.25
D-Compl	6.25	6.25	0	M-Compl	5.88	6.38	0.5
D-CAR Total	6.13	6.33	.20	M-CAR Total	5.7	6.06	0.36
M-Close	6.13	6.63	.50	D-Close	6.38	6.44	.06
M-Commit	5.42	6.00	.58	D-Commit	5.75	5.92	.17
M-Compl	6.25	6.13	-.12	D-Compl	5.81	6.50	.69
M-CAR Total	5.93	6.25	.32	D-CAR Total	5.98	6.28	.30

A trend towards enhanced assumed similarity is suggested by athletes' perceptions of themselves and their coaches as closer, more committed and more complementary. Coaches also perceived themselves and their athletes as closer and more committed. Enhanced actual similarity is thus indicated by corresponding mean increases for coaches' and athletes' direct closeness and commitment.

A trend towards greater empathic understanding is supported by an increase of coaches' direct perceptions of closeness and commitment and corresponding increases in athletes' meta-perceptions of closeness and commitment (see Figure 27).

Stated differently, athletes accurately perceived that their coaches felt closer and more committed to them. Similarly, athletes' perceptions of themselves as closer and more committed corresponded to their coaches' perceptions of them.
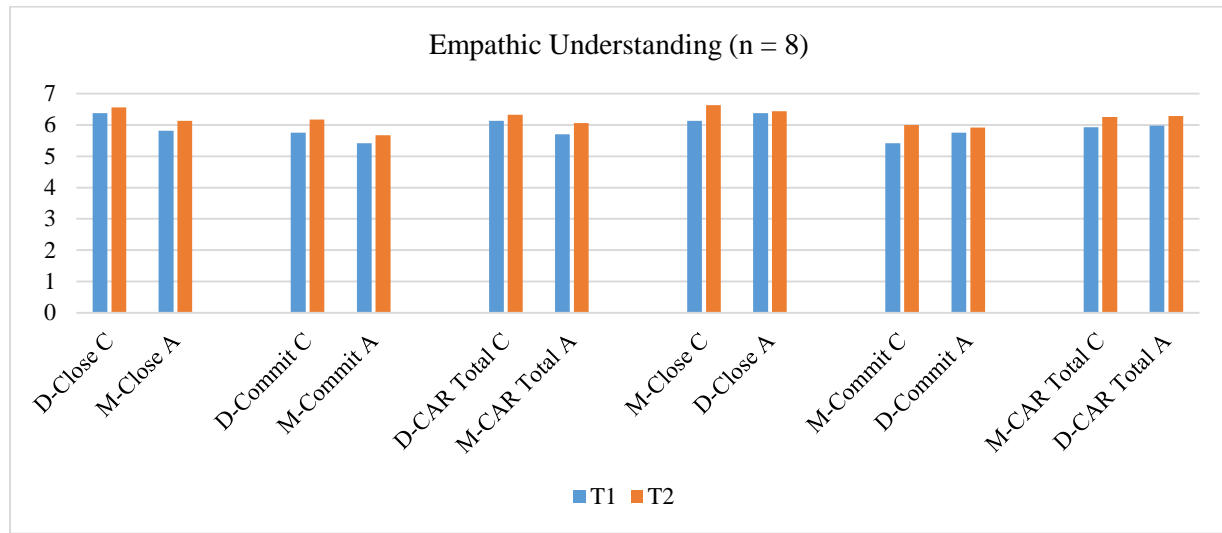
Figure 27. Enhanced co-orientation for coach-athlete dyads (total CARE intervention).

Summary of Quantitative Results

Descriptive quantitative analyses of CART-Q means for dyads who completed the total CARE intervention identified a trend towards overall enhanced CAR quality including enhanced direct and meta closeness, commitment and complementarity over the short and longer-term. A trend towards delayed intervention effects was also noted for all direct and meta CART-Q subscales and total scales except for meta closeness and direct complementarity. Furthermore, an analysis of corresponding mean differences suggests a trend towards enhanced co-orientation for the sample.

Qualitative Results

Theoretical thematic analysis – Focus group. Table 34 provides a description of the sample that participated in the focus group including subgroup, gender, sport type and Enneagram type. All participants except one coach (A23(FT)8M) had completed all three parts of the CARE intervention. Each theme within the theoretical analysis frameworks is discussed

with illustrative extracts from the focus group transcript and references to the three parts of the

CARE intervention where relevant. Where sufficient data were identified, results are presented in

descriptive tables for the relevant CAR quality dimension.

Table 34

Focus Group Sample Description

	Total Sample	Subgroup	Gender	Sport type	Enneagram Type (ET)
Coach	n = 4	Group A = 4	M = 4	M/FI = 2 MT = 1 FT = 1	ET1 = 1 ET3 = 2 ET8 = 1
Athlete	n = 1	Group A = 1	M = 1	MI = 1	ET9 = 1

Enhanced closeness. The athlete in the sample and one coach described (in five separate

extracts) enhanced direct closeness as increased trust of their coach/athlete. A2.8(MI)9

associated enhanced trust of his coach with gaining a better understanding of his coach's

motivations:

> *Yeah, it makes me trust it a lot more. And just I kind of know where*
>
> [*A36(M/FI)1M*] *is coming from. I understand. I kind of, I kind of see when he's*
>
> *with other people exactly the reasons why he's doing something, why he's trying*
>
> *to correct someone here or there.*

In a further explanation A2.8(MI)9 described the connection between awareness of his

coach's Enneagram type and enhanced trust of his coach's methods:

Because I know he's a 1 now, like he's… and his system and everything is in

place, I know that if he coaches me on one thing, it might not be the only thing I'm

doing wrong, but I know that he kind of has a plan or kind of knows the sequence

that he has to fix with me. Or I kind of know that he's always going to go

somewhere with it. It's not just going to be fixing something for something.

Both extracts demonstrate the athlete's awareness and understanding of his coach's Enneagram type 1 focus on systematic correction and improvement, resulting in enhanced direct closeness. A17(M/FI)3M also described enhanced trust of his athletes related to awareness of individual differences and a validation of alternative needs and approaches to that of his own (Enneagram type 3 personality):

You know so there's that bit of faith that you've got to allow, but also that leeway.

Because, realistically, they're not me. They're not the person that is going to

make that forty-five minutes count, like if I'm training by myself or something.

You know that's who I am. Um, but it doesn't mean it's who they are… but it

doesn't mean they're not going to get something out of it if I allow them to be who

they are.

For meta closeness three coaches identified (in a total of seven different extracts) an enhanced trust from their athletes towards self. For example, coach A1(MT)3M described an enhanced trust, tolerance and understanding from athletes who had also participated in CARE –

Part 1. A1(MT)3M identified how these athletes' trust is underpinned by awareness of his personality type:

> *I think it's, as a coach it's bought me some leeway. So, I can fly into somebody and they're 'O.K. woah…* [gestures with hands up in retreat] *we kind of understand where you're coming from now'. So, that has bought me a bit of leeway. So, on that side if I do lose my cool or if they're not doing what they're supposed to, it's O.K. The people that's attended* [referring to CARE – Part 1], *or the athletes will say, 'no, no, no that's how A1(MT)3M is. That's his personality type so don't take it personally'.*

A17(M/FI)3M also described an enhanced trust from his athletes based on their awareness of his personality: "*The way it came across from them attending this and then understanding who I am, they also now have confidence and understanding in me as a coach.*" A23(FT)8M described how a shared awareness of personality type and its impact on the CAR had resulted in more openness and trust from one of his athletes with whom he shares an Enneagram type:

> *Um, cos we figured out she's also an 8 So, we started to realise now, you know, perhaps there's been a struggle for power for both of us. And, um, all of a sudden we're having these fifteen minute conversations now after the training session, you know, 'what am I doing?', 'how can I improve this?'*

Enhanced commitment. The athlete in the sample and two coaches reported enhanced direct commitment (in five separate extracts). Describing an enhanced intention to develop a close partnership with the other A1(MT)3M explained how he, since starting the CARE intervention, had more actively tried to understand his athletes' motivations and to build closer relationships with them:

> *For me it's, it forced me a bit to get to know the players a little bit better, you know, to get a better understanding of where the person comes from. Uh, so I've actively since starting this, I've actively tried to get to know each one a little bit better… I've put more effort into, you know, starting a conversation, finding out how, you know, the… it's going with them for the day. So, small things, but I've actively tried to, you know, just to get a better relationship going with them*.

The theme of encouraging and focusing on emotional connection is consistent with a redefinition of A1(MT)3M's preferred strategy in CARE – Part 3 (see CARE Intervention: Session reviews – Appendix J). A2.8(MI)9 identified an enhanced intention to develop a lasting partnership with his coach and a commitment to his coach's guidance over the longer term:

> *Yeah, that's his style. That's… and I know that's gonna benefit me, like, if I actually just stick to it instead of like jumping around. So this guy tells me this another guy tells me this, 'don't do that, do that'. Forget about all of them and just whatever he says. If it works out for the first ten weeks it's not going to work*

out for those ten weeks, but I know that after the fifteenth week I might just start

hitting the ball better than ever.

A2.8(MI)9 also identified an enhanced perception of having a promising career with his coach and reiterated his greater belief in the benefits of his coach's systematic Enneagram type 1 approach:

So, I can't expect that in the first few days he's going to teach me how to be Rory

McIlroy [professional golfer]*, but I know he'll teach me the things I want to be*

taught if it's going to benefit me. I know it's going to be like a big system, but it

might be perfectly worked out already. I don't have to blow my mind on little

trivialities or trying to figure out where we are going with this now.

For meta commitment two coaches reported (in three extracts) an enhanced intention from their athletes to develop a lasting partnership with them. A36(M/FI)1M reported an increased commitment from A2.8(MI)9 to the CAR and simply stated: "*Well, it has changed because he comes to practice more.*" This view is co-orientated with A2.8(MI)9's direct perception of commitment identified earlier. Also describing an enhanced meta commitment from his athletes A23(FT)8M stated:

So, it's been quite interesting to see because, you know, last week it was… it was

terrible outside. It was raining and it was windy and the girls were there, they

were training harder than ever. And I think it's because, at the end of the day,

they seeing the long-term vision there. That's where they're partnering up now.

Enhanced complementarity. All five focus group participants described an enhanced direct complementarity (in a total of 34 extracts) across all four sub-themes (see Table 35).

Table 35

Enhanced Direct Perceptions of Complementarity (Total CARE Intervention)

Theme	Sub-theme (Code)	Number of respondents	Number of extracts	Gender (M/F)	Sport type	Enneagram types (ET)
Enhanced direct complementarity	Enhanced willingness to cooperate with the other	Coach = 3 Athlete = 1	12	M = 4	M/FI = 2 MT = 1 MI = 1	ET1, ET3, ET9
	Enhanced responsiveness to the other	Coach = 4 Athlete = 1	15	M = 5	M/FI = 2 MT = 1 MI = 1 FT = 1	ET1, ET3, ET8, ET9
	Enhanced sense of being relaxed with the other	Coach = 1	1	M = 1	M/FI = 1	ET1
	Enhanced friendliness towards the other	Coach = 2	3	M = 2	MT = 1 FT = 1	ET3, ET8
Total enhanced direct complementarity		5 (100%)	31	M = 5	M/FI = 2 MT = 1 MI = 1 FT = 1	T1 = 1 T3 = 2 T8 = 1 T9 = 1

For direct complementarity the athlete and three coaches reported an enhanced willingness to cooperate with the other. For instance, A36(M/FI)1M described a cooperative merging of his own adaptive personality trait with that of his athlete:

Um, for me it would be so beneficial, cos I can use my personality trait which is my skill… I would say it's my skill more than something that's a detriment to me… and then use what is positive out of their personality, and merge the two.

A2.8(MI)9's comment below echoes his coach's enhanced willingness to cooperate and adapt to each other's needs and strengths:

Yeah, and I kind of understand that now so I will go to him and tell him, 'Yis, I've been doing this. How do I fix this?' And he will correct me fully the technical way how to do it, and then I'll go take three or four weeks and just think about that the whole time, 'how do I do this?' And then afterwards he'll, as soon as I need it again I go back to him and say, 'Hey [A36(M/FI)1M], you know this… this has been working, this hasn't been working'. Yeah, he will know exactly. Give me the thing and then after that he can leave me and I'll try and do it as much as I can.

Also describing an enhanced willingness to cooperate with his athletes, A17(M/FI)3M referred specifically to personality type self-awareness and placing the motivations of his own type in service of optimising athletes' performance based on their strengths and weaknesses:

…as a number… a number 3 you're always looking… you want them to be the

best they can be. So, you're now saying, 'O.K., how can I make them be the best

they can be based on what are their strengths and weaknesses?' So, it's given me

something more to look at.

This insight is consistent with discussions evidenced in A17(M/FI)3M's CARE –

Part 3. During this individual session it was identified that his (Enneagram type 3 striving

to be outstanding and an associated fear of failure at times made it difficult to allow

athletes their autonomy. However, during CARE – Part 3 striving to be outstanding (and

success) was redefined as letting athletes develop their own skills, opinions and initiative,

ultimately making them '*be the best they can be based on what are their strengths and*

weaknesses.' (see CARE intervention: Session reviews – Appendix J).

All five participants reported an enhanced responsiveness to the other. Consistent with

his enhanced willingness to cooperate with A2.8(MI)9 (identified earlier), A36(M/FI)1M

referred specifically to how CARE – Part 2 had made him more aware and responsive to his

athlete's needs and preferences:

So for me then, CARE 2 was an eye-opener for me with [A2.8(MI)9], because

yes... [gestures to be making a phone call] '[A2.8(MI)9], where are you after two

weeks of absence or three weeks of absence?' But, now I understand his

personality is that he wants some… a bit of 'me-time' and alone time and he

wants to do his own things. So, with that CARE 2 programme, understanding his

personality now, 'what does he want from me?' As I understood that he wants a

bit of 'me-time'.

In a further description of enhanced responsiveness, A36(M/FI)1M describes how he has avoided an over-reliance on his Enneagram type 1 preferred strategy (striving to be perfect) to adapt to the needs of his athletes:

I have changed a lot because a 1 wants to control, perfect everything. So, yes I

have to let go of that sometimes… Yes, like, 'hey… be careful this person might

take it personally or a bad way. Let's put it through to them this way'. So, less

structured, less perfection. They don't probably need so much perfection.

A17(M/FI)3M reported an enhanced sense of being relaxed with his athletes in four different extracts. He described an enhanced comfort based on them understanding him better: "*So, I can be who I am more freely because I know they understand who I am.*" He also described an increased confidence based on his athletes' understanding and trust of his motivation as an Enneagram type 3 (i.e., wanting to win): "*Where now I know they know that's me. So I can almost be confident in my approach because they know, 'that's [A17(M/FI)3M] he wants to win, he's going out there doing what's best for us, what we need.'*"

Two coaches identified an enhanced friendliness towards their athletes (in three extracts). For instance, A1(MT)3M described being more affirming of his athletes:

I've had a conversation where I hardly compliment anybody when they do

anything well. Now I do it when nobody else can hear. I'll call the person over,

'listen really well done hey. So, uh… and even… yeah twenty or thirty sessions

together with matches and only three… so once every, uh, ten sessions or… uh,

yeah, that comes out. But I've… I've done a bit more of that in one-on-one.

During CARE – Part 3 with A1(MT)3M a conflicting commitment was identified

between his striving to be outstanding (Enneagram type 3 preferred strategy) and the COMPASS

maintenance strategy of conflict management. A1(MT)3M held the belief that being too

accepting and lenient with players and giving compliments too easily would diminish athletes'

motivation and thus their performance. As part of the CARE – Part 3 process, striving to be

outstanding was redefined to incorporate giving positive feedback as a way to enhance

motivation and performance (see CARE Intervention: Session reviews – Appendix J).

A1MT3M's above statement suggests that he has been able to make the identified adaptive

behaviour change in support of enhanced direct complementarity.

Four of the five participants reported enhanced meta complementarity (in a total of 15

extracts) across all sub-themes. Three coaches and the athlete participant identified an enhanced

willingness from their athletes/coach to cooperate with them. A36(M/FI)1M described the

importance of A2.8(MI)9 having communicated his needs (during CARE – Part 2) and how this

has led to increased mutual cooperation in the CAR:

So, with him saying I want a little bit more structure… so 'three days I want you

to do this, one day off, two days of this, one day off', we both can now work

together and create a programme. So, that for me has been an important thing.

A2.8(MI)9 again validates this enhanced mutual complementarity in his own description of A36(M/FI)1M's greater willingness to cooperate with him:

I think especially with me and [A36(M/FI)M] it's like the coaching part has

changed a lot, cos I know exactly that if he's going to show me something it will

be so easy to, like, kind of focus on that now. Whereas… whereas, normally he

would… I think he would have kind of given me something to do, and then like

later on given me something else to do… something else to do, or expect me to be

there or something like that. But, at the moment it's more he kind of gives me

what I need and then leaves me until I need it again. He kind of tells me exactly,

like, the structure that I need cos I don't have that at all. So, he gives me what I

need in that sense and then leaves me so that the benefits of not having that

structure kind of takes its own effect.

The preceding two extracts, together with previous statements from the dyad, reflect the increased mutual understanding that emerged during the dyad's participation in CARE – Part 2. In the dyadic session A2.8(MI)9 described how his striving to be peaceful can lead to him withdrawing from engaging in the CAR if too much pressure was placed on him by his coach. At the same time he reported needing a structure that prevents him from neglecting his development

(maladaptive behaviour for 9s. The complementarity between these needs and A36(M/FI)1M's detailed and clear yet respectful coaching style was affirmed during CARE – Part 2 (see CARE Intervention: Session reviews – Appendix J) and is reflected in the participants' various statements.

Three coaches and the athlete participant reported an enhanced responsiveness from the other in the CAR. For instance, A23(FT)8M described an improved responsiveness from his athletes related to their realisation of his intentions and motivations:

Um, and also I think a couple of them have started to realise, you know, where I'm heading, why I do certain things, and they're responding quite, quite well. Um, so I think it's been a very good, positive, um, procedure or practice for the whole team environment.

A1(MT)3M stated: "*there's been a lot more interaction since we've had the first uh… group session* (referring to CARE – Part 1). *A lot more. People are now willing to get their message across, or how they're feeling across*" and in another response: "*…there's more communication. It's not just one-way, it's now a two way conversation, if you wanna call it that.*"

Two coaches reported an enhanced sense of their athletes being relaxed with them. For instance, A23(FT)8 described how, during CARE – Part 1, an Enneagram type 4 athlete (A35(FT)4) had gained insight into her narrow focus on deficits in her game and sensitivity to negative feedback (some of the maladaptive behaviours of 4s). However A23(FT)8 explained how this awareness had been adaptive in supporting a change of behaviour (from both coach and athlete) and ultimately an enhanced complementarity in the CAR. As he stated:

I'll take [A35(FT)4] for example. Um, she was one of them that I focused a little

bit more on. Um, she's very over-critical of herself, but at the same time she's

quite, she's very sensitive and she doesn't want to make mistakes… but it's almost

now as if she's allowed herself to make the mistake, cause I keep reiterating, 'this

is the time to make the mistake at training… and she's now kind of bought into

that and she's relaxed now. Now she knows, she can try whatever she needs to do

now, cos when it comes to game time that's when she's going to perform. And I

think she's not as over-critical anymore and, um, yeah she's taking feedback from

other players.

Finally, A1(MT)3M, identified an enhanced friendliness from his athletes towards self:

A lot more one-to-one conversations with… with players. A lot more has come to

my… to my office. Had a… we had a sit-down and discussed a few things. Not as

afraid to ask questions anymore. Uh, that has been good.

Summary of Theoretical Thematic Analysis – Focus Group

As outlined in Table 36, the theoretical thematic analysis of the focus group transcript found support for the total CARE intervention's enhancement of all the 3+1Cs dimensions of CAR quality. The strongest support was found for participants' enhanced direct and meta-perceptions of complementarity as well as considerable support for meta closeness and direct commitment.

Table 36

Summary of Theoretical Thematic Focus Group Analysis

CAR Quality Dimension	Enhanced closeness		Enhanced commitment		Enhanced complementarity	
% Coaches & Athletes	Direct	Meta	Direct	Meta	Direct	Meta
	40%	60%	60%	40%	100%	80%

Enhanced closeness. In general, the analysis found that a shared awareness of personality type between coach and athlete resulted in more openness and trust in the CAR. Participants identified an association between enhanced direct and meta closeness and an awareness of Enneagram type. The athlete's understanding of his coach's Enneagram type (and related motivations for behaviour) enhanced trust in his coach's methods. Similarly, coaches' awareness of athletes' individuality facilitated trust and validation of athletes' unique needs and approaches even when different from the coach's.

Enhanced commitment. Overall, the total CARE intervention facilitated enhanced direct commitment from coaches who actively sought to understand athletes' unique needs and motivations. Enhanced direct commitment from athletes was also underpinned by an awareness of their coach's Enneagram type and trust of related adaptive behaviour. An enhanced co-orientation of perceptions of commitment was also facilitated by a shared awareness between coach and athlete of personality type.

Enhanced complementarity. The coach in the participating dyad described a cooperative merging of his adaptive personality traits with that of his athlete. His athlete echoed this enhanced willingness to adapt to each other's needs and strengths. The coach referred specifically to the role of CARE – Part 2 in making him more responsive to his athlete's needs and preferences and reported having adapted his Enneagram strategy to better meet the needs of his athletes.

Another coach referred specifically to enhanced direct complementarity as placing the motivations of his own Enneagram type in service of optimising his athletes' strengths and weaknesses. This was consistent with CARE – Part 3's redefinition of his preferred strategy to incorporate more adaptive CAR behaviour. The same coach also associated enhanced direct complementarity with his athletes' understanding of his Enneagram type and trust of his motivations.

Other coaches also described adaptive behaviour change in support of enhanced direct complementarity. For one coach the behaviour change (giving positive feedback) was consistent with the focus of the CARE – Part 3 process and a redefinition of his preferred strategy. Enhanced meta complementarity was identified as an improved responsiveness from athletes based on their realisation of the coach's intentions and motivations. There was also a report of enhanced meta complementarity based on an athlete's enhanced self-awareness and the coach's support for that athlete in exploring adaptive behaviour change. The coach's awareness of the athlete's personality type allowed him to respond in this supportive manner.

Enhanced co-orientation. The focus group analysis found strong support for enhanced co-orientation. Coaches identified an increased closeness and commitment towards and from their athletes, while the dyad in the sample identified an enhanced complementarity in the CAR. The same dyad also demonstrated an enhanced empathic understanding of each other where the athlete's enhanced direct perception of commitment and complementarity corresponded to his coach's meta-perceptions.

Overall, the theoretical thematic analysis found that the total CARE intervention enhanced CAR quality through self-awareness and mutual awareness between coach and athlete of Enneagram type traits and motivations. There was a specific emphasis on adapting personality

patterns (e.g., preferred strategies) to enhance direct and meta closeness, commitment and complementarity.

Inductive Thematic Analysis – Focus Group

The same three main themes that emerged during the analysis of coach and athlete surveys were identified in the focus group transcripts. However, as described in Figure 28, certain additional sub-themes were identified. Following the presentation of Figure 28 themes and sub-themes are discussed and illustrative extracts are provided.

Focus Group Inductive Thematic Analysis

Main Theme
Enhanced Understanding of the other in the CAR
   Sub-Themes:
   - The other's individuality
   - Motivation for the other's behaviour
   - Accepting the other
   - Balance of the personal and professional

Main Theme
Enhanced Self-awareness
Sub-Themes:
   - General self-awareness
   - Adaptive and maladaptive behaviour

Main Theme
Enhanced Team Relationships
Sub-Theme:
   - Team cohesion
   - Relationship building

Figure 28. Themes for focus group thematic analysis.

Enhanced understanding of the other in the CAR. All four coaches and the participating athlete described (in 21 extracts) an enhanced understanding of the other in the CAR as a result of participating in the CARE intervention.

The other's individuality. Three coaches identified (in eight extracts) an enhanced awareness of their athletes' individuality. For example, A17(M/FI)3M described a general recognition of his athletes' individuality in relation to his own Enneagram type 3: "*Um, so it made me also understand that it might be who I am, but there's different types of people and I'm coaching individuals and they're possibly not 3s.*" In a further statement he described how the CARE intervention had enhanced his awareness and assessment of the unique traits and characteristics of the individuals he coaches:

> *And then when you brought this, saying there's different personalities, people are different... has made me then become a lot more accurate in assessing to say, 'O.K., um, there are certain characteristics and traits that people have'. And you try and pick that up when working individually.*

A23(FT)8M also described his enhanced awareness of athletes' individuality stating: "*So I think for me it's just really again reiterated that sense of awareness of who you're dealing with...*"

Motivation for the other's behaviour. A2.8(MI)9 reported (in nine different extracts) an increased awareness of the motivation for his coach's behaviour. In one response he described an enhanced understanding of his coach's professional behaviour and of his benign motives for dedicating exclusive attention to someone else:

I just understand, like, his professional level better. So, I understand that if he's

busy with something or busy with someone, it doesn't necessarily mean that he's

just focused on that person or anything, but he is focused on that person because

he's not going to give the person eighty percent of his time and twenty percent to

me.

In a related further explanation A2.8(MI)9 associated his enhanced understanding of his coach's motivations with his knowledge of his coach's Enneagram type 1:

So, like, on that personal kind of… or like on that coaching kind of view, it's

more… it's… I understand why he does things a lot better because I kind of have

the feeling or the… the little paragraph in my mind of what a 1 is. So, it's, I kind

of… if I see him doing something or see him talk to someone, or see him trying to

teach something I immediately… it triggers a sentence in that thing and I see, 'Ah

yeah, I know exactly that's why he's doing this or, you know, he's not going to

like this because of this.'

Still within the sub-theme of motivation for behaviour, but from a meta-perspective, A1(MT)3M described (in three extracts) the value of having his athletes understand the motives for his behaviour. He stated: "*So, you know that… that understanding has helped a lot. So, they can understand why I am the way I am",* and in a further statement:

I think that's most probably the best thing… players aren't taking it personally anymore, especially those that attended [referring to CARE – Part 1]. *They see the value… it's about the coaching, the… we're trying to get the message across and we're not trying to break you down, uh, personally. So, I think there's a lot more understanding about where the message is coming from and that… that's been good.*

Accepting the other. In three different extracts A17(M/FI)3M identified an enhanced acceptance of his athletes based on a better understanding of their unique reactions and personality. As he explained:

…they're reacting like that because it's their personality. Just because I would react differently, it doesn't mean they're wrong. You know, so as a coach you go, 'Oh, I wouldn't react like that. Why are you reacting like that?' Meanwhile, I'm a completely different person. So it made me more aware of those things, this particular exercise, which I really enjoyed and, um, found interesting.

Balance of the personal and professional. The athlete and two of the coaches discussed (in six extracts) having gained a more personal understanding of the other while maintaining a professional relationship. For example, A17(M/FI)3M stated:

Yeah, the personal side. I've kept it very 'here' [gesturing to keep a distance with his hand] *and it has exposed me, um, with that process* [referring to the words

CARE 2 and 3 on a flipchart] *of that's the area where I need to, um, improve on.*
You know, try not be so professional that there is no personal relationship. Um,
yeah.

Along similar lines, A23(FT)8M described how CARE – Part 1 provided an environment
and opportunity of connecting more personally with athletes while remaining professional:

Um, so I really just think it's opening up a space to keep it professional, but also
keep it personal. I think that's been… that's the big thing that I want to focus on
going forward and I think… sometimes I walk away from a session and I feel like
maybe I, you know, maybe I missed an opportunity somewhere to… to connect.
And I think that's… that's that one… the one thing I'd really like to focus on. It's
just identifying the opportunities.

A2.8(MI)9 described the opportunity for integrating the personal and the professional in
the CAR, but from an athlete's perspective:

And, like, this programme it actually, like… cos there, there always has to be a
boundary between social… like a coach and the player… you can't be his best
friend… But you almost like kind of understand and you're kind of like closer in
that sense without keeping it so far apart. I think you said [referring to
A17(M/FI)3M] *like without staying, like, strictly professional.*

Enhanced self-awareness. All focus group participants reported (in 11 extracts) an enhanced self-awareness as a result of participating in the CARE intervention.

General self-awareness. Three coaches described a general self-awareness with an emphasis on self-discovery. For example, A1(MT)3M responded: "*And also a lot of introspection about where you're at as a coach… where you would like to go. Um, and yeah, learnt a lot about myself during this entire process which has been good.*" Similarly, A17(M/FI)3M described a shift in focus from athletes only towards a greater awareness of his own traits and patterns of interpersonal behaviour:

> *Um, from the coach's perspective it taught me a lot about myself as well. Um, you're very always focused on the athletes and the people you coach and you don't really look at yourself. Where with this you're now like, 'what type of person am I?' So you started looking quite inwardly and then it also made you look at, um, your approach. So once you looked inwardly, it was then like 'Oh is that how I approach people? Or is that how I come across? Do I come across competitive? Do I come across, um, do I want them to be who I am*?

Two coaches remarked on the increase self-awareness they had noted in their athletes. As A23(FT)8M explained: "*Also I think, just with the ladies specifically here, um, that ladies have become very, very kind of aware of who they are now.*"

Adaptive and maladaptive behaviour. All the focus group participants described (in a total of 11 extracts) an increased awareness of their adaptive and maladaptive behaviour. All four coaches described an awareness of having to moderate or adapt a personality pattern to prevent

maladaptive outcomes for the CAR. For example, A36(M/FI)1M identified an increased

awareness of the potential negative outcomes for CARs of not moderating the critical approach

of his Enneagram type 1 personality:

> *Yeah, so that… that criticism that could come forward because of my perfectionist*
>
> *'I need you to do it like this'… they might feel a bit threatened by that. That I'd*
>
> *have to work a lot on with those people to get a better coaching… or learning*
>
> *more about them and the way to coach them better. That's going to be a*
>
> *challenge. Um, if I looked at all the personality traits that one[25] is like, ok that's*
>
> *gonna be quite a challenge to be able to coach someone like that better, you*
>
> *know. I think over the twenty years I've been coaching it's… I've developed that*
>
> *skill already somewhat. Um, as we worked through those CARE programmes with*
>
> *A2.8(MI)9 I think it's opened my eyes a bit more. But it affects me a lot, because I*
>
> *have to really control myself.*

Similarly, A17(M/FI)3M described an enhanced awareness of not over-relying on his

Enneagram type 3 approach/strategy:

> *…as a number 3, you can get stuck in your ways because, um, it's about the*
>
> *performance and 'I want you guys to improve this part of your game. We're going*
>
> *to train that until we improve this part of your game'… you know, so, I've had to*

---

[25] In the context of the focus group discussion A36(M/FI)1M is referring to Enneagram type FOUR and the common trait of FOURs of being sensitive to criticism based on an already narrow focus on the deficits (i.e., what is missing) in their performance.

now, like, 'O.K., am I going into this rut of 'work hard, train hard, we perfect

this', um, 'and we're gonna be the best at this'

Enhanced team relationships. All focus group participants reported (in a total of 16 extracts) that team relationships had been enhanced as a result of participating in the CARE intervention.

Team cohesion. The participating athlete and two coaches identified (in eight extracts) how cohesion in their teams had been enhanced by the CARE intervention. As A2.8(MI)9 explained:

I think just knowing this whole thing or doing this kind of course… I think it

builds a lot of team spirit… like that closeness. It builds a lot of more bonds, like,

closer bonds between everyone. Like, I think you'd find that a lot of people in the

team too wouldn't… they wouldn't even like each other at all… now they might be

sharing jokes a bit…

A23(FT)8M referred specifically to the role of Enneagram type awareness in developing more cohesive and cooperative team bonds:

Um, I think there are some of the players that are in the same boat cos I find… I

think there's about six 8s in the group… Um, but yeah I think that's a big thing

for them is… is learning how to… to be patient with each other and actually listen

to each other, not just give feedback to each other the whole time.

Relationship building. A2.8(MI)9 described (in a total of six extracts) how the CARE intervention had facilitated an enhanced building of relationships between his team members. For example, in referring specifically to the role of Enneagram type awareness in building relationships between team members he stated:

> "*Like, like… um, when [A14(MI)9][26]… like um, I've seen him quite a few times,*
>
> *but I've never actually spoken to him. But, after these sessions I've kind of seen*
>
> *that he was also a 9 with me... Yeah, and I saw him today at the range, talked for*
>
> *long with him, sat on the grass a bit. Like, normally I wouldn't even have spoken*
>
> *to him, like, just because I don't really know him. But in that sense, because I*
>
> *know the relation… he's also a 9… immediately we find ourselves just saying hi*
>
> *to each other and talking with him and going along our way again*.

In a further statement he also described how the total CARE intervention had reinforced his personality strength (as an Enneagram type 9) of seeking to understand others in his team:

> *I think, like, especially with… with my personality… this is almost that… the*
>
> *understanding thing will always be like my main thing that this has taught me*
>
> *cos… because that's kind of my personality strength… is that I try and understand*
>
> *everyone… I really try to do that and this has kind of given me like the 'amo' to*
>
> *do it. So, it's kind of fuels like, already, the fire I kind of have already*.

---

[26] Fellow participant in CARE – Part 1 who, like A2.8(MI)9, was part of the Golf team.

Summary of Inductive Thematic Analysis – Focus Group

Table 37 summarises inductive themes related to the intervention effects of the total

CARE intervention in addition to those identified within the theoretical thematic analysis. A

summary of each theme is then provided. Further discussion and integration of results will follow

in Chapter Eight.

Table 37

Summary of Inductive Focus Group Analysis

Theme	Enhanced understanding of the other in the CAR	Enhanced self-awareness	Enhanced team relationships
% Participants Reporting Intervention Effects	100%	100%	100%

Enhanced understanding of the other in the CAR. The analysis found that the CARE

intervention enhanced both coaches' and athletes' recognition of the other's individuality

through and awareness of Enneagram type. This included a more accurate assessment of the

other's traits and characteristics and an awareness of the motivation for their behaviour. There

was also an enhanced acceptance of the other in the CAR based on a better understanding of

personality type. Furthermore, it was identified that the CARE intervention provided an

environment and opportunity for developing an adaptive balance between the personal and

professional dimension of the CAR.

Enhanced self-awareness. All participants reported an enhanced general self-awareness.

Coaches reported an enhanced awareness of their own traits and interpersonal behaviour and a

greater self-awareness in their athletes. Coach and athlete participants also described an

increased awareness of their own adaptive and maladaptive behaviour, with coaches also recognising the value for the CAR of moderating or adapting their personality strategies.

Enhanced team relationships. All participants reported that the sense of cohesion in their teams had been enhanced by the CARE intervention. Participants referred specifically to a shared Enneagram type awareness as developing more cohesive and cooperative team bonds. The CARE intervention had also helped build new relationships between team members and reinforced the adaptive dimensions of personality type.

Conclusion

This chapter has addressed phase two of Aim 2 of the study. The next chapter explores the relationship between results from phase one and phase two and integrates quantitative and qualitative results across both phases. Implications for sport psychology theory and practice, limitations of the study, and future research directions are also discussed.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter draws together findings from phase one and phase two of the study and integrates quantitative and qualitative results in a further discussion. First a brief review of the study's theory and research context is provided as the backdrop to the discussion. Also addressed in the chapter are the theoretical and practical implications of the research findings, the limitations of the study, directions for future research, and final conclusions.

Brief Review of Theory and Research Context

Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement

This study set out to address an identified need for research in South Africa and internationally that develops interventions to improve coaches' and athletes' interpersonal functioning. Grounded in the growing recognition that the coach-athlete relationship (CAR) is central to both success (i.e., performance outcomes) and effectiveness (i.e., psychological well-being) in sport the study aimed to develop and evaluate a CAR enhancement intervention.

CAR models and the Enneagram Typology

An extensive review of CAR literature identified the 3+1Cs (Jowett, 2005; 2007) and COMPASS (Rhind & Jowett, 2010b; 2012) models as sport-specific and complementary models for describing and measuring the mutually and causally interconnected thoughts, emotions and behaviours that constitute effective CARs. However, it was identified that additional frameworks were required to identify the supports and barriers to coaches' and athletes' adaptive interpersonal functioning.

A three-dimensional view of personality (McAdams & Pals, 2006), including dispositional traits, characteristic adaptations and personal narratives, was identified as such an

auxiliary framework. A three-dimensional review of the strengths and limitations of current

personality models that have been applied in CAR theory and research then supported the

proposal of the Enneagram personality theory and typology (Daniels & Price, 2009; Palmer,

1995; Tallon & Sikora, 2006; Wagner, 2010) as a unifying personality model. It was proposed

that the Enneagram can illuminate the personality traits, motivations, schemas and narrative

resources that act as supports or barriers to both coaches' and athletes' adaptive interpersonal

functioning. It was also proposed that the Enneagram typology, when combined with the

COMPASS model, could form the foundation for an intervention to enhance CAR closeness,

commitment, complementarity and co-orientation (3+1Cs).

The CARE Intervention in Brief

Building on the aforementioned integrative framework of CAR theory and a three-

dimensional view of the Enneagram typology, the *Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement*

(CARE) intervention was developed (for Aim 1 of the study). The CARE intervention was

outlined as a process of three mutually reinforcing parts aimed at enhancing direct and meta

CAR closeness, commitment, complementarity and co-orientation. The assumptions and aims of

the three parts of the CARE intervention are briefly reviewed next as a precursor to a discussion

of the results of an evaluation of the intervention (the focus of Aim 2 of the study).

CARE – Part 1. CARE – Part 1 is based on the assumption that shared awareness

between coaches and athletes of their interconnected Enneagram type patterns, and of the

motivations and schemas that underpin those patterns, enhances CAR closeness, commitment,

complementarity and co-orientation. CARE – Part 1 supports coaches and athletes in identifying

their own and each other's Enneagram types, with an emphasis on recognising interpersonal

strengths, core motivations, and schemas.

CARE – Part 2. CARE – Part 2 is based on the assumption that a shared awareness between coaches and athletes of Enneagram type provides the narrative resources for constructing personal and CAR narratives that further enhance perceptions of CAR quality. CARE – Part 2 thus aims to re-construct coaches' and athletes' personal narratives based on self-descriptions of their Enneagram type strengths and motivations, and to do so in a context of mutual validation and appreciation between coach and athlete.

CARE – Part 3. CARE – Part 3 is based on the Enneagram's dynamic and developmental 'strategy view' of personality. CARE – Part 3 utilises the Awareness to Action Process (ATAP) in redefining the core motivation of Enneagram type (i.e., preferred strategy) to incorporate more adaptive interpersonal behaviour (i.e., COMPASS strategies). The next section discusses results from phase one of the study where the impact of CARE – Part 1 on coaches' and athletes' perceptions of CAR quality was evaluated.

Discussion of Results - Phase One

The combined quantitative and qualitative evaluation of CARE – Part 1 demonstrates that a shared awareness was facilitated between coaches and athletes of their interconnected Enneagram type patterns of thinking, feeling and behaviour, and of their underpinning motivations. Quantitative results and theoretical thematic analysis together suggest that this shared awareness was associated with enhanced perceptions of CAR quality across all of the 3+1Cs' dimensions. Although research has not previously investigated the impact of increased self-awareness (or shared awareness) of personality on the 3+1Cs dimensions, it has demonstrated an association between CAR quality and the dimensions of personality that are illuminated by the Enneagram. As outlined more comprehensively in Chapter Two, studies have shown that CAR closeness, commitment and complementarity are influenced to varying degrees

by dispositional traits and motivational, social-cognitive, and developmental characteristic

adaptations (e.g., Davis and Jowett, 2014; Jackson, Grove & Beauchamp, 2010; Olympiou,

Jowett & Duda, 2008; Yang, Jowett & Chan, 2015). However, research focused on the influence

of these personality factors has fallen short of developing practical applications of personality

theory to enhance CAR quality.

The relationship between personality and CAR quality was identified over a decade ago

in Jowett and Poczwardowski's (2007) integrated research model of coach–athlete relationships

where personality is identified as a primary causal antecedent of CAR closeness, commitment

and complementarity. Jowett and Poczwardowski suggested that research and theory had (at that

point) expanded an understanding of the content of the CAR and of its processes, which they

suggested makes coaches and athletes aware of what their relationship is like and how they

might influence it positively. However, over the past decade there have been limited attempts to

address what was identified by Jowett and Poczwardowski as a lack of research relative to the

ways in which the CAR can actually be repaired or improved.

Results from the current study suggest that CARE – Part 1's application of the

Enneagram addresses this paucity. CARE – Part 1 applies personality not only as a causal

antecedent of CAR quality, but also a framework for influencing the CAR positively. Results

demonstrate that enhancing coaches' and athletes' self-awareness and mutual understanding of

their interdependent patterns of thinking, feeling, behaviour and motivation (i.e., Enneagram

types) is a central aspect of CAR quality that also leads to positive intrapersonal, interpersonal

and group outcomes.

Intrapersonal outcomes. Although CAR research has not investigated the intrapersonal

outcomes of personality self-awareness, psychological research focused on dispositional self-

attentiveness has demonstrated that a conscious awareness of one's thoughts, feelings, and

motivations is associated with improved psychological well-being and overall life satisfaction

(e.g., Harrington & Loffredo, 2010; Wilson & Dunn, 2004). Previous Enneagram research has

identified that Enneagram type self-awareness is associated with adaptive outcomes such as

increased self-confidence, self-development and proactive behaviour change (Sutton et al.,

2015). While the current study was focused primarily on the interpersonal domain, it identified

positive intrapersonal outcomes related to Enneagram type self-awareness for coaches and

athletes who reported adaptive behaviour change based on a recognition of their personality

strengths. This was not limited to the CAR and included positive outcomes within training,

performance and non-sport related domains.

   Interpersonal outcomes. Previous Enneagram research demonstrates that a shared

awareness of Enneagram type improves team and workplace relationships between colleagues,

based on a better mutual understanding of each other (Sutton et al., 2015). Sutton et al. found

that shared Enneagram type awareness provides a framework for understanding and appreciating

the diversity of worldviews within team relationships and that this is associated with adaptive

interpersonal outcomes such as improved communication and a greater acceptance of others. The

current study similarly demonstrated that shared Enneagram type awareness resulted in enhanced

mutual understanding and improved communication between coaches and athletes, and between

athletes and other athletes. In both coach-athlete and team relationships there was an emphasis

on enhanced understanding and appreciation of the motivations[27] for behaviour, which in turn

facilitated more accurate and empathic inferences regarding the significance and (benevolent)

intent of that behaviour (i.e., enhanced co-orientation).

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[27] A focus on motivations rather than schemas is likely due to CARE – Part 1's emphasis on the core motivation
(i.e., preferred strategy) of each type as central to understanding type-specific patterns of interpersonal behaviour.

As stated earlier, results indicated that a shared awareness of Enneagram type was associated with enhanced perceptions of CAR quality across all of the 3+1Cs' dimensions. Since shared personality awareness seems central to CAR enhancement, definitions of the CAR such as the 3+1Cs model could be expanded to include the influence of personality and self-awareness. In addition, measures of CAR quality such as the CART-Q can be adapted or complemented to measure self-awareness and mutual awareness between coaches and athletes of the personality factors that influence the CAR.

Group outcomes. While the focus of CARE – Part 1 was on the dyadic relationship, teams and their coaches participated together in the Enneagram training session. Discussions and reflections during the training session allowed team members (and the coach) to gain greater insight into each other's interpersonal strengths, challenges, motivations and schemas. Results of improved team cohesion and improved communication within the team environment are consistent with Sutton et al.'s (2015) findings that Enneagram type awareness enhances mutual understanding and adaptive group outcomes. The association between coach behaviour, CAR properties, and adaptive interpersonal outcomes within a team environment was discussed in Chapter Two (e.g., Hampson and Jowett, 2014; Jowett, Shanmugam & Caccoulis, 2012). Results from this study suggest that facilitating CARE – Part 1 in a team context brings benefits to both dyadic CAR quality and wider team relationships. Further research could explore the specific mechanisms that optimise this reciprocal relationship.

Expanding CAR models

The current study's findings suggest that Jowett and Poczwardowski's (2007) integrated model of coach–athlete relationships could be expanded to include a definition and application of personality that goes beyond causality. Personality self-awareness can be viewed as a central

CAR process and as a framework for equipping coaches, athletes and teams to ensure more

adaptive intrapersonal, interpersonal and group outcomes. The reciprocal relationship between

CARE – Part 1's application of the Enneagram and other aspects of Jowett and Poczwardowski's

CAR research model could be explored in future theoretical formulations and research. For

example, the wider social-cultural sport context (i.e., culturally defined norms, customs and roles

in sport) is identified within the CAR research model as another causal condition that determines

the quality of the CAR. Research could investigate how the CARE intervention could support

coaches and athletes to negotiate the social-cultural sport context more effectively. More

specifically, research could explore how the Enneagram type personal narratives facilitated by

the CARE intervention provide an alternative or buffer to prescriptive coach/athlete narratives

and customs (e.g., Carless & Douglas, 2013) that may undermine CAR quality and holistic

personal development. While overall results support the effectiveness of CARE – Part 1, some

variance in quantitative and qualitative results was observed and is addressed next.

Integration of Quantitative and Qualitative Results

      CARE – Part 1's longer-term and delayed effects. Although combined results from

phase one demonstrate CARE – Part 1's impact across all the 3+1Cs' dimensions of CAR

quality, quantitative results did not identify enhanced direct closeness and complementarity. This

is in contrast to qualitative results where the strongest support was found for enhanced direct

closeness and complementarity. Also, qualitative results did not identify strong support for

enhanced direct commitment or for enhanced meta-perceptions of CAR quality in general. In

contrast quantitative results were significant for direct commitment and all meta-dimensions. It

has been previously noted that qualitative data collection did not evaluate changes in meta-

perceptions of CAR quality, which could explain some of the aforementioned variance between

qualitative and quantitative results. The variance in results could also be related to differences in the scope and nature of data collected via quantitative and qualitative methods. Whereas the CART-Qs effectively measured the specific concepts they were designed to measure, open-ended surveys and the focus group were able to explore and identify a wider range of experiences and effects not captured in quantitative results. Another way of understanding the seemingly contradictory quantitative and qualitative results is to view them in light of a progressive integration of Enneagram type awareness.

Progressive integration of Enneagram type awareness. CART-Q results in phase one found mainly longer-term and delayed intervention effects, with the exception of direct and meta commitment where short-term effects were also identified. These results suggest that Enneagram type awareness increasingly influenced and enhanced perceptions of CAR quality over time as participants integrated their new self- and mutual understanding into the relationship. While direct and meta CAR commitment were enhanced in the short term, over the longer-term coaches and athletes also began viewing each other as feeling closer, more committed and demonstrating more complementarity. However, quantitative (direct CART-Q) results suggest that participants did not view *themselves* as closer and more complementary.

In contrast, one week after the last CART-Q measures at T3, qualitative data identified clear support for enhanced direct closeness and complementarity. These results suggest that CARE – Part 1's impact was delayed *more* for direct closeness and complementarity than for other CAR dimensions of CAR quality. Stated differently, coaches and athletes' direct perceptions of closeness and complementarity took longer to change.

For instance, qualitative results clearly demonstrated that coaches viewed themselves as more cooperative, responsive and friendly towards their athletes, while athletes described

enhanced cooperativeness, responsiveness, sense of being relaxed, and friendliness towards their coach. Coaches as well as athletes associated this adaptive behaviour with an increased understanding and awareness of Enneagram type motivations, needs and preferences. While CART-Q measures at T3 did not detect these direct perceptions of complementarity, results for enhanced meta complementarity were significant. This indicates that coaches and athletes were recognising the other person's more complementary behaviour, but not their own. In other words, the adaptive or complementary behaviour changes facilitated by CARE – Part 1 took longer to be integrated into coaches' and athletes' direct or self-perceptions (even when already detected by meta-assessments).

For the closeness dimension, qualitative results also clearly demonstrated enhanced direct perceptions of closeness based on awareness and understanding of the other's personality type and motivations. Coaches described a greater appreciation of their athletes, while athletes reported increased liking, trust, respect and appreciation of their coach. As with direct complementarity, CART-Q measures at T3 did not detect changes in direct closeness. However, significant results for enhanced meta-perceptions of closeness at T3 suggest that coaches and athletes viewed the other as feeling closer in the relationship before feeling that way themselves.

Delayed effects of Enneagram type self-awareness would be expected as individuals gradually integrate their awareness into their personal narratives and then translate this into behaviour change. Findings from Sutton et al. (2015) also indicate that changes related to Enneagram type awareness may take time to surface. This is consistent with research investigating self-awareness as a dimension of mindfulness, which suggests that longer time spans may be necessary to detect changes in mindful attention and awareness (Brown & Ryan, 2003).

The further delay in enhanced direct closeness and complementarity could also be due in part to an increased self-awareness of maladaptive behaviour (what participants often called their 'weaknesses') which may have initially hindered positive self-perceptions. Sutton et al. (2015) found that for some participants the recognition of Enneagram type highlighted particular areas of weakness that they had been avoiding, which made them feel more vulnerable and insecure. However, despite this potential effect, results from phase one of the current study found that coaches and athletes associated an increased self-awareness of Enneagram type primarily with adaptive behaviour change and described using their personality strengths to improve the CAR.

Furthermore, qualitative and quantitative analyses in phase one found support for enhanced co-orientation, indicating that enhanced direct and meta-perceptions increasingly corresponded over time. This suggests that any negative self-perceptions resulting from identifying Enneagram type 'weaknesses' were not lasting. It is also consistent with the CARE intervention's intentional emphasis on the adaptive aspects of the Enneagram types, which facilitates the construction of strengths-based personal narratives to enhance interpersonal functioning.

Discussion of Results – Phase Two

Combined quantitative and qualitative results from phase two found that CARE – Part 2 and 3, in addition to CARE Part 1, further enhanced CAR quality. The results demonstrate that a shared understanding and awareness of Enneagram type facilitated a re-construction of coaches' and athletes' personal narratives in a context of mutual validation and appreciation, and that this further enhanced perceptions of CAR quality. Support was also found for the effectiveness of the Awareness to Action Process (ATAP) in redefining coaches' Enneagram preferred strategies to incorporate more adaptive interpersonal behaviour. Although results from phase one and two

largely correspond in confirming the positive impact of the CARE intervention, there are differences between results from the two phases which suggest how further intervention in CARE – Part 2 and 3 contributed to enhanced closeness, commitment, complementarity and co-orientation.

Impact of Further Intervention

CARE – Part 2. In contrast to phase one results, quantitative results in phase two indicate a trend towards short-term effects for all the direct and meta CART-Q subscales[28]. This trend suggests that CARE – Part 2, which occurred before the CART-Q at T2 (i.e., short-term measure of CAR quality) further enhanced CAR quality in addition to CARE – Part 1 over the short term. Qualitative results also indicate that dyads who had participated in CARE – Part 2 developed an enhanced mutual understanding and appreciation of each other based on an awareness of Enneagram type traits and motivations, which facilitated a more committed and complementary partnership. Phase two quantitative and qualitative results thus indicate that CAR quality was further enhanced by facilitating self-descriptions of Enneagram type strengths and motivations in a context of mutual validation and appreciation between coach and athlete.

CARE – Part 3. The application of the ATAP in CARE – Part 3 aims to redefine coaches' or athletes' Enneagram type preferred strategies in a way that places the core motivation of type in service of more flexible and adaptive behaviour. A key part of the ATAP is recognising the maladaptive outcomes of an over-reliance on the preferred strategy. Qualitative results identified that CARE – Part 3 participants were able to identify a need to moderate or adapt personality patterns to prevent maladaptive outcomes for the CAR. Participants had consciously incorporated more adaptive behaviour (i.e., the COMPASS strategies identified in

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[28] In phase one only the direct and meta commitment CART-Q subscales indicated significant short-term effects.

their CARE – Part 3 session) and recognised this as a way of satisfying their Enneagram type's

core motivation[29]. Stated differently, results show that CARE – Part 3 facilitated a redefinition of

participants' preferred strategies to further enhance interpersonal functioning.

Previous Enneagram theory and research have explored potential applications of the

Enneagram typology within individual psychotherapy (e.g., Matise, 2007; Duffey & Haberstroh,

2012) and dyadic relationship assessment and intervention (e.g., Arthur, 2008; Carpenter, 2015;

Choucroun, 2013). However, these studies did not systematically evaluate the impact of

Enneagram applications on relationship quality and interpersonal functioning. Results from the

current study provide a platform for further studies that evaluate applications of the Enneagram

within the ATAP and narrative-based individual and dyadic interventions.

Summary of Phase One and Phase Two Results

Combined results from phase one and phase two support the CARE intervention as an

effective process for enhancing CAR quality. The CARE intervention helps coaches and athletes

identify the supports and barriers to adaptive interpersonal functioning, with an emphasis on

recognising their own and each other's interpersonal strengths and the motivation for patterns of

thinking, feeling and behaviour. It also facilitates adaptive behaviour change. In summary, the

CARE intervention was shown to enhance CAR quality by facilitating a shared awareness of

Enneagram type, re-constructing coaches' and athletes' personal (strength) narratives, and

redefining their motivation to incorporate more adaptive interpersonal behaviour (COMPASS

strategies). The next section provides a three-dimensional review of the Enneagram as applied in

the CARE intervention.

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[29] More detailed descriptions of how CARE – Part 3 was applied to each participant are provided in Appendix J.

Three-dimensional Analysis of the Enneagram in CAR Enhancement

In this study a three-dimensional view of the Enneagram was proposed as illuminating the dispositional traits, characteristic adaptations, and narrative resources that influence coaches' and athletes' interpersonal functioning. The next section discusses the degree to which the combined results from phases one and two support these propositions.

CARE and Dispositional traits

Overall the results show that the Enneagram provides an accessible method of identifying the dispositional traits *and* implicit motivations that may act as barriers and supports to effective interpersonal behaviour in the CAR. Qualitative results for phases one and two, specifically data related to the theme of *enhanced self-awareness*, demonstrate that coaches' and athletes' gained an awareness of their own adaptive and maladaptive traits as well as of the motivation for their patterns of thinking, feeling and behaviour.

Data related to the theme of *enhanced understanding of the other in the CAR* further indicate that the Enneagram (as applied in the CARE intervention) facilitated coaches' and athletes' awareness of each other's adaptive and maladaptive traits and of the motivation for them. The CARE intervention's application of the Enneagram within the ATAP also addressed a key limitation of trait models of personality (e.g., FFM) by providing a framework for enhancing or moderating adaptive or maladaptive behaviour. The results demonstrate that an increased self-awareness of Enneagram type was associated with adaptive behaviour change in the CAR, as well as in performance settings, training environments and team relationships. Overall, an awareness of Enneagram type traits and motivations was associated with enhanced CAR quality.

CARE and Characteristic Adaptations

Motivational characteristic adaptations. Results indicate that the Enneagram complements Self-determination Theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) by identifying and adapting the core motivations that influence coaches' and athletes' interpersonal behaviour. More specifically, qualitative results showed that the CARE intervention facilitated adaptive CAR behaviour as outlined by the motivational model of the CAR (Mageau & Vallerand, 2003) namely supporting athletes' autonomy, providing structure for athletes, and being actively involved in the athletes' welfare.

For example, the theoretical thematic analysis in Chapter Seven identified how a coach had redefined his core motivation in a way that would encourage athletes' *autonomy*, i.e., allowing them to develop their own skills, opinions and initiative. A coach-athlete dyad described how the mutual understanding in the CAR facilitated by CARE – Part 2 resulted in a clear *structure* within which both parties' Enneagram type needs and preferences could be accommodated. One coach explained how the CARE intervention had stimulated a more proactive interest in his athletes' *welfare* which was expressed as a proactive effort to establish a stronger bond with them.

The CARE intervention also addressed SDT uni-directional focus (from coach to athlete) by emphasising the active interpersonal role and behaviours of athletes in maintaining the CAR. Results indicate that adaptive behaviour change and enhanced perceptions of complementarity were bi-directional. Coaches *and* athletes reported being more cooperative and responsive to one another based on enhanced self-awareness and shared understanding of personality type within the CAR. The results for enhanced co-orientation confirmed that athletes' perceptions of

themselves as closer, more committed and more complementary corresponded to their coaches'

perceptions of them.

Social-cognitive characteristic adaptations. Chapter Two identified the limitations of

Self-efficacy Theory (SET: Bandura, 1997) as not accounting for the implicit motives, emotions,

and dispositional traits that influence self-efficacy beliefs. Qualitative analyses suggest that the

Enneagram as applied in the CARE intervention addresses this limitation by facilitating an

awareness in coaches and athletes of the dynamic relationship between traits, motivations and

schemas. Qualitative results for the themes of *enhanced self-awareness* and *enhanced*

understanding of the other in the CAR demonstrated that coaches and athletes were able to

accurately identify their own and the other's traits and motivations. An awareness of the schema

or worldview that influences interpersonal behaviour was overtly reported by one coach, and a

number of participants described changes in their thinking and perceptions of themselves and

their coach/athletes.

Developmental characteristic adaptations. In Chapters Two and Three it was identified

that attachment theory (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters & Wall, 1978; Bowlby, 1982) provides a

framework for identifying the implicit adaptive and maladaptive attachment processes that

influence coaches' and athletes' interpersonal functioning. However, it was proposed that the

Enneagram provides an alternative to the 'deficit and dysfunction' terminology used in

attachment theory to describe interpersonal behaviour. The results from the qualitative analyses

found that, while participants reported enhanced self-awareness of both adaptive and

maladaptive interpersonal behaviour, and of their underpinning motivations, Enneagram type

awareness facilitated closer, more committed and more complementary bonds between coaches

and athletes, and a stronger focus on adaptive behaviour change than on deficits or 'weaknesses'.

CARE and Personal Narratives

Chapter Three suggested that the Enneagram could provide the 'narrative resources'

within the CAR to construct individual coach and athlete narratives. The collective results show

that coaches and athletes were able to integrate Enneagram type awareness within their self-

descriptions or personal narratives. The quantitative results specifically identified the adaptive

outcomes of the CARE – Part 2 process where a reciprocal validation between coaches and

athletes of their Enneagram type self-descriptions (i.e., re-constructed personal narratives)

further enhanced overall CAR quality (in addition to CARE – Part 1) in the short term. The

qualitative results also demonstrated that this re-authoring process enhanced CAR commitment,

complementarity and mutual understanding.

Theory and Practice Implications

In Chapter One it was proposed that interpersonal skills, together with intrapersonal skills

such as mental toughness, are fundamental to performance success, satisfaction, well-being and

enjoyment in sport. Although interpersonally-focused theory and research in sport has confirmed

this insight over the past three decades, it has not provided sport psychology practitioners with

clear methods or frameworks for facilitating interpersonal skill development. This study has

begun, therefore, to explore the previously unchartered territory of developing practical

interventions for enhancing interpersonal functioning in sport. The study has also explored the

untapped potential of integrating new advances in personality psychology with the 'social

psychology of sport' by combining the Enneagram's holistic and developmental

conceptualisation of personality with well-established CAR theory. The study has also shown

how psychometrically validated and sport-specific measures (such as the CART-Q and CARM-

Q) can be practically applied within interventions, and how they can serve as outcome measures

for such interventions. The identified role of personality self-awareness in enhancing CAR

quality also suggests that CAR models and measures could be adapted or complemented to

account for personality awareness.

Apart from primarily identifying that an integration of personality and interpersonal

theories can effectively enhance the relationship between coaches and athletes, adaptive

outcomes for team relationships were also identified. Furthermore, there were indications that

training and performance outcomes, and personal relationships outside of the sport context were

positively affected. The CARE intervention thus provides an accessible and pragmatic method

for interpersonal skill development in the CAR, and also serves as a platform for developing

other interpersonally-focused interventions to improve the social and psychological well-being,

as well as the performance, of individuals participating in sport.

The Enneagram's demonstrated ability to facilitate adaptive self-awareness and

behaviour change with coaches and athletes suggests that further applications in sport

psychology could be explored. Personality-based interventions could be developed to enhance

team cohesion, self-determined motivation and sport injury rehabilitation. Furthermore, existing

sport psychology interventions such as psychological skills training could be adapted to account

for the needs, motivations and preferences of individuals' Enneagram types.

The current study contributes to the literature in support of the validity and practical

utility of the Enneagram personality theory and typology. It has demonstrated how the

Enneagram can be applied effectively to improve interpersonal functioning and in a field of

study not previously explored by Enneagram research.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the current study relate to sample size and sample demographics, length of fieldwork, and measures of sustained outcomes. The sample for the present study consisted of participants with comparable educational and socio-economic backgrounds. All participants had completed a minimum of secondary education (i.e., grade 12 equivalent) and all athletes were enrolled in tertiary education. To ensure that the observed intervention effects are generalisable to other populations, this study would thus need to be replicated with a larger sample of coaches and athletes with a more varied demographic profile.

More specifically, the effectiveness of the CARE intervention for population groups with more diverse educational backgrounds would need to be investigated. The content and process of the CARE intervention relies on a relatively high level of literacy and abstract reasoning. It would be important to determine whether the intervention could be adapted to accommodate for a variety of learning needs while retaining intervention outcomes.

The fieldwork conducted for the study was limited in length due to the researcher's practical constraints. Longitudinal studies could be conducted to determine whether the CARE intervention could be adapted over a longer-term (e.g., over an entire sport season) and to establish how intervention outcomes would be affected by this. The latter point relates to a further limitation of the study of not obtaining measures of sustained change. The research design did not include follow up measures to determine whether the observed intervention effects were sustained or diminished over a longer period of time.

Suggestions for future research

The limitations outlined in the previous section suggest that longitudinal studies are required where the CARE intervention is applied to larger samples of coaches and athletes from

a variety of educational and socio-economic backgrounds. This could take the form of adapting

the CARE intervention to work with dyads or teams over an entire competitive and/or training

season. Studies could also investigate whether and/or how the CARE intervention can be adapted

to dyads from different sport types (i.e., team or individual sport), sport codes and gender

combinations. The influence of gender and sport type variables on the CARE intervention's

effects could also be investigated. As stated earlier, research could explore how the CARE

intervention influences the reciprocal relationship between CAR quality and team cohesion.

Future research could explore an integration between the CARE intervention and other

interpersonally-focused theories and practices in sport psychology. For example, the reciprocal

relationship between the CARE intervention's application of the Enneagram and the various

aspects of Jowett and Poczwardowski's (2007) CAR research model could be investigated.

Insights and practices from Self-determination Theory (SDT) could be combined with the CARE

intervention to develop more autonomy-supportive coaching environments and enhance basic

psychological need satisfaction of coaches as well as athletes. As suggested in Chapter Three, the

relationship between the motivations of each Enneagram type and the basic psychological needs

identified by SDT could be explored to establish whether the Enneagram may provide a

framework for coaches as well as athletes to identify the psychological need satisfaction that is

most central to their self-determined motivation and thus supportive of optimal performance and

well-being.

Further studies could also investigate how insights from Self-efficacy Theory (SET) and

measures of self-efficacy can be combined with the CARE intervention to enhance coaches' and

athletes' efficacy beliefs (to enhance both relationship quality and performance outcomes).

While previous research has demonstrated the relationship between Enneagram type and

attachment styles (Arthur, 2008), future studies could explore how the CARE intervention and insights from attachment theory can together enhance interpersonal functioning, while avoiding 'deficit narratives'. Also, further research could investigate how the CARE intervention could support coaches and athletes to negotiate the social-cultural sport context and the narrative forms available within it.

Applications of the Enneagram to enhance team cohesion, sport injury rehabilitation, and existing sport psychology interventions provide potentially fruitful lines of further inquiry. Finally, previous research focused on the Enneagram in the workplace (e.g., Sutton, Williams & Allison, 2011, 2015) suggests that applications to enhance interpersonal and occupational functioning within sport administration and sport management contexts could be explored.

Conclusion

This study has harnessed the expanding body of interpersonally focused theory and research in sport psychology as well as advances in personality psychology and placed them in the service of developing interventions to enhance interpersonal skills in sport. It has shown how the Enneagram's holistic and developmental view of personality can be integrated with current models of the CAR, practically applied to enhance CAR quality, and facilitate a range of adaptive interpersonal outcomes in the sport context. The study also highlights promising avenues of interpersonally-focused sport-psychology research and practice both within South Africa and internationally. Importantly, the study moves the field into uncharted territory beyond describing or aiming to predict behaviour and towards practically and systematically supporting coaches and athletes to optimise their interpersonal effectiveness and ultimately their well-being, satisfaction and performance.

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APPENDIX A

CARE – Part 3: Action Plan Template

Action Plan – Improving My Coach-Athlete Relationship
A. Which COMPASS Strategies would benefit my coach-athlete relationship?
☐   **Conflict Management** - Identifying, discussing, resolving, and monitoring potential areas of conflict   ☐   **Openness** - Sharing relevant information and maintaining a good level of communication   ☐   **Motivation** - Setting and achieving goals and making interactions enjoyable   ☐   **Preventative** - Clarifying expectations and dealing with the consequences of unmet expectations   ☐   **Assurance** - Providing the knowledge that support would be there should the need arise   ☐   **Support** - Helping one's sporting partner to overcome sport-related or personal problems   ☐   **Social networks** - Having mutual friends and socialising together
B. What are the specific action steps I will take to include the above COMPASS strategies in my coach-athlete relationship?
1. ....   *By when will I start?* ……………/……………/……...............   2. ....   *By when will I start?* ……………/……………/……...............   3. ....   *By when will I start?* ……………/……………/……...............
C. How will the above actions benefit me?
Including these COMPASS strategies will satisfy my striving to be ……………………… by: ………
D. How will this behaviour change benefit my coach-athlete relationship?
………   ………

E. What influence does my connecting point strategies have?
My Neglected Strategy: Striving to be ………………………..   …………………………………………………………………………………………………   *My Support Strategy: Striving to be* ………………………..   …………………………………………………………………………………………………
F. What are potential barriers that may prevent me from making this behaviour change?
1. …………………………………………………………………………………………………   2. …………………………………………………………………………………………………
G. How will I overcome the above barriers?
1. …………………………………………………………………………………………………   2. …………………………………………………………………………………………………
H. Who are my supports in this behaviour change process? How do I involve them?
1. ……………………… / ……………………………………………………………………   2. ……………………… / ……………………………………………………………………
I. What will be the key indicators of my progress in making this behaviour change?
1. …………………………………………………………………………………………………   2. …………………………………………………………………………………………………
Progress Review Date: ……………/……………/……..............

APPENDIX B

Participant Information Letter

Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement (CARE)

The Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement (CARE) intervention helps coaches and athletes improve their working partnership by helping them understand their own and each other's personalities. It does this in three parts:

CARE Part 1 is a self-awareness training session (4hrs) - Coaches and athletes identify their personality's motivation for behaviour, their strengths and challenges, and how to get the best from each other.

CARE Part 2 consists of a dyadic support session (1.5hrs) - A coach and athlete pair apply their enhanced self-awareness to further improve how they relate to each other and work together.

CARE Part 3 consists of an individual support session (1hr) - Coaches and athletes set and work towards behaviour change goals that maximise their effectiveness in the coach-athlete relationship.

Benefits:

- Understand yourself better
- Understand your coach/athlete better
- Improve your sporting partnership
- Become more effective as a coach/athlete

Research participation:

The above process forms part of a psychology PhD study that you are invited to participate in. All participants will experience CARE Part 1 for themselves (i.e., 4hrs) and will complete 3 brief assessments (15min) over 2 weeks (and one follow up survey 1 week later).

5 coach-athlete pairs (i.e., 10 participants) will also be selected (based on availability and random assignment) to participate in CARE Part 2 and as well as a focus group discussion (1.5 hrs).

APPENDIX C

CART-Q Direct and Meta-Versions

The Coach – *Athlete* Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q) *direct*

This questionnaire aims to measure the quality and content of the coach-athlete relationship. Please read carefully the statements below and circle the answer that indicates whether you agree or disagree. There are no right or wrong answers. Please respond to the statements as honest as possible and relevant to how you personally feel with your (principal) coach.

	Strongly Disagree	**Moderately**		**Strongly Agree**			
1. I am close to (not distant from) my coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I am committed to my coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I like my coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. When I am coached by my coach, I am at ease	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I trust my coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I think that my sport career is promising with my coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. When I am coached by my coach, I am responsive to his/her efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I respect my coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I appreciate my coach's sacrifices in order to improve performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. When I am coached by my coach, I am ready to do my best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. When I am coached by my coach, I adopt a friendly stance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Scoring System:

	items
Closeness	3,5,8,9
Commitment	1,2,6
Complementarity	4,7,10,11

The *Coach* – Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q) *direct*

This questionnaire aims to measure the quality and content of the coach-athlete relationship. Please read carefully the statements below and circle the answer that indicates whether you agree or disagree. There are no right or wrong answers. Please respond to the statements as honest as possible and relevant to how you personally feel with a <u>specific</u> athlete from your team or squad.

	Strongly Disagree	**Moderately**		**Strongly Agree**			
1. I am close to (not distant from) my athlete	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I am committed to my athlete	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I like my athlete	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. When I coach my athlete, I am at ease	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I trust my athlete	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I feel that my coaching career is promising with my athlete	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. When I coach my athlete, I am responsive to his/her efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I respect my athlete	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I appreciate my athlete's sacrifices in order to improve performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. When I coach my athlete, I am ready to do my best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. When I coach my athlete, I adopt a friendly stance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Scoring System:

	items
Closeness	3,5,8,9
Commitment	1,2,6
Complementarity	4,7,10,11

The Coach – *Athlete* Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q) *meta*

This questionnaire aims to measure the quality and content of the coach-athlete relationship. Please read carefully the statements below and circle the answer that indicates whether you agree or disagree. There are no right or wrong answers. Please respond to the statements as honest as possible and relevant to how you personally think your (principal) coach feels about you.

	Strongly Disagree		Moderately		Strongly Agree		
12. My coach is close to (not distant from) me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. My coach is committed to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. My coach likes me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. My coach is at ease when he/she coaches me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. My coach trusts me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. My coach feels that his/her career is promising with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. My coach is responsive to my efforts when he/she coaches me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. My coach respects me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. My coach appreciates the sacrifices I make in order to improve performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. My coach is ready to do his/her best when he/she coaches me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. My coach adopts a friendly stance when he/she coaches me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Scoring System:

	items
Meta-Closeness	*3,5,8,9*
Meta-Commitment	*1,2,6*
Meta-Complementarity	*4,7,10,11*

The *Coach* – Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q) *meta*

This questionnaire aims to measure the quality and content of the coach-athlete relationship. Please read carefully the statements below and circle the answer that indicates whether you agree or disagree. There are no right or wrong answers. Please respond to the statements as honest as possible and relevant to how you personally think a <u>specific</u> athlete from your team or squad feels about you.

	Strongly Disagree			Moderately			Strongly Agree
1. My athlete is close to (not distant from) me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. My athlete is committed to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My athlete likes me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My athlete is at ease when I coach him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My athlete trusts me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My athlete feels that his/her sporting career is promising with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My athlete is responsive to my efforts when I train him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My athlete respects me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My athlete appreciates the sacrifices I make in order to improve performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. My athlete is ready to do his/her best when I train him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. My athlete adopts a friendly stance when I train him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Scoring System:

	items
Closeness	3,5,8,9
Commitment	1,2,6
Complementarity	4,7,10,11

APPENDIX D

Open-ended Surveys

Athlete Survey

1. How would you describe the overall impact on you as an athlete of the Enneagram Training Session?

2. What difference, if any, has it made to understand your Enneagram type?

3. Has understanding your coach's Enneagram type made a difference to your relationship with him/her?

4. If no, please state why you think it has not made a difference?

5. If yes, how has it changed the way you *think* about your coach?

6. If yes, how has it changed the way you *feel* about your coach?

7. If yes, how has it changed the way you *behave* in your coach's company?

8. What difference, if any, has it made to understand your teammates' Enneagram types?

9. Please describe any other impact that the Enneagram Training session has had on you.

Coach Survey

1. How would you describe the overall impact on you as a coach of the Enneagram Training Session?

2. What difference, if any, has it made to understand your Enneagram type?

3. Has understanding your athletes' Enneagram types made a difference to your relationship with them?

4. If no, please state why you think it has not made a difference?

5. If yes, how has it changed the way you *think* about your athlete(s)?

6. If yes, how has it changed the way you *feel* about your athlete(s)?

7. If yes, how has it changed the way you *behave* in your athletes' company?

8. What difference, if any, has it made to your team/athletes to understand each other's Enneagram types?

9. Please describe any other impact that the Enneagram Training session has had on you.

APPENDIX E

Biographical Questionnaires

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE - ATHLETE

This biographical questionnaire collects information about you that will be used for the purposes of the research study of which you are a participant. Please complete the biographical questionnaire by filling in the text boxes and making the appropriate selections. If a question does not apply to you please state "NA". Information collected in this questionnaire will be anonymised during data analysis and reporting. Please note: the phrase "participating coach" refers to your coach who is also a participant in the current research study.

Your Age (Years):

_____

Date of Birth (dd/mm/yyyy):

_____ / _____ / _____

Gender:

☐ Male   ☐ Female

Ethnicity:

☐ Asian   ☐ Black   ☐ White   ☐ Coloured[30]   ☐   Other: _____

Home language:

☐ English   ☐ Afrikaans   ☐ Xhosa   ☐ Zulu   ☐ Southern Sotho   ☐ Tswana

☐ Northern Sotho   ☐ Venda   ☐ Tsonga   ☐ Swati   ☐ Ndebele   ☐ Other: _____

Highest completed education level:

☐ High school graduate (Matriculated)

☐ Trade/Technical/Vocational training (Tertiary level)

☐ Bachelor's degree/ BTech

☐ Honour's degree/ Advanced Diploma

☐ Master's degree

☐ Doctoral degree

Other: _____

---

[30] In the South African context this is an accepted term used for individuals from a multi-racial background.

Type of Study:

☐ Part-time

☐ Full-time

Learning Programme (Degree/Diploma): _____

Sport code (related to participating coach):

☐ Basketball ☐ Chess ☐ Golf ☐ Hockey

☐ Soccer ☐ Squash ☐ Tennis ☐ Waterpolo

Other sport codes you currently participate in (please list):

_____

Sport codes you are currently coaching (please list):

_____

Sport codes you have previously coached (please list):

_____

Length of relationship with participating coach:

☐ Less than 1 month

☐ 1 – 3 months

☐ 3 – 6 months

☐ 6 – 12 months

☐ 12 – 18 months

☐ 18 – 24 months

☐ 2 – 3 years

☐ 3 – 5 years

☐ More than 5 years

Average number of hours spent per week with participating coach (sport-related):

☐ Less than 1 hour ☐ 1 – 2 hours ☐ 2 – 3 hours ☐ 3 – 5 hours

☐ 5 – 7 hours ☐ 7 – 10 hours ☐ More than 10 hours

Average hours spent per week with participating coach (not sport-related):

☐ Less than 1 hour ☐ 1 – 2 hours ☐ 2 – 3 hours ☐ 3 – 5 hours

☐ 5 – 7 hours ☐ 7 – 10 hours ☐ More than 10 hours

BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE - COACH

This biographical questionnaire collects information about you that will be used for the purposes of the research study of which you are a participant. Please complete the biographical questionnaire by filling in the text boxes and making the appropriate selections. If a question does not apply to you please state "NA". Information collected in this questionnaire will be anonymised during data analysis and reporting. <u>Please note</u>: the phrase *"identified athlete"* refers to the athlete who has been identified as the participant you will consider when completing assessments in the current study.

Your Age (Years):

_____

Date of Birth (dd/mm/yyyy):

_____ / _____ / _____

Gender:

☐ Male   ☐ Female

Ethnicity:

☐ Asian   ☐ Black   ☐ White   ☐ Coloured   ☐ Other: _____

Home language:

☐ English   ☐ Afrikaans   ☐ Xhosa   ☐ Zulu   ☐ Southern Sotho   ☐ Tswana

☐ Northern Sotho   ☐ Venda   ☐ Tsonga   ☐ Swati   ☐ Ndebele   ☐ Other: _____

Highest completed education level:

☐ High school graduate (Matriculated)

☐ Trade/Technical/Vocational training (Tertiary level)

☐ Bachelor's degree/ BTech

☐ Honour's degree/ Advanced Diploma

☐ Master's degree

☐ Doctoral degree

Other: _____

Type of coaching:

☐ Part-time

☐ Full-time

Coaching qualifications: _____

Coaching experience:

☐ 0 – 6 months

☐ 6 months – 1 year

☐ 1 – 2 years

☐ 2 – 3 years

☐ 3 – 5 years

☐ 5 – 7 years

☐ 7 – 10 years

☐ More than 10 years

Sport code (related to identified athlete):

☐ Basketball ☐ Chess ☐ Golf ☐ Hockey

☐ Soccer ☐ Squash ☐ Tennis ☐ Waterpolo

Other sport codes you currently coach (please list):

_____

Sport codes you have previously coached (please list):

_____

Length of relationship with identified athlete:

☐ Less than 1 month

☐ 1 – 3 months

☐ 3 – 6 months

☐ 6 – 12 months

☐ 12 – 18 months

☐ 18 – 24 months

☐ 2 – 3 years

☐ 3 – 5 years

☐ More than 5 years

Average number of hours spent per week with identified athlete (sport-related):

☐ Less than 1 hour ☐ 1 – 2 hours ☐ 2 – 3 hours ☐ 3 – 5 hours

☐ 5 – 7 hours ☐ 7 – 10 hours ☐ More than 10 hours

Average hours spent per week with identified athlete (not sport-related):

☐ Less than 1 hour ☐ 1 – 2 hours ☐ 2 – 3 hours ☐ 3 – 5 hours

☐ 5 – 7 hours ☐ 7 – 10 hours ☐ More than 10 hours

APPENDIX F

Semi-structured Focus Group Interview Guide

Opening questions:

1. How would you describe the overall impact on you as a coach or athlete of the CARE experience?

2. Has the CARE experience changed your relationship with your coach or athlete in any way? If so, how?

Direct Perceptions:

3. Has the CARE experience affected the way you think about your coach or athlete? If yes, how?

4. Has the CARE experience affected how you feel about your coach or athlete? If yes, how?

5. Has the CARE experience changed the way you behave in your coach's or athlete's company? If yes, how?

Meta Perceptions:

6. How, do you think, the CARE experience has affected the way your coach or athlete thinks about you?

7. How, do you think, the CARE experience has affected how your coach or athlete feels about you?

8. Has the CARE experience changed the way your coach or athlete behaves in your company? If yes, how?

Concluding Questions:

9. How do you think the experience will affect your coach-athlete relationship going forward?

10. Please describe any other impact that the CARE experience has had on you or your relationship with your coach.

APPENDIX G

Consent Form

NELSON MANDELA METROPOLITAN UNIVERSITY

INFORMATION AND INFORMED CONSENT FORM

A. RESEARCHER'S DETAILS		
Title of the research project	Development and Evaluation of the Coach-Athlete Relationship Enhancement (CARE) Intervention	
Reference number		
Principal investigator	Wim Kuit	
Address	Villa 2, Zekreet Compound, Doha, Qatar	
Postal Code	93097	
Contact telephone number	+97430908193	
B. DECLARATION BY PARTICIPANT		Initial
I, the participant and the undersigned	(full names)	
ID number		
HEREBY CONFIRM AS FOLLOWS:		Initial
I, the participant, was invited to participate in the above-mentioned research project		
that is being undertaken by	Wim Kuit	
From	Psychology Department of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.	
THE FOLLOWING ASPECTS HAVE BEEN EXPLAINED TO ME, THE PARTICIPANT:		Initial
Aim:	• The investigators are studying the impact of an intervention to enhance the quality of the coach-athlete relationship through identifying personality type and relationship maintenance behaviour.	

	• The information will be used to complete a research dissertation as well as research articles that will be submitted to research journals.		
Procedures:	• I will be required to complete measures of coach-athlete relationship quality (x 4) and (if selected) of relationship maintenance behaviour (x 1). • I will be participating in group-based workshop (x 1) and (if selected) a focus group (x 1) where my coach/athlete will be present to explore the impact of the research activities on the coach-athlete relationship.		
Risks:	• An awareness of my personality type and relationship maintenance behaviour will form part of exploratory discussions with the investigator and my coach/athlete.		
Possible benefits:	• Participation in the study will provide me with an opportunity to gain an enhanced awareness of my own and my coach's/athlete's personality type and to develop a mutual appreciation of each other's interpersonal strengths and development areas within the relationship.		
Confidentiality:	• My identity will not be revealed by the investigators in any discussion, description or scientific publications. • All personal information discussed during research activities (i.e., group-based workshops and focus groups) will be protected by a group confidentiality agreement.		
Access to findings:	• Feedback of the findings will be emailed to me after the research has been finalized. A copy of the treatise will also be available in the NMMU library.		
Voluntary participation / refusal / discontinuation:	My participation is voluntary	YES	NO
	My decision whether or not to participate will in no way affect my present or future care/employment/lifestyle	TRUE	FALSE

THE INFORMATION ABOVE WAS EXPLAINED TO ME, THE PARTICIPANT BY:			Initial
Wim Kuit			
in	English	X	

I was given the opportunity to ask questions and all these questions were answered satisfactorily.	
No pressure was exerted on me to consent to participation and I understand that I may withdraw at any stage without penalisation.	
Participation in this study will not result in any additional cost to myself.	

I HEREBY VOLUNTARILY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE ABOVE-MENTIONED PROJECT:

Signed/confirmed: _____   PORT ELIZABETH
On: _____ / 08 / 2017

Signature of witness:

Full name of witness:

STATEMENT BY OR ON BEHALF OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

I,	Wim Kuit	declare that:			
	I have explained the information given in this document to:				
2.	The potential participant was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions.				
3.	This conversation was conducted in	Afrikaans		English	X
4.	I have detached Section C and handed it to the participant	YES	NO		

Signed/confirmed at	Port Elizabeth	On _____ / 08	/	2017

	Signature of witness:
Signature of interviewer	Full name of witness:

C. IMPORTANT MESSAGE TO PARTICIPANT	
Dear participant Thank you for your participation in this study. Should, at any time during the study: - an emergency or difficulty arise as a result of the research, or - you require any further information with regard to the study,	
Kindly contact	Wim Kuit
at telephone number	+97430908198

APPENDIX H

Confidentiality Agreement

Confidentiality and the privacy of information is an essential aspect of all pair and group-based research activities that you will participate in. Thus, this agreement aims to provide you and your fellow research participants with an assurance of such confidentiality and privacy. Please ensure that you have understood and agreed to the agreement before signing.

I, _____ (name), as a participant in the relevant research activities, hereby agree that under no circumstances will I discuss any confidential and/or personal information pertaining to any other research participant with anyone including my own family, roommates, significant others, or any other person(s) not a member of this group.

_____   _____

Signature   Date

APPENDIX I

Statistical Tables and Calculations

Total Sample / Group A and B Means and Alpha Reliabilities for the Direct and Meta CART-Q

	All		Group A		Group B	
	n	alpha	n	alpha	n	alpha
D-Close 1	66	0.77	49	0.76	17	0.79
D-Close 2	76	0.75	49	0.77	27	0.73
D-Close 3	74	0.86	47	0.85	27	0.86
M-Close 1	66	0.77	49	0.79	17	0.76
M-Close 2	76	0.85	49	0.83	27	0.86
M-Close 3	74	0.88	47	0.88	27	0.87
D-Commit 1	66	0.61	49	0.73	17	0.22
D-Commit 2	76	0.70	49	0.75	27	0.63
D-Commit 3	74	0.63	47	0.68	27	0.63
M-Commit 1	66	0.77	49	0.79	17	0.69
M-Commit 2	76	0.81	49	0.82	27	0.79
M-Commit 3	74	0.84	47	0.84	27	0.81
D-Compl 1	66	0.81	49	0.83	17	0.77
D-Compl 2	76	0.81	49	0.83	27	0.77
D-Compl 3	74	0.84	47	0.88	27	0.76
M-Compl 1	66	0.76	49	0.77	17	0.76
M-Compl 2	76	0.81	49	0.83	27	0.79
M-Compl 3	74	0.84	47	0.86	27	0.79
D-CAR Total 1	66	0.78	49	0.74	17	0.89
D-CAR Total 2	76	0.82	49	0.79	27	0.85
D-CAR Total 3	74	0.90	47	0.86	27	0.94
M-CAR Total 1	66	0.81	49	0.78	17	0.90
M-CAR Total 2	76	0.89	49	0.87	27	0.92
M-CAR Total 3	74	0.89	47	0.88	27	0.91

	Paired Sample T-test: Group B T1 and T2					
	D-Close 1	D-Close 2	Diff.	t	p(df=16)	d
Mean	6.28	6.26	-0.01	-0.10	.919	n/a
S.D.	0.98	0.89	0.59			
	M-Close 1	M-Close 2		t	p(df=16)	d
Mean	5.78	5.84	0.06	0.27	.791	n/a
S.D.	0.81	1.06	0.90			
	D-Commit 1	D-Commit 2		t	p(df=16)	d
Mean	5.24	5.20	-0.04	-0.26	.802	n/a
S.D.	0.84	1.11	0.63			
	M-Commit 1	M-Commit 2		t	p(df=16)	d
Mean	4.82	5.00	0.18	1.19	.253	n/a
S.D.	1.17	1.17	0.61			
	D-Compl 1	D-Compl 2		t	p(df=16)	d
Mean	5.97	6.00	0.03	0.19	.855	n/a
S.D.	0.94	0.98	0.65			
	M-Compl 1	M-Compl 2		t	p(df=16)	d
Mean	5.74	5.75	0.01	0.07	.946	n/a
S.D.	0.89	1.13	0.89			
	D-CAR Total 1	D-CAR Total 2		t	p(df=16)	d
Mean	5.83	5.82	-0.01	-0.07	.947	n/a
S.D.	0.83	0.93	0.50			
	M-CAR Total 1	M-CAR Total 2		t	p(df=16)	d
Mean	5.45	5.53	0.08	0.49	.627	n/a
S.D.	0.89	1.06	0.69			

T-test: STpre Variables Group A and B									
Variable	Group	n	Mean	S.D	Diff.	t	d.f.	p(d.f.=74)	Cohen's d
STpreD-Close	Group A	49	6.32	0.68	0.08	0.45	74	.655	n/a
	Group B	27	6.24	0.75					
STpreM-Close	Group A	49	5.78	0.81	0.07	0.34	74	.738	n/a
	Group B	27	5.70	1.03					
STpreD-Commit	Group A	49	5.44	0.99	0.18	0.77	74	.445	n/a
	Group B	27	5.26	1.00					
STpreM-Commit	Group A	49	5.20	1.08	0.23	0.88	74	.384	n/a
	Group B	27	4.98	1.12					
STpreD-Compl	Group A	49	5.93	0.90	-0.06	-0.27	74	.787	n/a
	Group B	27	5.99	0.84					
STpreM-Compl	Group A	49	5.88	1.00	0.17	0.71	74	.478	n/a
	Group B	27	5.71	0.97					
STpreD-CAR T	Group A	49	5.90	0.70	0.07	0.39	74	.700	n/a
	Group B	27	5.83	0.77					
STpreM-CAR T	Group A	49	5.62	0.81	0.16	0.75	74	.453	n/a
	Group B	27	5.46	0.97					

Paired sample T-test: STPre and STPost					
	STpreD-Close	STpostD-Close	Difference	t	p(df=67)	d
Mean	6.28	6.22	-0.06	-1.09	.279	n/a
S.D.	0.70	0.71	0.47			
	STpreM-Close	STpostM-Close	Difference	t	p(df=67)	d
Mean	5.72	5.75	0.03	0.47	.643	n/a
S.D.	0.90	0.87	0.52			
	STpreD-Commit	STpostD-Commit	Difference	t	p(df=67)	d
Mean	5.33	5.57	0.24	2.92	.005	0.35
S.D.	0.94	0.93	0.68			
	STpreM-Commit	STpostM-Commit	Difference	t	p(df=67)	d
Mean	5.09	5.30	0.22	3.06	.003	0.37
S.D.	1.03	1.03	0.58			
	STpreD-Compl	STpostD-Compl	Difference	t	p(df=67)	d
Mean	5.94	6.00	0.06	1.11	.273	n/a
S.D.	0.88	0.84	0.44			
	STpreM-Compl	STpostM-Compl	Difference	t	p(df=67)	d
Mean	5.79	5.89	0.09	1.60	.115	n/a
S.D.	1.00	0.95	0.47			
	STpreD-CAR T	STpostD-CAR T	Difference	t	p(df=67)	d
Mean	5.85	5.93	0.08	1.66	.101	n/a
S.D.	0.71	0.74	0.39			
	STpreM-CAR T	STpostM-CAR T	Difference	t	p(df=67)	d
Mean	5.54	5.65	0.11	2.18	.033	0.26
S.D.	0.86	0.86	0.42			

Descriptive Statistics for Repeated Measures ANOVA - Group A (n = 39)							
Direct Variables							
	D-Close		D-Commit		D-Compl		D-CAR Total	
Time	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.
T1	6.29	0.70	5.43	0.91	5.98	0.87	5.90	0.69
T2	6.29	0.61	5.63	0.92	6.05	0.86	5.99	0.68
T3	6.33	0.70	5.91	0.77	6.13	0.90	6.12	0.71
Meta Variables							
	M-Close		M-Commit		M-Compl		M-CAR Total	
Time	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std.Dev.
T1	5.74	0.85	5.18	0.99	5.90	1.00	5.60	0.80
T2	5.79	0.83	5.42	0.97	5.97	0.92	5.73	0.81
T3	5.99	0.83	5.66	1.01	6.11	0.94	5.92	0.84

Repeated Measures ANOVA - Group A (n = 39, D.F. = 2;76)				
	D- Variables		M- Variables	
Effect	F	p	F	p
Close	0.19	.829	6.04	.004
Commit	16.22	<.0005	15.95	<.0005
Compl	2.14	.124	4.59	.013
CAR Total	8.40	.001	15.27	<.0005

Descriptive and Post-Hoc Inferential Statistics for Repeated Measures ANOVA - D-Commit

Descriptive Statistics						
Time Period	Variable	Mean	S.D.	Difference	Mean	S.D.(pooled)
1	D-Commit 1	5.43	0.91	2 - 1	0.21	0.53
2	D-Commit 2	5.63	0.92	3 - 1	0.48	0.53
3	D-Commit 3	5.91	0.77	3 - 2	0.27	0.53
Inferential Statistics						
Difference	Tukey HSD p	Cohen's d				
2 - 1	.045	0.39	Small			
3 - 1	<.0005	0.91	Large			
3 - 2	.005	0.52	Medium			

Descriptive and Post-Hoc Inferential Statistics for Repeated Measures ANOVA - D-CAR Total

Descriptive Statistics						
Time Period	Variable	Mean	S.D.	Difference	Mean	S.D.(pooled)
1	D-CAR 1	5.90	0.69	2 - 1	0.09	0.34
2	D-CAR 2	5.99	0.68	3 - 1	0.22	0.34
3	D-CAR 3	6.12	0.71	3 - 2	0.13	0.34
Inferential Statistics						
Difference	Tukey HSD p	Cohen's d				
2 - 1	.231	n/a				
3 - 1	<.0005	0.65	Medium			
3 - 2	.046	0.39	Small			

Descriptive and Post-Hoc Inferential Statistics for Repeated Measures ANOVA - M-Close

Descriptive Statistics						
Time Period	Variable	Mean	S.D.	Difference	Mean	S.D.(pooled)
1	M-Close 1	5.74	0.85	2 - 1	0.06	0.47
2	M-Close 2	5.79	0.83	3 - 1	0.25	0.47
3	M-Close 3	5.99	0.83	3 - 2	0.19	0.47

Inferential Statistics			
Difference	Tukey HSD p	Cohen's d	
2 - 1	.725	n/a	
3 - 1	.004	0.53	Medium
3 - 2	.034	0.41	Small

Descriptive and Post-Hoc Inferential Statistics for Repeated Measures ANOVA - M-Commit

Descriptive Statistics						
Time Period	Variable	Mean	S.D.	Difference	Mean	S.D.(pooled)
1	M-Commit 1	5.18	0.99	2 - 1	0.24	0.53
2	M-Commit 2	5.42	0.97	3 - 1	0.48	0.53
3	M-Commit 3	5.66	1.01	3 - 2	0.24	0.53

Inferential Statistics			
Difference	Tukey HSD p	Cohen's d	
2 - 1	.017	0.45	Small
3 - 1	<.0005	0.90	Large
3 - 2	.017	0.45	Small

Descriptive and Post-Hoc Inferential Statistics for Repeated Measures ANOVA - M-Compl

Descriptive Statistics						
Time Period	Variable	Mean	S.D.	Difference	Mean	S.D.(pooled)
1	M-Compl 1	5.90	1.00	2 - 1	0.08	0.44
2	M-Compl 2	5.97	0.92	3 - 1	0.21	0.44
3	M-Compl 3	6.11	0.94	3 - 2	0.13	0.44

Inferential Statistics			
Difference	Tukey HSD p	Cohen's d	
2 - 1	.524	n/a	
3 - 1	.010	0.48	Small
3 - 2	.144	n/a	

Descriptive and Post-Hoc Inferential Statistics for Repeated Measures ANOVA - M-CAR Total

Descriptive Statistics						
Time Period	Variable	Mean	S.D.	Difference	Mean	S.D.(pooled)
1	M-CAR 1	5.60	0.80	2 - 1	0.12	0.36
2	M-CAR 2	5.73	0.81	3 - 1	0.31	0.36
3	M-CAR 3	5.92	0.84	3 - 2	0.19	0.36

Inferential Statistics			
Difference	Tukey HSD p	Cohen's d	
2 - 1	.081	n/a	
3 - 1	<.0005	0.88	Large
3 - 2	.004	0.53	Medium

APPENDIX J

CARE Intervention: Session Reviews

CARE – Part 1

CARE – Part 1 (Enneagram Training Session): Group A (Session 1 - 7 August 2017, 17h00 – 21h00)

Twenty-five participants (22 athletes and 3 coaches from men's hockey, women's waterpolo and squash) attended CARE – Part 1. A13(FT)1 arrived 55 minutes late as agreed before. A18(FI)3 and A19(MI)8 left at the meal break to attend to a personal matter and returned about 45 minutes after the break. The session was initially somewhat stilted with the different teams and players not knowing each other. Some participants were initially hesitant to engage in discussions. However, as the session progressed more participants started identifying their Enneagram types, which stimulated more sharing and open group reflection. All participants found the personality collage exercise easy to complete and could integrate their Enneagram type into their collage narratives. A1(MT)3M (hockey coach) reflected on how valuable he found the evening and that he was able to identify the patterns of his Enneagram type that have possibly been misunderstood by his players. The interaction between him and his team became progressively more relaxed during the evening. All three coach-athlete dyad follow up sessions (CARE – Part 2) were confirmed with the selected dyads and scheduled to take place within a week.

CARE – Part 1 (Enneagram Training Session): Group A (Session 2 - 8 August 2017, 17h00 – 21h00)

Nineteen participants (17 athletes and 2 coaches from women's hockey and golf) attended CARE – Part 1. A28(FT)3 arrived 30 minutes late as agreed. A38(MI)7 reported that he had to leave at 18h50 during the session break due to study commitments. Three athletes (A27(FT)8, A30(FT)7 and A34(FT)8) also left the session 30 minutes before the end due to study commitments. The session again felt initially somewhat stilted with the different teams and players not knowing each other. The session's dynamic was also affected by the departure of participants. However, as the session progressed participants again started engaging more readily in discussions of their own Enneagram type. The personality collage session was productive with ample discussion and reflection between coaches and athletes. The impact of personality type on communication and feedback was a prominent focus of these discussions. All dyad sessions for

CARE – Part 2 were booked for within a week (except for A23(FT)3M and A31(FT)8 who could not participate as planned due to logistical difficulties).

CARE – Part 1 (Enneagram Training Session): Group B (Session 1 – 14 August 2017, 16h30 – 21h00)

Ten participants (9 athletes and 1 assistant coach from cricket only) and 1 research supervisor (Dr. Lynn Slogrove) attended CARE – Part 1. Men's hockey (Premier B) could not attend as planned due to practice schedules. B03(MT)7 left at 7pm (i.e., missing the last 1.5 hours of the session) due to a family emergency. Participants engaged freely in discussions from the outset, which was in contrast to previous CARE – Part 1 sessions with participants from different teams being together. There was also a higher level of self-disclosure than previous sessions, which may have been due to players' existing familiarity with each other. The level of engagement and dialogue meant that there was not enough time for the personality collage exercise to be completed. However, the purpose of the collage (being to stimulate sharing and mutual awareness of Enneagram type between athletes and coach) was met by the discussions of type during the course of the session. In the session participants reported enhanced self and mutual awareness that fostered a sense of understanding and tolerance for each other.

CARE – Part 1 (Enneagram Training Session): Group B (Session 2 – 15 August 2017, 16h30 – 21h00)

Seventeen participants (14 athletes and 3 coaches from women's soccer, tennis and chess) attended CARE – Part 1. The session started 30 min late due to the late arrival of number of women's soccer team participants. While engagement from most participants was positive, certain of the soccer team athletes did not seem engaged in the session and at times created some disturbance (i.e., giggling and talking amongst each other). Fortunately this did dissipate as the session began to explore their Enneagram types. While the most participants could identify their Enneagram types confidently, there were three soccer team athletes (B19(FT)5, B24(FT)2, and B17(FT)3) who did not seem to integrate their identified type into personal narratives in a consistent manner. These participants seemed unclear about the exact manner in which their type influences their behaviour and interpersonal functioning. Despite some of the aforementioned limitations, the personality collage exercise was well embraced and all participants engaged actively. B15(FT)8F (soccer coach) reflected at the end of the session on an enhanced awareness of her dominant personality type, and that she recognised the need to adapt her communication

style to get the best from players. Also, B13(MI)1 (chess player) described a recognition of how his narrow focus on the 'one right way' has not always been effective and that he wanted to consider others' points of view more.

CARE – Part 2

CARE – Part 2 (Dyadic Session): A10(FT)8F and A2.4(FT)1 - 10 August 2017, 11h45 – 13h00

Both participants engaged readily with the process and reflected on their newly integrated self-awareness of type. During A10(FT)8F's re-authoring conversation and the outsider witness reflection with A2.4(FT)1, a narrative emerged of the complementary strengths of the ONE and EIGHT Enneagram types in the CAR - with A10(FT)8F (coach) being affirmed for the confident leadership, assertiveness, challenge of self-imposed limits, and protection from unfair blame by the team that she contributed to the partnership. During A2.4(FT)1's re-authoring conversation and outsider witness reflections with A10(FT)8F, an affirming narrative was developed of A2.4(FT)1's conscientious commitment to the CAR and consistent willingness to work at her technique and receive feedback and constructive criticism. This is a longstanding relationship and the coach used to be a fellow teammate. The relationship transition into a new relationship narrative was made seamless by both parties' mutual respect for, and open and direct communication with, each other.

CARE – Part 2 (Dyadic Session): A17(M/FI)3M and A2.6(FI)9 - 10 August 2017, 13h30 – 14h00

Both participants engaged openly in the conversation. A2.6(FI)9 did struggle at times to articulate some of the ways in which her personality type influences the CAR, but was able to integrate the key aspects of her type into a personal narrative. During re-authoring conversations a narrative emerged of mutually reinforcing personal strengths between coach and athlete over a long period of collaboration (more than 10 years). A17(M/FI)3M (coach) was acknowledged for his highly motivated and task-focused approach that has encouraged A2.6(FI)9 (athlete) to develop herself in areas where she was not always comfortable (e.g., fitness and hitting drives). The first outsider-witness discussion focused on how A17(M/FI)3M, while remaining 'on task' in improving A2.6(FI)9's performance, has also adapted his approach to make sure that A2.6(FI)9 enjoyed the experience. A17(M/FI)3M's adaptability was acknowledged while his competitiveness and driven approach was also recognised as a strength. During A2.6(FI)9's

outside witness discussion A17(M/FI)3M affirmed her consistency and receptivity to his input. A17(M/FI)3M remarked on how her acceptance of his 'not so good days' has made it possible for him to get the best from her in a mutually complementary way. A2.6(FI)9's modesty was also described by A17(M/FI)3M as something that allows her to remain focused on the next training session/match without getting distracted by success and external approval.

CARE – Part 2 (Dyadic Session): A36(M/FI)1M and A2.8(MI)9 - 11 August 2017, 09h00 – 10h30

Both participants engaged openly and could integrate Enneagram type awareness into their self-descriptions readily. During re-authoring and outside witness discussions A36(M/FI)1M's (coach) strengths were described as providing detailed and clear feedback about specific dimensions of A2.8(MI)9's golf game without becoming too 'pushy'. A2.8(MI)9 reflected on how A36(M/FI)1M is able to provide support and clear guidance without imposing too strongly on him. This is a quality that A2.8(MI)9 appreciated and felt was supportive of his development and desire to maintain a sense of peace as a NINE while still remaining focused. A2.8(MI)9's consistency and receptivity in response to A36(M/FI)1M's input was highlighted. However, A2.8(MI)9 did reflect on the challenge for him as a NINE of taking 'on board' others' points of view too readily, which makes it difficult to know what his own thoughts and opinions are about how he should adapt his golf swing and game. An important reflection occurred where A2.8(MI)9 described how it was helpful when he is given guidance, but also space and time to 'work things out for himself'. A36(M/FI)1M remarked on how it was helpful to know that A2.8(MI)9 would function well with a clear and agreed structure, but one that also allowed for some autonomy so that A2.8(MI) could take ownership of his own motivation and development.

CARE – Part 2 (Dyadic Session): A1(MT)1M and A2.2(MT)9 - 14 August 2017, 11h30 – 12h00

Both participants engaged openly and could integrate Enneagram type awareness into their narratives of self. In the re-authoring conversation of A1(MT)1M's a coach narrative, it emerged that his passion for hockey and focus on being the best was fueled by his relationship with his father. A1(MT)1M described his father as a hard man who was difficult to please and associated this with his tough approach in communicating with athletes and his THREE competitiveness. The latter strengths were connected to the positive impact that A1(MT)1M has had on a number of athletes over years of coaching who have fed back to him about the 'work

ethic' and discipline that was instilled in them as a result of CARs with him. In the outsider-witness reflection with A2.2(MT)9 the CAR was described as a father-son relationship in which A2.2(MT)9 confirmed how his personal and sport development had been fostered by A1(MT)3M's driven yet compassionate and father-like approach. A2.2(MT)9's re-authoring narrative identified his persistence and resilience in achieving high levels of performance (being selected for the South African national side) in spite of there not always being practical and emotional support for him from family. In the outsider-witness discussion A1(MT)3M affirmed A2.2(MT)9 as being highly talented yet modest and inclusive of others (NINE strengths).

CARE – Part 3

CARE – Part 3 (Individual Session): A36(M/FI)1M - 14 August 2017, 09h00 – 10h00

Enneagram type narrative: A36(M/FI)1M engaged openly and positively in the session. He had been able to integrate an understanding of his ONE personality type into his view himself as a coach. A focus on high standards and diligent working towards achieving them (as well as an attention to detail and method) was a strong feature of this personal and coach narrative.

Awareness to Action Process: In exploring his CARM-Q results[31] it became evident that A36(M/FI)1M's low score for the COMPASS strategy of SUPPORT (see Figure A below) was related to his perception of the nature of the CAR with A2.8(MI)9.

Figure A. CARM-Q Results - A36(M/FI)1M

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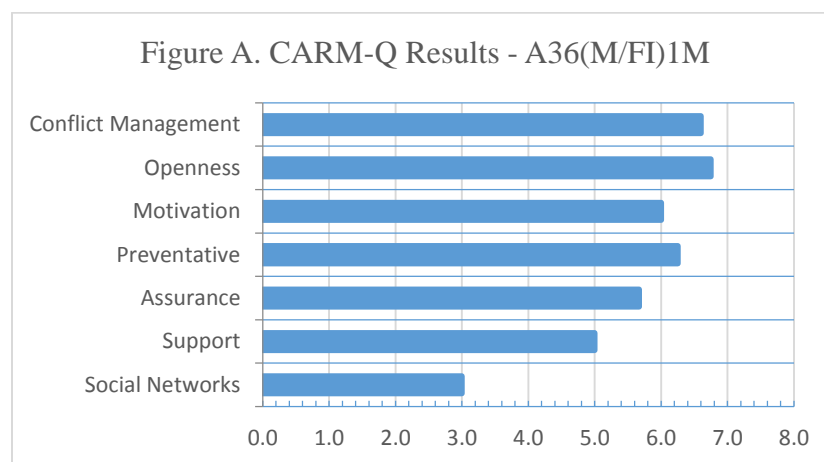
[31] For all coaches and athlete a low score on social networks was not considered significant since in the university context it was found to be quite rare for a student and coach to share social networks due to the age gap and dual roles.

A36(M/FI)1M felt that investing energy and time in extending himself to reach out emotionally to A2.8(MI)9 was in conflict with his focus on high standards since A2.8(MI)9 was not always very committed or an elite level player. A36(M/FI)1M did not feel it was an appropriate or necessary strategy to incorporate in the CAR. In retrospect, a line of discussion could have been pursued where high standards could have been redefined as investing in all relationships equally and potentially satisfying the striving for perfection even with a less talented player. However, the SUPPORT strategy was discussed in relation to another NINE player (more successful) where A36(M/FI)1M recognised the consistency between his coaching goals of constant improvement of showing a more personal concern when the player was not engaging as expected. Due to the fact that the CARM-Q results did not seem pertinent to A36(M/FI)1M and his CAR with A2.8(MI)9, the action plan was only discussed briefly in the session. In this dialogue A36(M/FI)1M did identify that SUPPORT is a strategy that he could incorporate more in his personal relationships. We discussed the potential value of being both supportive/accepting and critical/correcting in helping others improve (i.e., redefining the striving for perfection to incorporate SUPPORT). A36(M/FI)1M feared that being non-critical and supportive would undermine his focus on getting things done properly (i.e., conflicting commitment). The session had already overrun (as a large proportion of time was spent establishing rapport at the start), but we briefly explored the narrative of reaching greater levels of 'perfection' by supporting others in their choices (even if they seem wrong) rather than 'controlling' them to get a perfect outcome.

CARE – Part 3 (Individual Session): A10(FT)8F - 15 August 2017, 08h30 – 09h30

Enneagram type narrative: A10(FT)8F engaged well in the session and had integrated an understanding of herself as an EIGHT coach into her self-descriptions. She specifically described that she strives to be 'em-powerful' more than just powerful in a controlling sense. She described a recognition that adapting herself to the needs and feelings of players gives her greater influence to 'control' outcomes and results. A10(FT)8F's coach narrative also incorporated the two connecting point strategies of her type (TWO and FIVE) where she described being adaptable and connected and also emotionally detached enough to challenge players to take responsibility when needed.

Awareness to Action Process: In discussing A10(FT)8F's CARM-Q results we explored CONFLICT MANAGEMENT as a COMPASS strategy that had special relevance to her CARs

in general, where she described a limited patience and understanding during disagreements with athletes at times. A10(FT)8F identified that there was a conflicting commitment between being calm and non-confrontational during disagreements and her desire to control the outcome of such disagreements (to ensure that no one is taken advantage of). However she recognised that a hostile approach does lead to players feeling intimidated and not communicating openly – which reinforces a feeling of not being in control. We identified some actions that redefined her preferred strategy (striving to be em-powerful) as taking time to understand a situation before reacting and adapting her delivery (to avoid intimidation) – thereby getting information that will empower her to act with more influence.

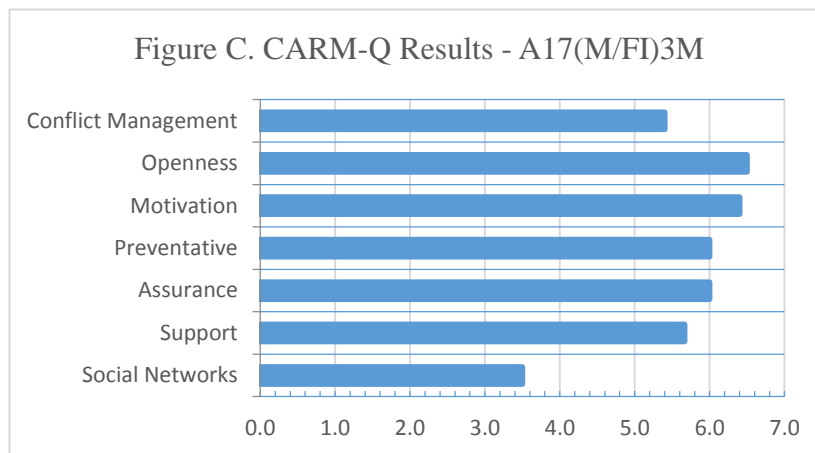Figure B. CARM-Q Results - A10(FT)8F
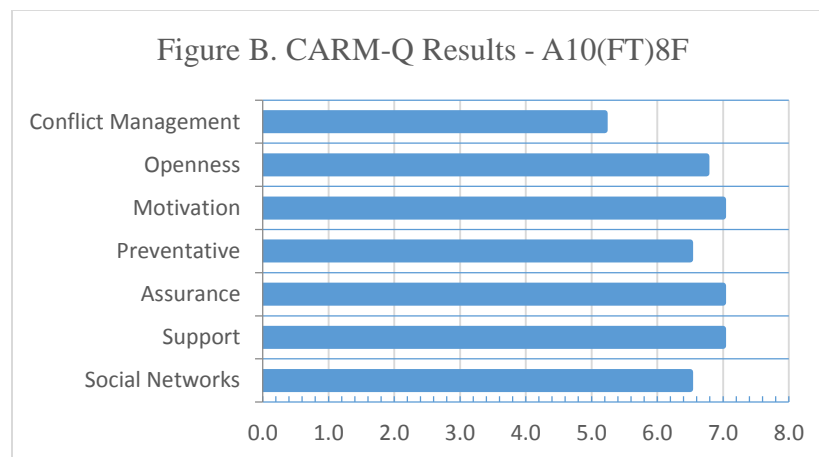
She believed that players will respect her more and she would get more from them. The action plan sections that identify specific barriers to such a change and how to overcome them were not completed. I encouraged A10(FT)8F to complete those in her own time. The parts of the action plan that were completed together were the action steps and the redefinition of the strategy to incorporate the identified adaptive behaviour (i.e., CONFLICT MANAGEMENT).

CARE – Part 3 (Individual Session): A17(M/FI)3M - 15 August 2017, 13h00 – 14h00

Enneagram type narrative: A17(M/FI)3M engaged openly and freely in the session and had integrated his understanding of being an Enneagram type THREE into his coach narrative. He described it as an achievement focus and wanting to be the best he can be at all times and in all activities, fulfilling his potential, winning (society defined success), and enjoying competition in almost all activities. He identified that his success drive can at times make him

"fixated" (his own word) about things not yet achieved and that he can then "lose balance" in maintaining all his dimensions of wellness – i.e., neglecting social and physical well-being.

Awareness to Action Process: We discussed his CARM-Q results with specific focus on SUPPORT (his lowest score – see Figure C). He identified that taking a more personal and emotionally supportive interest in players has in the past been limited by his (type THREE) task-focused coaching style. This was also reinforced by a context where he as a male coach needed to have very clear boundaries with female athletes. He has increasingly recognised through the CARE intervention process that taking a personal interest (with boundaries) and showing that he cares for athletes will enhance his connection / trust with them and that this closer relationship will give him more influence to help players achieve and "be the best they can be."

Figure C. CARM-Q Results - A17(M/FI)3M

Dimension	Score
Conflict Management	5.4
Openness	6.4
Motivation	6.3
Preventative	6.0
Assurance	6.0
Support	5.6
Social Networks	3.5

We thus redefined his striving to be outstanding to incorporate the action step of making time before practice to 'check-in' with athletes on a more personal level. He agreed to complete the action plan with this understanding/framework. A17(M/FI)3M also described a growing recognition (from participating in the CARE intervention) that he has to have a more holistic definition of success where the end goal is still satisfying but does not sacrifice being successful in all areas of his life. We reflected on the helpful beliefs of his type and the notion of not always working (and that things will continue to work). He reflected on how it is difficult for him to let go and to allow others (especially his athletes) to take the reins for fear of failure. However, we identified that doing this more would allow his athletes to develop their own skills, opinions and initiative and ultimately make them more successful athletes and him a more successful coach.

CARE – Part 3 (Individual Session): A2.8(MI)9 - 17 August 2017, 09h00 – 10h00

     Enneagram type narrative: A2.8(MI)9 was able to integrate his understanding of his Enneagram type into his personal narrative. He described himself as liking it when everyone is happy, listening to others and trying to understand their point of view, being laid back and 'pressing down' his feelings, and 'taking a lot to get angry'. He described how he has increasingly had to assert his will and recognise what he wants and that the CARE intervention sessions had made him more aware of the need for this.

     Awareness to Action Process: In reviewing A2.8(MI)9's CARM-Q results (see Figure D) we discussed how his flexible communication style has supported the OPENESS COMPASS strategy and that his value and love of others (especially his friends) and adapting to their perspectives makes others feel assured of his support for them (i.e., ASSURANCE strategy). In relation to A36(M/FI)1M, A2.8(MI)9 emphasised that his CAR was at times not as focused as it should be. He explained that while he played for the university team, he viewed himself more as a leisure golfer.

Figure D. CARM-Q Results - A2.8(MI)9
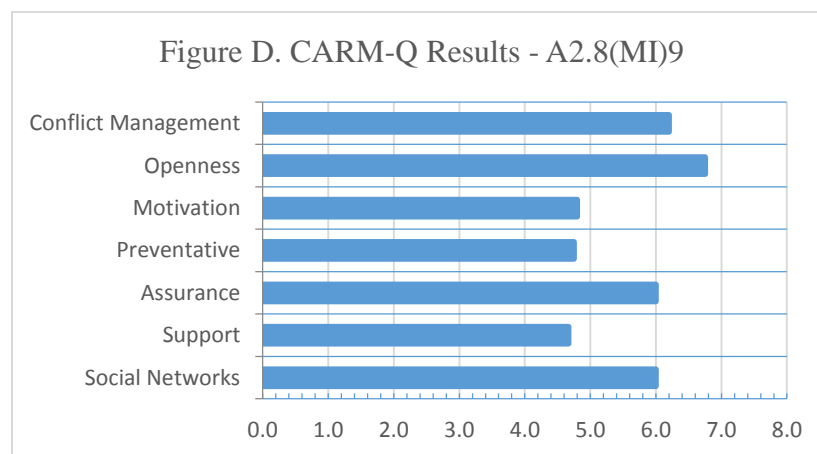
     Despite this, we explored a particular behaviour from A36(M/FI)1M that A2.8(MI)9 experiences as unsettling and which he felt related to the low PREVENTATIVE score on the CARM-Q. A36(M/FI)1M sometimes does not acknowledge him when A2.8(MI)9 greets him at the Golf club. This is usually when A36(M/FI)1M is busy coaching another athlete. A2.8(MI)9 has felt upset about this but his striving to maintain a peaceful connection and avoid conflict has prevented him from addressing it directly. A2.8(MI)9 tends to think of A36(M/FI)1M's 'good reasons' for doing this and fears that confronting him will spoil the good relationship. We

discussed how addressing this more openly (i.e., PREVENTATIVE strategy) could allow A2.8(MI)9 to feel more internal peace and not carry around negative feelings towards his coach. After redefining striving to be peaceful this way A2.8(MI)9 felt that he would be able to (in a calm manner) talk to A36(M/FI)1M about the issue and that it was worth risking potential disharmony to gain more inner peace about it. We explored the benefits of this paradoxical strategy (addressing interpersonal tension directly in order to gain more peace) in other areas of A2.8(MI)9's life. He felt that he was starting to do this more and recognised that 'letting things build up' has resulted in him over-expressing his built up anger. As with other CARE – Part 3 sessions, the action plan was discussed but not fully completed in the session.

CARE – Part 3 (Individual Session): A2.4(FT)1 - 17 August 2017, 10h15 – 11h15

Enneagram type narrative: A2.4(FT)1 was able to integrate her awareness of her Enneagram type ONE personality into her personal narrative. She described constantly wanting to better herself, be the best version of herself and improve her self-confidence. She identified diligence, commitment, honesty and respect for her superiors as her key strengths. The conversation also identified the potential challenge of over-relying on striving to be perfect, especially when this was defined as "over-humility" underpinned by the fear of seeming arrogant and too confident. This fear can limit A2.4(FT)1's self-efficacy and lead to a narrow focus on defects while dismissing successes. In externalising dialogue we discussed how over-humility (i.e., not accepting acknowledgement for successes and doing well) can be countered by weighing up the pros and cons of allowing herself to accept positive feedback. A2.4(FT)1 also recognised that giving her team mates positive feedback is a source of motivation to them which improves performance (and not a source of arrogance). We discussed how she has 'a long way to go' on the continuum of humility towards arrogance.

Awareness to Action Process. We then discussed A2.4(FT)1's strengths on the CARM-Q results (ASSURANCE and SUPPORT – see Figure E) as expressed in her reliability and conscientious support (also type ONE strengths) of her coach.

Figure E. CARM-Q Results - A2.4(FT)1
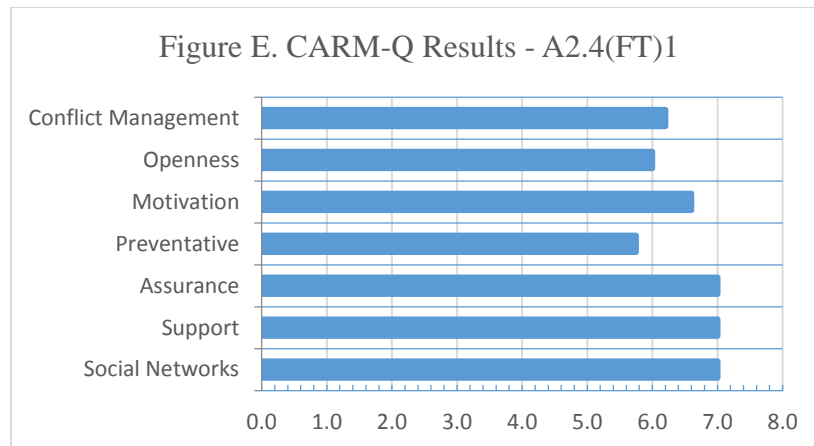
Then we discussed the lower scores for OPENESS and PREVENTATIVE in the context of A2.4(FT)1's concern that communicating her feelings and thoughts (e.g., unmet expectations) would lead to A10(FT)8F being 'triggered' and that a conflict would ensue. A2.4(FT)1 feared that this type of conflict would further limit her self-confidence and self-efficacy which she felt was already hindered by the over-humility described above and the type ONE focus on her 'mistakes'. A2.4(FT)1 described how she carefully words communication with A10(FT)8F to avoid an attacking or aggressive response.

We then explored how a preventative conversation (not reacting in the heat of the moment) could be viewed as "perfecting their communication" and developing greater levels of mutual respect. Striving to be perfect was thus redefined to incorporate the adaptive PREVENTATIVE strategy in service of improvement. A2.4(FT)1 felt that being able to have this type of conversation would not only boost her self-confidence but also improve the team environment. Having redefined A2.4(FT)1's striving to be perfect to include more open dialogues with her coach, we identified certain action steps that she could take to prevent unmet expectations.

A2.4(FT)1 thought that taking a more relaxed (not so serious and formal) approach and first creating a "calm before the storm" was a way to not have A10(FT)8F react with defensiveness. We discussed this relaxed approach in the context of A2.4(FT)1's neglected strategy (point SEVEN - Striving to be excited) and she felt that she could be a more open to using a fun activity (e.g., going for coffee) to communicate with A10(FT)8F about the more 'serious' issues. With A2.4(FT)1 the majority of the action plan was collaboratively completed as this felt more appropriate in light of the specific examples of behaviour that were being generated.

CARE – Part 3 (Individual Session): A2.6(FI)9 - 17 August 2017, 13h00 – 14h00

Enneagram type narrative: A2.6(FI)9 integrated her awareness of her Enneagram type into her personal narrative as striving to find more balance and harmony in her life. Balance she described in the context of the CAR narrative as meeting A17(M/FI)3M halfway and compromising (i.e., trusting what A17(M/FI)3M is doing and going with it). However, she also described how the CARE intervention had made her more aware of how she also at times needs to communicate to her coach what she wants to focus on in practices. She described her striving to be peaceful as a need for harmony in the CAR where she keeps things lighthearted and makes jokes in communication with A17(M/FI)3M as a way of maintaining a friendly relationship and being flexible.

This lightheartedness has increased more in her university sport career. This is in contrast to school sport where her CAR with A17(M/FI)3M was more focused and structured towards reaching the regular goals/events based on the school competition calendar. Since starting university A2.6(FI)9's competitive calendar has fewer major events and squash has taken a less central place in comparison to her academic priorities.

Awareness to Action Process. We discussed A2.6(FI)9's higher COMPASS scores in the CARM-Q (see Figure F) for OPENESS, CONFLIC MANAGEMENT and MOTVIATION in light of her flexibility and adaptiveness to A17(M/FI)3M's coaching agenda.

Figure F. CARM-Q Results - A2.6(FI)9
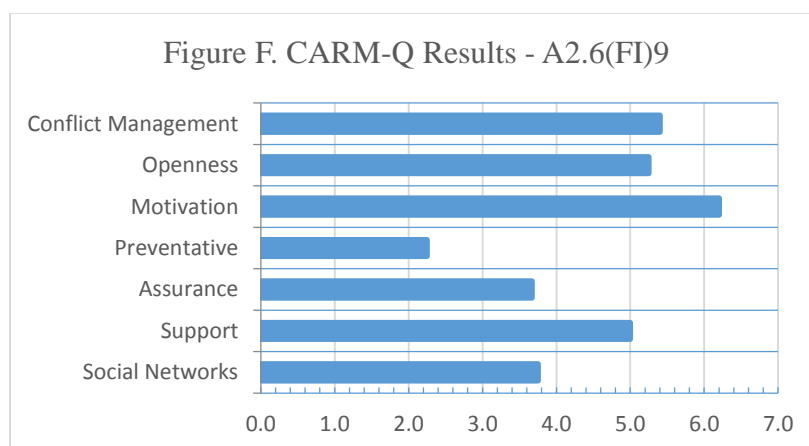
We then discussed the low score for PREVENTATIVE with specific reference to A2.6(FI)9 not always putting her agenda into the plan for training/coaching sessions or saying

what she wants to do. The benefit of this has been that she receives A17(M/FI)3M's outside perspective on her game (a perspective she trusts). However, the negative impact has been that she does not address the less obvious issues/weaknesses in her game that she is aware of but maybe does not show (e.g., through her avoiding the shots that would expose the area of weakness she knows exists). These areas are thus not addressed in coaching.

We discussed how preventatively stating her agenda and giving her input ('pushing back' in her own words) about the coaching sessions would help her get better results and lead to less frustration and inner disharmony on the court. Striving to be peaceful was thus redefined to incorporate the PREVENTATIVE COMPASS strategy.

In reviewing the action plan we identified that a barrier to this change may be the still dominant CAR narrative that had started with her being coached by A17(M/FI)3M from the age of 12. In this CAR story she (as a young person with less assertiveness and autonomy) conformed to his coaching programme as was expected of her. However, A2.6(FI)9 felt that a new CAR narrative would be beneficial where she experimented with stating her agenda more 'upfront'. She also described that more assertiveness would not only be beneficial in training and her sport context, but also in other areas of her life.

CARE – Part 3 (Individual Session): A1(MT)3M - 21 August 2017, 09h00 – 10h00

Enneagram type narrative: A1(MT)3M had been able to integrate his understanding of striving to be outstanding into his personal narrative as always wanting to be the best, having a competitive nature and not giving in to mediocrity. He identified both a positive and negative impact of the competitiveness. While it drives him to succeed he can become hard on the players and avoid giving compliments and encouragement for fear that they will not strive for better standards (i.e., making the compliments too easy to get).

Awareness to Action Process. We discussed the identified negative impact of competitiveness (being hard on players) in relation to his lower COMPASS score for CONFLICT MANAGEMENT (see Figure G).

Figure G. CARM-Q Results - A1(MT)3M
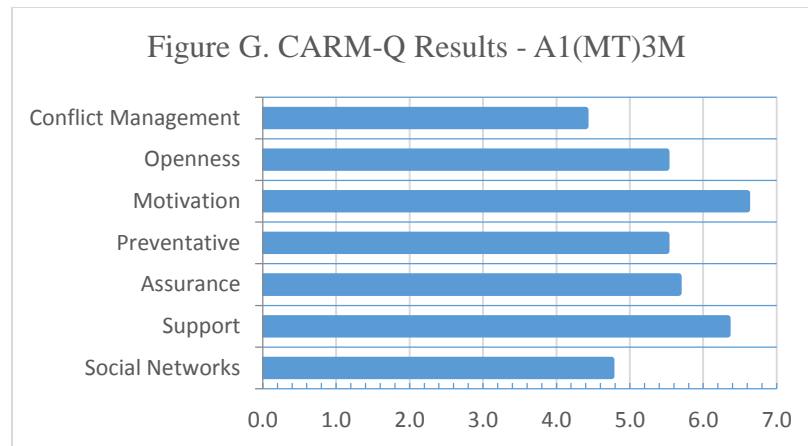
A1(MT)3M felt that patience is something he struggles to express to his players. He expects players to catch on quickly, and has an approach that expects 'all or nothing' on the pitch and at practices (i.e., high intensity). The conflicting commitment between being patient and striving to be outstanding was described by A1(MT)3M as a perception that being too accepting and lenient with athletes will affect the team's performance – i.e., they won't try as hard. We discussed how, while having high expectations for performance has a positive impact, his way of communicating this (i.e., with an aggressive and loud demeanor) can intimidate players and undermine their self-confidence. The paradox was identified of not giving players compliments to enhance motivation, but ultimately hindering their confidence. A1(MT)3M also described the changing mindset of a new generation of athletes stating, "players are becoming more sensitive". He felt this reinforced the need to provide more positive feedback as a way of motivating them, in contrast to a more 'military' style of motivation.

An action step that A1(MT)3M has already begun to put in place is to use the senior players as mediators between him and the 'intimidated' younger players. He has also been using WhatsApp to follow up in a more calm and objective feedback style after matches. Importantly, since participating in CARE – Part 1 he has been checking in with individual players about their emotional well-being, and focusing more on positive feedback in his player rating sheets (which he completes after matches). The theme of encouraging and focusing on emotional connection (i.e., using the OPENESS and ASSURANCE COMPASS strategies) as a way of getting better results was a key part of the conversation. Striving to be outstanding was implicitly redefined to include this more adaptive CAR behaviour.

CARE – Part 3 (Individual Session): A2.2(MT)9 - 21 August 2017, 11h00 – 12h00

Enneagram type narrative: A2.2(MT)9 was able to integrate his preferred strategy of 'striving to be peaceful' into his personal narrative. He described it as not wanting to upset others, stopping or avoiding conflict, being 'obedient' and conforming in order to make authority figures (coaches and teachers) feel more comfortable. He also identified a related strength of 'keeping going with something' (i.e., persistence). We explored how persistence and independence were strengths that A2.2(MT)9 developed as a young player when he had to 'fend for himself' and his development (with parents not actively involved in his sport activities). This taught A2.2(MT)9 how to work independently on his skills and training and how to make sacrifices when others were not there for him. He described his own coaching style (with younger players) as patient, caring and friendly, focused on the positive and allowing players to learn things for themselves while maintaining a positive connection with them. We discussed a current dilemma he was facing of pursuing his hockey while also being there for his family. A2.2(MT)9 described a rather typical Enneagram type NINE conflict between his own agenda to pursue his hockey career (he is a member of the national team) and his family's needs and expectations (his father's health is ailing).

Awareness to Action Process. We discussed A2.2(MT)9's low scores for OPENESS and PREVENTATIVE (see Figure H) in light of his striving to be peaceful by satisfying others' agendas.

Figure H. CARM-Q Results - A2.2(MT)9
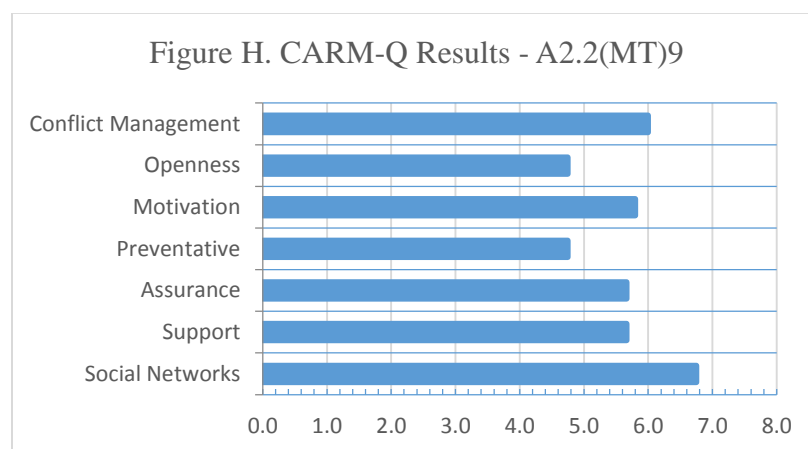
In the CAR he feels that (his coach) A1(MT)3M's forceful and aggressive approach does at times prevent him from expressing himself as a player both on and off the field. A2.2(MT)9

struggles to communicate his own opinion about what he should be doing to maximize performance when A1(MT)3M becomes aggressive. To maintain the team cohesion, reduce tension off and on the field (and because A1(MT)3M is sometimes very closed off to feedback) A2.2(MT)9 tends to "suck it in" and not communicate how he is feeling. We explored the paradox that this way of 'striving to be peaceful' leaves him with an inner turmoil (i.e., not feeling peaceful) after games. We explored certain action steps that might incorporate a PREVENTATIVE COMPASS strategy into his CAR with the goal of ultimately making him feel more contented in his game and allowing him to express himself and his potential. A2.2(MT)9 felt that identifying a low conflict context (e.g., A1(MT)3M's home in the off season) would be a good time to speak about what he would prefer. He wanted to focus specifically on his opinion that he should be playing more in the mid field and using his speed there to generate possession rather than only playing 'up high' as A1(MT)3M believed he should. The action plan was not completed in the session since time had run out.