PERCEPTIONS OF TRUST IN FOOTBALL CONTEXTS: A MULTI-METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

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Abstract

The concept of trust features prominently in research into interpersonal relations and effective leadership. Yet while references to trust are extensive, gaps regarding the conceptualisation and measurement of trust exist in a number of contexts in the psychological literature. This is particularly true in the context of sport, where the relevance and worth of trust in leaders is routinely acknowledged but rarely seen from the truster's perspective; thus, little is known about how followers define, appraise and award trust. The present series of studies sought to examine perceptions of trust in the context of football, devising five distinctive investigations to explore trust in football leaders from the perspectives of both close followers (players) and distant followers (fans). Studies 1 & 2 explored academy football players' views on trust, first through interviews, and then by employing a computer-based repertory grid technique. Findings demonstrated the relevance of trust to players in professional academy settings where both cognitive and affective sources of trust are employed in appraisals. Furthermore, results showed that within high-level football teams, both male and female players construct trust in a similar manner, differentiating trusted figures from others by appraising reliability, personal characteristics and interactions.

Utilising online survey techniques, Studies 3 and 4 examined the perspective of football fans. Study 3 tracked the decline in trust of national leaders over the course of a World Cup competition, and explored fans' reasons for awarding trust. Results demonstrate that appraisals of trust were based primarily on outcomes and observable role-related competencies such as selections and tactics. Study 4 examined fans' trust in both club and national managers, testing the relevance of items from existing trust measures. Findings indicated that trust in more proximal distant leaders (club managers) was significantly higher than trust in national leaders. Furthermore the results showed that perceptions of likeability and reliability were the most consistent predictors of trust in both types of manager.

Study 5 proposed a conceptual model of trust in football leaders which illustrates the trust appraisals made by both close and distant followers in Studies 1-4. Using the critical incident technique, the final study tested the adequacy of the proposed model for explaining 'real-world' incidents where trust had been gained or lost. Results demonstrated the efficacy of the model, as well as demonstrating similarities and differences among both player and fan appraisals, and incidents where trust was gained or lost. Importantly, this research presents a contribution to the understanding of trust in football contexts. Moreover, the work demonstrates the types of appraisals made by two distinct kinds of followers in this setting, and the value of employing mixed methods in research of this type.

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Declaration

I declare that the work contained in this thesis has not been submitted for any other award and is all my own work.

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Chapter 1: Introduction and Review of Literature

1.1 Introduction

> And around the precincts of St James' Park, as they prepare for a potential loser-loses all football match tonight against Middlesbrough which, even by their unmatched standards has a soap-operatic grandeur to it, the disciples of Newcastle United will all stake their trust and hope in just one man. Who would be Alan Shearer on a night like this? (Chadband, 2009, p.10)

The term 'trust' figures prominently in references to leaders in a diverse range of contexts. For example, as illustrated in the above quote, leaders in football may be characterised in terms of the trust others bestow upon them. Trust also features in the Football Association's code of conduct for coaches; the code states that coaches must base their relations with players upon mutual trust. However, there are no guidelines on what trust in football is, or how to build and maintain trust with others. The use of 'trust' is frequent yet understanding of the term remains elusive; those wishing to comprehend the role of trust in football must currently synthesize a wide breadth of theory and commentary from sport and psychology.

This task is further complicated by the lack of concurrence among existing theories, which define and view trust in distinctive ways. Some theorists propose that individuals possess a propensity to trust, while others maintain that trust in others can be based on thoughts and/or feelings about the other party. The recognised disparity that exists in the field has triggered calls for consensus from several leading trust scholars. There is greater agreement on the relevance of trust within existing models of leadership; for example trust is incorporated in charismatic, transformational and leader-member exchange theories. Nevertheless, these theories often fail to define what trust is, how trust is built and how it might be maintained by leaders. Despite the recognition that trust in others can be a key aspect of interpersonal relationships and that trust is related to leadership effectiveness, the task of applying trust to sport leadership remains a complex one and there are no pertinent specific investigations of trust in the context of football.

The very nature of football leadership generates particular considerations. Football managers (as compared with organisational managers) are unique in several respects; firstly, they operate in a highly results-driven culture which includes a higher turnover of leaders than that observed in almost any other industry. Secondly, a football manager has less control over outcomes than, say, a manufacturing manager who may control all factors which could influence production. Thirdly, managers lead two distinct groups of followers, football players and football fans. Each group of followers possesses

potentially distinctive needs and places different demands on the manager, clearly building trust with the different follower groups may require different actions or skills.

The literature review that follows addresses the wide range of relevant theoretical viewpoints. The review is divided into four independent but associated sections; each of these describes existing research and specifies its relevance to the investigation and the context of football leadership. A particular focus within the review is placed upon exposing the commonalities among existing research and on connecting findings from various theories and settings. The initial section critically examines existing literature on trust including its definition and operational conceptualisation. This includes identifying the current competing perspectives on trust and defining the approach that informs the rationale for this work. The second section introduces historical and contemporary approaches to leadership including the 'new leadership' paradigm and highlights the specific role awarded to trust within several established theories of effective leadership.

Having reviewed theories from mainstream social and organisational psychology, the third section suggests a unique focus for trust in sport leadership by drawing on literature on trust in distant leaders. A rationale for exploring the trust held by the largest group of followers in the context (football fans) is proposed. The fourth section of the review includes an evaluation of leadership research in sport settings and studies on interpersonal relationships in that domain. This includes an appraisal of Chelladurai's multi-dimensional model (2001) and the coach-athlete relationship conceptual framework proposed by Jowett and Cockerill (2002; 2003). The review critiques the theoretical reasoning employed by these researchers in including trust in their models within sport. Following each of the four sections a summary highlights the convergence of existing theories and the implications for research provided by literature on trust, leadership, fandom and sport.

1.1.1 Research questions

The studies included within this thesis aim to address the following research questions –

1. What sources do followers employ in appraising trust in football leaders?
2. What is the process through which trust in football is formed?
3. How do football managers build trust with players (close followers) and fans (distant followers)?
4. Are the same sources employed in appraising when to withdraw or withhold trust, as when awarding trust?
5. Do existing models of trust provide a good fit for trust in the context of football leaders?

1.2 Literature Review

1.2.1 Trust

Over the past half a century, research and commentary on the topic of trust has been both extensive and varied; such research has included work on interpersonal trust, inter and intra-organisation trust, consumer's trust in organisations and trust in 'virtual' mechanisms such as internet web sites. Given the persistent and critical influence that human interaction has on peoples' lives it is unsurprising that the greatest research focus has been placed upon interpersonal trust. The first section of this review presents an overview of such research, detailing the variety of trust definitions and the competing explanations of the trust appraisal process.

1.2.1.1 Defining trust

The word trust has such a central place within common parlance that it is established in everyday vocabulary and employed frequently across a range of settings. Whilst this usage may strengthen the argument that trust has relevance, it concurrently presents issues surrounding the comprehension and general employment of the term. In research settings the adoption of assorted definitions (see Appendix 1 for a table of trust definitions) and conceptualisations across the social sciences has led to a body of research on trust which is difficult to compare or synthesise in a meaningful way. Indeed, McEvily, Peronne and Zaheer (2003) described the treatment of trust as '*fragmented'* while consternation over the range of trust definitions has been expressed by a number of researchers including Lewicki and Bunker (1995), Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995), Dirks and Ferrin (2002) and Hardin (2008).

Some authors recognise the additional issues caused by the lack of distinction of trust from several other factors including cooperation, confidence and predictability (Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995; Murnighan, Malholtra and Weber, 2004); as a result it is essential to distinguish trust from such factors early in this thesis. Cooperation is often confused with trust (particularly in the case of trust games such as the prisoner's dilemma) and although cooperation may be strongly associated with trust they are distinct. Cooperation can occur in the absence of risk which is a pre-requisite condition for trust. Although an individual may appear to be trusting another it is always possible that they are simply cooperating with them and not relying on that person or allowing themselves to be vulnerable to them (two defining features of trusting). Confidence is another term which is frequently associated with trust within definitions and common vernacular, but there are clear distinctions between these two terms. The important difference is that confidence may be a general positive attitude toward something whereas trust involves an appraisal of the options (trusting or not trusting the individual)

and accepting an intention to risk based upon that appraisal; again the acknowledgement of risk is central to the concept of trust.

Finally, the term predictability is frequently likened to trust in the literature; this is natural given the inherent evaluation (of others' likely future actions) that is involved in trust appraisals. However, predictability suggests only consistency and this may not give way to risk taking in the same way that trust will. For example, in some cases an individual may be predictably positive and this may encourage others to trust and consequently rely on them; alternatively an individual could be predictably harsh or unfair – although such behaviour may be predictable it is not likely to lead to risk taking in the same way that trust would. Although predictability may contribute to trust appraisals it is considered a distinct concept, and thus it may be inappropriate to always equate the two. Accurate definitions of trust go further than simply equating trust with confidence, co-operation or predictability.

The aforementioned fragmentation of trust research has been exacerbated by the wide variety of trust definitions present in the literature. Consequently comprehensive assessments of trust in any context must first acknowledge and explicate conflicting definitions and perspectives on trust; this portion of the chapter aims to do just that. A useful segregation of trust definitions may be achieved by distinguishing those which view trust as a relatively stable personal characteristic or trait, and those which view trust as a dynamic factor.

Characteristic trust

A number of theorists conceived trust to be a fixed or generally stable characteristic of either the truster or trustee. Since the adoption of this definition (and the attribution of the characteristic to the truster or trustee) inevitably impacts upon the way in which the operation of trust is viewed, the characteristic viewpoint is explored herein.

Initial research proposed the view of trust as a trait, or a characteristic of the truster. This notion was promoted by Julian Rotter (1967; 1971; 1980) who championed much of the early work on trust; indeed he considered its importance so patent he stated 'it is belabouring the obvious to discuss the significance of interpersonal trust in our society' (1971, p.443). Rotter held the view of trust as a relatively stable personality characteristic, a 'general expectancy' that the words and actions of people, in general, could be relied upon and this view is reflected in his and some subsequent definitions of trust.

> Trust is an expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal, or written statement of another individual or group can be relied on. If such expectancies are generalized and constitute a relatively stable personality

> characteristic, they should be readily amenable to investigation. (Rotter, 1971, p.444)

> Defined 'interpersonally' trust is a characteristic belief that the sincerity, benevolence or truthfulness of others can generally be relied upon (Gurtman, 1992, p. 989)

According to this perspective, trust may be a trait held by the truster rather than something related to the trustee, the relationship, or the context. As a result, Rotter's early research centred on assessments of trusting tendencies, including development of his interpersonal trust scale in 1967, and later discussions of the potential consequences of being a high or low truster (1980). Rotter's 'tendency to trust' features in contemporary literature, though is now most often termed 'propensity to trust'. For example, Zaheer, McEvily and Perrone (1998) included a 'dispositional' dimension within their model of trust which reflected a propensity of the truster to trust others. However, the authors also acknowledged that this propensity did not wholly explain trust by including a 'relational' dimension in their model. The view that propensity to trust may present an incomplete view was also confirmed by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) whose meta-analysis found the relationship between propensity to trust and interpersonal trust to be 'small but significant'. Furthermore McKnight, Cummings and Chervany (1998) suggested that researchers have only achieved mixed results in predicting trust from propensity to trust.

While the suggestion that trust is held by the truster may have some credence it seems an inadequate explanation for trust in all interpersonal relations. For example, the concept of trusting people 'generally' cannot explain the situational appraisal which may precede the award of trust.

The role of risk

Central to understanding of trust is the recognition of the real world factors which influence its relevance, so called 'conditions' of trust. These conditions are discussed in order to establish the variety of ways in which trust emerges in day to day life, and to illustrate the context specific factors which impact upon trust in this setting.

While a variety of definitions and conceptualisations of trust exist it is important to note that authors have reached some consensus on the conditions that serve to necessitate, and indeed exacerbate, the need for trust. The most central of these conditions is risk; risk implies that an individual has something to lose, and is fundamental to the operation and relevance of trust. The term 'risk' has been emphasised in some definitions of trust as in – 'willingness to take risks may be one of the few characteristics common to all trust situations' (Johnson-George and Swap, 1982, p.1306). The relationship between risk and trust is clearly described in a quote by Golembiewski and McConkie (1975)

'trust without risking can have few fruits; risking without trust has shallow roots' (p.138). This statement illustrates the idea that trust can be futile if not accompanied by risk taking behaviour, while risk taking behaviour in the absence of trust can be precarious. Although a number of sub-component conditions are identified in the literature, they each contribute to the central condition of risk.

In the context of football, outcomes are heavily reliant on the actions, and indeed interactions, of other group members (players and managers). Individuals cannot precisely predict the actions of others, and so the risk that an individual will not act in the predicted and hoped for way is always present. This aspect of the environment contributes to the situational 'uncertainty' and, in turn, the perception of risk in football. In addition a number of other factors such as conditions, injuries, officials and the actions of the opposition may impact upon uncertainty since these are even more difficult to control or predict, and can significantly influence the outcome. Researchers concur that uncertainty contributes to risk (Rousseau et al., 1998; Dirks, 2000).

The term 'vulnerability' is another commonly cited condition of trust which contributes to the perception of risk (Dirks, 2000). Issues of both vulnerability and reliance are often included in definitions of trust such as 'willingness to be vulnerable' (Rousseau et al., 1998, p. 395) and 'willingness to rely on another' (Rousseau et al., 1998, p. 394). Vulnerability or reliance may exist to greater or lesser degrees in almost every scenario of human interaction. One might suggest that vulnerability may consist of two aspects - the level of reliance on another party and the importance of the outcome. The level of importance attached to any event is as variable as the level of reliance and is another contributor to risk.

To illustrate a low vulnerability example: an individual may rely on a cashier to hand him/her the correct change in the supermarket; there is vulnerability since the cashier could make a mistake, but the level of risk isn't too high unless the customer is particularly impoverished. If the cashier made an error then the loss of small change is unlikely to be harmful, plus (since each party can count and calculate the change) the cashier could be allowed to rectify the mistake; an individual has some control in this type of scenario. In a high vulnerability example: a surgeon is relied upon to perform the correct procedures in an operating theatre. Here the reliance and vulnerability are far greater; the individual has no control and is fully reliant on the surgeon since he/she is unconscious. The individual is also highly vulnerable to the surgeon since the 'cost' of an error has far greater consequences than in the supermarket scenario.

If another party performs an action which a person cannot influence, which bears some importance to them, then they are vulnerable to that party and rely on the action. The more he/she relies upon that individual and the more importance they place on the outcome, the more risk they must accept. In the scenarios provided above the inherent risk to the individual in each situation is vastly different, and so the trust involved takes on different significance.

The issue of real life interpersonal vulnerability is perfectly illustrated in an account from Maclean (1992) which Burke et al. (2007, p. 607) employ to excellent effect in their recent article. The tale is recounted below, and demonstrates the high risk situations where trust in a leader may require a follower to act against their own better judgement. In this instance vulnerability is high as the leader is relied upon to formulate a response since the followers' lives were at risk (the ultimate level of importance).

> Take for instance the story of Crew Chief Dodge and his team. On August 5, fifteen smokejumpers and their cargo were dropped on the south side of the Mann Gulch at 4.10pm. Led by their crew chief, Dodge, they gathered their gear and started to move the crew across to the north side of the gulch and march toward the river along the side of the hill. Dodge rejoined the crew and 5.40pm and took his position at the head of the line. Shortly thereafter, Dodge saw that the fire had crossed the gulch just 200 yards ahead and was moving towards his crew. Dodge turned the crew around and had them angle up the hill toward the ridge at the top. They quickly began to lose ground to the 30-foot-high flames moving toward them at 610ft per minute (Maclean, 1992). Dodge yelled at the crew to drop their tools, and then, to everyone's astonishment, he lit a fire in front of them and ordered everyone to lay down in the area it had burned. No one did, they all ran for the ridge. Two people made it through a crevice in the ridge unburned. Dodge lived by lying down in the ashes of his escape fire – the remaining 13 smokejumpers died on the ridge. The Forest Service inquiry held after the fire concluded that the men would have been saved had they "heeded Dodge's efforts to get them to go into the escape fire with him.

This example is included to demonstrate the importance of vulnerability, it could be suggested that had this been a 'training ground' exercise, the followers would have followed the leader more readily. However, the heightened risk in the real life scenario required them to place their lives in the hands of the leader, but they did not have enough trust to accept such vulnerability. Research has suggested that this sense of vulnerability can impact upon the types of trust appraisals made by followers. Lapidot, Kark and Shamir (2007) found that followers focused more heavily on particular aspects of the leader when under conditions of greater vulnerability, and that heightened vulnerability actually increased the likelihood that trust would break down. The 'ultimate' example of follower trust must be to accept risk in situations of great uncertainty and vulnerability where the outcome is highly important. Although sport rarely presents instances of life and death decisions, there are often hefty emotional

outcomes for all concerned in sport. Leaders in this context are often called upon to make calls which impact heavily on crucial outcomes, and consequently influence both results and athlete careers.

It may be possible to estimate the level of risk in a situation by calculating the levels of uncertainty and vulnerability that are present, but there are so many contextual influences in football that uncertainty and vulnerability (and therefore risk) are always present to some degree. Elite level football is regarded as one of the most turbulent climates in sport; the high stakes of results has led to super-scrutiny of performances, and created an environment where change of personnel and management is almost continual. Bridgewater (2007) demonstrates the difficult and precarious context in which football managers operate; the research highlights a '*damaging instability'* inside the football industry with figures that show a total of 678 managerial changes among clubs in the top four English divisions between 1992 (when the Premier league began) and January 2006. Bridgewater demonstrates that whilst the win percentage performance of managers did not decline over the period, the average tenure of the sacked manager fell from 2.72 to 1.72 years. For football players the life-long dream of professional football is only attainable for a very small percentage of male players and a tiny fraction of female hopefuls. For the vast majority of candidates disappointment is inevitable.

In football the manager possesses a great deal of control over crucial factors which can impact on outcomes. To calculate the relevance of trust to football players an observer might assess how much control the leader has (compared to the follower), and how important the outcome is to the follower (a professional player would likely place more importance on the outcome than an amateur player). Take for example a young footballer with a life-long ambition to play professional football; the player learns that at the final match of the season talent scouts will attend the game to select players for professional contracts. In this situation the player's manager can control the tactics that the team adopt, the position the player plays, the role they assign to the player, how long they allow the player to play for, and even whether they allow the player to play at all. Here the manager holds control over many influential factors; the player places great importance on the game and relies heavily on the manager to select options which are positive for him/her. As a result trust may figure heavily in their relations.

To summarise, the underlying condition which necessitates trust is risk. Risk itself may be based upon the uncertainty and vulnerability inherent to the situation; the latter may be based upon the level of reliance and the importance of the outcome. The context of football serves to intensify these conditions making it a worthy setting for explorations of trust. Given the established role of risk, the characteristic view does seem an inadequate explanation of trust in action. The underlying issue with the characteristic

approach lies in the assumption that trust itself is consistently advantageous when in fact it may be unwise or even dangerous to trust all people, all of the time. Indeed Nooteboom (2002) comments 'it is very unusual, often a pathology to trust or mistrust indiscriminately' (p.38). For example a general tendency to trust would be unlikely to lead any individual to trust a cashier to perform surgery on them; in reality propensity to trust alone may only offer an explanation of trust in new and largely ambiguous situations (Johnson-George and Swap, 1982; McKnight, Cummings and Chervany, 1998).

In contrast to Rotter's approach, Butler (1991) proposed that trust was a characteristic of the trustee. Butler set out what he termed 'conditions' of trust, these were essentially ten characteristics of the trustee which could incite trust from a truster. The ten factors were: availability, competence, consistency, discreteness, fairness, integrity, loyalty, openness, promise fulfilment and receptivity. In retrospect, Butler's list could be conceived as ten markers used by trusters to gauge 'trustworthiness'; as such the ten present an interesting starting point for discussions on the factors employed in trust appraisals. According to this view trusters may make specific appraisals of the personal characteristics of trustees before awarding trust.

Subsequent work from Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) presented a model which amalgamated aspects of these two characteristic theories, suggesting that trust was a product of both parties – an interaction between the truster's propensity for trust and the perceived characteristics of the trustee. According to the authors, the truster draws inferences about the trustworthiness of the other party by evaluating three particular qualities: ability, benevolence and integrity. Appraisals of these three factors combine with the follower's propensity for trust to predict actual trust in the leader. This model emphasised a cognitive appraisal of trustees which was to become integral in later models of trust. Mayer, Davis and Schoorman's model has received some support in the literature (Elsbach, 2004; Burke et al., 2007); however, the concept promoted in the paper was based upon a review of previous findings rather than the empirical evidence which informed the theories of both Rotter and Butler.

A number of authors including Hardin (2001) have questioned Rotter's characteristic view, and support the idea that trust in others may be subject to individual appraisals. Given the wide range of human interactions in everyday life, a process of regular evaluation or appraisal is more in keeping with the condition of risk described earlier. Individuals do not trust cashiers, surgeons and family members with the same things or in the same ways; an individual assessment of the each party must be made. Hardin (2004) argued that the concept of 'general trust' undermined his paradigm of trust as a three-part relation (in other words 'I trust X to do Y'). Hardin states 'a very few people I

might trust with almost anything, and a very many others I might trust with almost nothing' (2001, p.7), emphasising the view that trust in others is dependent on both 'who' they are and 'what' they are trusted with. In reality trust is appraised on a repeated basis, different people are trusted with different things and in different situations; although a characteristic belief that people are generally trustworthy may be involved, subsequent definitions describe a more complex view of trust. These definitions are aligned with elements of the theories from Butler and Mayer, Davis and Schoorman which suggest an appraisal of the other party.

Trust as a belief

The concept of appraising trust is reflected in the use of the term 'expectation' among a number of trust definitions. Examples include – 'trust reflects an expectation or belief that the other party will act benevolently' (Whitener et al., 1998, p.513) and 'confident positive expectations regarding another's conduct' (Lewicki, McAllister and Bies, 1998, p.439). The focus of these definitions reinforces the view of trust as a belief in, or attitude toward, another party rather than a characteristic of the truster or trustee. As such this expectation or belief must be appraised in some way and is target-specific; it requires an individual appraisal of each trustee, and is likely to be dynamic since beliefs and attitudes about others can change over time.

Rousseau et al. (1998) may be credited with achieving some consensus on trust definitions by identifying commonalities amid existing versions. Within the wide variety of articles reviewed by the authors the most frequently cited terms related to beliefs such as positive expectations or positive confident expectations (supporting the relevance of the appraisal process), and made reference to trusting intentions such as willingness to be vulnerable or willingness to rely (echoing the issue of risk described earlier). According to their review the emphasis in trust definitions is usually placed upon a belief and an intention to act on the belief. Based on a composite of definitions from the studies they examined, Rousseau et al. offered the following as a widely held definition of trust 'trust is a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another' (p.395). This goes beyond the view of trust as a characteristic and acknowledges both the acceptance of risk (vulnerability) and the appraisal of another party (to inform a belief) which featured in the theories of both Butler (1991) and Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995). Rousseau's comprehensive definition has endured over the past decade and is regularly adopted and employed in current papers on trust including research on trust in leadership (Dirks, 2000; Burke et al., 2007).

Building on suggestions from the work of Butler (1991), Mayer, Davis and Schoorman. (1995), and Rousseau et al. (1998) subsequent studies have gone on to define trust as a belief and to explore trust appraisals. Such research, whilst varied in its focus, consistently recognises the role of cognition in appraisals of trust. The literature reviewed thus far has established the influence of risk on trust and highlighted distinctive trust definitions. While each of the definitional categories has merit (and characteristic trust or propensity to trust remains in the literature) the focus of much trust research has been placed on the more complex definition of trust as a belief formed on appraisals of others. This emphasis on beliefs/expectations within trust definitions promotes a potential focus for researchers on the information employed by trusters in forming such beliefs. Theorists have proposed numerous explanations for the process involved in appraising trust, and these fall largely in to three distinct categories: rational choice, social exchange and cognitive/affective explanations.

1.2.1.2 Trust formation

While the majority of researchers adopt the definition of trust as a belief, several perspectives compete to explain the process involved in the trust appraisal – how trust is formed. As is discussed in the section which follows, these competing perspectives may each present valid explanations of trust formation. The most comprehensive models demonstrate that different types of trust may be formed through quite distinct appraisal processes. It is clear that some forms of appraisal offered by theorists appear less intensive than others. This may reflect distinct routes to trust similar to those described by Chaiken (1980) as *systematic* and *heuristic* forms of information processing. According to the author, persuasion may be achieved by one of two routes: through a careful and intensive evaluation (systematic route), or via simplified cognitive short-cuts (heuristic route). In the case of persuasion cues, results demonstrated that level of involvement determined processing type; highly involved participants employed systematic strategies whereas lowly involved participants opted for the heuristic alternative. It is possible that the appraisal of trust in leaders may also incorporate more and less intensive forms, though greater information is required on the sources of information employed in trust appraisals in this context.

Rational choice

The view of trust as a rational choice is strongly rooted in the inherent involvement of risk in trusting, and conjures a view of trusting as a calculated belief. According to rational choice theorists an individual weighs up the cost and benefits of trusting someone before allocating trust. This perspective is essentially behaviourist since outcomes of previous appraisals impact upon future ones in a cyclical trial and error model of learning. Rational choice appraisals of trust are highly cognition-based.

A major proponent of this perspective is political writer Russell Hardin who presents a model of rational choice known as the 'encapsulated interest account'. According to Hardin (2008), perception of another person as trustworthy is based entirely on the perception that the trustee has some incentive to be trustworthy (e.g., perhaps they are motivated to maintain the relationship). Therefore perceptions of trustworthiness in this model rely heavily on the truster being able to gain necessary information to make such judgements. An illustration of encapsulated interest could include a person whose motives to act not only reflect the truster's interests but actually take these in to consideration. For example, someone close to you is likely to act positively toward you not only for their own aims, but because your priorities also matter to them and their continued relationship with you. Therefore, trust, according to Hardin, is cognitive since it relies upon knowledge of others; trust itself is based upon belief in the accuracy of this knowledge. In the context of football a leader may be trusted to ensure that players receive the best physiotherapy available, not only because it is important to them to keep players fit, but because their continued relationship with the player is partly reliant on the duty of care shown to them.

Hardin suggests that the knowledge of, and relationship with, others that develops through familiarity forms a strong basis for encapsulated trust. In a wider sense the cognitive explanation of trust (the 'knowledge of' part) implies that trust will be easier to accrue in closer relationships where such knowledge of the trustee is easier to obtain. This is an interesting issue since Hardin's focus on trust in public life inevitably includes many trust relationships where close, familiar interpersonal relationships are not viable such as trust in political or societal figures. Hardin suggests that cognition-based trust in less familiar figures could be based on 'reputational effects' such as the reputation for competence, but as such there may be 'cognitive limits' to the number of distant figures a person can trust.

There are a number of other modes of trust which fit the rational choice explanation (though not all are labelled as such), one was first introduced in a conceptual framework of trust from Lewicki and Bunker (1996) and all were included in a later review of trust by Rousseau et al. (1998). For example, deterrence-based trust (DBT) involves an evaluation of the sanctions in place to deter breaches of trust; here trust is a calculation of the situational constraints within which trust operates. Rousseau et al. (1998) note that some researchers do not consider DBT to be a form of trust (indeed Lewicki and Bunker did not include it in their model), but rather a form of cooperation. It could be that 'deterrents' to breaching trust impact upon the condition of risk, and consequently negate or at least greatly reduce the relevance of trust in the situation. For example,

stringent forms of deterrence-based trust such as detailed and restrictive contracts or agreements may ultimately eradicate the need for trust itself since they place such control over each party.

Another comparative model of trust, labelled institution-based trust by Rousseau et al., also evaluates deterrence but indicates that individuals may include organisational and even societal factors in their appraisal. In such scenarios the reputation of the organisation as generally trustworthy may have an influence. Instances of institution-based trust may also present examples of control since options for any party are constrained by wider policies which again act to reduce risk, and consequently, trust. Some authors go as far as to suggest that the stringent organisational control which operates in these situations may actually serve to undermine interpersonal trust.

Calculus-based trust (CBT) first emerged in a conceptual model of trust from Lewicki and Bunker (1996) which promoted three types of trust. Rousseau et al. (1998) also included the CBT concept within their review where it was plainly aligned it to rational choice. Within calculus-based trust the truster gleans information about possible deterrents to breaking trust, and about the potential motivations and competencies of the other party. In both organisational and football contexts such information may be provided by the qualifications or reputation of another party. In later empirical evidence of CBT, McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi (2006) describe the process as an estimation of the value of upholding vs. the cost of forfeiting trust (with the latter probably bearing greater influence).

These calculative versions of trust confirm the relevance of appraisals and are able to offer an explanation of some forms of trust in football but they fail to account for all types of trust in action. Indeed, Murnighan, Malhotra and Weber (2004) highlight the limitations of rational choice as a comprehensive model of trust. The context of football presents situations that require followers to place trust in the leader without the opportunity to make a rational choice, for example when a player follows an instruction during a match when they may be unable to weigh up all the costs and benefits. In football and in life, people commonly place trust in others in situations which go beyond what is rational. The foundations of rational choice are almost at odds with the very definition of trust as a willingness to take risks or become vulnerable to others. This is illustrated well by Elsbach (2004) who commented on trust definitions which reference acceptance of vulnerability -

> Such definitions seem particularly appropriate in managerial settings where trust often means submitting to the direction of leaders with little knowledge about the consequences of those directions (p. 275).

Social exchange

The process of social exchange involves acting in a beneficial manner to another on the basis that this goodwill will be reciprocated at some point in the future. In some senses this has shades of rationality about it since the person acts after weighing up the future reward from reciprocation. However, risk is present here as he/she works on a belief that the other party will reciprocate, rather than on the knowledge that they must. Unlike rational choice decisions, exchange tends to take place mostly among people in long-term relationships since the consideration of future interaction is central; if two individuals are certain they will never interact again then social exchange is an unlikely explanation of what may occur between them. Consequently, social exchange relationships may develop over time and may evolve from low to high level benefits (Whitener et al., 1998); in essence 'successful' exchanges impact upon future ones by contributing to the cognitive appraisal of the other as reliable and/or competent. Although the basis of this trust process is cognitive, with the formation of beliefs informing future action, it is possible that an ongoing relationship may impact upon the exchange. One or both of the partners may develop affective responses to the other which motivate them to maintain a trust belief. It is also possible that the second form of trust from Lewicki and Bunker's 1996 framework is applicable here. Knowledge-based trust (KBT) is cognition-based since it requires an appraisal of the reliability or dependability of the trustee. However, the authors suggest that this form of trust is reliant on familiarity and interaction over time which aligns it more closely with social exchange. As with calculus-based trust, recent evidence provides empirical support for KBT (McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi, 2006).

One of the earliest examples of research on trust is found in experiments such as the prisoner's dilemma and its variants within the area of game theory. These games are commonly associated with a social exchange form of trust. In such experiments participants are presented with a scenario in which cooperation with another can lead to a beneficial outcome. However, an option is available to each party which would deliver an even greater reward to themselves at the expense of the other participant. Such games have been used for many years to explore and examine so-called trust relations, though dilemma scenarios must be iterated several times in order to replicate a realistic process of social exchange. In truth the prisoner's dilemma and other variants of game theory (despite the use of rewards such as financial prizes) may simply not do enough to re-create the real world operation of trust. The paramount condition of risk is difficult to reconstruct in the game since the outcomes may be too contrived. Technically, the dilemma experiment only demonstrates that people do or do not cooperate; whilst it is assumed that trust is contributing to cooperation (Miller, 1992), results are unable to inform us of the presence or sources of trust in others (Hardin, 2008). While trust may

underlie actions performed in the dilemma game it would be difficult to use the game to predict trust in football contexts or other real world contexts.

It is common to see trust referred to as a reciprocal experience which is shared between two individuals; in fact Sheppard and Sherman (1998) raise issues of interdependence in their definition of trust. Although this may have some relevance in both teams and some interpersonal relationships, its inclusion is not universally applicable since there are a number of scenarios (including the surgical example covered previously) where the level of reliance on another party can be immense but is not reciprocated. Trust can exist in relationships where only one party needs to trust the other (in other words only one party is at risk) and therefore there is no social exchange. Interdependence is observed in many trust relationships, but is not a 'condition' of trust per se.

Cognition and Affect

Over the course of time a body of work has emerged that confirms the relevance of appraisals and extends the focus on cognitive factors to include two types of trust, cognition (or character) based and affect (or relationship) based. This perspective illustrates not only the two forms of trust, but the actual sources employed in the appraisal of each form. The initial idea was observed in early experimental work from Johnson-George and Swap (1982) who conceived two types of trust labelled 'reliableness' and 'emotional' trust. Here the authors explored the distinction between the type of trust that assesses observable characteristics of the other party, and the type that is formed as the result of close interaction and formation of a relationship. Lewis and Weigert (1985) also supported these types in defining their cognitive and emotional 'sub-factors' of trust. The belief of these authors was that the first two sub-factors led to the third – a behavioural sub-factor (the action part of trusting).

McAllister (1995) was also a strong proponent of this model providing evidence to support his versions of cognition and affect-based trust. McAllister found evidence to support these 'principal' forms of interpersonal trust, confirming not only that the two types existed, but that a level of cognition-based trust may be required in order for affect-based trust to develop. The cognition-affect model of trust is also corroborated by Dirks and Ferrin's 2002 meta- analysis on trust in leadership which presented a clear description of the two types of trust –

1. Cognitive trust – 'Followers draw inferences about the leader's character such as integrity, dependability, fairness and ability'
2. Affective trust – 'reflects a high quality relationship,..issues of care and concern in the relationship are central' (p. 613)

Their examination of over 106 trust studies confirmed the existence of both cognition and affect-based types of trust in leaders, though their study highlighted the predominant attention awarded to assessing cognition-based forms of trust. Notably, both cognitive and affective forms of trust were also observed by Dirks (2000) in a study of leaders in sport.

The cognitive component of the model (which involves an appraisal of trustee characteristics such as reliability and fairness) can be observed in several other perspectives such as rational choice and social exchange. In these models trustees may be viewed as reliable because of some external control which influences their behaviour such as a contract (rational choice) or as fair since they would reciprocate the investment of the truster (social exchange). The cognition-affect model emphasises an appraisal of these factors as personal qualities which can contribute to the necessary belief in someone. This would appear to reflect the basic process prescribed by earlier researchers such as Butler (1991) and Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995). The affective dimension of the model represents a key extension to earlier perspectives in explaining trust that is not always built upon cognitive appraisal, but also on emotional feeling about the relationship. The model clearly highlights that cognitive forms are the foundation of trust.

To date the cognition-affect model of trust appears the most efficacious explanation of the various forms of trust observed in everyday life where characteristic trust, rational choice and social exchange models were deficient. The most distinctive aspect of this model is the suggestion of a developmental cycle within which distinct forms of trust may emerge. According to this standpoint trust may begin with more rational and cognition-based forms of trust, and culminate with the addition of affect-based or 'relational' trust (Murnighan, Malhotra and Weber, 2004). Alongside this perspective Lewicki and colleagues (1996; 1998; 2006) were developing a model of trust which began with a theoretical framework and culminated with empirical evidence of four types of trust. In Lewicki and Bunker (1996) three forms of trust were described: Calculus-based trust (CBT), Knowledge-based trust (KBT) and Identification-based trust (IBT). The first two have already been discussed in relation to rational choice and social exchange models, the latter represents a 'higher' form of trust based on a deeper understanding of the other party. In 2006, Lewicki worked with McAllister on a revised version of the earlier model which included an affective dimension (McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi 2006). The affective form of trust (ABT) represented an emotional bond between parties; its addition completed a full spectrum of trust forms within the same model (calculus-based trust, knowledge-based trust, identification-based trust and affect-based trust).

This developmental model could explain how a football player may be able to trust basic instructions from a leader they know little about by performing a quick appraisal (e.g., is this person qualified and employed by the club to coach?) while they may develop a very different form of trust in a long-term coach. The developed form of trust is of higher quality, is more likely to lead to greater risk taking, and be transferable across situations than the weaker calculative forms. This is since it is based upon far greater information (both cognition and affect based) about the other party – thus reducing the perception of risk.

One other possibility is that these appraisals relate to the 'intentions' of the trustee. If a truster is able to gain more information about the other party then this will assist them in their appraisal; if they are able to gauge the actual intentions of the other then higher forms of trust may develop. For example high quality identification-based trust requires a full understanding of the other party, their desires and intentions. As a result appraising the intentions of others is likely to be key in developing the belief necessary for trust, and (depending on the amount of information) resultant trust may range from calculative (I know that this person intends to keep to their agreement) to affective (this person cares for me, and sees things the same way as me - they will react as I would). The continual progression of trust perspectives is apparent, trust has been considered a characteristic of the truster and then of the trustee, trust has been seen as a calculated action and as based on social exchange processes. Most recently models suggest that two types of trust may exist which are formed through cognitive and affective assessments.

It is surprising to note the number of trust theories which have endured within the literature despite an apparent lack of empirical evidence or support. Among the viewpoints included in this review only Rotter (1967), Butler (1991), McAllister (1995), Dirks (2000) and McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi (2006) have provided research evidence to support their theories. The majority of authors (including Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995; Rousseau et al., 1998; McAllister, Lewicki and Bies, 1998; Nooteboom, 2002; Hardin, 2006; and Burke et al., 2007), base their contentions on reviews of existing research. Given the incomplete picture of trust in general and the absence of supported research on trust in sport, this work intends to gather a range of data on trust in football. Rather than simply applying findings from earlier researchers to this field, the present research aims to provide a range of evidence on the types of trust and sources of trust appraisals which operate in the football context.

The current research adopts a view of trust as a dynamic process based on appraisals of others, and the willingness to rely on the basis of those appraisals in the context of

risk. This perspective is similar to that proposed by Dirks (2000) in a study of trust in sport leaders; this view also found support from both Dirks and Ferrin's (2002) meta-analysis on trust in leadership and within a review and integration of trust in leadership research (Burke et al., 2007). The principal aim of the thesis is to explore and define the factors employed within trust appraisals in football contexts, thus trusting actions will not be assessed in this research. Although a number of measures and scales have been defined to assess trust and leadership (these are acknowledged in the following section), such measures are sometimes criticised for their hurried and ill conceived construction. This research will not aim to devise a test or measure of trust in sport, preferring instead to begin work in this field with quality and detailed accounts of the phenomenon of trust.

1.2.2 Leadership

The importance of trust in human interaction is clear; it is trust which permits action under the conditions of risk which are inherent to relying on other people. One of the most relevant contexts of reliance on another lies within the leader-follower relationship, in fact this type of interaction has been studied extensively within organisational and political settings. Leadership scholars have explored both the characteristics and behaviours of successful leaders and assessed the influence of both the situation and the characteristics of followers. The result of such varied research interest is an abundance of leadership theories. In order to accurately relate trust and leadership theory, a review of existing approaches to effective leadership now follows. This section provides a synthesis of trust and leadership research by reviewing existing theories of leadership and highlighting where such approaches acknowledge and/or incorporate the role of trust.

1.2.2.1 Historical approaches to leadership

In 1978, James MacGregor Burns wrote that 'leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth' (p. 2). In the decades that followed the intense interest in understanding effective leadership has remained, and some worthwhile gains have been made in the understanding of this critical phenomenon.

Early research on leadership began by exploring common traits of exceptional leaders. The original 'Great Person' theory of leadership maintained that such individuals shared traits which set them apart from 'ordinary' people and enabled them to lead effectively across any given situation. However, few studies provided reasonable support for the trait theory and the work of Stodgil (1948) assisted in the eventual demise of the concept in its original form. Stodgil was unable to establish any consistent traits which could separate leaders from non leaders across a range of situations and he criticised the trait approach for failing to consider the influence of the situation.

Researchers were also critical of the almost subjective manner in which 'ideal' traits appeared to be generated, and the lack of explanation as to how particular traits translate in to leader effectiveness. Further condemnation was received from Bennis and Nanus (1985) who branded great person theory a myth. A clear limitation of the trait approach is that it fails to contribute to the development of leaders since many of the qualities espoused by such theorists are considered to be inherent or fixed.

Despite such denigration a number of subsequent studies continued the focus on the traits of effective leaders. For example Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) contend 'it is unequivocally clear that leaders are not like other people' (p.59). The pair conducted a qualitative review of earlier research and proposed six key traits which a leader may either inherit or learn. The six traits were: *drive, desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability* and *knowledge of the business*; the authors labelled this collection 'the right stuff'. An extensive list of leader characteristics has emerged within subsequent trait theories, among these there are five which tend to predominate: *intelligence*, *self-confidence*, *determination*, *integrity* and *sociability* (Northouse, 2001). In essence the trait theory of leadership aimed to prescribe ideal traits of successful leaders, but was constrained by the failure to acknowledge other contributors to leader effectiveness and widely labelled inadequate as a result.

Following criticism of the trait approach an extensive shift in focus is observed from trait to behavioural and situational explanations of leadership. The behavioural 'style approach' was led by Stodgil's 1974 research. This study demonstrated that followers had a tendency to evaluate leadership based upon two dimensions of leader behaviour which the author labelled *initiating structure* and *consideration;* components which essentially represented the task and relationship aspects of leadership. Another behavioural focus was applied in House and Mitchell's path-goal theory (1974), here the motivation of followers was of central concern. The path-goal leader conducts an assessment of the follower and adopts the most suitable behaviour considering both the follower and the situation. This approach is reliant on raising the follower's expectancy by convincing them that they are capable, that the goal is achievable, and that the reward will be meaningful. Although the authors offered examples of recommended behaviours such as *directive*, *supportive* and *participative* they were also careful to highlight that other behaviours may also be effective.

The situational approach of Hersey and Blanchard (1969) echoed aspects of Stodgil's work in proposing dual aspects of behaviour (known as *directive* and *supportive* dimensions) that leaders should apply suitably to situations. This approach emphasised flexibility on the part of the leader and relied heavily on their ability to evaluate and respond to follower needs through evaluating follower competence and commitment.

The approach has received some credence in applied settings where it has been adapted to produce training programmes for leaders. However, although this model was theoretically appealing, there was a lack of research evidence to support the efficacy of this approach, and a lack of clarity on how leaders might accurately define and gauge the competence and commitment of followers. Rather than focussing only on leader behaviours, some theorists began to consider the potential influence of the situation.

Perhaps the most well known situational approach is Fiedler's contingency theory (1967). Here great emphasis was placed on understanding the nature of the situation in order to understand leadership within it. According to contingency theory, effective leadership is largely reliant on the leader 'matching' their style to the setting, and as such must be highly influenced by both the accuracy with which the leader reads the situation, and the available styles which he/she is able to adopt. The term 'contingency' represents the idea that a leader has an approach which can suit the situation. One realistic aspect of Fiedler's model is that he acknowledged that certain leaders would fit better in particular situations; therefore a proven 'effective' leader could not be expected to be effective in all situations – moving away from the trait theory concept that good leaders can be 'all things to all people'. Fiedler identified three components which could impact upon the favourableness of the situation. These factors were leader-member relations (including trust and respect), task structure (clarity and structure of tasks) and leader position power (the actual power possessed by the leader). Some leaders may be naturally more task oriented while others prefer a relationship oriented approach; research on contingency theory implies that task leaders may be more effective in less favourable settings while relationship leaders can be more effective in moderately favourable ones (Northouse, 2001). Although the premise of contingency theory was interesting, researchers were unable to establish and expand upon why different leaders are better in different scenarios. This deficit undermined the wider value of Fiedler's model and theorists continued to seek other explanations of leadership.

1.2.2.2 Transactional leadership

The concept of transactional leadership, a behavioural model, was first introduced by Burns (1978) and is best understood as a managed exchange between two parties. Here the leader offers some reward to the follower and the follower performs some kind of action in return. Each party is aware of their role and the expected return and can withhold either, for example the leader may withhold the pay of an employee who does not complete their work as agreed. Transactional leadership was devised to describe the exchange between leader and follower in business settings where purely 'contractual' exchanges are commonplace. Bass (1985) included two independent dimensions of leadership in his theory, labelling them transactional and transformational

leadership. This view is a useful notion since, on some level, almost all leadership is somewhat transactional but it may also take transformational forms (this will be discussed later in the chapter). Rather than emphasising the quality or affective nature of the relationship, transactional leadership describes an exchange which is well aligned with rational choice and could be conceived as the 'bare bones' of leadership.

The transactional style is not, in itself, ineffective but is considered generally less effective than its transformational counterpart. In sport settings Rowold (2006) confirmed that transactional leadership was related to leader effectiveness in martial arts leaders, though transformational behaviours added a significant level of improvement. Interestingly, Doherty and Danylchuck (1996) demonstrated that transactional behaviours were observed significantly less than transformational ones in sport settings. The issue of context is particularly relevant to this debate since typical leader-follower transactions which may be observed in a context such as manufacturing, have considerably less relevance to competitive sport settings. In sport the personal investment of followers can be higher, outcomes can be less predictable and reliance on leaders and teammates can be greater. These factors contribute to higher levels of risk under which transactional leadership is less able to effect great change. Studies of transactional leadership are still observed in the literature, but these are regularly integrated with assessments of the transformational approach.

Among both behavioural and situational approaches there is some reference to the role of trust. For example Fiedler proposed that leader-follower relations are central to contingency theory and that these were based on liking and trusting the leader. Fielder explicitly includes a bi-polar rating of trustworthy-untrustworthy in his least preferred co-worker (LPC) measure. Whilst several of these early accounts of effective leadership hold some intuitive appeal, exclusively trait, behavioural or situational models have become more redundant over the past two decades and emergent theories have begun to dominate the leadership spectrum. In relation to this thesis the aforementioned models are unable to complete understanding of effective leadership, to produce conclusive findings on leadership in sport settings, or define the key role that trust could play in this area.

1.2.2.3 LMX (leader-member exchange)

In an entirely distinct model of leadership, Graen (1976) proposed the theory of leader - member exchange or LMX. Within this perspective, the quality of the exchange between the leader and follower is central and markers of each party and their relationship such as competence, interpersonal skill and trust are considered. Here leadership is a process which cannot be adopted as a uniform approach to all followers.

LMX is not something that leaders simply 'do' to followers, rather both the leader and follower play a role in the success of the relationship. Research on LMX has followed two strains, the first is known as 'vertical dyad linkage' (VDL) and the second known as 'leadership making'.

VDL essentially views leadership as a series of unique linkages between the leader and followers. Graen (1976) claimed that two types of linkages existed. The first were linkages within which the leader expanded, negotiated and agreed responsibilities with followers (often agreeing actions beyond those which were required) while the second linkages were based on the formal leader-follower agreement or contract (where the required level was met by leaders and followers but no more and no less). Followers who met the first type of linkage were included in the in-group by the leader; these followers invested more and as a result received more support and attention from the leader. Those followers whose relations with the leader were based on the second type of linkage were included in the out-group by the leader; as a result they were treated adequately but did not receive the extra support and attention received by the in-group. Although a level of fairness is maintained with out-group members there is an observable difference in the treatment each group receives from the leader.

The second form of LMX known as 'leadership making' has also attracted a great deal of research (Gerstner and Day, 1997). This explanation prescribes an approach within which the leader attempts to develop the highest possible quality of exchanges with followers and seeks to include all members in the in-group. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1991; 1995) proposed a developmental model of this leader making process which progresses through three relationship phases: the stranger, acquaintance and partner phases. In each phase the roles, influences, exchanges and interests of each party are mapped. This model demonstrates the cumulative enhancement of the leader-follower relationship over time in a manner which mirrors the development of trust described by the calculus, knowledge, identification and affect-based forms of trust (McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi, 2006). One crucial aspect of LMX development which relates to the issue of trust is observed in the change of interests at each phase. Graen and Uhl-Bien note that by the partner phase the relationship is marked by a high degree of mutual trust, this may be related to the change in interest which moves from self to group over the three phases.

Since trust is highly related to appraisals of interest it may be assumed that the close relations detailed in LMX contribute to a change in interests of the follower. If the interest of the follower can evolve to match the interest of the group then trust in the leader of the group will be more likely. Perhaps one skill of the LMX leader is to help

evolve follower interests to match group ones. A further strength of the model is that it demonstrates a range of leader-follower relations from transactional to more transformational, confirming that situations and characteristics of both leaders and followers may not always allow for the highest 'quality' of leader-follower relations.

Attempts have been made to identify the aspects of LMX which permit such high quality relations. Early conceptions of LMX were quite broad and authors included as many as six sub-dimensions of LMX: *mutual support*, *trust*, *liking*, *latitude*, *attention* and *loyalty* (Schriesheim, Castro and Cogliser, 1999). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) reduced these to three dimensions: *respect*, *obligation* and *trust* and devised a recommended measure (LMX 7) to assess them. The inclusion of trust in these dimensions and the accompanying measure is interesting given the cognitive and affective dimensions of trust – remember that LMX theory focuses so strongly on the relationship. In this sense the inclusion of trust is flawed since the literature predicts that cognition-based trust may influence leadership relationships even when affect-based trust is absent (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002); in fact research has shown that cognition-based trust may appear as a basis for the affect-based version (McAllister, 1995).

There has been minimal concurrence on the key dimensions of the LMX concept. For example wide variety is evident within LMX measurement scales, this is illustrated by a comparison of the LMX-6 measure (Schriesheim et al., 1992) which incorporates the following dimensions: *perceived contribution to the exchange*, *loyalty* and *positive affect* with the LMX-7 measure offered by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) which assessed the aforementioned three dimensions: *respect*, *trust* and *obligation*. Even the more widely used measure from Graen et al. may attract some criticism. It is evident that although the authors make the three dimensions of *respect*, *trust* and *obligation* explicit, they are less than clear about which items address each dimension, how items were devised and why these dimensions are included while earlier ones are excluded. Some of the LMX 7 items are overly specific while others are poorly constructed, for example item one is double-barrelled - '*do you know where you stand with your leader….do you know how satisfied your leader is with what you do"*? (p.237); such issues suggest some flaws in the construction of the measure.

Ultimately the LMX 7 may find high trust scores even in the absence of the relationship-based affective forms of trust (which would result from leader-member exchange). In addition, the measure may be criticised for claiming to measure trust, but failing to specify how this is achieved. The only seemingly relevant item in the measure asks the follower to rate 'confidence' in the leader, not trust. There is one item on the quality of the leader-follower relationship, but nothing explicitly rating trust or even a willingness to rely on the leader. The authors express that the respect dimension reflects 'capabilities

of each other'; this seems akin to some sources of cognition-based trust such as competence and ability, but it is difficult to recognise the LMX 7 items which address this dimension. The inclusion of trust in this theory does not appear to be research based and illustrates a lack of 'joined up thinking' between the fields of trust and leadership research.

There may also be some limitations in applying this model to all leadership contexts since it is based upon ongoing social exchange which, although common in leadership settings, is not always the model of leadership. Schriesheim, Castro and Cogliser (1999) questioned the reliability of established measures of LMX and criticised the tendency of LMX researchers to make ill-conceived additions and omissions to measures, this concern was reinforced by the findings of Keller and Dansereau (2001) who demonstrated that the tendency to add and remove items to LMX scales resulted in significantly different results. Given the implications of these findings the authors called for further studies to validate one reliable measure of LMX. The criticisms levelled at these measures support the decision within this research to avoid the premature construction of a trust measure in favour of more extensive research in the field. The measures alluded to within this review feature only in an attempt to acknowledge any inclusion/omission of trust - rather than because any great significance is placed upon the contribution of measures and scales.

1.2.2.4 Models of new leadership

Hunt (1999) described the revolutionary impact of an upsurge in research adopting an approach known as 'new leadership' (Bryman, 1992). Models of new leadership, which include both charismatic and transformational approaches, have begun to prevail in organisational contexts and received empirical support from theorists in a variety of settings. These models are predominantly behavioural in their approach, but do acknowledge some key qualities or characteristics of leaders. Such models have great significance to this research since they place consistent emphasis on the relevance of trust in effective leadership.

In 2004 the incumbent manager of Chelsea football club, Josè Mourinho, declared 'I'm not one from the bottle, I'm a special one' (Burt, 2004). What fuelled this proclamation and why was it actually well received in some football circles? Whilst this was an ostensibly arrogant comment, new leadership theorists may argue that Mourinho was simply highlighting a factor which qualified him to lead such a high profile team – possession of some extraordinary quality. This focus on the exceptional nature of effective leaders is what unites theorists within the new leadership paradigm, and has led to extensive discussions of leader charisma.

Charismatic leadership

The concept of charismatic leadership has roots in the work of sociologist Max Weber. In 1947 Weber described how effective leaders possessed an inherent 'charismatic authority' within his approach to leadership which was not dissimilar from the great person theory. Weber felt that particularly effective leaders were recognised by their unique charismatic tendencies. The definition of this charisma was that followers held a perception of the leader as extraordinary, or special, and as such Weber acknowledged that charisma must be recognised by followers in order to be effective. Though Weber was able to ignite discussion on charisma, his theories and explanations were less than definitive and even contradictory at times, causing frustration for those interested in his perspective (Bryman, 1992).

Subsequently, a comprehensive body of work on charismatic leadership in organisations was developed by Robert House and colleagues, who have since amassed a significant body of work on the topic. First, House (1977) proposed a multi-dimensional framework for charismatic leadership which acknowledged the traits and behaviours of charismatic leaders as well as the influence of the situation. The theory specified particular characteristics such as self-confidence and possession of moral values. House also highlighted a number of behaviours including demonstrating competence, articulating goals and having high expectations of followers. To complete the model House suggested a number of 'effects' of charismatic leadership which included trust in the ideology of the leader, similarity in leader – follower beliefs and identification with the leader. With respect to the situation, both Weber and House concurred that charismatic leaders were more likely to influence during times of crisis when followers seek deliverance from their difficulties.

Among the many papers which followed Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) produced the most substantial addition to this early theory with their assessment of the motivational effects of charismatic leadership. They proposed a model in which leader behaviours and follower effects were linked through follower self-concepts. The central premise of the theory was that charismatic leaders 'tie' the vision and goals of the organisation to the self-concept of followers. Leader behaviours such as provision of ideological explanations, emphasising collective identity and reference to followers' worth and identity may result in effects such as heightened self esteem, self worth, personal identification with the leader, increased collective efficacy and others (Shamir, House and Arthur, 1993). The researchers rely heavily on the notion that people are motivated to gain that sense of identity (known as the self-concept) and propose that charismatic leaders may utilise this need by providing for it within their leadership. The authors acknowledge that differential effects may occur among followers and identify a number

of follower characteristics which may moderate the effects; they also highlight that follower identities must be built upon rather than replaced, appealing to established elements of followers' self concepts. An example of this could be that followers may initially gauge whether to follow the leader based on the extent to which he/she is seen to represent their values and identities; the effectiveness of the leader in terms of articulation and inspiring vision is likely to impact heavily on this appraisal. Clearly this model could also relate to the identification described in Lewicki and Bunker's (1996) model of trust.

In contrast to Shamir, House and Arthur (1993), Conger and Kanungo (1988; 1998) provided a purely behavioural model of charismatic leadership whereby followers may infer charismatic or non-charismatic qualities of leaders from demonstrable leadership role behaviours. For example they propose that charismatic and non-charismatic leaders may be differentiated by their ability to identify shortcomings in the current status quo, and to articulate 'strategic visions' for the change that is necessary (behaviours not too dissimilar from aspects of the previous model). The theorists note that leader's vision was most likely to be considered extraordinary when it was very distinct from the status quo or usual approach of the organisation, implying that leaders who promote unique aims and methods are most likely to achieve this 'charismatic' tag. In 1998 Conger and Kanungo proposed a three-stage model of the charismatic leadership process which describes the factors employed by followers to distinguish between charismatic leaders and mere 'managers'. This model clearly sets out the factors employed by followers in three distinct stages of leader appraisals.

In stage one the charismatic leader is first evaluated along two dimensions, one task based (changing the status quo) and one relationship based (sensitivity to member needs); perhaps these may be related to the cognition and affect-based forms of trust. In stage two the vision of the charismatic leader is also evaluated in two parts, firstly on the successful formulation of a joint and 'idealised' vision for the group and secondly on the effective articulation of this vision in a way deemed inspirational by followers. Finally, charismatic leaders are evaluated in relation to their actions; here behaviours which followers interpret as self-sacrificing and/or entailing risk on the part of the leader are most charismatic. The associated Conger-Kanungo (1997) measure of charismatic leadership (the C-K scale) specifies several behavioural dimensions which include: *vision and articulation*, *environmental sensitivity*, *unconventional behaviour*, *personal risk*, *sensitivity to member needs*, and *not maintaining the status quo*.

Despite some minor differences in the models of charismatic leadership the two are in agreement about the *process* of influencing followers which is one of empowerment rather than control. The central focus is on inspiring change in the core attitudes, beliefs

and values of followers and this is commonly seen as inherent within the 'vision' aspect of these theories; the personal quality of charisma is seen as central to the successful operation of these behaviours. Subsequent assessments of charismatic models suggest more strongly that the follower is involved in effective charismatic leadership in an exchange-type relationship (Howell and Shamir, 2005) and describe the impact of specific behaviours such as the use of rhetoric and metaphor (Shamir, Arthur and House, 1994; Mio et al., 2005).

Links between each of the two charismatic models and trust theory are palpable. The action of articulating a 'joint vision' for the group and the approach from Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) which involved addressing the needs of followers each relate strongly to the issue of follower interests in trust appraisals; if followers believe that the vision of the leader is also their vision, then a sense of shared interests is created. The issue of leader sacrifice or risk can be related to the follower's sense of vulnerability since when the leader has risked something on the outcome they are considered more likely to prioritise achieving it. Each of these aspects also draw on the rational choice model of trusting, charismatic leaders may make the choice to trust more rational.

The emergence of leader charisma was studied by Shamir and Howell (1999) who specified fifteen contextual influences on both the emergence and effectiveness of charismatic leadership. Several of the influences they identify relate strongly to sport settings, for example the authors indicate that the charismatic approach works best in adaptive cultures where the group have common values, and issues such as team work, integrity and risk taking are central. Furthermore, they suggest that charismatic leaders are more effective in situations where analyzability is low; football performance is influenced by a wide number of factors, and interpersonal interactions, and as such is far more difficult to analyze than say, productivity on a manufacturing production line where individual contributions to performance can be monitored more accurately.

In the original 1997 Conger-Kanungo scale for charismatic leadership, trust is not specifically included, but in a later paper (Conger and Kanungo, 2000) the authors do assess trust by way of a three item measure adapted from Bass (1985) and Butler (1991). The authors do not specify the items, but, given the complexity of this factor, there are obvious limitations to the evaluation of trust in a three item measure.

Charismatic leadership presents a model which is easier to align with aspects of interpersonal trust than the concepts covered earlier. The image of a leader as an exceptional or extraordinary figure can be applied to sport with some ease since the high profile and dynamic nature of the endeavour has resulted in the elevation of individuals to near hero status. The situational context of football is very distinct from

business and modern military sessions where the focus on individual characters is less high profile. In addition to its intuitive appeal, the charismatic approach has sparked a great deal of research interest and is supported by a respectable number of research studies (Conger and Hunt, 1999). Clearly the modern theory of charismatic leadership that has enjoyed support is a highly developed version of the early notions of the charismatic trait. Although the premise of these models is that the charismatic characteristic of the leader leads to effectiveness, these theories also offer specific and feasible behavioural illustrations of how leaders incite particular effects.

Transformational leadership

The original process of 'transforming leadership' (Burns, 1978) was so named in an effort to distinguish it from his well known concept of transactional leadership; Burns saw transactional and transforming leadership as opposite ends of a leadership continuum. It was Bernard Bass (1985) who later employed Burns's principles to form the theory of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1993). Bass held the belief that a leader could be both transactional and transformational in their behaviours in different situations. The premise of transactional leadership as an exchange process has been covered previously; the theory of transformational leadership is almost the polar opposite of this approach. Transformational leaders effect great change in their followers and inspire them to perform above and beyond the expectations of their role. The overarching emphasis is on the ability of effective leaders to draw responses from followers and bring about important outcomes from the group; such leaders achieve this in the absence of controlling regulations or rewards by performing particular behaviours. Burns's original study proposed that followers could be inspired to commit more than was expected of them if leaders performed a number of behaviours (many of which are reminiscent of those proposed by charismatic theorists). The three key actions Burns proposed were (a) raising followers' consciousness about the importance and value of specialised and idealised goals, (b) getting followers to transcend self-interest for the good of the group (c) moving followers to address higher level needs.

Since the emphasis is upon change, transformational leaders (as charismatic ones) often thrive in contexts where situations are fairly unfavourable and a total move away from the status quo is required (Bass and Riggio, 2006). This preference for change may be evidenced in football contexts when new management enters a club that has been performing badly. On such occasions it is common to hear followers (players and fans) comment on the change which the new leader has brought.

Empirical support for transformational leadership has been extensive. Evidence on the operation of transformational leadership was first observed in military contexts (Bass, 1985; Yammarino and Bass, 1990) and has been established since then in a wide

variety of settings including organisations, political arenas and sport (Avolio and Yammarino, 2002; Pillai and Williams, 1998; Kent and Chelladurai, 2001).

It would appear that the majority of criticism levelled at earlier models of leadership centred upon a lack of experimental attention and inadequate or ill-conceived developments to theory. Transformational leadership, while imperfect, is better placed to defend itself in this regard following over twenty years of sustained interest and attention. The most comprehensive model of transformational leadership is provided by Bass and Riggio (2006) in their 4I model of leadership (pp.6-7), which is detailed below.

- Idealised Influence (II) - leader serves as a role model, is trusted, admired and respected
- Inspirational Motivation (IM) – motivate by providing meaning and challenge to followers' work
- Intellectual Stimulation (IS) – encourage creativity in followers by questioning established methods
- Individualised Consideration (IC) – pay special attention to needs of followers by acting as a coach type figure

Clearly the four dimensions of leader behaviour address both task and relationship-based aspects of leadership. Although only explicitly referenced within idealised influence dimension, trust may be implicitly involved in other aspects of the model. For example, providing meaning to challenges could be seen as impacting upon the interests of followers; if a goal appears aligned to the wants and needs (interests) of the individual then trust has more relevance. The individualised consideration dimension also relates highly to trust by addressing the affective side of relationships. A leader who is seen to pay attention to the needs of followers will be rated accordingly in terms of belief in their intentions. Hardin's encapsulated interest account demonstrates how a follower who perceives high individualised consideration may well be more inclined to trust (they believe that the leader has their interests at heart).

Theories of charismatic and transformational leadership certainly intersect in a number of ways, most notably on the importance of leader charisma. Authors from the different perspectives differ in their views on the role of trust, for example, Conger (1999) felt charismatic leadership was the most ideal form of transformational leader possible while Bass recognised the influence of charisma but felt it was one of the key qualities possessed by transformational leaders rather than the crux of transformational leadership effectiveness. Despite this, one established commonality between charismatic and transformational approaches is the emphasis placed on gaining trust from followers (Bass and Avolio, 1993; Shamir, 1995).

1.2.2.5 Trust in leadership

Whilst trust was alluded to in several former models of leadership it is most explicitly incorporated in the new leadership approaches and it was this focus from charismatic and transformational theorists that fuelled specific explorations of trust in leadership. Researchers have concerned themselves not only with establishing that trust is related to leadership, but with assessing the actual role of trust in the process. For example trust was shown to mediate the relationship between transformational leader behaviours and follower responses (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Findings also indicate that two particular behaviours, one task related (providing an appropriate model) and one relationship related (providing individualised support) are known to impact more heavily on trust (Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer, 1996).

Pillai and Williams (1998) determined that transformational leadership achieved results from followers through perceptions of both trust and procedural justice, while Pillai et al., (2003) determined that trust mediated perceptions of the leader and voting behaviour. The link between leadership and trust was further supported by Schlechter and Strauss (2008) who found that the emotional intelligence of leaders may engender trust. Importantly, Dirks (2000) established the importance of trust in leadership among sport settings, finding that trust in leadership was a significant determinant of sport performance while trust in teammates was not.

Two more recent publications also support the importance of trust in leadership, these include a meta-analysis (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002) and review and integration (Burke et al., 2007). The meta-analysis aimed to examine some inconsistencies in existing trust in leader research, namely the use of inconsistent or indistinct referents (whether studies focus on trust in direct or organisational level leaders) and, more importantly, the potential impact caused by the adoption of different trust definitions. The analysis included an extensive assessment of these issues and has contributed considerably to the area, generally concurring with earlier contentions that trust in leadership was significantly related to a number of outcomes (including satisfaction, work attitudes and role performance) and that trust operates as a mediating variable between leader behaviours (including transformational ones) and outcomes. Importantly, results suggested that studies had employed either mixed (cognitive and affect-based) or solely cognition-based assessments. While the authors determined that both cognition and affect based forms of trust existed, they found that these forms were distinct. Dirks and Ferrin suggest that a level of cognition-based trust is necessary before affect-based trust can be established. This claim parallels the points of Lewicki and Bunker (1996) and Rousseau et al., (1998) on the stages of trust development. The authors conclude by

presenting a sound theoretical framework within which cognition and affect-based forms of trust are defined and assessed.

Of some interest was the finding that relationship-based variables including transformational leadership had the largest relationship with trust (transformational leadership was highly correlated with trust r =.72), this led the authors to recommended that future studies examine this aspect. Specifically, the authors suggested that future research should examine the behavioural cues which followers employ in appraisals of both the character of the leader and the quality of the leader-follower relationship. This certainly lends some support to the aims of the present research. Furthermore, the authors are critical of studies that have focussed on one form of trust at the expense of another or have employed measures which are questionable or inappropriate (such as some research on LMX). Their paper highlights that assessments of trust in leadership have often adopted deductive approaches based on assumptions and measures which are unsuitable, rather than exploring trust in a more inductive and exploratory manner. This approach, coupled with the lack of empirical evidence supporting several theories of trust, may have limited the progression of trust in leadership research.

The breadth and depth of leadership research is immense, clearly new leadership approaches have significantly contributed to this body of work over the past half century. At present the literature appears to have amalgamated the 'best bits' of several approaches, culminating in models such as the transformational approach. This theory extends earlier ones since it includes keys traits like charisma, acknowledges the enormous influence of the situation, prescribes ideal behaviours and defines outcomes. The exploration of trust in leadership has extended the charismatic, transformational and LMX perspectives, and has produced some insight in to the way that trust supports the operation of effective leadership. A context which has consistently produced some of the most well known and ostensibly 'effective' leaders is the arena of sport, and research in this environment has endeavoured to produce some comprehensive theories of effective leadership.

1.2.3 Sport Contexts

The theories and findings covered in the thesis thus far focus almost exclusively on organisational settings. The context of sport represents an environment that bears similar hallmarks to business; this is particularly true of football in England where seven English Premier League teams currently rank among the twenty richest football clubs in the world (Deloitte, 2009). As an illustration of the level of finance involved in the sport at the top level, Manchester United (England's highest earning team) reported profits of £277.1 million for the 08/09 season. Given the involvement of such high revenue it is no surprise that the game has developed such a high pressure and performance led

culture, or that clubs are considered as organisations in their own right. Indeed Jones (2002) highlights existing similarities between elite sport and business drawing comparisons within key areas such as: organisational issues, stress, leadership, high performing teams, and one-to-one coaching; the author reflects on the amount that each discipline may learn from the other.

1.2.3.1 Sport Leadership

Initial attempts to apply situational leadership models such as path-goal and contingency theory to sport proved fairly ineffective (Horn, 2002). Presuming that the sport context held some unique characteristics, researchers aimed to present more relevant sport-specific explanations of effective leadership/coaching. Two models have since dominated the landscape of sport research, the Multidimensional Model of Leadership or MML (Chelladurai, 1978, 1990, 1993, 2001) and the Mediational Model (Smoll and Smith, 1989; Smith and Smoll, 2007).

Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML)

The MML theoretical framework is probably the more widely used of the two approaches; this concept extended organisational models of leadership in defining dimensions of leader behaviour whilst establishing three potential antecedents of leadership in sport. Chelladurai maintained that that leadership effectiveness was determined by the characteristics of the leader, follower and situation. Here leadership was considered an interaction of these factors; any dissatisfaction with leadership could be predicted by a discrepancy among the three, for example, a leader may have some ostensibly 'effective' traits or behaviours but they will only be effective where they match the preferences of the athlete and the demands of the situation. Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) developed an associated measure, the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) which has been employed widely within sport. In keeping with the principles of MML the measure assesses leadership behaviours among five dimensions: *training and instruction*, *democratic behaviour*, *autocratic behaviour*, *social support* and *positive feedback*. The scale is usually employed with athletes in two versions, one to gauge 'ideal' leader behaviours (their preferences) and another to allow ratings of 'actual' leader behaviours, the premise was that congruence between the two (and the situation) led to effective leadership.

Chelladurai and Carron (1983) employed the scale in a comparison of high school and university level athletes and determined a significant difference in their preference for leadership, indicating a developmental influence on athletes' perception of 'ideal' leaders. Such findings were interesting since they confirmed the interaction of leader, follower and situation. The MLL approach and LSS scale have remained in use in recent times (Price and Weiss, 2000; Reimer and Toon, 2001; Loughead and Hardy,

2005). In 2001, Chelladurai added transformational leader behaviours to his earlier version of the MML though he made no alteration to the LSS at that time. Transformational leadership was placed as an antecedent of the leader, follower and situation characteristics. Chelladurai maintained that transformational leadership could impact not only on the leader but upon the context (by bringing about great change and new focus) and on the follower (by conveying confidence in them and raising their goals and aspirations). Riemer (2007) does highlight that one recognised aspect of transformational leadership (namely charisma) is a trait – as opposed to a behaviour that may be learned. Transformational leadership is acknowledged in the latest version of MML but is not considered a crucial determinant of effective sport leadership (Riemer, 2007).

Mediational model

The alternative approach to the MML was a social-cognitive model (Smoll and Smith, 1989), which examined the role of both situational and personal factors. Much of the associated research has focussed on youth sport contexts, the central premise of the meditational model is that 'cognitive-affective processes serve as filters between overt coaching behaviours and youngsters' attitude toward their coach' (Smith and Smoll, 2007, p. 77). Therefore it is the perception of and response to leader behaviours which impacts on outcomes rather than simply leader behaviours. Acknowledging the typical predominance of questionnaire measures of leadership, the authors employed a system for coding leader behaviours. The Coaching Behaviour Assessment System (CBAS) devised by Smith, Smoll and Hunt (1977) allowed observers to record coaches' reactive and spontaneous behaviours. Reactive behaviours included reinforcement and punishment while spontaneous behaviours included general technical instruction and encouragement.

The advantage of this observational technique was that it permitted an assessment of coaches which could be based upon literally hundreds, or even thousands, of actual behaviours. Smith and Smoll (2007) describe the salient leader behaviours which have emerged following coding of 80,000 coaching behaviours. The three key behaviours which emerged were *supportiveness*, *instructiveness* and *punitiveness*. The authors acknowledge the clear alignment of the first two dimensions with the traditional task and relationship dimensions observed in wider leadership research (Fiedler, 1967) which also relate to foundations of trust (McAllister, 1995). In order to acknowledge the key role that follower perceptions play in leadership effectiveness the CBAS was often employed to allow children to indicate perceptions of coaching behaviour.

Subsequent explorations of the meditational model have included studies of adult populations in sport and have expanded on the factors of the coach, athlete and situation which impact most significantly on coach behaviours, athlete perceptions and athlete reactions. The CBAS approach was adapted to aid development of training courses for coaches (Smith, Smoll and Curtis, 1979); results showed that attendance at the course had a significant positive impact on the coaches, demonstrating that coaches are able to `learn' effective behaviours. Smith and Smoll (2002) and Smoll and Smith (2006) describe this work as coach effectiveness training (CET). This guidance is based around five central coaching principles which include: a focus on effort over outcome, providing positive feedback and support to athletes, promoting social support as a group norm, involving team members in establishing rules and guidelines, and developing levels of self-awareness in coaches.

LMX Leadership in sport

Very few research studies have explored the concept of LMX within sport. A study by Case (1998) applied LMX theory to leadership of summer camp basketball players (n=178) and examined the notion that 'starters' and 'non-starters' may represent Graen's in-and out-groups in this context. Findings supported the hypothesis that starters rated their coaches significantly higher in LMX than did non-starters. This result suggests that there are instances of in-group and out-group formation in sport settings, and that this may explain ostensibly different leadership experiences for different members of the same sporting teams.

In another study, Kent and Chelladurai (2001) demonstrated that perceptions of LMX were significantly correlated to perceptions of transformational leadership in athletic leaders. This has relevance as it supports Graen's claim that LMX can be transactional or transformational in its operation. Furthermore, the authors suggested that in low quality exchanges between sport leaders and followers, both trust and support between leader and follower was reduced. In contrast, high quality relationships between sport leaders and staff resulted in sought after outcomes including higher satisfaction and commitment in followers. One caveat here is that each of these sport related studies employed an established LMX measure and therefore the results must be considered in light of the criticism which has been directed at these measures.

LMX offers a detailed explanation of the affective dimension of leadership which may be related to the 'higher' levels of trust proposed by Lewicki such as identification-based trust. Clearly there is a strong link between the affective dimension of trust and the LMX theory of leadership. Leaders who develop high quality relationships with followers may logically be expected to produce higher levels of affect-based trust. LMX theory has received somewhat justified criticism for the subjective manner in which some of its

theories and measures have evolved. As with the trust literature, this confusion over the constituent dimensions of LMX reduces its ability to hold sway as a comprehensive explanation of effective leadership. In addition the theory does little to explain or incorporate cognitive factors which may have a bearing on perceptions of leaders and certainly relate to perceptions of trust in others (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). For example would a football leader be an effective and trusted figure if he/she did not have integrity and ability, simply because they brought followers in to the 'in-group' and built good relations with them? The formation of in-groups or cliques within sports teams is well documented but effective leadership (and indeed trustworthy leadership) must be based upon more than creating in-groups.

Transformational leadership in sport

The central features of transformational leadership are easily aligned to the challenges and demands of the sport context. Chelladurai's inclusion of transformational leadership in the 2001 model of MML was necessary given the predominance and support of the theory in mainstream psychology. Researchers have shown some interest in both transactional and transformational styles of leadership in sport, with some focus on the two styles as a continuum of leader behaviour. For example Rowold (2006), presents findings which suggest that transformational leadership approaches extend the influence gained through transactional approaches in sport. This impact is viewed as an 'augmented effect' whereby transactional leadership behaviours are enhanced by transformational ones. Hoption, Phelan and Barling (2007) call for further sport related research on transformational leadership including the application of the 4I model of transformational leadership in sport. The authors suggest that this approach to leadership in sport could impact on the well being, self-efficacy, attitudes and performances of followers, and cite four studies which provide support for transformational leadership in sport. Among these were Pillai and Williams (2004) who demonstrated that transformational leadership positively influenced team cohesion, and Charbonneau, Barling and Kelloway (2001) who demonstrated a link between transformational leadership and intrinsic motivation. According to the latter research, transformational leaders emphasise enjoyment rather than results, which relates to the transformational themes of vision and inspiration. The idea of influencing followers' 'interests' was raised earlier in the thesis and could explain the influence here, if followers who seek enjoyment begin to think that following the leader will deliver this, then they may feel more motivation (irrespective of whether the actual team outcome particularly mattered to them).

1.2.3.2 Trust in sports coaching

The concept of trust is regularly referred to within coaching codes of conduct, research and writings on philosophy of sport (Jones, 2000) and effective and ethical approaches to sport leadership (McNamee and Parry, 1998). For example McNamee and Parry (1998) present an interesting discussion on trust and rules which govern sport coaching. The authors comment on the fundamental role of trust in the social context of sport and go on to discuss many of the issues covered here (including reliance from, and vulnerability of, athletes and the 'moral' aspect of leadership which relates to trust). They present a coaching scenario which perfectly demonstrates the need for athletes to trust coaches to act in their best interests rather than simply 'within the rules' (the latter would be a form of weak deterrence-based trust). The risk that athletes invest in coaching relationships is undeniable, but the responsibility placed upon the coach is equally vast, and incidents of trust betrayals from coaches have been well documented (Ryan, 1996). It is the complexities of such relationships which have formed the focus of a new stream of research in sport psychology.

The coach-athlete relationship

A body of work has developed that explores the coach-athlete relationship in sport. Whilst there are some distinctions between typical sport coaches and football managers (managers possess some distinctive responsibilities) the literature remains highly relevant to assessments in this context. A particular strength of this body of research is that it assesses the perspective of both the coach and athlete. Jowett and Poczwardowski (2007) describe the three models of the coach-athlete relationship that have emerged over the last decade or more. Firstly, Poczwardowski (1997) explored relations between coach-athlete dyads and emphasised the mutual care which may be observed between the two parties. Lavoi (2004) later developed a model which explores the relationship in relation to four qualities: *authenticity* (self-expression and respect), *engagement* (commitment and responsiveness), *empowerment* (being strengthened and inspired) and *ability* (the ability to overcome conflict in the dyad). Finally, Jowett and colleagues (Jowett and Cockerill, 2002, 2003; Jowett, 2003; Jowett and Meek, 2000; Jowett and Ntoumanis, 2004) have developed a conceptual model named the 3+1Cs model (originally the 3Cs model). Here the coach-athlete relationship is based upon social exchange and the authors explore the dynamics through the dimensions of: *closeness* (affective aspects such as trust, like and respect), *commitment* (intention to maintain the relationship), *complementarity* (corresponding behaviours between the pair) and *co-orientation* (interpersonal perceptions). The four dimensions are intended to represent affective (closeness), cognitive (commitment), behavioural (complementarity) and perceptual (co-orientation) constructs of relationships. Work on

the 3+1Cs model from Jowett and colleagues has received the greatest attention within sport psychology and coaching literature.

There has been a steady flow of papers on the coach-athlete relationship over recent years, assessments have explored this dynamic in situations of crisis (Jowett, 2003), in elite level performers (Jowett and Cockerill, 2003) and among married couples (Jowett and Meek, 2000). Findings tend to conclude that issues within coach-athlete relationships can be described in terms of the closeness, commitment complementarity, and co-orientation. Of particular relevance to this research is the inclusion of trust within the closeness dimension of this conceptual model. The associated measure of the coach-athlete relationship, the coach-athlete relationship questionnaire (CART-Q) includes one item which is aimed at assessing trust ('do you trust your coach/athlete?').

This review has already explored and established the complex nature of trust; such understanding can be used to critique both the inclusion of just a single trust item in the CART-Q measure, and the allocation of the item to the affective (closeness) dimension of the framework. This thesis conceives trust as a dynamic process rather than a static belief or characteristic; according to Hardin (2001) trust is a 'three-part relation' emphasising that *who* we trust, *what* we trust them with and *when* we trust them are each highly relevant. Jowett et al. do not seem to allow such subtlety to emerge among trust responses and do not seem to acknowledge the cognitive aspects of trust. The trust item in the CART-Q measure was constructed following assessment of qualitative themes, an examination of the raw data which the authors coded as 'trust' further illustrates the issue. Jowett and Poczawardski (2007) provide the example item to reflect this aspect of the closeness dimension - 'I trust my coach'. However closer examination suggests that this was derived from data such as that shown below -

> I can trust anything to (C)
> I trust everything.
> She's not just an athlete, she is my wife.
> I would not trust (A) to any other coach
> I believe that from the moment that you say you can trust your coach the athlete can say everything to him
> When you establish an environment of trust and regard you ultimately know that there is a mutual connection of some sort
> Trust means acknowledging the other person's genuine self and so you can open up
>
> (Jowett and Meek, 2000, pp. 164/170/171)

Even a cursory assessment of these responses demonstrates the wide variety of focus among them. The rule for inclusion in this category is difficult to determine, the context of Jowett and Meek's (2000) study may serve to confound these results since all of the

four coach-athlete dyads included were married couples. Trust is likely to already be present in such close relationships and does not necessarily reflect trust in the other as a coach or performer, for example '*I would not trust (A) to any other coach'* is not at all reflective of the trust within the dyad. Similarly, '*she's not just an athlete, she's my wife'* does not seem to refer to trust at all. Other examples do refer to trust but such comments are more general than specific (e.g., '*I trust everything*') and do little to extend our understanding of sources of trust in such dyads. Jowett and Meek (2000) do acknowledge that certain aspects of their data may be unique to the population they have studied but this doesn't appear to have restricted use of the data in forming the CART-Q (Jowett and Ntoumanis, 2004).

Since trust can have both cognitive and affective foundations, and can take a number of forms from calculative to exchange-based examples, one might expect the authors to align their trust dimension to an existing concept or theoretical explanation of trust, unfortunately they do not. Among the papers on the topic one quote from Jowett (2003) was more reflective of the trust described earlier in this chapter. This solitary comment does appear to acknowledge the role of trust and risk in the coach-athlete relationship - '*I* feel I can trust him….I have to trust him if this co-operation we have is to be successful' *(*p.448*).*

In addition to issues in defining trust in the measure, there are a number of other issues in the CART-Q construction which serve to undermine its utility. The 2004 CART-Q measure states that items were based on themes from Jowett and Meek (2000) and Jowett (in press). The latter may refer to Jowett (2003), which was a case study of a single coach-athlete dyad; this may indicate that the CART-Q was based on data from a total of 5 coach-athlete relationships. In addition, there are some coding issues which are difficult to comprehend. For example, the item '*do you feel close to your coach/athlete'* is included in the 'commitment' dimension of the model while *trust*, *like* and *respect* appear in the 'closeness' dimension (Jowett and Ntoumanis, 2004, p. 249).

Criticism may also be directed at the limiting types of coach-athlete dyads which are included in the 2004 paper - eighty-percent of these are from individual, rather than team, sports. Whilst Jowett and Meek (2000) do not report the type of sports performed by their athletes they do highlight that most of the dyads have Olympic experience; given the lack of team sports in that arena we can predict that these were more likely to be individual sport competitors. Overall the CART-Q and 3+1Cs model of coach-athlete relationships appear to include trust in an ill conceived fashion, which is not driven effectively either by data or existing theory. References to coach-athlete trust in their studies do little to advance the understanding of the phenomenon in sport since there is no reference to the forms or sources of trust in these settings. The case for including

trust may have been stronger had the authors explored references to trust more extensively at the interview stage, gathering information on *what* the other party was trusted with and particularly *how* that trust was evaluated.

A similar critique of the coach-athlete framework is presented by Lavoi (2007) who also recognises the confusing location of the 'I feel close' item within the commitment (rather than closeness) dimension. As a result, Lavoi questions the internal validity of the CART-Q and highlights the difficulty of quantitatively examining complex interpersonal issues, promoting instead 'methodologies which allow athlete's voices to construct meaning' (p.499). Within Lavoi's own inductive assessment of athletes, findings demonstrated that trust was one of the most frequently cited aspects of close coach-athlete relationships. While the emergence of trust in such assessments confirms the relevance of trust in sport coaching, the study did not explore or define the meaning of trust in the sport context. In discussing future directions for coach-athlete research the author suggests that research could explore 'what do athletes perceive coaches *actually* do to garner trust and respect' (p.509).

Clearly the progression of research on sport leadership has pursued a similar path to that observed in mainstream psychology and organisational settings, applying the concepts of behavioural, situational and transformational theories in a comparable manner. It appears that existing research on trust in sport is limited and problematic, suggesting that further research is needed to extend this topic. One clear distinction between sport and organisational leadership research is that there is less focus on sport leadership at a macro level than in other fields where studies of organisational or political leaders are fairly customary. This focus on leadership at the more micro level includes both the coach-athlete dyads common to individual sports and some studies of team leadership; however, this tendency fails to recognise millions of members of the wider sports community who follow sports leaders from a distance: sports fans.

1.2.3.3 Sports fans

Studies have shown that the results of sports teams can impact significantly on the behaviour of followers. For example Cialdini et al. (1976) observed the way that fans increased displays of affiliation with their teams following wins (compared with following defeats), this is known as 'basking in reflected glory' or 'BIRGing'. Similarly Snyder, Lassegard and Ford (1986) found that fans had a tendency to minimise association with less successful groups following failure, this is known as 'cutting off reflected failure' or 'CORFing'. In a related study, Cialdini et al. (1976) demonstrated a significant change in identification/association with a team when followers had just received feedback on their own performance on a task. The results showed that those who had received negative

feedback on their own performance were more likely to align themselves with the team in the case of a win (comments such as 'we won last night') and distance themselves from a losing team (comments such as 'they lost'). Fans who had received positive feedback on their own performance showed no significant difference in their use of 'we' between winning and losing teams.

Hirt et al. (1992) observed that the performance of the team could have a profound effect on the mental state of fans. Hirt et al. gathered information on the mood of fans and ratings of their likely performance on a forthcoming task. Hirt et al. demonstrated that results of the team affected not only the fans' predictions of their team's future performances but also those of the fans' own performance on a series of tasks. Indeed fans of winning teams felt they were likely to perform better than did fans of losing teams though no actual difference in performance was observed. The authors suggested that the results of the team impacted on the self esteem of the fan and served to enhance or undermine expectations of themselves and affect their mood.

The impact of sporting outcomes may also be related to actual attendance and involvement as a fan. Premier League attendance figures have demonstrated that fans are more likely to stay away from games where the outcome is likely to be closely contested (Buraimo and Simmons, 2008); the same research also demonstrated significantly higher attendance at matches which teams were highly likely to win. This tendency is also observed in the United States where attendance at Major League baseball is significantly higher during successful periods for the team.

Researchers have also established social processes in sport including identification with groups and development of in-groups and out-groups. Wolfson, Wakelin and Lewis (2005) asked fans to rate followers of their own team in comparison to fans of other teams; results demonstrated that fans had developed a form of perceived superiority, this was particularly true in relation to a number of supporting-related activities (for example 'supporters of my team are more proud, loyal, supportive, enthusiastic..') rather than general characteristics ('supporters of my team are more attractive' etc). Weisbuch and Ambady, 2008 demonstrate the powerful bias created by in-group and out-group formation in sports fans. Their study recorded reactions from fans as they read about a fellow or rival team supporter. Results suggest that fans felt joy at the fear experienced by members of the out-group and negative responses to joy experienced by the out-group member.

Findings advocate the view that the performances of a sports team can impact heavily upon the affective states and behavioural responses of fans and that being a fan of a particular team can become an integrated part of a fan's persona. Indeed research has

suggested that affiliation with a team 'may become so incorporated into self identity that supporters may not have the option of abandoning their team' (Wolfson, Wakelin and Lewis, 2005, p.365). Banyard and Shevlin (2001) proposed that association with a team could have implications for mental states of fans. Studying fans of relegated English Premier League teams, they determined that attachment to an unsuccessful team could result in 'clinically significant' psychological distress and even post traumatic stress disorder (Banyard and Shevlin, 2001, p.67). Furthermore, highly identified fans are often characterised by a tendency to see performances as reflections of themselves (Wann et al., 2001) and display 'increased affective engagement' (such as arousal and pleasantness) associated with their team (Hillman et al., 2000). Such fans are seen to experience strong negative reactions from watching their team perform badly (Bernhardt et al., 1998; Wann, 1994).

Schwartz et al., (1987) suggested that German residents 'personally' experienced the impact of team performances in the 1982 World Championships. A win from the national team produced positive effects on residents' sense of well being and satisfaction with work, whilst a subsequent poorer performance (a draw) led to a fall in those aspects of life. The findings lend support to the view that the outcomes of the national team may be of great consequence to fans. There is also evidence that fans perceive the process of following a team to be one of social exchange, that they (the fans) are loyal and provide support to the team; in return the team should deliver performances (Wolfson, Wakelin and Lewis, 2005).

Research has demonstrated intense forms of engagement of fans with their teams and the immense importance attached to team performances by followers. Studies also suggest several other aspects which serve to heighten the condition of risk for fans when following the leader (greater uncertainty, less information, no control). The condition of risk implies that belief in the manager requires a degree of trust in this 'distant' leader.

1.2.4 Trust in distant leaders

Research has acknowledged that, in the modern world, leadership can take many forms including direct and organisational level leadership. The concept of charisma, transformational leadership behaviours and trust in leadership has been examined not only in direct leader-follower relationships, but also in removed or distant leadership. In the context of football the biggest group of followers are the 'distant' fans.

Shamir (1995) contends that charismatic leaders may exert influence over followers at close or distant social proximity, although fundamental differences were observed between the conditions in each relationship. Of note was the finding that followers

described greater trust and confidence in remote than proximal leaders. Shamir related this to the possible 'illusionary and idealised' perceptions of leaders that may occur at a distance – the reduction of the complete person to a particular stereotype is in line with what Erving Goffman (1959) terms a 'virtual', as opposed to 'actual', social identity. Since this finding was unexpected, Shamir recommended that future research 'be devoted to the conditions of trust in close and distant charismatic relationships'. Pillai and Williams (1998) began to assess trust in distant leaders in their assessment of voters' 'perceptions of candidates' transformational and charismatic leadership' and extended this with an assessment of personality, transformational leadership, trust and voting (Pillai et al., 2003). In the latter study results revealed that trust in the leader operated as a mediating variable between leadership perceptions and voting behaviour. US voters who rated the leader as transformational and charismatic, and developed trust in them accordingly, were subsequently motivated to vote for the candidate.

The social distance that exists between leaders such as presidential candidates or football managers and distanced followers does not permit the customary trust assessment from the follower. Since there is no direct interpersonal experience of the leader, the follower is forced to appraise the leader's personal qualities and characteristics based on factors other than personal experience (Waldman and Yammarino, 1999; Gardner and Avolio, 1998). Pillai et al. suggest that the extensive media saturation which is the hallmark of any US presidential election allows voters to assess candidate characteristics, and highlight that television exposure may impact upon voters' perceptions of closeness with candidates. Indeed eighty percent of the voters in their study were strongly influenced by TV, internet, news, debates, convention or radio. The authors raise questions regarding the impact of the media on the perceptions of candidates; they remark that candidate Al Gore was 'portrayed in the popular press as being stiff and wooden' and suggest the possibility that some aspects of leadership assessment may be more susceptible to the social distance and others which are less so.

Whilst close leader-follower relations may seem the obvious choice for assessments of effective leadership, fan followers represent a body which deserves research attention. Moreover, fans' trust in distant leaders is subject to even greater levels of risk in some respects. For example, a player may invest a belief in the manager but that player may have access to greater information on that leader. Fans must appraise leaders under more difficult circumstances and have the smallest amount of control over crucial outcomes such as results (compared to players and managers). Importantly the player may develop high-quality exchange and feeling with the leader which a fan is not permitted and so there may be some crucial differences in affective forms of trust. In

summary both close and distant followers (players and fans) provide worthy focus for a study of trust in the context of football.

1.2.5 Summary

Existing literature confirms the relevance of trust within both interpersonal relations, and effective leadership. While an abundance of literature is available within the separate fields of both trust and leadership, disparity exists within existing trust research whil leadership theorists often include trust but regularly fail to specify the role it plays within effective leadership. Specialised studies of trust in leadership have contributed to understanding of the topic, and have begun to forge links between trust and existing leadership perspectives such as transformational leadership and leader-member exchange.

While such progress is beneficial for organisational psychology, researchers from the field of sport have yet to establish the role of trust in sport leadership. Although theorists make reference to trust in models of the coach-athlete relationship, such inclusions do not appear to recognise the complexity which is detailed in the trust literature; meanwhile those who apply transformational or leader-member exchange models to sport have yet to sufficiently explore the centrality of trust within their studies.

Football presents a context which is prone to high levels of risk for followers, and sport leaders often operate at both close and distant proximities. Given the recognised role of trust in both close and distant leadership, the acknowledgement that trust does contribute to effective leadership in organisations, and the lack of exclusive research on trust in sport contexts, the need for the current research programme is established.

Chapter 2: Methodology

2.1 Research paradigms

'Paradigms' can be described as the different belief systems held by researchers which are thought to impact upon the way they view the world, and in turn the way they view research (Sparkes, 1992). The central concerns of research paradigms are the ontological and epistemological assumptions of the researcher. Ontological assumptions are very core to the person; these are beliefs about his/her social world and their own existence. Distinct from ontological assumptions are epistemological assumptions which relate to the researcher's conception of knowledge and how knowledge is acquired. Authors suggest that a researcher's ontological assumptions are determined by whether he/she considers reality to be external and objective (imposed on a person) or internal and subjective (a product of a person's mind). Epistemological assumptions relate to whether the researcher believes that knowledge may be simply acquired or whether it needs to be experienced (Burrell and Morgan, 1992). The formation of individual ontological and epistemological assumptions is a result of a socialisation process within which researchers select their preferred paradigm (Sparkes, 1992). The notion of paradigms is crucial to this review since they can impact rather crucially on the research process and outcomes. Strean and Roberts (1992), highlight that the failure to define the research paradigm is a regular criticism of the qualitative approach. Poczwardowski, Barrot and Peregoy (2002), Seale (1999) and Denzin and Lincoln (2000) also emphasise the importance of declaring the research paradigm which serves as the foundation of any research. Providing a clear and explicit description of the paradigm that frames research may serve to enhance understanding of the context and meaning of the research; as such, Chapter 2 will establish the research paradigm that underpins this work.

It is the adoption of an external-realist perspective combined with a view of knowledge as objective that results in the 'positivist' paradigm which has largely dominated the research landscape. The opposite internal-idealist perspective (accompanied by the view of reality as subjective) results in the 'interpretivist' paradigm. Theorists are agreed that the underpinning paradigm held by a researcher (be it positivist or interpretivist) has implications for their approach to the research question. For example, the positivist paradigm considers that knowledge can be gained from extracting 'variables' from their social context and through the testing of pre-determined hypotheses. The alternative, interpretivist approach focuses on the subjective nature of all human experiences and pursues understanding through engagement with participants in their context. The 'paradigm debate' is in fact about far more than selection of techniques; indeed some researchers believe that techniques and paradigms can and should be separated

(Patton, 1990). For example Newman (2000) stated that the use of mixed-methods can be separated from philosophical beliefs of the researcher. Bryman and Stephens (1996) were also concerned that the research method would fit the research question, and that selection of research methods must involve pragmatic concerns above philosophical ones.

2.2 Research methodology

Few studies have investigated trust in sport leaders, and not one has focussed specifically on trust in the context of football. Given the lack of historical precedence, as well as reasons which will be discussed in this chapter, a multi-methodological perspective was adopted for the present series of investigations. Poczwardowski, Barrot and Peregoy (2002) recommend that collection of detailed accounts of experiences should precede the development of any explanation-driven research in situations where there is little established research. In addition, Potrac, Jones and Armour (2002) highlight the failure of research in sport coaching to recognise the social and cultural context within which sports leaders operate. The authors contend that such studies should focus on the social world of sport leaders. In planning the current work it was essential to recognise that the operation of football leaders is irrevocably connected to their environment and the followers whom they lead, and cannot be adequately understood when considered in isolation. Thus an inductive or 'bottom up' approach to the research programme was initially adopted, which focussed on use of qualitative methods in order to provide an in-depth and detailed description of trust in football. Such a focus was deemed appropriate in order to ensure that participants were not isolated from their social contexts, particularly in view of Krane, Anderson and Strean's (1997) assertion that one strength of qualitative research is that it is, in itself, socially situated.

While quantitative approaches and techniques have traditionally dominated most realms of research, the use of qualitative methods has increased in more recent decades. Such research is often suited to the formative, early phases of research since it does not prescribe a pre-ordained structure and can deliver detailed and extensive findings. Research has established that qualitative methods can uncover the most relevant data by collecting the terms and interpretations employed by the participants themselves. Marsh, Rosser and Harre (1978) provide just one example of such an approach in a study of football fan behaviour. A small rise in qualitative approaches has been acknowledged within the specific field of sport psychology (Biddle et al., 2001) where Culver, Gilbert and Trudel (2003) also note the 'conservative effort' made by researchers in increasing the use of such methods. This shift in emphasis is also observed in other research areas which are central to this work, specifically within

leadership. Conger (1998) called for the use of such methods, describing the qualitative approach as 'the method of choice for topics as contextually rich as leadership' (p.107). Conger proposed that qualitative methods should be used to explore while quantitative ones may be employed to confirm. Around the same time Bryman and Stephens (1996) also promoted the utility of qualitative methods to leadership researchers, noting that qualitative methods were more receptive to contextual issues in his study of new leadership in the police force. The authors maintained that this heightened sensitivity allowed them to gain an enhanced view of the theory in a particular context. This point has particular relevance given the unique contextual constraints of the football environment. However, there are also clear disadvantages to employing qualitative techniques. For example an inevitable consequence of producing such rich data is the resultant intense and time consuming process of analysis. In addition, the necessary grounding of qualitative methods in the social world of participants means that findings are less generalisable to wider groups.

Robson (2002) argues that the traditional quantitative/qualitative methods debate has become 'increasingly unproductive' and suggests that the underlying aims of each approach share key commonalities. The current research gave lengthy consideration to the value and benefits of the methods employed (as well as their inherent limitations) and determined that a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches (known as a mixed methods approach) was both appropriate and advantageous for this research. It is important to highlight that (where qualitative methods are employed in the research) participant responses are reported verbatim in order to maintain authenticity. As a result, some errors in spelling and grammar may be observed within excerpts; these are included intentionally and should not be taken as a reflection of the standard of the thesis.

Although qualitative techniques were an integral feature of this research, quantitative methods were also employed (where appropriate) to confirm or test issues which the qualitative method or previous literature had uncovered or expanded (as suggested by Conger, 1998). The quantitative approach is well established in producing higher levels of measurement accuracy, statistical power and reliability. Such techniques permit greater control and manipulation of research variables and greatly reduce the potential influence of researcher bias.

Quantitative methods are more 'particularistic' permitting a specific focus on a particular hypothesis and allowing researchers to determine causality. Additional advantages of incorporating quantitative methods included the recruitment of far larger participant groups and a vast reduction in time intensive methods of data analysis. Quantitative methods often appear at the later stages of research in order to test and perhaps

corroborate findings in a more efficient manner. In the current research such deductive techniques were employed in later studies to track changes in trust over time and to explore the efficacy of existing questionnaire items.

In addition to employing both qualitative and quantitative approaches, this research adopted multiple methods within each approach. For example qualitative approaches included interview and repertory grid assessments; among quantitative methods some forms of confirmatory quantitative analysis were employed (such as a repeated-measures ANOVA) while other tests allowed potential 'predictors' of trust in the data to emerge (regression analysis). In later studies quantitative assessments of survey data were combined with qualitative explorations of changing views. This research may be considered multi-methodological in several senses of the term, a feature which serves to strengthen the value of these findings. Detailed reviews of the theoretical underpinning, uses, merits and limitations of specific methods will be included where appropriate in the following chapters. Given that a unique feature of this work is the inclusion of extensive online or internet-based research, a short review of the merits of internet research is presented in the following section.

2.2.1 Internet methods

The marked upsurge in internet usage over the past two decades has led a large number of researchers to investigate the potential of the internet or 'world-wide web' as an environment for conducting research. Estimates from the national statistics survey indicate that 58% of UK households (14.3 million) had access to the internet in 2006 (the year of the first internet survey in the current research) with access figures for 2009 reaching 70% (18.3 million). The steep rise in user numbers, increased standard home computer capability, improvements in software and browser capability and widened access to broadband connections, have influenced heightened interest in internet-based research methods over recent years.

Studies conducted on the internet (sometimes known as internet-mediated research or IMR) have concentrated largely on collecting forms of survey data (Bucannan and Smith, 1999). Indeed, Schmidt (1997) described online methods as an 'unprecedented tool for survey researchers' (p.274). Survey research has adopted a variety of approaches including the use of email to 'deliver' surveys and the live 'holding' surveys on a web server. This process for sending information over the web is also known as 'hyper-text transfer protocol' or 'HTTP'. A server essentially acts as a memory bank which delivers (or serves) the information to the screen of an internet user. The server is able to collect responses to a survey in real time without having to literally send a copy to the participant and wait for the returned response.

Employing internet based research for questionnaires maintains a number of established advantages over traditional 'pen and paper' methods. Such benefits include greatly reduced research costs (both time and financial) since materials, postage, laboratory availability and researcher presence throughout during data collection, are not required. Further time is saved and errors are reduced when studies are hosted on the web (rather than surveys which are delivered by the web but not completed online) since the human data entry phase is not required (Schmidt, 1997). The other obvious advantage of internet methods is the inclusion of larger numbers of participants (Birnbaum, 2004) who do not have to be geographically proximal to the researcher. Some research suggests that participants perceive greater anonymity in web-based studies and experience lower levels of anxiety and social desirability (Joinson, 1999). Buccanan and Smith (1999) also note that the anonymity of online completion may increase levels of disclosure. Furthermore, the internet method permits purposeful sampling of populations with particular characteristics (populations that may be difficult to access through traditional methods). The strength of this feature has been highlighted by several authors (Smith and Leigh, 1997; Bucannan and Smith, 1999; Birnbaum, 2004) including Schmidt (1997) who suggested that online studies that target specific populations are likely to obtain the greatest validity.

A number of studies have suggested that online surveys produce comparable results to traditional approaches. For example Smith and Leigh (1997) determined that the demographic characteristics of online respondents were equivalent to those in traditional student samples. Also, Meyerson and Tryon (2003) described how data from internet populations produced almost identical reliability coefficients to data from face-to face equivalent studies. Within sport psychology research, Lonsdale, Hodge and Rose (2006) acknowledged a noticeable trend toward improved responses from an online group when compared with a postal completion group.

As with any method a number of potential disadvantages to online research have also been suggested; the most central of these concerns the lack of control afforded to the researcher (compared with interview or laboratory-based techniques). Those employing internet methods should anticipate higher levels of attrition than in traditional studies (simply because dropping out of a study online is far easier than in the laboratory environment where researchers are present). Moreover, researchers are unable to respond to participant queries during online responses or develop the rapport with participants which may serve to put them at ease. Similarly, researchers are unable to assure that participants complete the survey under comparable environmental conditions, for example a participant may be distracted while completing the survey or

could consult others. Despite such concerns, evidence has indicated that such factors do not impact significantly upon results (Meyerson and Tryon, 2003).

There are also concerns regarding the demographic aspects of sample groups, not least the fact that those who do not use the internet, or use it infrequently, are not likely to complete such research (Birnbaum, 2004). Schmidt (1997) and Hewson (2003) suggested that internet users tend to be white males of above average educational and socio-economic status. While a bias toward the internet-proficient is valid concern, it should be recognised that internet use has soared in recent years; as a result the 'online' community is rapidly becoming more widely representative. Hewson (2003) argued that claims that internet samples are more biased remained unsubstantiated. In fact, many researchers propose that the internet may permit improved access to specific groups with particular characteristics (Schmidt, 1997; Smith and Leigh, 1997; Bucannan and Smith, 1999; Birnbaum, 2004). Such studies promote the use of internet forums (also known as newsgroups or usenet groups) to contact and recruit participants for research. The current research utilised internet methods to the full in accessing large and specific groups of football fans.

Finally, it is important to note a number of practical issues surrounding web-based data collection. An internet user views the survey content through a web browser program such as Windows Explorer, Firefox, and Safari. Researchers must recognise these browsers display information in different ways, this may cause difficulty and disparity in the final screen view seen by participants. In the current research a 3rd party provider was employed to deliver survey content to users in a manner which was effective on all web browsers. Another distinct web-based challenge surrounds the issue of multiple submissions. The possibility exists that web users may access and complete the same survey on multiple occasions and therefore compromise the study. However, Birnbaum (2004) maintains that multiple submissions are infrequent and easy to detect when made. Based on the recommendations of Birnbaum and others, the current research took steps to limit the potential for multiple submissions and devised a procedure to identify and remove any which did occur.

In general, theorists appear to agree that internet methods present a useful alternative to researchers. Such approaches have been labelled as 'reliable, valid….and efficient' (Meyerson and Tryon, 2003) and as possessing 'great potential' (Bucannan and Smith, 1999). These techniques are arguably comparable to traditional 'pen and paper' methods in terms of responses, but permit unique access to specific sample populations irrelevant of geographical proximity. The online survey is employed in this research as an effective alternative to the interview and lab-based studies which also feature in this mixed-method approach. While the internet permits excellent access to high number of

participants, the value of 'live' research was not discounted. Indeed the combination of internet and traditional methods of data collection is considered a positive feature of the present research.

The use of mixed-methods designs has become routinely accepted and researchers now acknowledge the many benefits of the approach. Newman (2000) recognised that flexibility in research design is essential in order to develop knowledge in a particular context and that qualitative and quantitative methods should be employed where necessary. Hammersley (1996) raised the idea of 'methodological eclecticism' which prioritises practical aspects of research studies. The author suggested that use of mixed methods does not equate to adoption of fundamentally different approaches. In fact, Hammersley celebrated the strength of mixing quantitative and qualitative methods 'on the ground that this promises to cancel out the respective weakness of each method' (p167). Newman (2000) encouraged the view of quantitative and qualitative methods as a 'continuum rather than a dichotomy'. While quantitative and qualitative approaches were both employed, the aim of the research remained grounded in gaining understanding. While the use of particular techniques is not considered to be an irrevocable part of the researchers particular paradigm there is still great value in defining both the ontological and epistemological standpoint of the research (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000).

2.3 Methodological triangulation

One documented advantage of using mixed methods is the benefit of triangulation; the use of varied quantitative and qualitative methods is an example of 'methodological triangulation'. Denzin (1978) described this simply as 'the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon' (p.291). This form of triangulation is designed to allow elaboration on a research theme by approaching the same issue from a number of different approaches. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) highlight two foundations for adopting mixed-method designs - *representation* (the ability to collect useful information from data) and *legitimation* (confirming the validity of findings). The driving factor in the employment of varied methods in this research was representation, and the techniques led to in-depth and high quality information; the selected methods did also serve to achieve legitimation as later findings corroborated those found earlier using different techniques. Such multi-method verification also provides an additional source of validity for the research.

2.4 Research framework

The current research is framed within an interpretivist paradigm which suggests that understanding of trust in football may be gained by studying the subjective experiences and perspectives of participants from that context. Klein and Myers (1999) promote the

use of interpretivist research to assist studies within both social and organisational contexts while researchers have also adopted interpretivist approaches to research in the field of sport coaching (Cushion, 2001). The interpretivist paradigm places emphasis on the role of human interaction in creating meaning, as such 'trust in football' is what those in football consider it to be. This interpretivist research seeks to gain understanding of this phenomenon rather than to test causal laws or manipulate variables. The aim was to gain understanding of trust in the football context (prior to any comparison to trust in other contexts) in a largely inductive-deductive manner (Newman, 2000).

Despite the declaration of a particular paradigm this work does not conform to the dichotomous view of quantitative and qualitative methods. The selected methods employed in this research were those which best addressed the study of trust in this context. The only over-riding consideration was a focus on increasing understanding of trust in football. Naturally the paradigm in which this research is situated does impact upon the methods and techniques selected, but the research adopts a wide variety of procedures in order to gain understanding in a number of ways. The triangulation of methods is considered a particular asset of this research. In summary, the hope for the research was that those participants who have lived experiences within football would provide the researcher with increased knowledge of how trust is perceived and experienced in that context.

Chapter 3: Study 1

3.1 Introduction

A central aim of this research was to explore the sources employed in trust appraisals within football contexts, from the perspective of both close and distant followers (players and fans). In order to provide a stable foundation for the remaining research programme the first study adopted an in-depth approach to assessment. The chief objective of this preliminary study was to describe perceptions and experiences of trust from the perspective of academy football players.

3.1.1 Background on the football academy environment

While the need to conduct talent identification and develop the potential of young players was well established within professional football, such processes were originally unstandardised in both professional and amateur clubs. However, the publication of the Football Association's 'Charter for Quality' in 1997 acted as a catalyst for the inception of elite football academies in their current form. The charter defined quality standards that clubs were expected to achieve; these included all areas of staff and player development, child protection strategies, and the education and welfare of young players. Professional football academies now operate large scale structured programmes of player development, dealing not only with players on the verge of professional careers, but also working in the local community with players as young as 8 years of age. 'Full time' academy players (often known as 'scholars' or 'trainees') typically join a club professionally at around 16 years of age; these players are contracted to attend all activities directed by the academy. Sessions typically include a wide range of technical football and fitness related activities and, since the charter, a commitment to educational activity.

Richardson, Gilbourne and Littlewood (2004) describe the typical staffing structure required to operate a football academy; this includes a director with three assistant directors, a head of education and welfare, and a wealth of other staff from talent scouts to sports medicine practitioners. The authors also describe the aspiration of an academy - 'to develop players for the first team, or (at the very least) generate income through the sale of 'marketable assets'' (p.196). Each of these points promotes a view of the football academy environment as an organisation in its own right; such a view is of interest to the current research given the established role of trust in organisational contexts.

3.1.2 Situational risk in academy settings

Chapter 1 presented a detailed description of the influence of risk on trust relationships. The roles of uncertainty, vulnerability and reliance are established conditions which contribute to the relevance of trust in any situation. The football academy environment in England presented an appropriate setting for such research given the inherent levels of uncertainty, reliance and vulnerability present within such contexts. The issue of uncertainty is naturally influenced by the unstable nature of the team sport context (successful results for the team are influenced by the effectiveness of personal interactions as well as the actions of the opposition). Furthermore, for academy scholars the level of uncertainty may be as high as it is likely to be at any point in their career; such players are on the brink of achieving their goal of a professional football contract.

The process for developing these footballers is described here in order to present a full picture of the academy environment, and to highlight particular conditions which heighten risk. Firstly, the typical tenure for an academy scholar is but a few years, indeed any full professional career which follows may only last 10-15 years (Parker, 2000). Secondly, the high 'wastage' or failure rate in professional football is well documented (Bourke, 2003) meaning that most academy players will not attain their goal of professional football. Invariably, when players reach the age of 18 or 19 they will either be offered a professional contract or be released by the club. The prospect of a professional career is obviously the aspiration held by players, being released ends the dream of a contract at the academy club. If released, players are invited to attend structured sessions known as 'exit trials' where talent scouts from other clubs may spot them and offer them a trial. In addition, players are all regularly involved in highly physically demanding activity and training; their career progression could be impaired or even ceased by an injury at almost any time. Price et al., (2004) reported 3805 injuries in academy football over a two year period, alongside an average injury absence length of 21.9 days; evidence that injury can significantly impact upon involvement within the academy system. In short, uncertainty is high is academy contexts.

Vulnerability or reliance of players toward coaching and management staff is also considered to be high in this setting. Club staff possess the power to assist the player's development, and (crucially for the player) determine any continued involvement at the club; indeed Richardson, Gilbourne and Littlewood (2004) highlight the significant influence of such staff on the professional development of players.

A final contributor to the condition of risk (which was identified in the literature review) is the level of importance attached by players to the activity or goal. Youth footballers in such environments are presented with an enviable opportunity of a lucrative professional

football contract, and unsurprisingly they aspire to achieve this goal. Work from the Professional Footballer's Association (PFA), and the Football Association's 1997 Charter, aimed to address the tendency for players to pin all hopes on a future as a professional (often at the expense of other key activities including education). Modern academies incorporate structured and compulsory educational provision, and make some attempt to ensure that academy scholars pursue academic or vocational training courses alongside their football training. However, it is well documented that such provision is unable to entirely negate the trend for some such players to place all of their career aspirations on the chance of a professional contract. Parker (2000) presents a fascinating account of player attitudes toward goal attainment in academy environments, noting that the majority of players featured in his research assumed a future as a professional footballer to be an 'occupational inevitability' (p.62). In an environment such as this, the importance which players place upon performance in football is likely to be elevated. This emphasis (combined with the uncertainty and reliance involved) contributes to a high level of risk, and consequently, a need for trust.

Given the aforementioned structure of such organisations, academy players come in to contact with leaders (football coaches or managers) on regular, almost daily, basis. The high level of interaction defines the leader-follower relationship as one of close proximity, and ensures that followers have the necessary access to gain extensive experience of the leader. Given this proximity and access to the leader, several forms of trust could develop in academy player-manager relationships. Players in this context are reliant on leaders and must respond to their instructions in order to progress and develop within the academy. As a result, one might at least expect to see calculative forms of trust emerge in these relationships since these permit the necessary co-operation. Furthermore, higher quality forms of trust forwarded by McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi (2006) such as knowledge-based trust, affect-based trust and identification-based trust, are also possible in this setting; indeed the 'mentoring' nature of the academy environment may lend itself to more affective forms of trust.

An interesting distinction between this setting and those regularly researched by coach-athlete relationship authors including Jowett and colleagues (2000; 2003) is the issue of team vs. individual sport. Much of the coach-athlete research focuses on contexts where the coach works exclusively with the individual athlete on improving their performance in sport. In the football setting, a manager concurrently leads the team and each individual within it. Based on earlier explorations of the 'intentions' or 'interests' aspect of trust, this characteristic difference could have critical implications for the development of player-manager trust. As was raised during the literature review, trust definitions often include an appraisal of another's 'intentions toward you'. In the case of

a coach-athlete dyad the shared interest of coach and athlete may be seen as the athlete's performance; however, in the context of team sports this issue presents a conflict between the interests of the player and interests of the team. This could lead to a situation whereby an ostensibly 'good' leader may pursue the best interests of the team, but in doing so not act in the interests of an individual player.

Such a circumstance may be illustrated using the scenario described in Chapter 1 wherein a player wants to play in a crucial match as a talent scout will be in attendance. In such a scenario the manager may exclude the player from the squad in order to achieve the interests of the team; perhaps based on a strategic move such as adopting a particular tactical formation which the player is not best suited to. Although the leader may have shown management ability in making this tactical decision, and may well have acted with the best interests of the team in mind, the player who is excluded may feel their interests are not being considered, and decide to withdraw trust in the leader.

The academy environment is an interesting context for the study of trust in leader-follower relations. It is likely that the interactions between player and manager take place in a transactional manner at some level, since the players and managers are each contracted members of the organisation. However the prevalence of transformational leaders in sport has been observed previously (Doherty and Danylchuck, 1996) and the academy setting should provide an appropriate environment for the emergence and recognition of such behaviours. The inductive approach to this assessment ensures that evidence of any leadership style (LMX, transactional, transformational etc) is able to emerge within the participants' descriptions of experiences.

3.1.3 Aims of Study 1

The aims of Study 1 were as follows –

i) To establish the perceived importance of trust in managers in football academy environments.
ii) To allow players to describe in their own words, the factors which are incorporated in trust appraisals of team leaders.
iii) To assess any common factors within trust appraisals.
iv) To explore player reactions to particular trust-related scenarios.

3.2 Method

Since there is little or no knowledge of the role of trust within football, an in-depth, qualitative method was adopted to allow the participants (the players) to 'speak for themselves' through the data. This approach has been employed successfully in other areas of sport psychology where the focus was relatively undefined, or deemed to be individualistic in nature (Greenleaf, Gould and Dieffenbach, 2001; Woodman and Hardy,

2001) including assessments of elite level footballers (Holt and Dunn, 2004). The largely interview-based approach adopted in this study was supplemented by the use of Likert response scales and vignettes. Likert rating scales were employed largely for their simplicity; included to present interviewees with a simple starting point and to instigate discussion of the importance of trust. Vignettes are short descriptions of hypothetical scenarios which participants are invited to respond to; these were employed at the end of each player interview. Barter and Reynold (1999) describe the utility of vignettes within social research; highlighting three main purposes for their use –

1. To allow actions in context to be explored.
2. To clarify people's judgements
3. To provide a less personal and therefore less threatening way of exploring sensitive topics. (Barter and Reynold, 1999, p.1)

In the present study, vignettes were employed to explore reactions to hypothetical football-based trust scenarios. Responses to these scenarios were made on Likert scales, and then explored qualitatively within the interview. Although Likert scales are clearly quantitative in form, their inclusion in the present study aimed to complement the qualitative interview structure.

3.2.1 Participants

Following ethical approval from the university, criterion based sampling was employed to recruit footballers who may experience the greatest levels of risk. The participants in this research were nine male professional football players. All were members of 'under eighteen' age group squads within academies at two English Premier League football clubs. Three of the participants were eighteen years old while the remaining six were all seventeen years of age. All of the participants had been playing at the professional clubs for between eight and twelve years. The length of time they had been at their club ranged between one and nine years, with an average of five years. Each individual participant completed an informed consent prior to interview.

3.2.2 Materials

Only two types of pre-determined materials were employed in the study. The first was a set of quantitative response items. The questions shown in table 1 (Likert style response questions) were incorporated into the study primarily to provide 'talking points' to help drive the interview. It was felt that, considering the age of the participants, some may be a little reticent during the interviews. In practice, several of the participants were indeed unforthcoming; the Likert style questions allowed the researcher to explore qualitatively why the player had given a particular response. For example, a player may not be able to readily explain why they trust the leader, but the researcher was able to

use the ratings to probe for greater detail (for example to ask why a Likert rating of 4 wasn't a 3 or a 5).

Of the seven Likert questions, items 1-4 were presented prior to the qualitative exploration of the trust, while 5, 6 and 7 were only introduced following the main interview. This was done to ensure that potential influences on trust (honesty, communication and fairness) were not suggested to participants before they had the opportunity to describe their own views. Likert responses were made on a 1-5 scale, for example 'not at all' or 'not at all important' (1) to 'very important' or 'very much' (5); following the ratings the participant discussed their selection with the interviewer.

Question number	Item wording
1	How important is trust in football?
2	How much do you trust your manager?
3	How much do you trust the manager to protect your interests?
4	How much do you trust your manager to protect the team's interests
5	How important is honesty in building trust?
6	How important is communication in building trust?
7	How important is fairness in building trust?

Table 1. Likert response items included in the interview schedule

In the closing stages of each interview the second form of pre-prepared material was introduced in the form of two vignette style scenarios (Barter and Renold, 1999). Again, players responded to these on a 1-5 Likert scale and then discussed their selection with the interviewer. These scenarios were designed both to contextualise trust in football, and to explore the issue of interests and opportunities to compete. The two scenarios described actions of a manager which either disadvantaged or advantaged the player, these are detailed below -

Vignette One (disadvantaged)

> The manager tells you that they have big plans for you and that you will soon get your chance in the team. A few weeks later 3 players are injured and you think you will definitely get in the team, but the manager selects other players ahead of you, and you stay on the subs bench.

Vignette Two (advantaged)

> The manager has told the entire team that everyone must be on time to training sessions and matches; the manager even dropped a good player for being late on several occasions. The week of a very important game you are late to

training three times. The manager has a word with you and tells you not to do it again, but does not drop you from the team.

Participants were asked to estimate if their trust in the manager would increase, decrease or remain the same following such behaviour–

'Following this, how much do you think you would you trust the manager?'

1	2	3	4	5
Far less		Just the same		Far more

3.2.3 Procedure

3.2.3.1 Pilot study

A small scale pilot study was conducted prior to the design of the current investigation in order to achieve several aims. Firstly, the pilot study involved one professional football leader and one professional player as participants; the intention here was to explore trust in football from two distinct perspectives, carefully assessing factors which each participant viewed as important to understanding trust in football. The two pilot participants were recruited from different clubs from one another and the participants in the main study. Secondly, the pilot interviews were analysed in order to inform the production of the interview guide for the phase 1 academy interviews. The pilot interviews were also examined by the second (more experienced) researcher in order to provide the lead researcher with feedback on interview technique and structure. Finally, excerpts from the pilot interviews are featured in the results and discussion section to present comparisons of player's responses with other 'real world' views.

3.2.3.2 Recruitment

Three Premiership clubs (located within the same geographical region as the lead researcher) were approached to become involved in the study. Of these clubs, two clubs readily agreed whilst the third club declined to take part, citing players' time constraints as the impediment. The clubs which did agree to take part in the research were contacted through academy directors, who were provided with further information on the specifics of the study. Directors consulted the relevant coaching/management staff for final approval, and subsequently granted the researcher permission to enter the clubs for the purpose of interviewing.

Players were given the option either to be interviewed or to decline to take part (both initially by the clubs and again by the lead researcher). Care was taken to ensure that players felt under no obligation to become involved in the research. The players were

presented with an interview information sheet (see Appendix 2); this clarified their right to decline to become involved, to withdraw from the study at any time, and gave assurances of confidentiality. The researcher explained that (following transcription) each subject would only be identifiable on the transcripts by a code number or letter, and that all names, clubs and other details would be altered during transcription to ensure complete anonymity for participants. In the event, all of the players who were asked to take part agreed to do so and, at one club, there was a surplus of willing participants; on that occasion random 'lots' were drawn to determine who could be interviewed within the given time frame. Before the interview commenced, each interviewee signed a participant consent form (see Appendix 3), which acknowledged that they had read and understood the interview information sheet.

3.2.3.3 Interview Design

Semi structured interviews (as utilised in a number of sport studies - Gould, Eklund, and Jackson; 1992a; Gould, Eklund, and Jackson, 1992b; Scanlan, Stein, and Ravizza, 1991) were conducted in keeping with recommendations on interviewing from Kvale (1996). A committed Grounded Theory approach was taken which involved the researcher moving repeatedly between the stages of data collection and analysis (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). This methodology allowed the researcher to develop the conceptual framework of the study during the process of data collection. This meant that even from the initial pilot study, the interview guide was open to adaptation in response to the key data themes emerging from the interviews. Three versions of the conceptual framework which guided the research are displayed in Appendix 4; this series demonstrates the developments in research focus during the three phases of the research.

Interview procedure and protocol

The interviews were conducted in two phases; the first during March - the last month of 2004/2005 football season, while the second took place in August - one month before the start of the 2005/2006 season. Kvale (1996) recommended that 'the interviewer must establish an atmosphere in which the participant feels safe enough to talk freely about his or her experiences and feelings' (p.125). In keeping with that guidance, each interview was conducted within the football academy itself. This served to minimise the disruption to the players' daily routines, and to allow them to feel as comfortable as possible in their surroundings. Both clubs provided quiet rooms for the interviews where participants could not be interrupted or overheard by members of the clubs staff or by other players.

As utilised in a number of studies within sport (Gould, Eklund and Jackson (1992a) and

Gould, Eklund and Jackson (1992b); Scanlan, Stein and Ravizza (1991) each interview followed a semi structured guide, and covered a range of key areas in order to ensure some level of standardisation of questions. This guide outlined the topics to be discussed in each interview, a number of Likert scale response questions, and some specific 'open' questions. The actual wording and sequence of some questions was altered at the discretion of the researcher, and as the 'flow' of conversation oftentimes dictated.

Experience of what made an effective interview led to some constructive alterations to the semi-structured guide. The guide was adapted slightly as the researcher identified emerging theory which led to developments in the ongoing conceptual framework (see Appendix 4). A receptive attitude was essential as the researcher moved between the processes of data collection and data analysis, ultimately enhancing the data being collected (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The commitment to the Grounded Theory approach ensured that as the 'theory' began to emerge from the participants' responses; participants were encouraged to explore their own experiences of the phenomenon - rather than the author imposing their own pre-determined ideas on to the process (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

Early on in the session the researcher explained to the participant that the primary focus would be on trust in their leader. At this point the term used by players to refer to their leader (usually manager or coach) was established and used from that point onwards. Kvale (1996) stated that a 'decisive issue' when interviewing is 'the interviewer's ability to sense the immediate meaning of an answer' (p.132). He recommended that – 'this again requires a knowledge of, and interest in, both the theme and the human interaction of the interview' (p.132). In keeping with this recommendation the researcher ensured that she was well versed in football terminology (tactical, technical and club specific) in order to assure the participant that they were understood, and also to ask questions which showed an understanding of the particular environment. The researcher already possessed a good general understanding of football; extended information was gathered through a combination of reading and specific enquiry with academy directors on the particular workings of each club and academy. This additional knowledge assisted in building rapport with the interviewee, and permitted a more genuine interest in and understanding of the player's experience.

Care was taken to ensure that participants did not feel the need to omit anything from their responses, and that they felt comfortable enough to provide honest replies to the questions posed to them. Although probes (such as - 'can you think of an example of when that has happened'?) were used, these were always neutral in nature and gave the subject no indication as to any preferred or desirable responses. Overall, the

researcher felt able to establish a good rapport and relationship with each participant, an ability which almost certainly improved to a degree as the number of interviews accumulated. This development as an interviewer is considered to be a somewhat inevitable consequence of experience with the method, topic and participants.

3.2.3.4 Bracketing

Since the researcher adopted such a central role within the research process, it was essential to acknowledge and explore the impact of this involvement. A process of 'bracketing' was employed here in order to demonstrate the validity of both data collection and analysis (Dale, 1996; Ahern, 1999). Bracketing is 'a means of demonstrating the validity of the data collection and analytic processes' (Ahern, 1999, p.407); this involves an attempt to combat any effect of the researcher's own beliefs by frequently declaring and reviewing such assumptions. In the current research, bracketing was included in the form of a 'reflexive journal' (Nicholls, Holt and Polman, 2005). This record was developed by the researcher prior to the pilot study, and was maintained throughout the process of data collection and analysis. In this journal the author first discussed her own experiences and perceptions of trust in sports coaches, and the impact (both positive and negative) that trust or distrust was felt to have had. These 'impacts' were discussed in relation to the sporting experience, the coach-athlete relationship, and a variety of 'outcomes' including performance and progression in the sport. The researcher also explored their own 'propensity' to trust, and thoughts on the cognition and affect-based forms of trust which are prevalent in the literature. The efficacy of this process is demonstrated in the following excerpt from the journal –

> My gut feeling in regard to trust is that players may, like I myself have, award trust in an 'affect-based' or 'relationship based' fashion. I have always awarded trust to my coaches based greatly on my personal experience of them and the relationship which developed between us. It is that relationship which has led me to judge whether they'd look out for me when it mattered and want me to do well.

The excerpt exemplifies the use of bracketing through highlighting the prediction that trust may be strongly related to relationship-based influences; in reality, this form of trust featured less predominently in player's responses. Had the lead researcher not openly highlighted this bias (and discussed it with a second researcher) then the interview guide (and subsequent analysis) may have been affected by the researcher's pre-determined ideas and biases (Crotty, 1996). In reality it was found that the athletes included here displayed a slightly greater use of (and preference for) cognition-based assessments of trust rather than affect-based ones. This finding caused some surprise for the researcher (as was further detailed in the journal following the phase 1 interviews). In the event of data analysis, equal consideration was given to both affect-

based and cognition-based trust in manager-player relationships within this environment.

Ahern (1999) commends the use of bracketing to establish pre-conceptions about the topic. In this case the journal entries were shared with both the second researcher, and another more experienced qualitative researcher who acted as a 'critical friend' throughout the research process (Holt and Sparkes, 2001). This practice of combining the reflexive journal and discussions with the critical friend served to ensure that the researcher was unable to openly impose their own view of the topic of trust onto the content of the interview guide. It also allowed the wider research team to 'monitor' the influence of the researcher(s) subjectivity during the analysis of interview data and construction of the study results. In essence, the inclusion of a critical friend was useful in allowing the study to remain as inductive as possible (Holt and Sparkes, 2001). The inclusion of bracketing in the research process does not eradicate the potential problem of researcher bias; however, it is one method which may successfully counteract such issues by making inevitable internal influences explicit within the process.

3.2.3.5 Interpretational Analysis

The author acted as the primary researcher throughout the stages of analysis with the second researcher acting in a more peripheral role in supporting the analysis process. Each of the research interviews was conducted by the lead researcher but both researchers were involved in the analysis of all interview transcripts (including pilot interviews).

The nine interviews were transcribed by the lead researcher and analysed by both researchers after each phase (pilot phase, phase 1, phase 2). The collection and analysis of data were therefore interrelated; with phase 1 of the research informing and shaping the collection of phase 2 data. The interviews varied in length from 40 minutes to 90 minutes and were only concluded when the participant felt that they had expressed everything they had to say on the topic. Cumulatively, over 42,000 words were transcribed verbatim from the nine interview tapes.

During transcription, the author took great care to edit any information that may make the participant (or the football club) identifiable in order to protect the anonymity of each. Where there was any text which may have seemed ambiguous to the second researcher, the primary researcher added any relevant details to the transcripts in brackets to provide clarification (for example where the question was inaudible).

Creating Tags

After each phase of interviewing the same initial analytical procedure was adopted by both the lead and the second researcher; this closely followed that utilised by Côté et al., (1993). First, the transcripts were read and re-read in order for each researcher to become adequately familiar with them (Miles and Huberman, 1990). Next, the interview transcript was split *(*independently by each researcher) into a number of *meaning units*. At this stage the units were allocated preliminary 'tags' (Côté et al.,1993) or names under which they were clustered with other meaning units thought to relate to the same topic. To illustrate this – the tag 'Manager's Experience – Playing' was given to the meaning unit showed below –

> I think if you haven't played (as a manager) I'm not sure if you've got a good enough realisation of what's happening

The validity of the procedure was enhanced by both researchers discussing the allocation of tags; this served to ensure that any individual researcher's 'perceptual bias' (Côté et al., 1993) did not influence the tags used to depict a particular topic. Where two tags were deemed to be largely similar, the researchers re-examined the meaning units in each and either re-allocated meaning units to newly named tags or 'merged' two tags to create one. For example, where the researchers had generated the tags of 'Communication Skills of Manager' and 'Interacting with players' they found that the meaning units were similar enough for all their meaning units to be labelled as 'Communication Skills of Manager'.

3.3 Results and Discussion

3.3.1 Quantitative results and discussion

3.3.1.1 Likert-style responses

As suggested previously, a range of quantitative Likert response questions (marked on a rising scale of 1-5 where 1= 'not at all' or 'not at all important') were included in this study. These were incorporated primarily to aid the interview process, though some descriptive statistics are provided below in order to present the reader with an overview of responses from interviewees.

As the descriptive statistics suggest, the players rated trust as highly important, and reported high levels of trust in their current managers (mean score 4.88). The figures also highlight the perceived importance of honesty, communication and fairness. A comparison between items three and four highlights the issue of team vs. player interests; players trusted managers with team interests ahead of their own. These responses are included only to present a basic overview of the attitudes of participants; detailed responses are presented later within the qualitative analysis.

Question number	Item wording	Mean	Standard Deviation
1	How important is trust in football?	4.88	0.33
2	How much do you trust your manager?	4.33	0.70
3	How much do you trust the manager to protect your interests?	3.00	1.11
4	How much do you trust your manager to protect the team's interests	4.33	1.32
5	How important is honesty in building trust?	4.44	0.72
6	How important is communication in building trust?	4.77	0.44
7	How important is fairness in building trust?	4.66	0.50

Table 2. Descriptive statistics from Likert response items

3.3.1.2 Vignettes

Responses to the two vignettes present a useful view of trust in managers and provide some support for the contention that players' interests may be central to trust appraisals. Responses to the 'disadvantaged' vignette (which described a scenario where the leader did not select the player) produced average responses of 1.6 (a loss of trust in the manager). However, in the ensuing discussion of ratings, five of the nine players highlighted that they would not lose trust in the manager if a valid reason was provided for their omission. This may indicate that players are able to form considered, rational responses to leader decisions. The second vignette (which described a scenario where the player was 'let off') led to average responses of 3; a score which represented unchanging levels of trust. These results indicate that favouritism toward others impacts negatively on trust, but receiving unfair advantage neither increases or decreases trust in the manager.

3.3.2 Qualitative results and discussion

A central aim of this study was to describe sources of information employed in trust appraisals, and this is achieved within the following section. However, the review of qualitative findings also contains additional issues which emerged during the research; these include risk factors, propensity to trust, the award of trust, and consequences of trust. The topics are added to the section in a logical fashion; for example, comments related to the inherent risk in football academy settings, and issues relating to propensity to trust, are detailed first. These issues are seen as pre-cursors to the award of trust which is detailed next. Following a thorough review of the primary focus - sources employed in trust appraisals - factors deemed as results or consequences of awarding trust conclude the discussion.

Verbatim comments from players are integrated throughout this section in order to illustrate the attitudes of participants, and to allow players to 'speak for themselves' through the data. As well as attempts to explain themes from this study in light of the wider research literature, two further means are employed to establish the transferability of themes. Firstly, excerpts from pilot interviews with the professional coach and player are integrated into the discussion where appropriate to illustrate wider perspectives from within football. Secondly, excerpts drawn from a published case study which focussed on an elite professional football manager (Potrac, Jones and Armour, 2002) are employed to provide another perspective from the football setting.

3.3.2.1 Risk in academy football

The role of risk has been reviewed extensively within Chapter 1 and earlier in this study. To re-cap on this fundamental aspect, the condition of risk is influenced by levels of perceived uncertainty, vulnerability and the relative importance of the activity. Trust itself is only relevant in circumstances involving some level of risk; as a result, establishing the presence of risk in the research setting was an important feature of this study. The following section includes participants' own descriptions of these aspects of risk; excerpts from interviews are included which richly illustrate the forms of risk that appear inherent in the academy environment. The following excerpt from a player interview illustrates the existence and recognition of reliance within this environment –

> We rely on managers to tell us all the right things really, make us improve. We rely on them to make us better. (008/F)

The player's perception of the reliance they place upon the manager to help them develop their skills is key to trust. Reliance is a commonly accepted feature of the coach-athlete relationship (Lorimer and Jowett, 2009) and established condition for trust (Rousseau et al., 1998). Player references to reliance serve to confirm that this is an appropriate setting for research on trust.

As was highlighted in the introduction, a football manager holds a great deal of power over outcomes which the player may consider highly important. In many cases this is reflected in concerns regarding selection, playing time and team involvement, aspects which appear to be the ultimate commodity for players. However, selection for the team may never be certain -

> You think you know the position you are going to play, and he could just change the team and he might not even pick you. (007/E)

Players confirmed their vulnerability to the manager in comments (such as the above) which acknowledge the leader's influence over important outcomes. This issue is further reflected in descriptions of the environmental uncertainty inherent to this context.

In the excerpt below a player describes this uncertainty in a positive manner, acknowledging that no place in the team is either permanently assured or discounted.

> Anything can change, so easily change….you could be in the reserves and have the best game of your life and play in the teams after that. They can have an idea on who won't be here next year…..and like they have for most of us now, but like they say – anything can change. (004/B)

The unstable nature of the football environment was also reflected in the comments from the professional player in the pilot study –

> Because anything can happen in football. It's funny because one morning you will come in and someone will be put on the transfer list and you'll be like – oh god! (Pilot Player)

> We've got a lad that's come here and he's just been released from a local club and he's not been told why....you know he's just been released.
> (Pilot manager)

The likelihood that some players will suffer an injury ensures that players are always ready to take the place of a team mate if given the opportunity. It is possible that the academy staff may seek to emphasise this uncertainty in order to create high competition for places (this is implied in the comment above 'but like they say – anything can change'). The academy structure would be arguably less effective in developing (and certainly in motivating) players to achieve their potential if their inclusion/exclusion was established early on.

Interviews with players not only confirmed the presence of risk in the forms of vulnerability and uncertainty, but also demonstrated the assumed necessity of displaying trust in the manager. Placing trust in the leader was often perceived by players to be integral to their potential (or actual) progression and development as a player. In the words of one player –

> You've got to (trust) haven't you?....if you don't give any trust in football then you're not going to play your best anyway, if you can't get on with the team and manager n that. You've got to give some kind of trust to start off with. (006/D)

This requirement of trust in football was referred to both directly and indirectly in a high number of interviews as it had been within pilot interviews –

> Personally I think it (the importance of trust) is immense but it's not there
> – It's not evident (Pilot manager)

This finding, combined with the high rating for importance of trust shown earlier, confirms that trust in managers is considered an essential element within football. The apparent relevance of trust in this setting is perhaps unsurprising given the purposeful

sampling which was employed, but results also confirm that players recognise the role of trust in football. Players involved in this study also indicated that the award of some trust may be perceived as part of an established transaction with the leader; that giving the manager a level of trust was almost 'automatic'.

3.3.2.2 Propensity to Trust

The concept of characteristic trust, or a trusting propensity, first introduced by Rotter (1967) has featured in subsequent research where it is often labelled 'propensity to trust' (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). During interviews almost all participants reported giving trust to the manager at the very inception of their relationship; awarding trust prior to gaining extensive knowledge of the manager's characteristics, or building a relationship with them. This trust may be the result of an individual propensity to trust as proposed by Rotter (1967) and evidenced in some part by Dirks and Ferrin, 2002. Player comments support this idea -

> You've got to give them some sort of trust to start off with. (005/C)
>
> I'd give the manager a great deal of trust to begin with – until they start making poor decisions. (010/H)
>
> Yeah, (trust) is automatically there and I think it just takes time and you get on with them and start giving them more trust don't ya? (006/D)

One explanation for this may be the idea that individuals construct general beliefs about people from early experiences of trust, as suggested by Rotter (1971; 1980). Indeed Kramer (1999) argued that early experiences of trustworthy individuals may result in a generalised perception of trust in other figures in the social context. Based on this it is possible that a sense of trust in football leaders may be transferred to all leaders in the club setting. This tendency to trust football managers 'generally' may well explain the award of un-appraised trust in settings; such a view certainly cannot be discounted.

However, it is also conceivable that players defer responsibility in performing initial trust appraisals to the clubs within which they play. Findings suggest that a trust in the club itself may be used to gauge initial trust in a newly appointed manager –

> I'd Trust him anyway because otherwise (if he weren't trustworthy) he wouldn't be in the job. (010/H)

This finding is noteworthy since it reveals a willingness to allow other key figures to determine trustworthiness (such as club officials who appoint managers). This may represent a type of institution-based trust (Rousseau et al., 1998) whereby trust is inferred simply through the appointment of the leader. Kramer (1999) proposed that a similar form of trust exists in organisational settings, labelling it role-based trust. Kramer

described this as a 'presumptive' form of trust (awarding trust without personally acquiring experience of the trustee) which is depersonalised, and based on position rather than any behaviours or characteristics of the leader. This appraisal may be similar to the heuristic form of information processing described by Chaiken (1980) whereby an individual develops mental 'short cuts' to process relevant information. In this case a manager's appointment may well serve as an adequate form of accreditation in the mind of the player.

Given discussions on the forms and processes of trust included in Chapter 1 and earlier in this chapter, a process of awarding almost 'un-appraised' trust appears incongruous with much of the existing literature. It is important to interpret the discussion of this issue in light of the relative impact of propensity to trust which is felt to be rather minimal (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). Un-appraised trust is likely to be of a rational or calculative form rather than a higher quality variety. For example, in the academy setting it would be fair for a player to assume that it is not in the interests of the academy to appoint a leader who has no ability; as a result the player may follow the instructions of the leader based on this calculation.

In some senses players may be unable to control the need to award a swift, un-appraised form of trust to new managers. A player must take risks by following the instructions of a manager as part of their contracted role in the team and academy (a transaction). It would be neither possible nor appropriate for players to withhold reliance on instructions until they had time to gain information on the leader. For many players there was a resignation that (irrelevant of whether they trusted a manager or not) players were going to follow the leader's instructions -

> I'd probably just do it anyway (follow an instruction from a manager who was not trusted), coz you have to – he's the manager. (005/C)
>
> When you're playing football it's just one of those things…with managers telling you what to do and making you do stuff you don't want to do and you just have to get on with it. (006/D)

Therefore results suggest that a propensity to trust is present in football settings, specific comments from players appear to support the idea that this trust may be consistent with the institution-based or presumptive forms of trust described by Rousseau et al., 1998 and Kramer, 1999. However, references to this type of trust only represent a small proportion of overall trust descriptions from players; a finding similar to those from organisational settings where propensity to trust is shown to make a small but significant contribution to trust in leaders (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). Such un-appraised trust can clearly contribute to trust in football, but fails to account for all forms of trust in football leaders.

3.3.2.3 The process of awarding trust

Results demonstrate that initial presumptive trust may be re-appraised over time in a 'trial and error' style process. This concept emerged within comments from players who described awarding an amount of trust to the manager almost automatically, and then re-evaluating the trust based on the manager's subsequent behaviours and any relationship they may develop.

> You start off giving them the full amount of trust and then something happens…(that makes you worried about whether you can trust them)..nothing's happened with the staff here – that's why I've still got the same amount of trust in them at the moment. (005/C)

> I'd give the manager a great deal of trust to begin with – until they start making poor decisions. (010/H)

These excerpts suggest that trust is a dynamic belief, subject to ongoing appraisals of the actions and apparent ability of leaders; a view which is consistent with Nooteboom (2002) who proposed 'trust may be seen as a default, with the assumption of trustworthiness until evidence to the contrary arises' (p.77). Propensity to trust and deferring evaluation of trust to the relevant institution may contribute to an initial award of trust (such as presumptive trust) but subsequent trust in leaders appears to follow an appraisal of each individual. The following section explores the sources of information which followers employ in these appraisals.

3.3.2.4 Factors employed in the trust appraisal

A key aim of this study was to investigate players' trust in managers, this included the influential factors which led to the award of trust or restricted its development. As discussed previously, the presence of risk is considered a pre-requisite to the trust appraisal; therefore as an antecedent to this portion of the process, risk is not specifically highlighted in the model which follows in Figure 1. Another precursor to the appraisal itself - 'propensity to trust', is also excluded from the model since the aim was to illustrate factors employed by followers during trust appraisals. During analysis, three main categories emerged which may serve to classify influences on players' trust appraisals. The first two were labelled 'characteristic' and 'evidence-based' factors, and were evidence of cognition-based trust appraisals. The third category was labelled 'relational' factors, and demonstrated the presence of affect-based trust appraisals in football. Each of the three categories is described and discussed in the following section, while an overview of influential factors in trust appraisals is presented in Figure 1.

The basis of cognition-based trust is that followers draw inferences about the leader's characteristics such as integrity, dependability, fairness and ability (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). According to cognition-based trust these appraisals are based strongly around the follower's sense of vulnerability (in the sense that vulnerability is lessened if the follower may sense that the leader possesses particular characteristics).

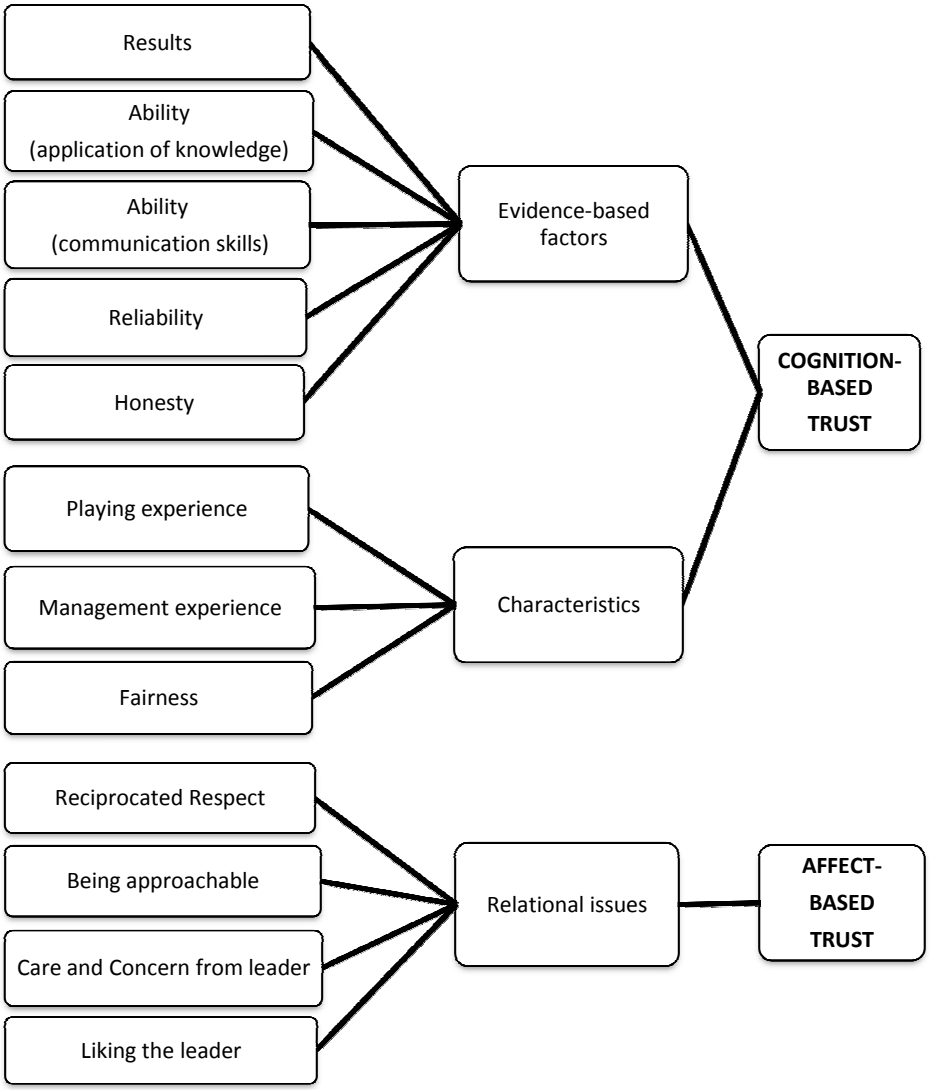


Figure 1. Influential factors in trust appraisals

The vulnerability of academy players has already been established; according to the literature this vulnerability should lead followers to include cognition-based sources in their trust appraisals of leaders. It is important to consider the relevance of follower interests throughout this discussion, and indeed throughout this program of work. If follower interests are acknowledged, then the relative vulnerability of the follower is easier to determine. For example, where a player is highly interested in their own development, appraising factors related to the football knowledge of the leader appears to be a rational approach.

In the academy setting, players evaluate managers who could influence their careers (in other words their interests) to the highest degree; the stakes are high for these players. The findings of this research demonstrate that players assess the manager on a wide range of factors before awarding them any higher quality trust (trust beyond the presumptive form described earlier). Of the cognition-based factors, some were deemed to be 'evidence-based' in that they were evaluated in light of their associated outcomes, while others were deemed to be 'characteristic' in that they were 'fixed' aspects of the leader which were considered by players to be relevant to trust.

Evidence-based trust appraisals

Evidence-based factors included results, managerial ability (in two forms: application of knowledge and communication skills), reliability, and honesty. The focus in this category is placed on identifiable outcomes which provide evidence for the follower. A key example of evidence-based trust emerged in the area of results. Results played a role in determining the trust players had in a manager; this is clearly an evidence-based appraisal which can influence the trust awarded by players.

> I've seen things what he has been trying to teach us coming off in games. (008/F)

Here, the players were not talking about *perceived ability* of coaches, but of actual tangible results which players could use to justify award the trust. Another evidence-based form of appraisal exposed during the interviews was of evidence of manager's knowledge. In this regard, players were not simply making a presumption about the manager's knowledge of the game, tactics etc, but were instead assessing evidence of such knowledge, and how it could help them to improve

> Make sure they know what they're talking about (when deciding whether to trust). (011/I)

> They should know enough to move us up a level in our football, to develop us as players. (007/E)

It appears that the manager must demonstrate his/her knowledge as regularly as possible in interactions with players. This issue featured highly in player descriptions of trust appraisals, and may be seen as a key cognitive evaluation of the leader's ability (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995).

> You can just tell (if they know their stuff) through training, matches and the way they talk n stuff.

The findings regarding evidence-based evaluations of ability are in keeping with the assertion from the coach featured in Potrac, Jones and Armour (2002) who stated 'a

coach must not only possess an extensive knowledge of football, but must also be seen to demonstrate this knowledge by his or her players' (p.192).

Clearly coaches themselves recognise that players appraise ability experientially during sessions as part of an overall appraisal of the leader's ability to perform their role. Knowledge of their craft is one key facet of leader ability, but players revealed that communication skills were another important aspect. Managers who are able to communicate effectively are at an advantage as they can ensure that their instructions are clearly understood -

> They (the trusted manager) have got to be a conversationalist. (010/H)
>
> The way he (the trusted manager) explains things, I understand better. (008/F)

Interviews also showed that strong communication from the leader assisted with acceptance of difficult decisions such as de-selection -

> If he dropped me for a game, you know – for a reason - then I'd trust him, I'd know he'd done the right thing for them team n that. (004/B)

This demonstrates the power of effective communication in helping players to see the 'bigger picture', and may be related to the concept of transformational leadership. The powerful influence of player's interests has been considered throughout the presentation of these findings, and so it is useful to note that good communication from the manager may encourage players to see the team interests above their own. This reflects a typical transformational leadership behaviour whereby followers are encouraged to transcend self interest for the good of the group (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Transformational leaders are known for defining a vision for followers, and this vision must be appropriately communicated; indeed research has suggested that transformational leaders tend to possess good rhetorical skills.

In relation to trust appraisals, communication skills may be seen as an important aspect of leader ability; communicating with the player will allow the manager the opportunity to provide them with all relevant information. It may be shown that greater information (for example what the leader is trying to achieve and why) could contribute to greater knowledge-based trust. However, the trust-building consequence of communicating information may only occur in cases where the information is deemed in keeping with the athlete's own concerns; a manager who communicates that they have no intention of developing the player and do not value them is unlikely to be trusted. A lack of communication from the leader may (at worst) create an impression of shadowing or secrecy where a player feels they are not being provided with all the relevant information. Such secrecy may contribute to a climate of suspicion which can create

greater levels of uncertainty and counter-act trust development. It is interesting to note that communication was the most salient aspect of the close coach-athlete relationship, as described by athletes in Lavoi (2007).

Reliance on the trusted individual, in this case the manager, is at the very heart of what defines trust in another. Findings suggest that when players are making evidence-based appraisals of the manager, another key influence is the reliability of the manager. Perceptions of reliability may be crucial in building even 'basic' forms of trust such as knowledge-based trust. A player uses knowledge of the leader's previous actions in order to gauge their vulnerability; for example if a leader has not lived up to earlier promises then a player may be less likely to invest trust in their future assurances.

> If somebody says things and then doesn't do them then you can't trust them – obviously. (008/F)

The professional manager featured in the pilot study also highlighted the importance of being reliable -

> So if you say you're going to do something do it, if you can't then don't say you're going to do it (Pilot manager).

Previous research has found that reliability (and dependability) expectations of followers must usually be met for trust relationships to exist and develop (Zucker, 1986). This adds credence to the idea that reliability is appraised by football players before improved higher quality trust may emerge.

While reliability featured regularly within player interviews, the most commonly cited factor which emerged over the course of this study was labelled honesty. Honesty could be considered both an evidence-based and characteristic source for trust appraisals, since honesty can be considered a trait but 'being honest' is appraised in light of subsequent outcomes (often honesty isn't established until after the event). The most regular references to honesty were evidence-based, in that the belief in the honesty of the leader was supported by some action or instance where the manager had indeed 'been honest'. Incidents where the manager had been honest under circumstances where it may have been difficult to do so featured particularly highly in trust appraisals -

> I think you'll get that (honesty) with these coaches; it's not that they like it but it's the truth and whether you like it or not – it is. I mean there's some things the manager has said to me and I've thought 'you horrible bastard' but it's the truth in the end. (010/H)

> Even if it's something you don't want to hear they've got to tell you, it's for your own benefit. (004/B)

The latter comment implies an appraisal of interests ('for your own benefit'); this demonstrates that players may welcome even difficult truths if they feel they support their interests. While characteristic honesty in leaders may not provide players with the information that they hope for, it certainly helps them build the faith that the information they receive will be accurate. The importance of honesty was also highlighted by the professional coach in the pilot study -

> One of the best coaches I've ever seen is ********** and you know the guy just commands respect…….. I've seen him do demonstrations and he's honest. Again – honesty – it means a lot to me (Pilot manager).

> I just go back to it's a simple thing of honesty leads to trust. Be honest with your players and they'll trust you (Pilot manager).

Such honesty could help in building knowledge-based trust, given that players could feel they have received all the appropriate information on the leader, or regarding a particular situation. Higher levels of information reduce situational uncertainty and promote trust beliefs.

Characteristic trust appraisals

A number of further sources employed in players' trust appraisals were also cognitive in their basis, and appeared to draw on aspects of the leader which were fixed or established upon certain characteristics of the manager. Characteristic factors included previous experience of the manager (managing and playing), and fairness.

It may have been logical to anticipate that players would assess the previous leadership experience of the manager, since such experience may contribute greatly to their current role; however, results demonstrated only minimal references to this factor -

> If it's a new manager you need to see what he's done in the past sort of thing. (008/F)

Notably, actual experience of managing a team seemed to be surrounded by a rather relaxed attitude. In some cases, the experience of management or coaching was seen almost as something that could be learned 'on the job'. When referring to a greatly trusted manager one player stated –

> In another 3 or 4 years with experience, he'll be able to coach much better. (007/E)

Instead, a key characteristic which players employed in appraising trust in the leader was their previous experience as a player.

> I trust him because I know what he's done and what he's achieved as a player. (010/H)

Existing literature suggests that professional credentials may serve to heighten the trust which followers may have in managers. For example, in organisations 'educational institutes and professional associations' have served to increase trust in peers (McAllister, 1995). Applying this to a football setting for a moment, educational institutes may be represented by the club at which the manager played or managed; the place where they learned the trade of playing or managing in football. It is also conceivable that players are able to trust coaches who have played at the highest level as they feel that coaches are able to understand the particular pressures of their own situation; suggesting a type of identification-based trust (McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi, 2006) built on cognitive appraisals. Essentially, the idea that the leader has 'been there, done that', and is able to speak from experience appears to have greater currency than management experience -

> I believe him and when he gives me the belief in myself to do it I can trust what he is telling me because I know he has had the courage to do it himself. (010/H)

> He's been through what we are going through now so he has seen and done everything. (011/I)

The sense of shared experience and true credibility which managers appear to gain through a history as a professional player appeared to carry a great deal of weight in the trust appraisals of these players -

> He's a relatively new manager but I still trust his decisions – they might be different, they might be something I've not heard of before but I still trust them because I know what he's done and what he's achieved. I'm a nobody and if I can't trust somebody who's been there and played professionally. (010/H)

The findings of Potrac, Jones and Armour (2002) serve to confirm that this type of evaluation by players does take place within professional football. In the words of the high level professional coach featured in their study –

> I think you get a little bit of respect for that as well. People think – he can actually do it and has done it. I think that's a big point especially with professional players. The ability to demonstrate in front of professional footballers I think brings you a few extra 'brownie points'. And I think you need all the help you can get (p.193).

Another cognition-based, characteristic form of trust appraisal was related to the perceived fairness of managers. Fairness does feature in existing models of trust, and is commonly related to the perceived integrity of a leader (Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995). Fairness presents another source of appraisal which may be related to the consideration of player interests. In the academy environment players are

members of the same team, but are also concurrently 'competing' for professional contracts. Any indication that the manager is unfair may lead the player to conclude that the leader cannot be relied upon to act in their best interests; indeed the vignettes indicated that being disadvantaged may lead to a decline in trust. The characteristic of being 'fair' is listed in the description of cognition-based trust from Dirks and Ferrin (2002), and is easily aligned to the concept of trust. For example it would be difficult for a player to accept vulnerability toward a person who has been historically unfair toward them. Players in this study did make some mention of fairness as a key characteristic of trusted managers -

> He has to be fair definitely. (004/B)

However, while fairness was mentioned this appeared almost an accepted feature of trusted managers, 'unfairness' was regularly cited as a reason to withhold trust. This term emerged far more strongly within interviews where there was a strong focus upon unfair actions of leaders. Unfair behaviour, including favouritism toward other players, was one of the factors most associated with a lack of trust in managers; suggesting that appraisals of fairness are common in this context. Some players seemed to accept unfairness in the form of favouritism as an inevitable aspect of the environment –

> I'd say 80% of the staff here treat everybody exactly the same but there's a number that don't – that have favourites, it happens doesn't it. (006/D)

While the existence of favouritism was often accepted, it was felt that managers should take care to disguise such bias –

> For me, with the favouritism – if one of the coaches kept having favouritism toward one of the players – that's a big no no…if he did have a favourite – he should keep it to himself. (007/E)

Signs of favouritism did appear to generate strong responses from players who interpreted it as a sign that they were in a poor position (compared to a favoured player)

> He (the manager) obviously thinks less of you than the other lads, if he's trying to speak with the other lads. Make an effort with them but not you. (006/D)

Overall, favouritism was seen as the most common and most negative example of unfairness within participant clubs. In the academy environment, players may possess particular expectations of their right to attention and development; as a result, awarding disproportionate attention to particular players may engender resentment, and lead to a lack of trust from the remaining followers. Players appear to be highly cognisant of any limitation of opportunity within the academy-

> He'll give you praise but he'll give them more. It's not fair not to give an equal opportunity. (004/B)

Relational trust appraisals

The relationship-based perspective concentrates on the high quality relationships between leaders and followers (McAllister, 1995). Successful examples of these relationships are seen to go beyond the standard economic contracts which exist in the football environment, the core considerations within this perspective are issues of care and consideration (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). The existence of the relationship-based perspective has received empirical support (McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi, 2006) and may be evidenced by some of the findings of this study. A number of factors emerged during the current research which may be strongly related to interpersonal or relational factors in the player-manager dyad. Relational themes included respect, approachability, care and concern from leaders and like for leaders. A key feature of these themes is the role of reciprocity in trust relationships.

The current research considers respect to be an affective construct since it is a value or regard felt by followers, rather than a perceived characteristic. However, respect may be built on evidence-based cognitive issues such as managerial experience. One such example could be a feeling of respect born from a regard for the experience of another -

> If you can't respect him for what he's done then I'm not sure who you can respect. (010/H)

It should be noted that when discussing respect, many of the players noted its reciprocal role in trust relations, highlighting their own need to feel respected by managers. In the words of one player describing an 'ideal' trusted manager-

> Someone who would respect me. (004/B)

A sense of respect from the manager may increase the belief that he/she would act in their interests of the player. Moreover, respect for leaders may encourage players to adhere to instructions to a far greater degree; this relates to the evidence-based application of knowledge which was discussed previously. Belief in the ability of a manager (a source of trust), and respect for the ability of a manager share similar features. The importance of respect is highlighted by the elite football leader featured in the study of Potrac, Jones and Armour (2002) –

> If they (the players) have no respect for your coaching ability then you've had it, you've lost respect and coaching sessions become very difficult. So you've got to know your subject; it's the most important thing (p.192).

Asides from respect, a number of other relational and interaction-based factors were raised by players. For example, when players were asked if they could define trust a number of them began by discussing 'confiding in others' and 'keeping secrets'. Dietz and Hartog (2006) describe two types of trusting action; the first is *reliance*– to place something important in the hands of another (the intention to do so is assessed in this research) and the second is *disclosure* – to share some information which makes you more vulnerable to the other. In the case of academy players the perception that a player could confide in the leader was certainly relevant -

> You can tell them anything and they'll tell you what you need to know. (006/D)

Being approachable was seen as a large part of being a trustworthy manager, as was making players feel at ease to confide in them. Lavoi (2007) suggests that being approachable is a key feature of close coach-athlete relations; it appears logical that open and honest interactions between leader and follower would improve communication and be related to perceptions of trust (not least because of the influence that honesty itself has on trust). The manager portrayed within Potrac, Jones and Armour (2002) also felt that this was an important aspect of being a good manager –

> You've got to be approachable enough so that they can come to you for a quiet word……So it's important that they feel that the door is always open so they can come and talk to me about anything that is interfering with their game or is not quite happening on the pitch and can't work out why (p.194)

Certain aspects of leadership ability were also seen to contribute toward the relational aspects of trust. For example, communication skills were not only considered a cognitive source of trust, but also one which allowed the manager to display relationship-based qualities such as care and concern for a player, and liking the player. Communicating interest in, and care for, a player can be done in an almost tacit manner through the power of positive communication. This is reflected below in the words of a player -

> It's the little things that are the most important (in building trust), like the way they approach you…the way they speak to you and that. (005/C)

One explanation of the origins of relationship-based trust is that it results from 'cumulative interaction' (Kramer, 1999). This may be illustrated in the following example - as player and manager spend greater amounts of time interacting with one another they gather knowledge on the attitudes, characteristics and likely behaviours of the other (thereby producing the ingredients for cognition based trust). In such circumstances it may be easier to predict the likely actions or responses of the leader. By this point a relationship has developed between the two; each party 'invests' something in the

relationship (be it time, extra effort, confidences etc). Since the relationship has gone beyond simple transaction each party may begin to view the relationship with greater importance, considering the other party etc. On a basic level relationship-based trust may be viewed as a form of social exchange. Such relationships may result from particular leadership behaviours such as those described by LMX or transformational theorists; leadership styles within which the relationship between leader and follower is highly regarded. Players described such 'additional' attention from the leader –

> He tries to know you as much as he can, he tried to get to know you on a personal basis. He'd take you out for a meal you know, if you had a problem or something. (009/G)

Kramer (1999) suggests that as each party reciprocates the care and concern, the investment of trust between the two increases; however, if there is no reciprocation then the trust diminishes – a description which appears aligned with social exchange theory. This was typified in the response of one player who saw trust as a reciprocal issue between player and coach –

> So obviously he has a little bit of trust in me and I trust him coz I know he's got trust in me, so that means I have respect for him and all that. (008/F)

The likelihood here is that the trust which the leader shows in the player is interpreted in light of the player's interests. Since the manager is deemed to be acting positively toward the player, they reciprocate this trust toward the leader. The implication that the player bases their regard for the manager on this trust is also interesting, it implies that the player respects the manager's willingness to place trust in the player (e.g., 'they must be a trustworthy manager as they have trust in me').

References to relational issues also emerged through references to care and concern, liking the coach, and getting on or building a relationship. Signs of care and concern were referenced by a high proportion of players. In their discussions of trusted managers, participants indicated that managers should show personal interest in a player (including their home life and background), and regularly highlighted signs of care and concern as key to awarding trust to leaders -

> I think he should have a lot of time for his players individually, I think he should try and build some kind of relationship. (007/E)

> I think a coach has got to understand a player, understand their background. (010/H)

Trusted managers were also commended for demonstrating interest in the rest of the

player's life outside the football environment, and for showing concern for the players' futures –

> The coaches are really strict about going to college, if you don't go to college – you don't play…..it's good because they're letting us know that football's not everything – there's more to life. (008/F)

> They do things; they show us that there are other (career) opportunities and that. They have like the fire brigade in and the marines and that.(003/A)

This form of care and concern is of particular interest given the high wastage rate in academy football, and the player's concern with their own interests. A demonstration of interest in the player's future (including potential non-football futures) demonstrates a concern for the player's own interests. It is positive to report the presence of such concerns within two modern academies, particularly following the findings of Parker (2000) whose research noted the lack of emphasis on education from both players and staff in an academy in the 1993/94 season.

Clear signs of care and concern for players should contribute positively to trust appraisals; such actions may make the player feel less uncertain about the future, and make them feel that they will be supported by the manager, irrespective of whether or not they are successful in following their dream of professional football. Players provided examples of such care in several interviews -

> He doesn't just think about the club, he thinks of you as well which is good. (007/E)

> They said they'd help look after his best interest and help set him up at college (referring to a boy who had left the academy).(009/G)

Another term related to the quality of trust that players had with their managers was 'liking'. Results demonstrated that players who reported trusting the manager also often reported 'liking' that manager. It is interesting to note that the 'liking' reported in the quote below is also related to reliability and trust. Since reliability has already been established as a source of trust appraisals this may suggest that liking, reliability and trust share some common underlying components.

> I like our coach as an individual, he's reliable and you can trust him to do things. (008/F)

The quality of the relationship was also emphasised, for example comments emerged in the interviews about the importance of 'getting on' and being close -

> Everyone gets on; it's like family in here. (006/D)

Again, this is reflects a relationship-based form of trust where the quality of the relationship is central to trust concerns. Some players also linked relational aspects of trust to outcome factors such as enjoyment at training, and following instructions -

> If I didn't trust the coach and get on with him I wouldn't look forward to training – no way. (009/G)

> If you didn't like them then you wouldn't get on with them and you would always argue, think their calls and choices were wrong. (004/C)

A manager who is able to demonstrate concern for the player, and build reciprocal like and respect in the relationship, should be best placed to inspire affect-based trust from the follower. Emphasis on these relations was observed throughout the interviews, and is clearly demonstrated in the following quote which describes a coach's open declaration of care for a player –

> Yeah, we've just been in a football tournament a few weeks ago and he (the manager) went through individually the team and he said like…he pulled me up and he said (to the team) 'I know like we've had a laugh through the year and that I take the 'mic' out of him but I love him' the manager's got a great personality and he looks out for you everyone the same. (010/H)

If a player can be confident of a manager having feelings such as those illustrated in the quote above, then the belief that the manager has good intentions toward them will not be difficult. Although relational factors such as care and concern did not feature as sources of trust appraisals as regularly as evidence and characteristic-based factors; however, the quality and depth of relational factors may engender far 'higher' forms of trust since the issue of player interests is so keenly addressed by affect-based trust. As Hardin (2008) suggested, if a follower perceives that the interests of the leader include his/her own, then trust can be based upon an encapsulated interest account (e.g., belief that the leader has their own reasons to act in the player's best interests).

Summary of trust appraisals

In summary, this study confirms the relevance of both cognition- and affect-based forms of trust appraisal in the context of football academies. Two distinct types of cognition-based appraisals were observed, those which were evidence-based, and those based on perceived characteristics of the leader. Within these cognitive appraisals leaders were evaluated on several sources including ability, reliability, fairness, playing experience and the results of their leadership. A third type of appraisal, grounded in affect-based trust evaluations, was also identified. Relational appraisals did appear to make a significant (though lesser) contribution to trust evaluations, sources included respect, signs of care and concern and liking the leader. Among all three categories of trust sources, one consistent finding was the relation of trust appraisals (both cognition-

and affect-based) to the personal interests of the player. This finding may indicate that the evaluation of another party's 'intentions toward you' (which features in some trust definitions) has some credence in a performance setting such as this.

3.3.2.5 Consequences of trust

The final section of this discussion is awarded to the potential outcomes or consequences of trust in football. Consequences are featured at this point in the chapter since they follow the actual appraisal, and subsequent award, of trust. In organisational settings, studies have shown that trust in the leader may impact upon crucial personal responses from followers (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002); it was useful to explore whether this may be the case in football settings. In the current study, players were quick to state that trusting the coach had a definite influence over some important outcomes including happiness, commitment, and effort. These comments reaffirmed the perceived importance of trust in football. In the players' own words –

> Would I be unhappy? (if there was no trust) of course….you'd want to leave wouldn't you? Because if you trust them you'd want to play for them, and win things under them. (004/B)
>
> You'd be all bottled up (if you didn't trust). You wouldn't be able to express yourself, you wouldn't be yourself, you'd change and be all quiet. (008/F)
>
> If I didn't trust the coach and get on with him then I wouldn't look forward to training at all – no way. (009/G)

The quotes above demonstrate the strength of feeling from the players; for many, the relationship with the coach was very strongly related to the enjoyment they experienced at the club. Several players also confirmed that the trust relationship could influence their commitment to a particular club -

> You'd be more likely to look for other opportunities (if you had no trust). (007/E)
>
> It (trust) would definitely influence staying at the club. (009/G)
>
> Definitely, without a doubt – a trusting relationship would keep you at the club. (008/F)

It was established earlier that players may feel obliged to follow instructions of leaders, to place a degree of trust in their hands. However, players confirmed that (although they are required to follow instructions) the level of effort they put in was determined, in part, by their trust and belief in that leader.

> I'd do what he said like, but not put quite as much effort into it as if I agreed with him. (009/G)

> If you don't believe he is playing you in the right position and he's not seen the best of you then you aren't always going to put in 100%. (010/H)

> You wouldn't respect his opinion and you'd just play your own game (if you didn't trust the manager). (008/F)

Happiness, commitment and effort are outcomes which managers may wish to achieve for understandable reasons. The finding that trust can contribute to the happiness, commitment and effort of players is aligned to findings from organisational settings. For example Podsakoff et al., (1990) demonstrated that trust mediated the relationship between leader behaviours and organisational citizenship behaviours; in addition, Dirks and Ferrin's (2002) meta-analysis concluded that trust in organisational leadership was significantly related to work attitudes. The suggestion of such positive consequences of trust further supports the rationale for the current programme of study.

Although specific comments relating trust to performance featured minimally in discussions with these players, performance did figure in their responses. Some players felt that performance was something that was related to their own goals rather than something linked specifically to trusting a manager-

> I normally just play my game, I wouldn't be playing for the manager – I'd be playing for me. (005/C)

This finding somewhat contradicts those from organisational settings; however, this may be explained by the most obvious difference in sample groups. In organisations, followers may receive various rewards for their improved performance, but ultimately the 'output' is the performance of the organisation. The 'interests' in organisational settings often lie predominantly with the company or organisation, followers work 'for' the business. Within professional football, particularly at this level, personal development and performance are the key factors for players themselves. Players who are able to develop and produce good performances will not only benefit the team, but will also increase their own chances of gaining a professional contract. At this level the team performances are not viewed with as much importance as individual development. The academy player has a vested interest in producing optimal amounts of effort, where the organisational worker may be less inclined to do so. This distinction between football and organisational settings may suggest that footballers could perform better individually under low trust conditions, than would organisational followers.

3.4 Conclusion and Limitations

The aim of this study was to describe qualitatively the operation of trust in leadership within the context of professional youth football. The findings of the project lend empirical support to the contention that trust in leadership is a relevant component of

leader-follower relations within football academies. Trust in managers was viewed as a consistently important factor by all of the players interviewed. Moreover, trust was perceived to be related to a number of other potentially important variables such as happiness, commitment to the club, and effort.

In relation to proposed situational influences on trust, it was shown that the importance of trust in football was most likely exacerbated by levels of risk in the football environment; more specifically by the perceived uncertainty, vulnerability and extreme importance present in this setting. In terms of the process of awarding trust, it was shown that (within this sample) players were generally prepared to offer a certain amount of trust at the start of a relationship. This initial trust may be a form of institution-based or presumptive trust which may be awarded prior to any experience of a manager. The award of this initial trust tended to be made on a 'trial and error' basis and was followed by a detailed appraisal of the leader.

Trust appraisals were shown to incorporate both cognition and affect-based sources with predominance on cognition-based factors. A particularly worthwhile finding demonstrates the emphasis placed upon evidence-based sources of trust, factors which players may witness first hand. Significantly, results demonstrated that managers were appraised on their experience as a player more often than on their experience as a manager. This finding suggests that playing history may provide the manager with greater credibility, and/or allow players to feel a greater identification with the leader. Affective dimensions of trust were heavily based on signs of care and concern from the leader, and were often related to instances of them going 'above and beyond' their required duties. Such behaviours may be aligned to theories of charismatic or transformational leaders, approaches which recognise the value of going beyond the transactional relationship, and inspire additional commitment from their followers. Finally, there was a strong connection between many of the factors which players included in trust appraisals and a clear sense of their own interests within the academy.

There are some limitations to this study which include the limited number of participants involved, and the small proportion of academies represented. Since the sample was gathered from only two clubs many of the participants may have been drawing on experiences of the same small number of leaders. This could influence the results, for example a larger number of clubs may have included leaders with no history as a professional player; the emphasis on playing history may be heavily represented in these two clubs but less important in other academies. History would suggest that a football manager may be successful without having had a successful career as a player; indeed three of the Premiership's most successful coaches over recent years had not competed at an international level as players (Alex Ferguson, Arsene Wenger and Jose

Mourhino). Investigations within non-academy settings may determine whether playing history is important to players who are not pursuing professional careers.

A great deal of emphasis has been placed upon the situational conditions which make trust so relevant in the academy setting, but future studies may aim to test trust in less structured football environments. For example, amateur players may not feel so inclined to grant un-appraised trust since they are not contracted to follow the instructions of a leader. Another limitation of this study is the failure to include female players in the sample; future research must determine if the current findings are unique to male footballers.

A further area of future study may compare distrusted and trusted figures in football in order to determine and compare the appraisals involved in both trust and distrust. Findings suggest that a fine line exists between trust and distrust. This issue was touched upon by some players during their interviews, though none so succinctly as in the case of this player –

> Football is weird, there's a lot of back stabbing and there's a lot of talk and everything. You just don't know who to trust – even if he's your best mate in the football club. (004/B)

Chapter 4: Study 2

4.1 Introduction

Study 1 revealed that players considered a variety of factors during appraisals of trust. These factors included cognitive characteristic and evidence-based factors such as perceived fairness, ability and honesty of the leader, their level of experience, results and ability to apply knowledge, and factors related to relationships such as liking the coach and feeling they were concerned for them. These emerging themes which describe the influences on trust in football academies were allied with relevant research studies from wider literature which emphasise the importance of competence (Cook and Wall, 1980; McAllister, 1995), integrity based factors such as fairness (Pillai, Schriesheim and Williams, 1999) and relationship based issues such as care and concern (Lewis and Weigert, 1985; McAllister, 1995) in the development of trust in leaders.

Evidence also emerged which suggested a 'trial and error' process of trusting within which players award some level of trust to a coach from the outset. This initial trust may be based on more factual information they have about the leader such as his/her qualifications or the faith they may have in the club officials who appointed the leader. Participants suggested that the award of trial and error trust was not irrevocable, but rather a preliminary stage in awarding trust to a leader in football. Many players described how the award of trust was regularly re-evaluated as experience of the coach and information about them was accumulated. Each of the nine interviews in Study 1 built in-depth individual images of trust in academy football, yet results also demonstrated that players' accounts of trust in football held many common features, contributing to a model of trust in that context. Further exploration of the personal features which signal 'trustworthiness' and of the processes of awarding trust are necessary in order to establish whether themes from Study 1 are representative of the experience of footballers in a wider context.

Given the prevalence of the term 'expectations' in trust definitions and conceptual models of trust (Lewicki, McAllister and Bies, 1998; Rousseau et al., 1998; Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995; Dirks, 2000), the notion that players attempt to predict the trustworthiness of those around them is a credible one. Football players must appraise who to trust and when; this appraisal process permits them to operate among the risk and reliance endemic in the football context by predicting likely outcomes and acting on the basis of that prediction. For example, on the day of a crucial match a footballer may receive tactical instructions from his/her coach; they *rely on* the expertise of the coach. The player predicts that the instructions are likely to be good since (a) the coach is well qualified (b) the coach has always provided effective instructions in the past and (c) the

coach has shown that he/she cares about the player and wants them to do well; the three factors of a, b and c are employed to predict the outcome – if the coach were not qualified, and their instructions had been ineffective in the past, then the player may select a different response. Making predictions about others is a fundamental concept within the social cognition literature. For example, it is accepted within theories of both attribution and stereotyping that individuals seek to label others in order to predict any future behaviour toward them. As was discussed in Chapter 1, and illustrated in the example above, trust assessments are more complex than purely gauging predictability; however, the desire to forecast the actions of others certainly impacts on the trust process. Understanding the process through which players make predictions about the world around them is invaluable to this work.

4.1.1 Personal construct theory

The pioneering work of George Kelly (1955a) proposed a new approach to exploring how people operate within their social world; adopting a credulous (rather than critical) approach to studying psychology, his work led to the foundation of constructive alternativism. Within this paradigm Kelly described the notion that individuals construe the world around them by employing a set of often idiosyncratic 'personal constructs'. The act of construing is simply to place an interpretation on something or someone, for example to determine that someone is trustworthy or untrustworthy. Kelly's theory states that we achieve this interpretation by building a set of features which are characteristic of some things or people and uncharacteristic of others. Such features are known as personal constructs, and the concept of building such sets is known as the 'construction corollary'. Having 'constructed' a set of features a person then applies, and indeed tests, the set in understanding the people and things around him/her.

In determining whether an individual 'likes' a new person they meet, he/she may rate an individual against a certain set of features, for example *warm*, *generous* and *selfless* - characteristics similar to other people he/she likes, and uncharacteristic of people who are disliked who he/she may see as *cold*, *miserly* and *selfish.* In essence each time an individual deems what someone is (for example 'generous') then he/she is also construing what the person is not (such as 'miserly'). In applying personal construct theory to the context of football, it is clear that 'construing' may be the process employed in the trust appraisals discussed in Chapters 1 and 2. Personal construct theory may offer an explanation as to how football players are able to predict the world and individuals around them, even under conditions of limited experience of the individual such as in the un-appraised and trial and error trust described in Study 1, indeed Kelly maintained that 'it is impossible not to imply prediction whenever one construes anything' (1955a, p.120).

Since every individual builds their own set of constructs for interpreting the world and acting within it, Kelly proposed that the focus of psychologists should centre upon people's personal constructs. Kelly proposed that behaviour is not simply reactive, but rather anticipatory, in that a person employs their construct system in making predictions about his/her world and those in it. The use of these construct systems to build expectations and predictions about environments certainly has credence in this setting; players could be employing constructs and perhaps adjusting them as they gain experience of football environments and key individuals within them. This concept supports the re-appraisal process described by players in Study 1. As long the leader is (or is doing) certain things (say 1, 2 and 3) then a player appraises them as trustworthy, but if they fail to meet those conditions then they are breaking the 'rule' about what being trustworthy really is. The player may consequently withdraw his/her trust in the leader and/or re-evaluate their 'rule' about what being trustworthy means; it is the application of these rules which may facilitate the construction of trust in leaders.

> A construct is like a reference axis. A basic dimension of appraisal, often unverbalised, frequently unsymbolised, and occasionally unsignified in any manner except by the elemental process it governs. Behaviourally it can be regarded as an open channel of movement, and the system of constructs provides each man with his own personal network of action pathways, serving both to limit his movements and to open him up to passages of freedom which otherwise would be psychologically non-existent. (Kelly, 1955b, p.293)

Personal Construct theory is not exclusively idiographic in nature; whilst advocating the existence of idiosyncratic constructs in the 'individuality corollary' Kelly acknowledged that there must also exist a 'commonality corollary' within the theory. The commonality corollary is 'the extent that one person employs a construction of an experience which is similar to that employed by another, his psychological processes are similar to those employed by the other person' (Kelly, 1955a, p.90). This suggests that footballers could hold similar personal constructs of trustworthiness which result from similar psychological processes; since the context of football is unique and can be considered quite insular it is possible that common constructions of trust and distrust exist among footballers.

4.1.2 Repertory Grids

Alongside his theory of personal constructs Kelly developed a method named the repertory grid technique. This allowed people to state their personal constructs and allowed psychologists to examine them in an in-depth and often quantifiable manner. A repertory grid elicits a number of constructs from the individual and then allows the constructs to be compared and examined in a variety of ways. Take for example a

football player who believes that people who are selfish tend also to be sneaky. If the player lists thirty people he/she does know/has known, and rates each of them on the dimensions of *selfish- selfless* and *sneaky-open* then the result is a large amount of data. One opportunity that arises from such data is to examine the relationship between the two constructs and forward a hypothesis, for example a correlation of the data may tell us that to this player there is 53% in common between the two constructs.

In addition to this approach, Kelly proposed a second way of viewing the data produced from such contrasts. One could consider the implications of these constructs to the player's view of the world; how do these ways of judging people impact on the player as he/she operates in the football environment? If *selfish* and *sneaky* are related then this implies that the player may be suspicious of those who tend to be selfish, even though there may be no evidence that they are acting in a duplicitous manner, only that they tend to put themselves first. To extend the assessment researchers could test to see if these constructs are unique to the player, or whether members of the player's team share the same common constructs (perhaps a prominent figure in the club has been both selfish and sneaky).

Although a very detailed account of repertory grids will follow in the methods section two key aspects of grid data should be highlighted; the first is the understanding that whenever a person makes an appraisal about trustworthiness he/she is employing an underlying set of features which determine what trustworthiness is and is not. The person simply applies these 'features' to the person or situation either consciously or subconsciously, and then uses such appraisals to operate in their environment. In the player's case, if he/she views someone as selfish they are also deeming what they are not - selfless. The second aspect is the appreciation that personal constructs can be both idiosyncratic and commonly held, as such it could be possible to explore whether trustworthiness is construed by football players in any common or distinct ways.

4.1.2.1 Applications of repertory grids

The versatility of the repertory grid as a research tool is evident from its extensive use in a wide variety of research settings. Many such studies have employed grids to assess topics similar to those concerning this research, such as making appraisals and construing leadership. In assessing the construing of professionals, Gale and Mullineux (2000) employed grids with a sample of 16 probation officers to establish the factors employed in the assessment of 'risk' in offenders, results demonstrated that recommendations by the officers were almost exclusively based of one primary aspect – the severity and length of the offender's criminal record. In the context of leadership, Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2001) employed repertory grid interviews with 150

managers and utilised elicited constructs to devise and test a pilot questionnaire on the leadership factors.

Storr (2004) employed repertory grids with managers in a health setting and uncovered 15 emerging themes from the elicited constructs. Findings from the study determined that the perceived effectiveness and integrity of a leader were gauged dually through evaluations of both leadership character and behaviour. Of particular interest was a finding relating to the hierarchy of leaders within the health setting, specifically that 'it is assumed by virtue and success that leaders lead with integrity' (p.415); this implies that the appointment of a leader to a particular status results in an automatic attribution of integrity to that leader. This echoes the findings in Study 1 whereby players suggested that appointment as a manager engendered automatic trust (what Kramer (1999) termed 'presumptive trust'). Also in a health care setting, Barker (2000), used repertory grids to demonstrate the way in which male and female senior managers construed effective leadership. Findings demonstrated that females produced constructs which were more akin to transformational models of leadership, while male constructs were related more closely to transactional leadership. Senior and Swailes (2004) considered perceptions of team performance within a management team using the repertory grid technique. The authors use of grids permitted team members to state 'in their own words what team performance meant to them in relation to their unique team's context' (p.321); ultimately allowing the researchers to establish seven underlying factors representing what is meant by 'team performance' utilising terms of reference most relevant to the context.

Whilst repertory grid research has been employed extensively in other sectors there has been somewhat limited use of the technique within sport. Research to date includes work from Balsdon and Clift (1990; 1992) who employed grids in two studies exploring teachers' appraisals of sport performance. The two studies examined the personal criteria used by teachers in awarding grades for practical performance in sport. Results demonstrated that assessors were highly consistent in their understanding of marking criteria, though variations were observed in absolute grading provided by assessors with some considered consistent 'over' markers and others consistent 'harder' markers. In two studies more closely aligned with the original application of grids as a tool for therapy, Feixas, Marti and Villegas (1989) found the team grid a useful tool in enabling members of a football team to examine relationships and perceptions of others within the team. Savage (2005) utilised grids in work as an applied Sport Psychology practitioner. The detailed information resulting from the grid analysis was employed by Savage and his client to navigate the various phases of injury experienced by the client.

4.1.3 Gender differences in self construal

Gardner, Gabriel and Lee (1999) describe how 'self-construals may serve as an interpretive frame for understanding the world' (p.322). Given the emphasis on 'construing' in repertory grid approaches, it is essential to acknowledge research which suggests that men and women construe themselves, and consequently their social world, quite differently. While some theorists believe this to be an innate difference, Cross and Maddison (1997) suggest that social norms lead males to develop a view of themselves as more independent and women to develop a view of themselves as more interdependent. Other research demonstrates that females have a tendency to attend to relationship factors to a greater degree than do males (Rosenberg, 1989). Additional research has proposed that adult women place more focus on information related to relationships than do men (Ross and Holmberg, 1992) and that women can report a greater impact of close relationships on their well being. In relation to the findings from Study 1 it is conceivable that suggested types of trust (cognitive, evidence and relational-based trust) and specific features of trustworthy figures (such as competence, fairness, respect and liking) represent a picture of male appraisals of trust that may be distinct from the factors employed by female football players.

4.1.4 Aims of Study 2

The challenge for this study was to expand upon Study 1 in exploring typical factors employed by players in trust appraisals whilst maintaining the person centred focus of the first study. This was achieved by incorporating a larger, mixed gender sample of participants and through the application of repertory grids. Repertory grids permitted both an idiographic and a nomothetic focus, allowing more quantifiable and comparable results than the interviews employed in Study 1. A high level of detail was obtained with repertory grids while also grounding findings strongly in the experiences of participants, and severely limiting the possible influence of researcher bias. Determining common and distinct features of trusted and distrusted figures within a wider sample of mixed gender players allowed for a greater comparison with wider research on trust. In addition, the sample involved in this study was drawn from both professional and amateur groups; allowing any 'academy-specific' issues to emerge.

Utilising 20 male and 27 female participants the aims of the present study were:

i) To establish the common features of trusted and distrusted figures in the lives of 47 football players.
ii) To explore gender differences in personal constructions of trust and distrust.
iii) To allow any underlying distinctions between trust and liking to emerge from the data

4.2 Methodology

4.2.1 Measures

4.2.1.1 Computer based repertory grid

A bespoke computer based repertory grid program was constructed for this study. Traditionally, repertory grid programs often allow participants the opportunity to name the elements within a grid; in order to achieve the aims of this study the element categories were provided but participants inserted their own examples. The number and content of triads (sets of 3 people) included were also dictated by the researcher to ensure particular contrasts between figures and to limit the length of the grid. A detailed demonstration was included in the program to assist the researcher in explaining the procedure to participants. Illustrations of screens presented to participants are provided in Appendix 5.

Repertory grid elements

An 8x8 version of the repertory grid was employed; this was deliberately shorter than Kelly's original grids in order to limit the demand on participants in what is an unavoidably repetitive exercise. This type of grid adaptation is fairly common within the varied applications of Kelly's technique (Fransella, 2005). As with Kelly's early role title repertory grids, 8 people ('elements' in Kelly's language) were used within each grid and these were determined by the researcher. The figures of trusted and distrusted coaches (*coach you trust, coach you don't trust*) were of primary interest but these elements were supplemented with four additional figures from the lives of participants, namely: *person you like, person you don't like, team mate you trust, team mate you don't trust*, along with the standard repertory grid elements of *actual self* and *ideal self*. As displayed in Figure 2, participants were able to enter a name or code to represent each person and these names or codes were subsequently generated in the screen presentation of each triad (for example participants were presented with the elements - *Dad*, *Bobby* and *David* rather than *Person you like, Team Mate you trust, Coach you trust*).

Construct elicitation

The triadic difference method for construct elicitation was employed, this entailed presenting a triad of elements (people) to the participant and asking participants to '*think of a way that one of the three is different from the other two*'. Once the participant had generated the distinguishing factor they were asked to write the 'opposite' of the factor – for example the opposite of *selfish* may have been *selfless*. In order to pre-empt any difficulties in generating truly bi-polar constructs a 'checker' was included in the computer program, this feature produced a 'pop up' button once the participant had generated the construct (before they rated the elements) which asked 'are you sure that people could lie somewhere between *selfish* (pole 1) and *selfless* (pole 2)?'.

A screen shot of the elicitation step shown in the demonstration is displayed in Figure 3. During the early demonstration screens the groups were shown an example of a construct (as is common in construct elicitation). In this case they were presented with a 'personally descriptive' rather than a 'factual' construct example since factual examples can raise the level of factual constructs elicited (Reeve, Owens and Neimeyer, 2002 and Neimeyer and Tolliver, 2002) and the aim of this grid was to elicit personal descriptors.

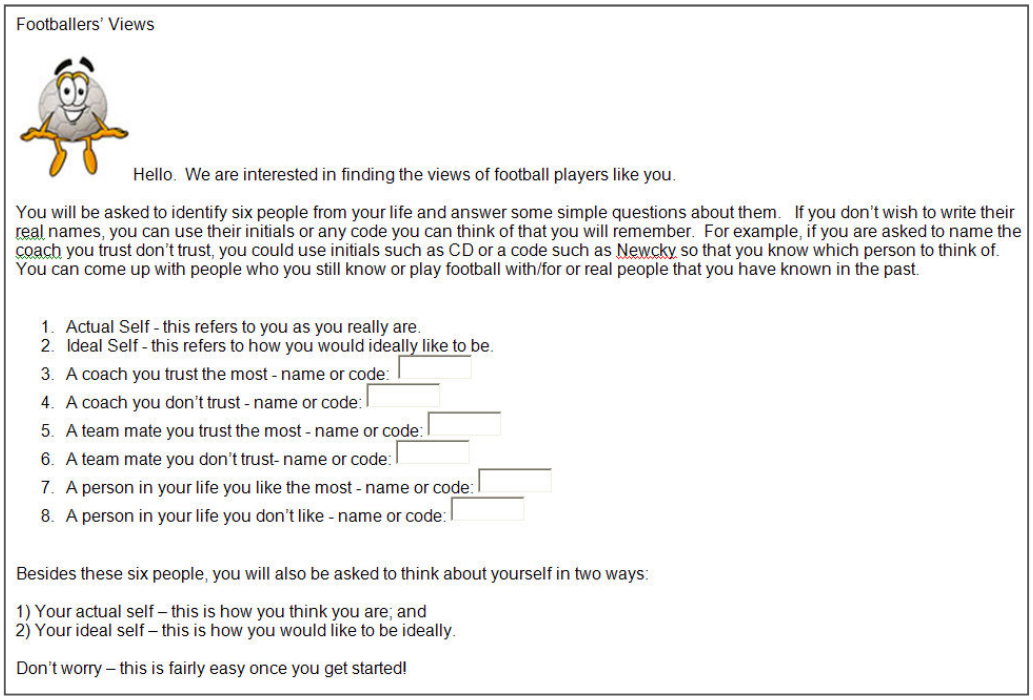


Figure 2. Screen shot of element generation screen

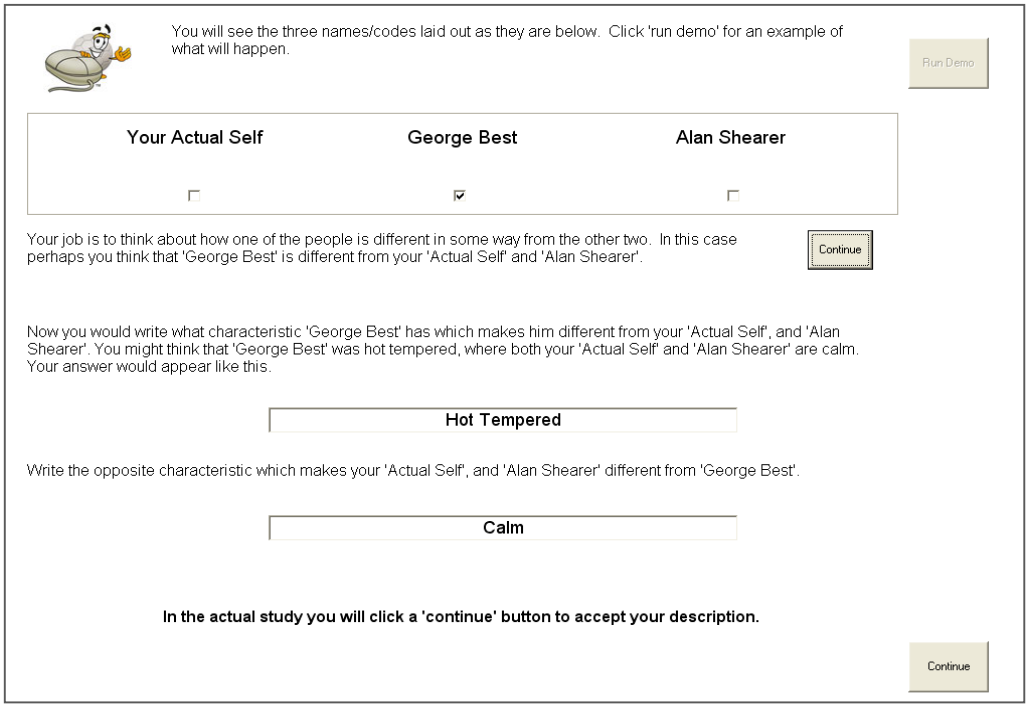


Figure 3. Screen shot of example triadic difference procedure

Next, participants were taken through an animated demonstration of the subsequent ratings process in order to ensure that they were familiar with every step and screen that would be presented (shown in Appendix 5).

Prescribed triads

In the grid the participant was presented with sets of 3 people from the prescribed role title list, these sets are known as 'triads'. Eight triads were designed to present the participants with contrasting sets of trusted/distrusted individuals. A trusted figure was included in every triad and trusted and distrusted coaches were directly compared in triad 2. The 8 pre-determined triads are detailed in table 3

Table 3. Eight pre-determined triads

Triad 1	Person you like – Team Mate you trust – Team Mate you don't trust
Triad 2	Coach you trust – Coach you don't trust – Team Mate you don't trust
Triad 3	Team Mate you don't trust – Coach you trust – Team Mate you trust
Triad 4	Person you like - Actual Self – Coach you trust
Triad 5	Actual Self - Ideal Self - Coach you trust
Triad 6	Coach you don't trust – Coach you trust - Ideal Self
Triad 7	Team Mate you trust – Coach you trust - Person you don't like
Triad 8	Actual Self - Person you don't like – Coach you don't trust

For each triad the participant generated a construct which differentiates one element (person) from the other two the elements (such as selfish-selfless) and rates each of the 3 people from the triad on a scale between selfish and selfless (where 1=selfish and 5=selfless) before rating each of the remaining five elements from the role title list. This process for construct elicitation and element rating was repeated with each of the 8 prescribed triads until each participant had completed an 8x8 grid.

4.2.2 Participants

Following ethical approval, twenty males (mean age 16.5, SD=0.51) from one Premier League academy and twenty-seven females (mean age 21.6, SD=5.19) players from two high level football clubs provided informed consent to take part in the study.

4.2.3 Procedure

Three sessions were organised to collect responses from each of the teams, the first women's team attended a session held in a private room (equipped with computers) at their training venue while the remaining women's, and the only men's team attended separate sessions in a private computer suite at the University of Northumbria. At the outset of every session the researcher assigned each participant a personal computer and then gave a short oral introduction to the task. As part of the introduction

participants were lead through the computer based demonstration of the procedure. This illustration included explanations on each crucial step of repertory grids: identifying individuals from the role title list, the presentation of triads and triadic difference technique, the concept of bi-polar constructs (including examples of constructs) and the process for rating those on the role title list against each construct.

During the demonstration players were able to follow each step and examples on their personal computer monitors as the researcher described in detail each of the steps involved in the procedure. Participants were encouraged to look carefully at the demonstration screens and to ask any questions they may have. Following the introduction each participant completed their own grid (without any time limit) while the researcher remained available to assist with any problems. In the two sessions at Northumbria University the teams completed the task in larger groups of 10-20 and so a second researcher was on hand to help respond to any queries. Once the participant had completed their grid they hit a 'save' key which captured the data from their grid in a standard txt. file.

4.2.4 Analysis

The study primarily sought to examine the construct terms generated by players to distinguish between trusted and distrusted figures in their lives. The Classification System for Personal Constructs (CSPC) developed by Feixas, Geldschlager and Neimeyer (2002) was employed to analyse the elicited constructs, the system was designed to improve upon the classification system offered by Landfield (1971) which had several disadvantages of use. The CSPC presents a method for coding constructs into 45 content categories, these originally included six basic areas: *moral*, *emotional*, *relational*, *personal*, *intellectual/operational* and *values/interests*. Two supplemental categories to the CSPC (existential and concrete descriptors) proposed by Neimeyer, Anderson and Stockton (2001) were also considered in this CSPC analysis resulting in a total of eight categories. Unlike the procedure recommended by Landfield, both construct poles are considered in the classification within the CSPC, this approach is in keeping with the essence of personal construct theory in acknowledging that each pole gives meaning to the other.

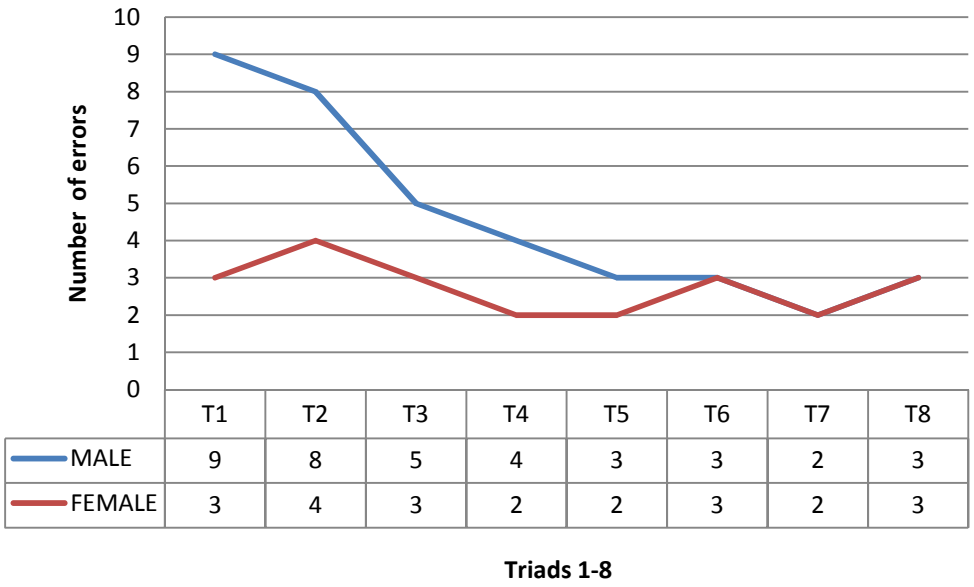
Prior to the coding, two judges were provided with a copy of the CSPC which includes a detailed and extensive account of how to employ it. Following a 3 step procedure for construct exclusion the judges familiarised themselves with the CSPC and then conducted an independent coding of the constructs. Subsequently the judges met to share classifications of coded constructs and agree consensus on any different construct allocations. Final classification of the constructs was only reached following separate and combined analysis by the two independent judges.

4.2.4.1 Exclusions

A total of 59 constructs were excluded from the first phase of analysis as they were deemed too difficult to assess systematically, judges were tasked with excluding such constructs on the basis of three criteria –

1. That the poles were a direct product of the role title (for example the difference between *A coach you trust* and 2 others was 'trust them more – trust them less')
2. That the terms provided were incorrect (in that they were not bipolar) or nonsensical (in that neither of the judges could accept the terms as bipolar). Examples included 'rough - approachable' and 'hot-tempered - enjoyable'.
3. That the participant had apparently mis-scored the construct, where a sensible construct was generated but scoring was nonsensical; for example where the construct was nice-nasty and the participant had scored *person you dislike* and *team mate you don't trust* at 1 (nice) while *person you like* and *team mate you trust* were scored at 5 (nasty). Clear errors such as these were infrequent.

A total of 18 constructs were excluded at first review by both judges based on exclusion rule 1. A further thirty-four constructs were removed based on exclusion rule 2 after the judges failed to reach a consensus on their inclusion, some of these tended to be less obvious errors, but were constructs that judges could not agree to include in the analysis since they weren't true bipolar constructs – such as 'calm – rational'. Finally, a total of 7 constructs were removed based on exclusion rule 3, these were identified as having clearly mis-scored poles – as with the example above where 'positive' figures were rated negatively and visa versa. Figure 4 illustrates the number of errors made by males and females on a triad by triad basis.



	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8
MALE	9	8	5	4	3	3	2	3
FEMALE	3	4	3	2	2	3	2	3

Figure 4. Male and Female errors per triad

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Hierarchical cluster analysis

Following these exclusions a hierarchical cluster analysis was performed on the remaining 317 construct ratings. Dendograms were utilised to display the clusters of elements, these are inferred from the distance of linkages between elements in the dendogram. Dendograms for all participants, female participants and male participants are displayed in Figures 5, 6 and 7.

The three dendograms revealed markedly similar clusters of elements for males and females. For all participants elements were clustered in two clear groups; 'positive' elements which were - ideal self *(IdealSel)*, actual self *(ActualSe)*, person you like *(PersonLi)*, coach you trust (*CoachT*) and team mate you trust (*TeammT),* and 'negative' elements which were - coach you don't trust *(CoachDT)*, team mate you don't trust (*TeammDT*) and person you don't like (*PersonDL*).

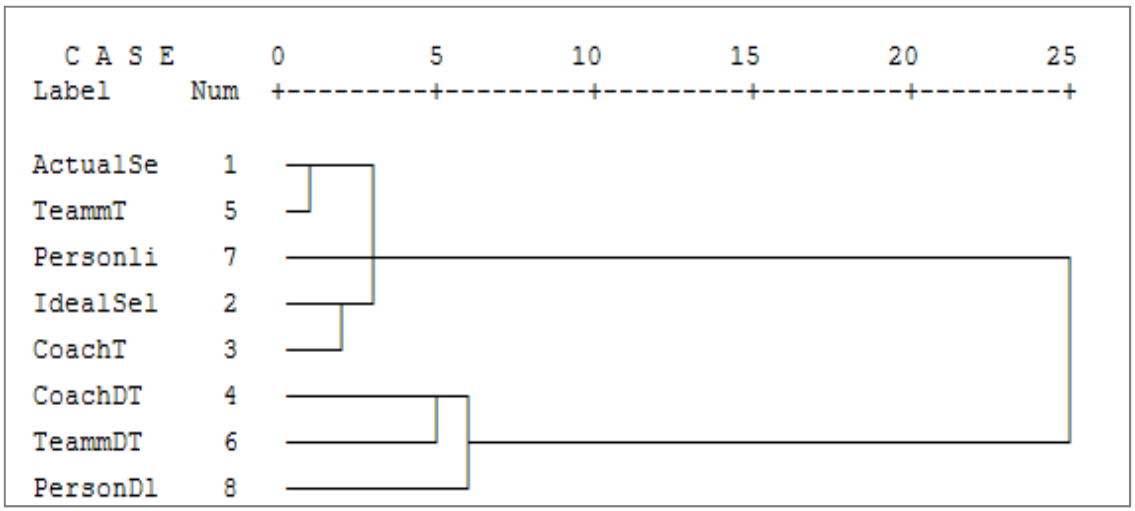


Figure 5. Cluster analysis for all participants

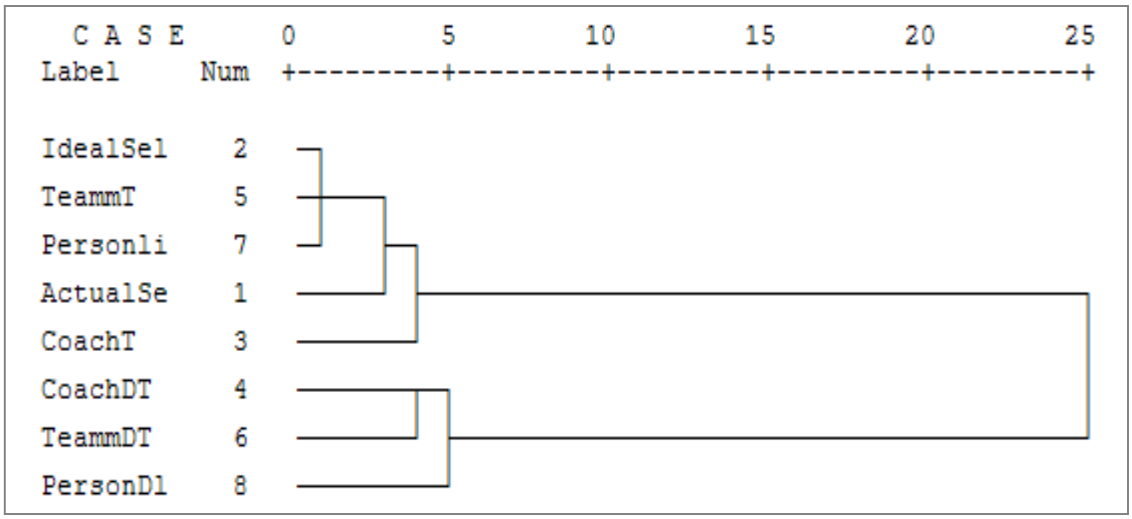


Figure 6. Cluster analysis for female participants

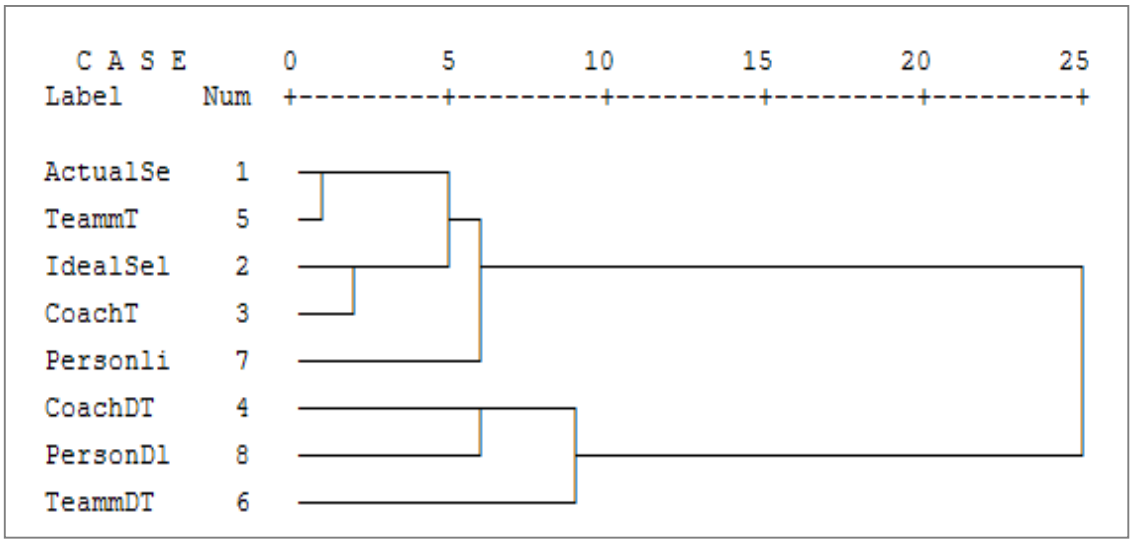


Figure 7. Cluster analysis for male participants

4.3.2 Principal components analysis

A principal components analysis aims to uncover shared construct dimensions among a group; an analysis of the combined data revealed one key component. Having achieved the Kaiser-Meyer-Olking measure of sampling adequacy (all participants= .891; females=.891; males = .856) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (all participants = 0.00; females= 0.00; males=0.00), data for all participants (and subsequently separate data for each gender group) was subject to a Varimax method which extracted all factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. The analysis of all participants determined only one underlying component, this had an eigenvalue of 4.22 and explained 52% of the total variance. Among the loadings the distinction between positive and negative elements was clear as *Coach you don't trust*, *Person you don't like* and *Team mate you don't trust* all produced negative loadings.

Table 4. Rotated component matrix (all participants)

Element	Component 1
Coach you trust	.686
Ideal Self	.844
Person you like	.775
Team mate you trust	.790
Coach you don't trust	-.655
Person you don't like	-.704
Actual Self	.718
Team mate you don't trust	-.616

Separate analysis of male and female data revealed only minor differences between the groups. For females, two components emerged, component one had an eigenvalue of

4.35 and explained 54% of the variance, component two only marginally achieved inclusion with an eigenvalue of 1.00 and explained 12% of the variance. The total explained variance provided by components 1 and 2 was 67%. For males, two components emerged, component one had an eigenvalue of 4.034 and accounted for 50% of the variance while component two only just achieved inclusion with an eigenvalue of 1.109 and explained 13% of variance. Cumulatively, the total explained variance provided by components 1 and 2 was 64%. The profile of male and female results was largely similar, but differed in the positioning of *Actual Self* and *Person you don't like.* Item loadings for males and females are listed in tables 5 and 6 and displayed graphically in Figures 8 and 9. Overall it is clear that little differences exist in the construct patterns of male and female footballers.

Table 5. Rotated component matrix (females)

Element	**Component**	
	1	**2**
Coach you trust	**.845**	
Ideal Self	**.806**	-.334
Person you like	**.741**	-.364
Team mate you trust	**.711**	-.430
Coach you don't trust		**.839**
Person you don't like		**.778**
Actual Self	.423	**-.648**
Team mate you don't trust	.-494	**.553**

Table 6. Rotated component matrix (males)

Element	**Component**	
	1	**2**
Coach you trust	**.696**	-.358
Ideal Self	**.814**	-.371
Person you like	.477	**-.588**
Team mate you trust	**.775**	-.162
Coach you don't trust	-.425	**.616**
Person you don't like	-.514	**.564**
Actual self	**.828**	.060
Team mate you don't trust	.126	**.827**

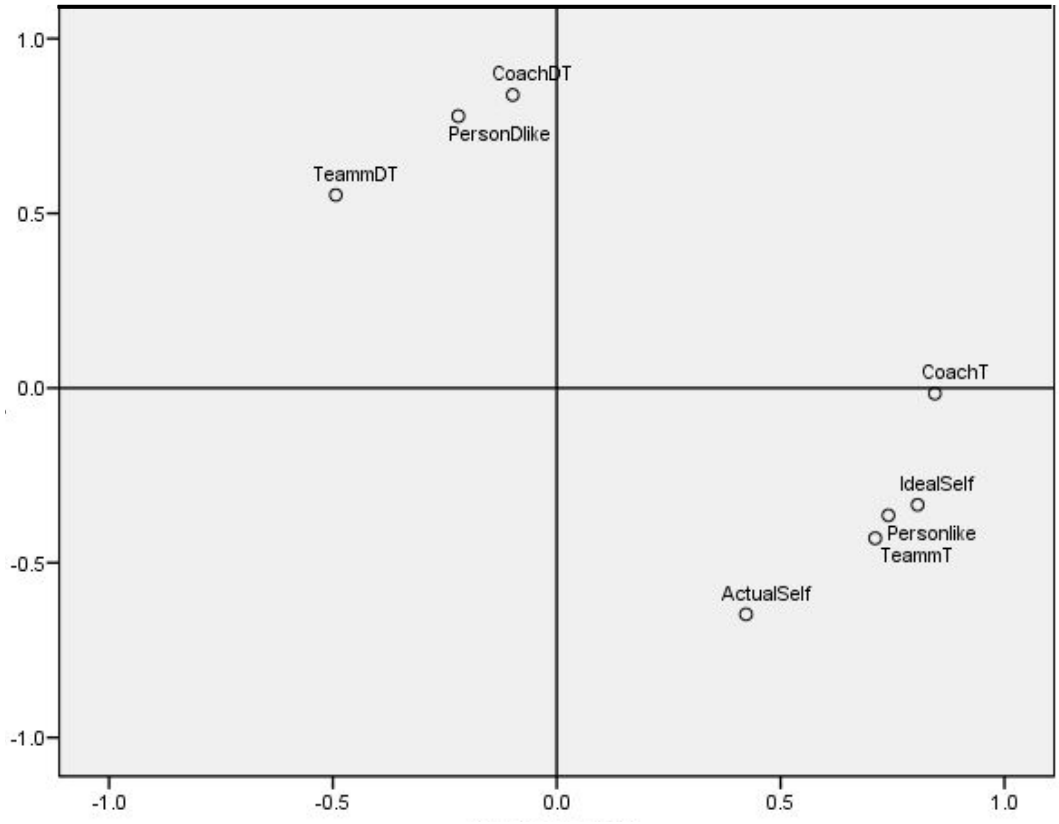


Figure 8. Component plot of elements (females)

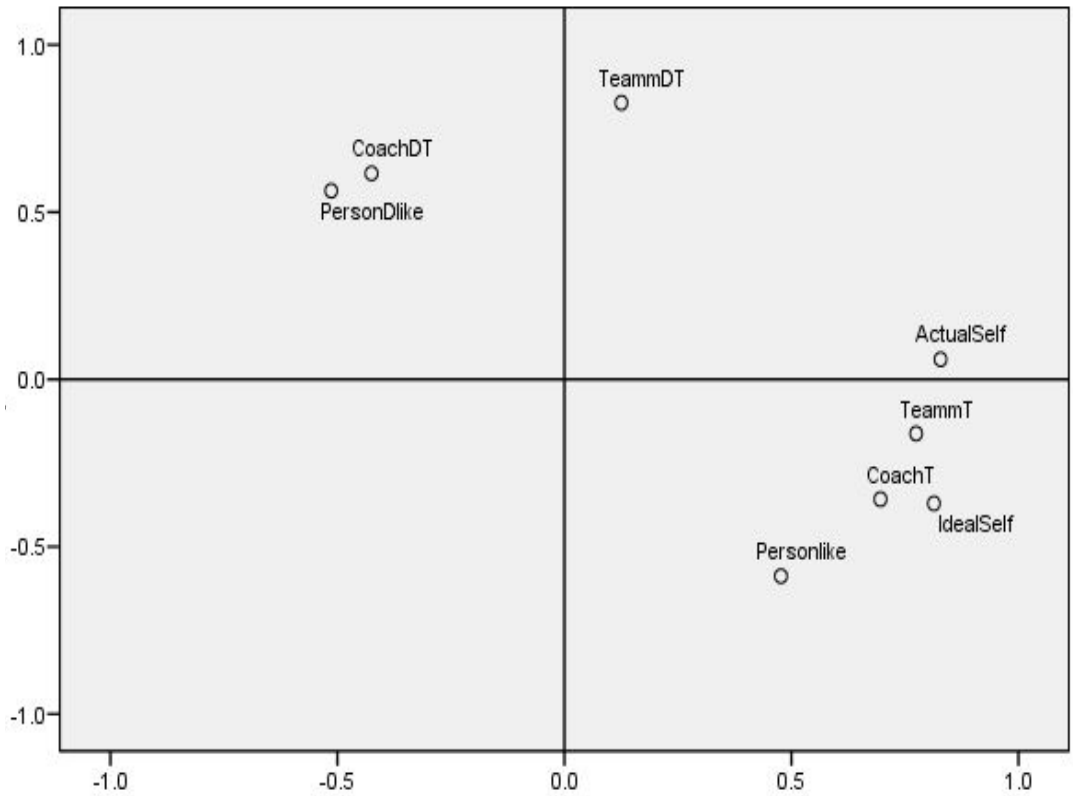


Figure 9. Component plot of elements (males)

4.3.3 Classification System for Personal Constructs (CSPC) analysis

Employment of the CSPC resulted in an extensive list of coded categories which may be viewed on the basis of category, triad and/or by gender. Table 7 demonstrates the allocation of constructs to categories, the gender split of responses in each category, and the level of agreement between the judges. As was found in the CSPC paper, the percentage level of agreement between judges on the CSPC was extremely high, the average percent of agreement reaching 92% (compared with the 87% observed in the Feixas study). This figure takes into account 2 categories containing just 3 personal constructs (*Area 6: values* and the additional category suggested by Neimeyer et al. – *Area 8: concrete descriptors*). When accounting for the 100% agreement in these categories, percentage of agreement for the remaining areas reached 89%. The lowest level of agreement was 76.5% found for area 5 'Intellectual/Operational' which remains 14.5% above the benchmark for acceptance set by Landfield and 9.8% above the lowest percentage agreement in the Feixas publication (66.7%). The high level of agreement may be explained by the concentration of constructs among particular sub-categories within the CSPC areas.

Table 7. CSPC category allocations

Category	Absolute total	% of total constructs	% of male constructs	% of female constructs	% of judges agreement
Area 1 : Moral	71	21%	17%	25%	97.1%
Area 2 : Emotional	59	18%	24%	18%	93.2%
Area 3: Relational	74	23%	22%	22%	90.5%
Area 4: Personal	66	20%	18%	12%	86.4%
Area 5: Int/Oper.	51	16%	19%	23%	76.5%
Area 6 :Values	2	0.6%	-	-	100%
Area 8: Concrete	1	0.3%	-	-	100%
Total	324				91.9%
Removed	52	-	-	-	

Each area within the CSPC contains a number of subcategories for content analysis. In order to illustrate the types of constructs allocated to particular areas example constructs from areas 1-6 are presented below, examples from areas 6 and 8 are not included since they represent less than 1% of the total elicited constructs and are not included in further analysis or discussions. Once again the largely similar patterns in male and female categories are evident.

Area 1- Moral

Moral constructs were predominantly related to 1F: sincere-insincere but also fell in to 1B: *altruist-egoist* and 1C: *proud-humble*. Examples from the data are provided below-

1F: *dishonest - honest*	1B: *considerate – inconsiderate*	1C: *over confident - humble*
1F: *underhand - open*	*1B: never tries to help – always helps*	1C: *cocky - modest*

Area 2 - Emotional

Emotional constructs fell largely in to three subcategories: 2A: *visceral-rational*, 2B: *warm-cold* and 2D: *balanced-unbalanced*. Examples from the data are provided below –

2A: *calm - short tempered*	2B: *insensitive - sensitive*	2D: highly strung - not highly strung
2A: *hot headed - calm*	2B: *sense of humour – no sense of humour*	2D: *erratic - calm*

Area 3 - Relational

Relational constructs fell almost exclusively in to two sub categories, 3B: *pleasant – unpleasant* and 3H: *sympathetic – unsympathetic*. Examples from the data are provided below –

3B: *pleasant – unpleasant*	3H: *easy to tell things to – not easy to tell things to*
3B: *annoying – not annoying*	3H: *patient - impatient*

Area 4 - Personal

Personal constructs fell predominantly in to three subcategories, 4C: *hardworking – lazy*, 4D: *disorganised-organised* and 4I: *self accepting – self criticism*. Examples from the data are provided below –

4C: *lazy – hard worker*	4D: *reliable - unreliable*	4I: *insecure - confident*
4C: *self determined – less determined*	4D: *organised - unorganised*	4I: *not self assured – self assured*

Area 5 – Intellectual/Operational

Intellectual/Operational constructs were allocated to two categories, 5B: *intelligent-dull* and 5O: *others*. Examples from the data are provided below –

5B: *wise-not wise* 5O: *doesn't encourage me – encourages me*

5B: *intelligent – unintelligent* 5O: *demoralising - encouraging*

While table 7 illustrates category distribution, Figures 10 and 11 graphically illustrate the distinctly similar pattern of construct categories employed by each gender.

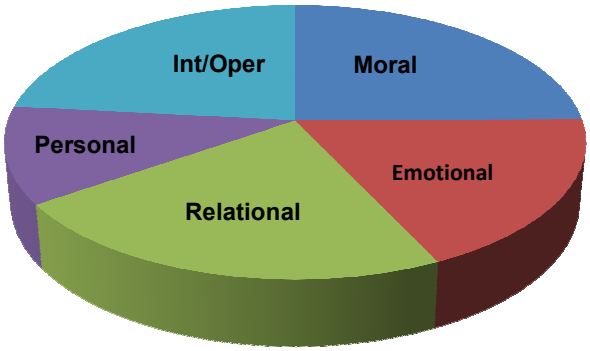


Figure 10. CSPC categories (females)

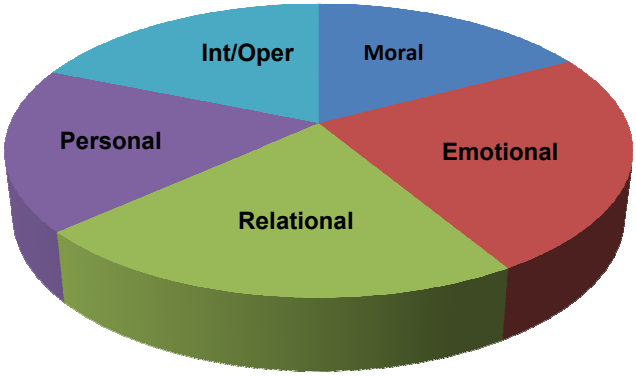


Figure 11. CSPC categories (males)

The CSPC system also permits an assessment of relevant subcategories within each of the 8 sections. Each of these subcategories is labelled with a letter and given a descriptive title; allocated frequencies per subcategory are displayed (separately for males and females) in table 8, larger contributors to each category are highlighted in bold text.

Table 8. CSPC sub-category frequencies by gender

Area	Larger Category	Male % frequency*	Female % frequency*
Area 1	**Moral**	**17**	**25**
1A	Good-bad	0	0
1B	Altruist-egoist	9.52	**22.00**
1C	Humble-proud	9.52	12.00
1D	Respectful-judgemental	4.76	0.00
1E	Faithful-unfaithful	0.00	4.00
1F	**Sincere-insincere**	**71.43**	**56.00**
1G	Just-unjust	4.76	4.00
1H	Responsible-irresponsible	0.00	0.00
1O	others	0.00	2.00
Area 2	**Emotional**	**21**	**17**
2A	**Visceral-rationale**	**26.92**	**27.27**
2B	**Warm-cold**	**23.08**	**30.30**
2C	Optimist-pessimist	0.00	6.06
2D	**Balanced-unbalanced**	**38.46**	**30.30**
2E	Specific emotions	11.54	6.06
2F	Sexuality	0.00	0.00
2O	Others	0.00	0.00
Area 3	**Relational**	**21**	**24**
3A	Extroverted-introverted	22.22	29.79
3B	**Pleasant-unpleasant**	**51.85**	**19.15**
3C	Direct-devious	0.00	2.13
3D	Tolerant-authoritarian	0.00	2.13
3E	Conformist-rebel	0.00	0.00
3F	Dependent-independent	3.70	0.00
3G	Peaceable-aggressive	3.70	4.26
3H	**Sympathetic-unsympathetic**	**14.81**	**38.30**
3I	Trusting-suspicious	0.00	0.00
3O	Others	3.70	4.26
Area 4	**Personal**	**20**	**21**
4A	Strong-weak	0	0
4B	Active-passive	0	0
4C	**Hardworking-lazy**	**24.00**	**14.63**
4D	**Organised-disorganised**	**40.00**	**21.95**
4E	Decisive-indecisive	0.00	17.07
4F	Flexible-rigid	4.00	4.88
4G	Thoughtful-shallow	0.00	4.88
4H	Mature-immature	16.00	7.32
4I	Self-acceptance-self criticism	12.00	**26.83**
4O	others	4.00	2.44
Area 5	**Intellectual/Operational**	**20**	**13**
5A	Capable-incapable	4.00	7.69
5B	**Intelligent-dull**	**36.00**	3.85
5C	Cultured-uncultured	32.00	30.77
5D	Focused-unfocussed	0.00	0.00
5E	Creative-not creative	8.00	7.69
5F	Specific abilities	8.00	7.69
5O	**others**	12.00	**42.31**

Table 8. CSPC sub-category frequencies by gender (continued)

Area 6	**Values and interests**	**0.5**	**0.5**
6A	Ideological values etc	0	1.00
6B	Specific values and interests	1.00	0
6O	others	0	0
Area 8	**Concrete**	**0.5**	**0**
8O	others	1.00	0

*% frequency figure represents the % of responses within area that fall within the sub-category

4.3.3.1 Triad specific assessments

Each triad required participants to repeatedly select an 'odd' or contrasting element from the three figures. Further exploration of the data revealed that a trusted figure was only selected as the prominent contrasting element in 50% of triads (triads 1, 2, 3 and 6). Although the content of personal constructs employed in the remaining triads remains pertinent to discussions of trust, a focus on categories elicited in triads where a trusted/untrusted figure was the contrasting pole ('trust triads') is most relevant. Figure 10 presents a comparison between 'trust triad' construct categories and remaining construct categories.

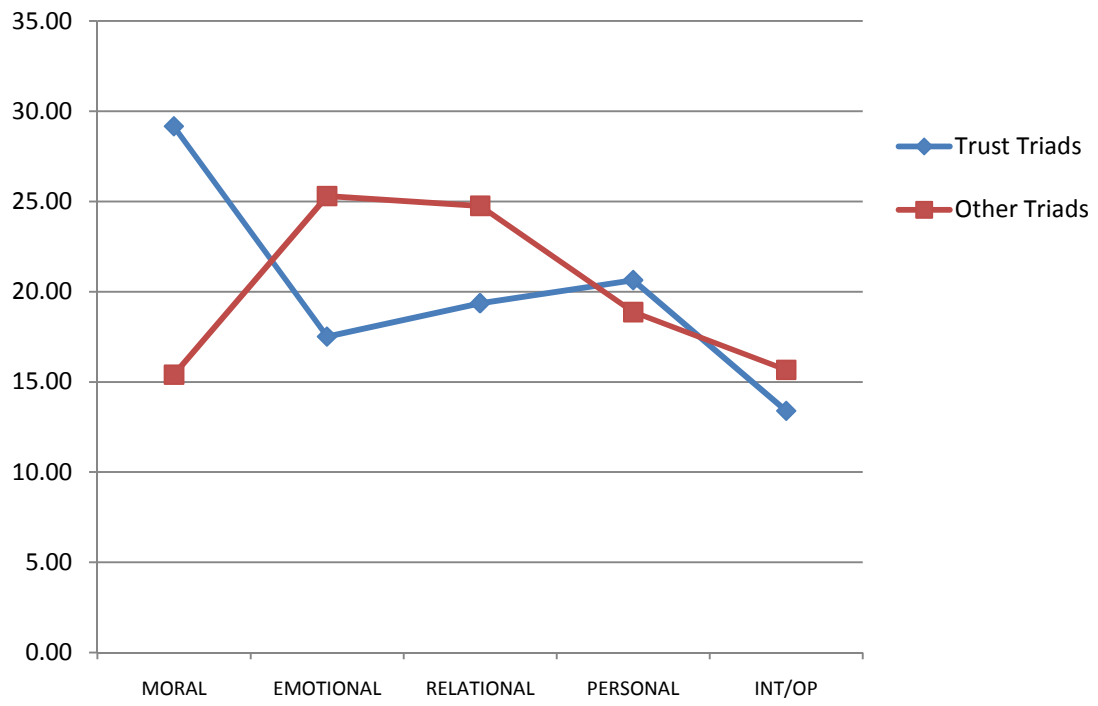


Figure 12. Category allocations among 'trust triads' and remaining triads.

Figure 12 does illustrate an increased focus on moral constructs and slightly less focus upon emotional and relational areas among trust triads.

4.4 Discussion

This project achieved its principal aims in extracting a player centred view of trust appraisals in the context of football, which extends that produced in Study 1. Results allow a comprehensive list of the key constructs employed by footballers in gauging trust and distrust; the most common constructs are explored in more detail below. An examination of gender differences at all levels was also conducted that revealed some useful findings in relation to self construal. Finally an exploration of 'liked' figures alongside trusted figures in the lives of footballers was conducted; correlation analysis confirmed the significant relationship between trusted and liked figures, but that trusting and liking are distinct constructs.

4.4.1 Cluster and principal component analysis

The principal components analysis produced some noteworthy findings regarding the underlying structure of trusted and un-trusted elements. Although minor differences were observed between male and female profiles, the general patterns for male and female footballers are strikingly similar. Given the depth and specificity of the current study, this finding demonstrates little or no gender differences in football players' constructions of trust. It is also useful to note that the profile for all participants shows both negative (untrusted) and positive (trusted) elements loading on the same factor. This result implies that trusted and untrusted figures are appraised on the same factors, but lie at opposite ends of such factor ratings.

Extensive descriptions of trust and distrust are presented by both Kramer (1999) and Lewicki, McAllister and Bies, (1998) and an informative discussion of the way that trust and distrust are incorporated in approaches to trust was forwarded by Lewicki, Tomlinson and Gillespie (2006). These authors discuss three perspectives – firstly the *unidimensional perspective* which views trust and distrust as opposite ends of the same continuum; secondly the *two-dimensional perspective* which accepts that trust and distrust may have the same components (cognition, affect and intentions) but views the two as separate dimensions (this view implies that a follower may feel simultaneous trust and distrust for a leader). The third perspective is labelled the *transformational perspective* (this was introduced earlier) and includes research which describes the way that very distinct forms of trust may develop over time. This developmental model continues to place trust and distrust as separate dimensions but places heavy emphasis on the development of different forms of trust over time. Examples of this approach include the three phase model of calculus-based trust, knowledge-based trust and identification-based trust forwarded by Lewicki and Bunker (1995, 1996). The findings of this study would imply that trust and distrust in football may exist on a continuum.

4.4.1.1 Clustering of self and trusted figures

As discussed in Chapter 1, Lewicki and Bunker (1996) maintained that the 'highest' form of trust is *identification based trust* (IBT) whereby people appraise trust in others based on how much they are like themselves. If the theory of IBT were to hold here then the figures of *coach you trust* and *team mate you trust* should correlate highly with *actual self*; however, findings in this study fail to lend full support to the operation of IBT in this setting. Although results confirm significant correlations between actual self and each of the trusted figures, these were not the highest correlations among elements. The component plots shown in Figures 8 and 9 also demonstrate that trusted figures are aligned more closely with ideal self than actual self. This finding suggests that participants see more similarity between trusted figures and the people they aspire to be than with their actual selves; one explanation of this among male participants is that they may see coaches as former professional footballers – exactly what they aspire to be. Females may not experience this inspiration in the same way since they are coached by males (in this case) and do not have a route into football as a career.

4.4.1.2 Gender differences and self construal

The work of researchers such as Cross and Maddison (1997) would suggest that women describe themselves and others in more relational terms than men.; examples of relational factors in terms of gender construal would include responses such as 'I am a sister' or 'I am a member of a team'. There was no evidence to suggest that females predominantly used such terms to describe themselves or others in the repertory grids in this study. Note that the CSPC area termed 'relational' is conceptualised quite differently from the meaning employed by Cross and Maddison; the CSPC area includes personal factors which are relational such as *extroverted-introverted* and *pleasant-unpleasant*.

Overall, the patterns of personal constructs employed by males and females in the current sample were fundamentally similar. This pattern is similar to that shown in research on close relationships; in that research Lavoi (2007) demonstrated that males and females were 'more similar than discrepant' (p.507) in their constructions of coach-athlete closeness. There is some support for a small degree of gender difference in the construal of particular elements and in types of constructs elicited. Although cluster analyses demonstrated similar distinct clusters of 'negative' figures (*distrusted coach*, *distrusted team mate* and *disliked person*) and the remaining 'positive' figures (*trusted coach, trusted team mate, person you like, actual self and ideal self* in both males and females, there were observable differences in the position of particular figures including '*actual self*' amongst the clusters. This is discernable in the component plots of elements shown in Figures 8 and 9, which demonstrate clearly different positioning of

actual self and *team mate you don't trust* for males and females. Figure 8 also demonstrates the tight grouping of *person you like*, *team mate you trust* and *ideal self* for females where these elements are dispersed more widely for males where *person you like* is placed away from other elements. This finding would imply a subtle difference in the way male and female players view themselves and others.

4.4.2 Application of CSPC coding system

The CSPC analysis permitted a comprehensive coding of construct poles; since the system presents such variety and detail there were very few constructs which the judges were unable to code within an existing area and category. Although the distribution of constructs was strong among five of the original six areas, the distribution among categories within each area was more concentrated than in the Feixas study. In the present research some sub categories were not coded at all, indicating the more limited range of constructs employed by players. This may be expected since the elements and triads in this study were pre-determined and participants so similar.

The application of a repertory grid technique and use of the CSPC for analysis has been effective in assessing the factors employed by football players in trust appraisals. Of 376 elicited constructs only 59 (15.6%) were not coded by the judges. The major advantage of this technique was that it included a larger sample of players whilst maintaining the person-centred focus of the data. Participants in this study provided a view of relevant factors which are labelled in their own terms, the rating grid forces a comparison with figures from their own realm of experience providing not only a description of real people, but an illustration of how people 'figure' in the lives of players.

In this study 99% of the constructs employed to discriminate between figures were categorised within five of the CSPC areas - *moral*, *emotional*, *relational*, *personal* and *intellectual/operational*. The five areas discussed here represent personal features of trusted/distrusted people and other figures rather than 'types' of trust built by players, for example players may employ constructs from moral and personal to gauge the integrity of the person – a cognition-based form of trust appraisal. Results from the CSPC permit an exploration of constructs in the wider context of understanding trust appraisals. In order to reduce the number of constructs included in this final evaluation a final rule of inclusion was employed; only those sub categories containing a minimum of 10 constructs were included. This resulted in the exclusion of 30% of constructs (total number of 96). The remaining 70% of constructs were assessed in relation to how they may explain the use of constructs in trust appraisals. The latter group may easily have been termed 'relational' constructs but this label was avoided given the use of relational as an area within the CSPC system itself.

As highlighted previously, although the distribution among areas 1-5 was fairly even, the distribution to subcategories within each area was more clustered. When subcategories are examined 'outside' of their area distinct groupings emerge which illuminate the basis of trust appraisals. Three groupings of constructs are clearly discernable from the results. These three enhance the view of both the types of constructs, and the manner in which they are employed. The three groups include constructs for gauging reliability of a person, constructs aimed at evaluating the personal characteristics of a person, and constructs designed to evaluate the quality of interactions with a person.

4.4.3 Gauging reliability

The concept of reliability is the foundation of cognition based trust; this and other similar terms such as 'dependability' appear frequently within organisational literature. Examples of football players' appraisals of reliability were observed in Study 1 –

> If somebody says things and then doesn't do them then you can't trust them obviously. (008F)

The very nature of the leader-follower relationship ensures a level of reliance on the manager, therefore the idea that constructs are used to predict reliability is certainly feasible. Within the CSPC a range of constructs emerged among the five areas which indicate assessments of 'reliability'. The reliability group are displayed in table 9.

Table 9. Group One: Reliability constructs

Group One: Reliability Constructs	
Sub-category	Description
1F Sincere-Insincere	The majority of constructs related to the perceived honesty or openness of the coach. Players used terms such as *honest*, *underhand*, *sneaky, open* and *sly* to label these constructs, the predominance of such constructs suggests that players attempt to gauge whether the words and actions of the coach can be relied upon.
2D Balanced–Unbalanced	Construct terms related to the emotional stability of a figure, participants placed a focus on terms such as – *erratic*, *highly strung,* and *calm*. The emotional volatility of the leader may impact upon followers, and so a prediction of the likely emotional state of leaders is another contributor to the concept of reliability.
4D Organised – Disorganised	This construct was related to straightforward terms such as *reliable*, *unreliable* and *organised* and represents the dependability of the leader to meet commitments.
4C Hardworking - Lazy	Characterised by construct terms such as *lazy*, *self determined* and *motivated* this section represents the prediction of the likely effort of a leader
5C Cultured - Uncultured	The Feixas description included 'educated' in this sub category and judges agreed on coding *experienced in football*, *inexperienced*, and *qualified* here. This judgement is about relying on the education and or knowledge of the person.

Further assessment demonstrated that the reliability constructs represented 34% of constructs employed among all triads and 42% of all constructs employed in trust triads.

4.4.4 Assessing personal characteristics

A second group was devised to encompass the constructs which evaluated basic characteristics of a person, but impact on neither reliability nor the quality of the interactions. Personal quality constructs represented 25% of all constructs employed and 31% of all constructs employed in trust triads. The characteristics group are displayed in table 10.

Table 10. Group Two: Characteristic Constructs

Group Two: Characteristic Constructs	
Sub-category	Description
2B Warm - Cold	Construct terms included *sense of humour*, *reserved* and *forthcoming* and represent an assessment of the personal characteristics of a figure
3A Extroverted-Introverted	A construct which is fairly self-explanatory included constructs such as *quiet* and *shy* and assessed how outgoing the person is
3B Pleasant – Unpleasant	Males placed greater emphasis on these relational constructs which included terms such as *annoying, boring, bubbly*, and *likeable.* Males employed this more superficial construct (within the relational area) far less for trusted triads and far more for triads concerned with themselves or people they liked/disliked.
4I Self accepting – Self critical	With a strong emphasis on construct poles such as *confident*, *high self esteem* and *insecure* the results suggest that females include ratings of confidence and esteem more highly than do males.
5B Intelligent – Not intelligent	Refers to the perceived intelligence of a person with poles such as *wise, foolish* and *clever*.

4.4.5 Interactions with others

A final group of constructs was recognised which encompassed those categories that may inform the quality or potential quality of interactions with another person. Interaction based constructs represent 11% of all constructs employed and 17% of constructs employed in trust triads. The constructs here evaluate factors which could impact highly on a person's sense of vulnerability in the relationship and so influence the prediction of trust. Notably, 83% of the interaction-based constructs were elicited from female players.

Table 11.Group Three: Interaction based constructs

Group Three: Interaction based constructs	
Sub-category	Description
1B Altruist - Egoist	The concept of benevolence vs. self interest is closely aligned with trust concepts, this category is employed to gauge whether the person may have your best interests at heart. Terms such as *helpful*, *selfish,* and *giving* were employed here. This category was employed far more readily by females than males.
3H Sympathetic - Unsympathetic	Again this was a category employed largely by female participants; emphasis was placed on construct terms such as *patient* and *impatient*.

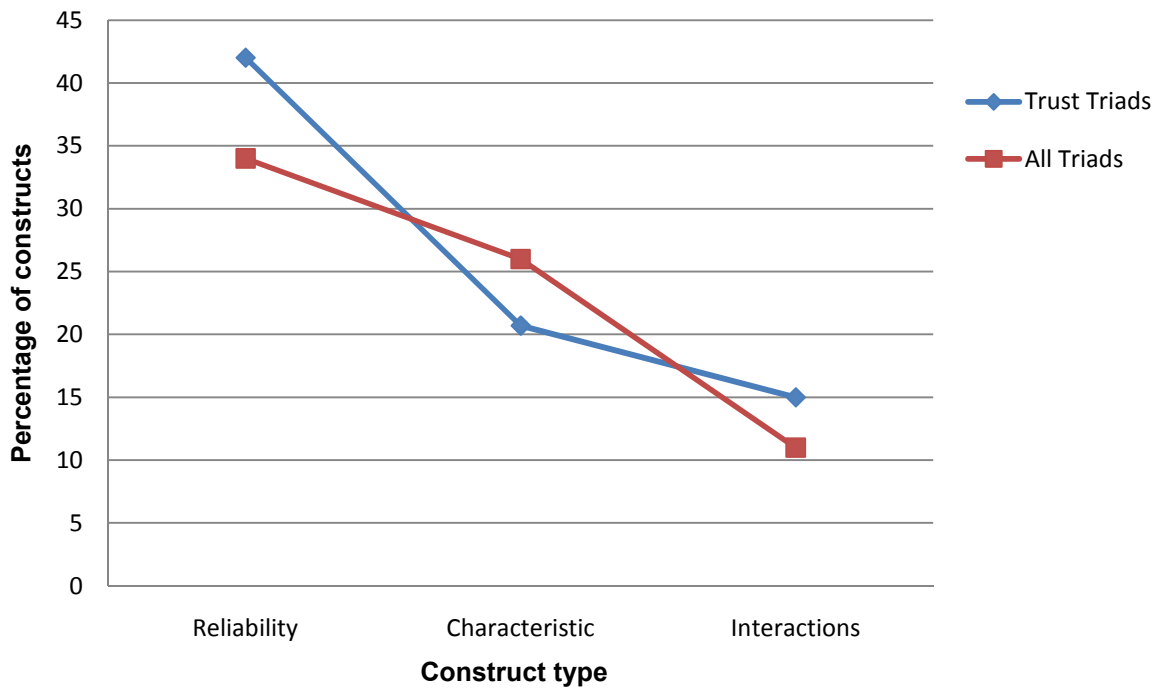


Figure 13. Three types of constructs employed by players

4.5 Conclusion and Limitations

The three groups of factors employed to predict the trustworthiness of people have a sound foundation in the constructs elicited from players and this provides greater validity for the proposed model. The three category groups account for 74% of the constructs employed in trust triads and serve to extend the understanding of trust in football which emerged from Study 1. The majority female use of interaction-based constructs was a noteworthy finding since male players in Study 1 had highlighted the importance of relationship factors. This study progresses the picture of trust appraisals since it employs 'real life' comparisons with figures in the lives of players rather than discussing

trust in more abstract terms; this data serves as a snap shot of real life trust appraisals. Study 2 also demonstrates a very similar pattern of constructs between males and females, despite the fact that they represent very different groups. This lends further support to the transferability of these findings.

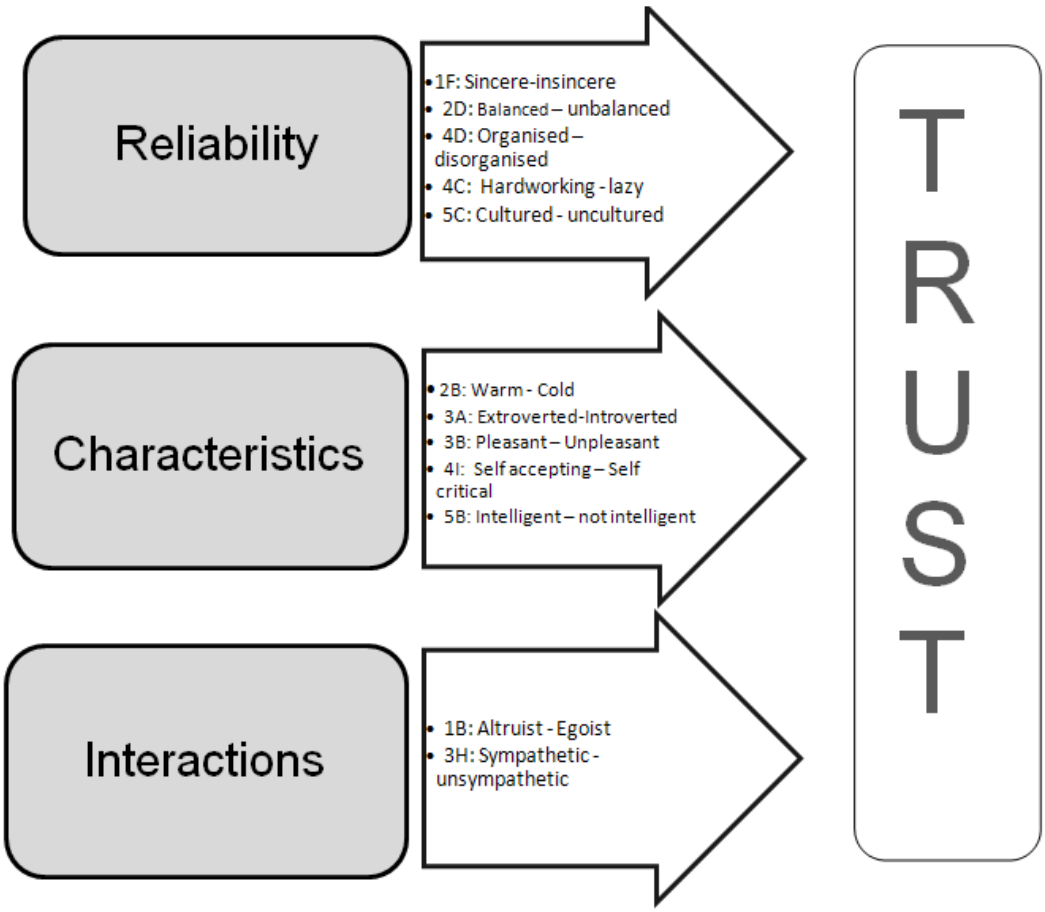


Figure 14. A model of personal constructs employed in trust appraisals

Figure 14 illustrates the three categories of personal constructs employed by players in this sample. Results from this study lend support to the idea that understanding of footballers' appraisals of trustworthiness may be achieved through a process of applying personal constructs. The CSPC allowed an analysis of construct poles which was reliable and based upon categories derived from personal constructs of figures. The predominance of constructs accounted for by reliability and personal characteristic constructs indicates that trust in football may be largely cognition-based rather than affect-based. Since affect-based trust has been observed in relationships in other settings, including organisational leadership, this raises particular questions about trust in the football environment. Results from the research thus far suggest that trust can be established from a variety of cognitive sources in the absence of relationship-based trust. Studies 1 and 2 have led to the production of in-depth empirical data on trust in

close leader-follower relations in football; the first such research as far as we are aware. These findings provide grounding for further research on trust in the football context.

4.5.1 Challenges of grid research

Despite the provision of a detailed guide to the procedure and the employment of a construct 'checker' pop up in the program, some participants still provided constructs which were not bi-polar. This was particularly true of the male participants whose errors totalled 23% of their overall responses; this result signals some of the inherent difficulties in employing repertory grids with young participants from this context. It is possible that males were more reticent about responding to questions about the topic of trust; indeed, Lavoi (2007) found that males were twice as likely not to respond in a study of closeness in the coach-athlete relationship. The number of errors declined as the test progressed and participants 'got the hang' of the process involved, a gender difference was observed though as female errors reached only 10%. Future studies may employ a number of 'test' trials within which participants generate bi-polar constructs on an unrelated topic. Differences in the level of errors between the male and female groups may also have been due to the age and/or educational level of the participants. The concept of constructs isn't one which is always readily understood and allowances should be made with respect to the educational level of participants; on reflection, conducting repertory grids individually (with the researcher on hand to provide feedback) would most certainly have eliminated a large number of errors but this type of involvement would also have undoubtedly inhibited the responses of participants.

Finally, caution is advised when providing construct examples for participants, in this case a personally descriptive example was provided in the demonstration screens. During the introduction of the program the construct *hot-headed – calm* was used to describe how one of the example elements differed from another two. Whilst the use of a personally descriptive example is still deemed acceptable it may have been wiser to include something which wasn't so plausible in the setting. A factor that leaders and indeed football managers are often judged on is their ability to control their emotions/tempers in pressured situations. As a result when a number of exact or very similar constructs to the 'hot-headed' example were elicited it was difficult to exclude them (since they are so plausible); however neither was it possible to rely entirely on the construct since it may not be truly 'personal'. The selection of examples in future research is certainly worthy of consideration.

Chapter Five: Study 3

5.1 Introduction

Studies 1 and 2 provided valuable insight into players' trust appraisals in football. While Study 1 suggested that evaluation of factors such as fairness, competence, honesty and experience were common in academy players, Study 2 employed the repertory grid tool to establish three overarching categories (reliability, character and interactions) of personal constructs employed by a wider range of football players. Results from each study suggest that players consider affective dimensions but make predominantly cognitive appraisals of trust within football, placing particular emphasis on the overall reliability and character of others. Whilst such research offers the first perspective of the operation of interpersonal trust in football settings, it cannot represent a comprehensive evaluation of all forms of trust in football leaders.

Trust involves an appraisal of another party followed by a decision to rely on that individual in the context of risk. In the case of the football players involved in studies 1 and 2, an appraisal of the leader may be based upon first-hand experience of the leader's character and a history of interaction with the leader. The depth and quality of the information which can accumulate over the course of a relationship may serve to reduce the player's perception of uncertainty. In addition, the player is able to exert some control over crucial outcomes such as performance through his/her effort and influence on the pitch. This additional control may serve to reduce the sense of vulnerability toward the leader; this was demonstrated in a comment from Study 1 –

> Once I'm on the pitch my manager would have nothing to do really with the way I play. It's to do with yourself, your future and the other players. I play for me. (Pilot professional player)

Another key follower of the football leader is the fan; in contrast to the player, the fan is unable to directly control or contribute to outcomes on the pitch (less control leads to greater vulnerability). Also, the fan typically has no direct experience of the leader upon which to base his/her appraisals (less experience and information leads to greater uncertainty). A key distinction between the fan and player could be made by comparing the importance of the outcome; this research contends that fans represent a group of followers with a sincere and vested interest in their team, who consider the outcomes associated with their teams to be highly important. A comparison of conditions in player-leader and fan-leader relations appears to suggest that football fans invest trust in the manager under conditions of risk which are comparable, although clearly different, than those accepted by the player.

The considerable impact of sport performances is supported by contemporary studies of sports fans that have, to date, examined behaviours, emotional responses, investments (financial and emotional), motives, attributions and attitudes (Wann et al., 2001). Findings demonstrate that the performance of a sports team can impact heavily upon the affective states and behavioural responses of fans. It is possible that being a fan of a particular team can become an integrated part of a fan's persona (Wolfson, Wakelin and Lewis, 2005). Highly identified fans are often characterised by a tendency to see performances as reflections of themselves (Wann et al., 2001) and displays of affective engagement with their team (such as arousal and pleasantness) are evident (Hillman et al., 2000). Such fans are seen to experience strong negative reactions from watching their team perform badly (Bernhardt et al., 1998; Wann, 1994).

Hirt et al., (1992) demonstrated that observing, or even simply hearing, of a poor performance by his/her team yielded a profound effect on a fan's mental state. Negative results led to pessimistic predictions not only of their team's future performance, but also those of the fan's own performance on a series of tasks. The results of the team thus impacted on the self esteem of the fan, enhancing or undermining expectations of themselves and affecting their mood. Banyard and Shevlin (2001) provided further evidence that association with a disappointing team could even have worrying implications for the mental health of fans; they found 'clinically significant' (p.67) psychological distress and post traumatic stress disorder among fans of English Premier League teams which had been relegated to a lower division.

Such results have also been found at international level. Schwarz et al., (1987) suggested that German residents 'personally' experienced the impact of team performances in the 1982 World Championships. A win from the national team produced positive effects on residents' sense of well being and satisfaction with work, whilst a subsequent poorer performance corresponded with a fall in those aspects of life. The findings lend support to the view that the outcomes of the national team may be of great consequence to fans. Football fans are a valid group of followers who experience uncertainty and vulnerability toward leaders and are affected by performances and outcomes of the team.

5.1.1 Trust in leaders

The recognised role of trust in leadership was discussed at length in Chapter 1. Studies supporting the relevance of trust in the leader-follower relationship have been both extensive and varied. Indeed, Dirks and Ferrin's (2002) meta-analysis confirms that trust has been frequently identified as an important component of the leader-follower relationship. Chapter 1 established that trust is openly integrated within contemporary models of effective leadership such as charismatic and transformational theories.

Proponents of these perspectives promote the idea that a leader may combine personal traits (such as charisma) with particular behaviours including articulating a vision and engaging in unconventional behaviour to elicit 'extraordinary' responses from followers.

Authors claim that a key ingredient in evoking these responses from followers is trust (Shamir, 1995; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999), and a number of empirical leadership studies have demonstrated the importance of trust as a mediator of leader behaviours and follower responses (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Schlechter and Strauss, 2008). Theorists suggest that characteristics and behaviours of the transformational leader combine to inspire trust from the follower, and it is this trust in the leader which effects changes in the attitudes and behaviours of the follower (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Pillai et al., 2003). The quality of the leader-follower relationship is emphasised in these models, suggesting that trust in such leaders goes beyond calculative forms.

Acknowledging the wider leadership literature (including charismatic and transformational approaches) and noting the frequently cited links between these areas and the topic of trust, Dirks (2000) emphasised the importance of trust in sporting contexts. His study of basketball teams established trust as both a determinant of team performance and a mediator of past and future team performances. Dirks focused on trust in situations where leaders and followers interacted in close proximity on a regular basis.

5.1.2 Trust in distant leaders

Another context where trust may be of relevance concerns leadership at a distance. Within wider organisational research the concepts of charisma, transformational leadership behaviours and trust in leadership have been examined not only in direct leader-follower relationships, but also in distant leadership. Some leaders are figureheads of an organisation, group or movement, in such cases the leader is relied upon and may be trusted, but is socially removed from followers. Findings from Yammarino (1994) and Shamir (1995) support the influence of charismatic/ transformational leaders even when they are operating at a distance.

Following explorations of distant leaders Shamir reported the unexpected finding that followers actually ascribed greater trust and confidence to remote than proximal leaders. It is possible that distance fosters idealised and illusory perceptions of leaders, whereas those in close proximity are inevitably more likely to be perceived as both human and fallible (Goffman, 1959). As highlighted earlier, the social distance which exists between distant leaders and remote followers such as football fans does not permit the customary trust assessment from the follower. Since there is no direct interpersonal

experience of the leader, the follower must appraise the leader's personal qualities and characteristics based on factors other than personal experience (Waldman and Yammarino, 1999; Gardner and Avolio, 1998).

Research by Pillai et al. (2003) in the context of a US Presidential election found that trust in the leader operated as a mediating variable between leadership perceptions and voting behaviour. US voters who rated leaders as transformational and charismatic, and developed trust in them accordingly, were subsequently motivated to vote for those candidates. Interestingly Pillai et al. employed a measure of identification-based trust in their study which, despite the distance, assessed a close feeling of empathy and affinity with the trustee. This surprising finding suggests that distant leaders can inspire affect-based forms of trust. In football settings, studies 1 and 2 demonstrated that players employ largely cognitive sources in trust appraisals; this suggests that fans (who have no real opportunity to build a relationship with the leader) may tend to employ similar cognitions in appraising trust.

A sporting equivalent of a business or political leader may be observed in the leadership of the English national football team. This role operates within an uncertain environment prone to rapid change (for example through the results and actions of rival competitors or the sudden injury of a key protagonist) and is as precarious as any within the political or organisational arena. In contrast with the complex and intricate evaluation of political leadership, the arena of competitive sport presents the football follower with a clear and quantifiable measure of performance for which to hold the leader accountable. A football fan invests their belief in the team and the leader, hoping that this team and this leader will achieve the goal of many fans (to win the competition), but the fan has little control over this. Given that situational conditions such as uncertainty and reliance impact greatly upon the operation of trust in any context (Dirks, 2000; McKnight, Cummings and Chervany, 1998; Lewicki, McAllister and Bies, 1998; Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995; Lewis and Weigert, 1985) elite sport may in fact present the richest possible examination of trust in distant transformational leaders. Indeed Avolio, Waldman and Yammarino (1991) assert that charismatic leaders are particularly effective in volatile or uncertain environments.

The considerable level of emotional investment made by fans may cause them to feel highly dependent upon and involved with the central team personnel affecting results. Perhaps the most important roles within any team sport are those of the manager and the captain of the team. The manager influences the performance of the team during the competition through the control of key factors such as team selection, match preparation, training methods, tactical decisions, match day substitutions, player relations, and motivation of players prior to and during competition. The captain is also

highly influential, expected to lead by example with skill, responsibility and mental toughness, make decisions as the game unfolds, and rally fellow teammates to maintain focus, effort and commitment. The England World Cup team in 2006 featured two controversial personalities who filled these roles.

The Swedish-born England football manager Sven-Göran Eriksson had held the post for over five years and had accumulated a respectable success record during his tenure (40 wins, 17 draws, 10 losses). However, at least partly due to tabloid-fuelled 'scandals' relating to both his personal and professional conduct, the Football Association took the unusual step of announcing that, after the World Cup competition, Eriksson would be leaving his role as England manager. The captain, David Beckham, was a high profile 'home grown' hero whose goal against Greece in 2001 had narrowly secured England's entry to the World Cup and led to such headlines as 'Brilliant Beckham averts Greek tragedy' (Mallam, 2001). Beckham had been a successful England captain since 2000 and had earned 89 caps for his country. However, just a few years earlier he had been vilified following his sending off during the 1998 World Cup, one headline reporting 'Ten heroic lions, one stupid boy' (Armstrong, 1998), while another national newspaper labelled Beckham's actions a 'betrayal of trust' (Hughes, 1998). Such emotive comments were accompanied by infamous images of a Beckham effigy hanging from a London lamp post.

5.1.3 Aims of Study 3

Given the importance of the World Cup to England fans, the distanced nature of their experience of these critical leaders, and the uncertainty of sporting competitions at the highest level, the 2006 football World Cup presented an unusual and appropriate context for the study of trust and leadership. The present study aimed –

i) To examine fans' ratings of trust in two distant sports leaders, the England manager and captain.
ii) To track levels of trust across key points of the World Cup competition, and analyse fans' explanations of trust ratings.

5.2 Method

5.2.1 Participants

Following ethical approval for the study, participants were recruited through England football fan websites. A total of 450 fans completed all of the first (*baseline*) survey, while 185 and 113 of these progressed to complete all items in the second (*progression*) and third (*exit*) surveys respectively. The mean age of respondents from all surveys was 29.45 and included the following gender ratio (percentage males/females) – baseline stage 67/33; progression stage 60/40; exit stage 62/38). An informed consent

form was integrated at the start of the survey. Email and/or IP addresses of participants were recorded alongside participants' responses in order to identify any multiple submissions; there were no multiple submissions of completed surveys at any stage of the research.

5.2.2 Materials

In consideration of the issues involved in accessing England fans at crucial stages of the competition, three internet surveys were developed specifically for this study. Web-based research has been successfully utilised in similar research (Joinson, 2000; Wolfson, Wakelin and Lewis, 2005) and was ideal for accessing participants dispersed across the country. As discussed in Chapter 2, the advantages of web based research are well documented (Hewson, 2003) and include lower costs (both time and financial), access to more specific and far greater numbers of participants, relative participant anonymity and thus the likelihood of more candid responses (Joinson, 1999; 2001). A potential bias in sampling from the 'internet proficient' has been seen as a disadvantage of web based research, but access to the internet has increased markedly in recent years.

The three surveys were constructed in order to monitor assessments of trust in Sven-Göran Eriksson and David Beckham (hereafter referred to as SGE and DB) at three key stages of the World Cup competition. Since no established scale for trust in sport leaders exists (and organisational measures were too lengthy and peripheral to be practical) a simple Likert rating scale was employed in each survey to track levels of trust where 1 represented no trust and 7 total trust –

> '*How much do you trust Eriksson as England manager*?'

Fans' reasons for awarding a particular level of trust were collected in each survey using open-ended responses to '*the reason I feel I can/cannot trust (SGE/DB) is-*'. Open-ended responses were crucial to the aims of the study since they accompanied each trust rating and permitted fans to provide detailed explanations of reasons to trust/not trust the leader, thereby allowing comparative evaluation of levels of trust and factors employed in trust.

While the trust ratings were included in each survey, a small additional section which centred upon SGE was included in the baseline survey, since SGE was the principal leader of the group with an autonomous decision making role. Fans were asked to rate the influence of seven factors on the trust they had in SGE. The factors were: the way that players talk about SGE, SGE's record as England manager, SGE's record as a club manager, the impression SGE gives in interviews, key decisions made by SGE, events

in SGEs personal life and what you have seen (or read in the press) about SGE's personal conduct. Items were worded as follows:

> *'In what way do you think that (FACTOR 1-7) influences the trust you have in him?'*

Responses were made on a 1-7 scale where 1 represented a negative influence, 4 was labelled 'no influence' and 7 represented a positive influence. In this section fans were also asked to rate two additional factors - first, their desire for SGE to stay on as England manager (had he not resigned) -

> '*How much would you have liked to see Eriksson stay on as England manager after the World Cup*?'

Next, fans evaluated their perception of the trust that players had in SGE:

> '*How much do you think that the England players trust Eriksson*?'

In both instances responses were provided on a 7-point Likert scale rated from 1 (no trust) to 7 (total trust).

Following the format of Wolfson, Wakelin and Lewis (2005), the opening page was entitled "Football fans project – World Cup 2006". A contact email address for queries about the project was provided at the start of the form. The information stated:

> The purpose of this project is to gather the opinions of England fans before, during and after the 2006 World Cup tournament. This questionnaire is the first in a series of three. Participants who complete all three in the series will be entered in to a prize draw to win club shop vouchers for a team of their choice (£50 first prize, £25 second prize, £10 third prize). We will contact you when the next two questionnaires are ready if you leave your email address below. We do hope that you will contribute your views. Your answers are confidential and anonymous, although your email address is required for us to send out the next two questionnaires (and to provide you with a summary if you request it), each identity will be converted to a code following the final questionnaire.
> Your email address will not be given to any other source, nor will it be used for any other purpose. You have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and may do so by request to the email address provided.

5.2.3 Procedure

In the first instance the researcher contacted ten England supporter websites detailing the aims of the project and seeking permission to place a link to the questionnaire on the site. Six websites responded and agreed to place the link on their site. The link was preceded by a brief explanatory note describing the project and inviting England fans to

take part. A further 20 invitations and links were placed (with permission) on discussion forums of football club fan sites related to Premier and Championship league clubs.

The *baseline survey* was made available for 10 days preceding the first game of the group stage. The most extensive of the series, this assessed demographic information, perceptions of fans' expectations in relation to outcomes and management personnel, and perceptions of factors which influenced their trust. Pertinent items from the Sport Fan Identification Scale (Wann and Branscombe, 1993) were also included. The majority of items either used a 7-point Likert scale or were open-ended. Fans who expressed an interest at the baseline stage were sent links to the next surveys directly via email. The two subsequent surveys were far shorter and focussed primarily on monitoring ratings of and reasons for trust. The *progression survey* was made available within hours after England's successful progress from the group stages until the knock out stages (a period of 5 days) and the *exit survey* was available within hours following the defeat of the England team and for a further two weeks.

5.2.4 Qualitative analysis procedure

The analysis of reasons for trusting/not trusting adopted an approach which included both inductive and deductive elements (see Hays et al., 2007). Fans first rated their levels of trust on the given scale and responded to proposed potential influences on a further scale (deductive). Subsequently fans expanded on the reasons why they trusted/didn't trust the leaders in open ended response items (inductive). A process similar to that used by Greenleaf, Gould and Diffenbach (2001) was implemented to examine the open ended responses. In the final section of analysis fans' reasons for trusting and not trusting were separated and labelled as trust 'builders' and 'busters.'

Firstly the lead researcher and two independent researchers (who were experienced in content analysis but unfamiliar with literature on trust itself) conducted separate content analyses of the raw data 'meaning units' (aspects of the open responses from baseline) in order to generate initial themes emerging within the topic. Each theme and unit was allocated into one of four groups - reason to trust SGE; reason to trust DB (trust builders) and reason not to trust SGE; reason not to trust DB (trust busters), based on the related response item.

Subsequently, all three researchers worked collaboratively on the data from the baseline, progression and exit surveys so that each meaning unit was either coded into an existing theme or highlighted as distinct. Where distinct themes arose, or where there was disagreement (though this was infrequent, occurring in only 4 instances) the researchers engaged in discussion until reaching a consensus on the unit or theme before continuing. This process continued until the researchers achieved saturation and

were unable to determine any new themes for the data. The researchers then brought together the themes and discussed them in order to avoid any individual coder bias (Côté et al., 1993).

At this juncture a final process of coding was employed whereby the researchers met to discuss the themes again and to establish agreed higher order categories for the identified themes. For example the themes of passion, integrity and honesty were all encompassed by the category – 'Personal characteristics'. This final process represented the 'consensual validation' described by Greenleaf, Gould and Dieffenbach (2001).

The analysis process was detailed but achievable as the meaning units tended to be clear to the coders and often left no room for ambiguity; for example, hundreds of comments were simply a few words such as '*because of his poor selections'* or '*as he shows no passion from the sideline'*. In instances where multiple reasons were identified, the coders allocated each reason to a theme; for example, if a fan accompanied a negative rating of SGE with the comment '*because of his poor selections and as he shows no passion from the sideline*' this would result in two meaning units, the first coded under the theme of 'selections' and appear under the category of 'actions/behaviours' and the second coded under the theme of 'passion' and feature within the category 'personal characteristics'. The inter-rater reliability statistics of the coders were not computed since the group's primary objective was to establish a set of clear categories used by fans in positive and negative trust appraisals rather than to determine its own ability to identify common themes (Greenleaf, Gould and Diffenbach 2001). The aim was to identify a comprehensive list of the principal considerations (themes) for fans making a trust appraisal. For inclusion in the final analysis, each category had to represent at least 2% of the responses in the sector.

5.3 Results and Discussion

5.3.1 Expectations

At baseline fans were asked to predict the likely outcome for the England team. 80% of fans felt that England would reach the semi-finals, and 19% thought they would win the World Cup. Fans also indicated the stage of competition that England would have to reach for their performance to be deemed 'successful'. 38% chose winning the tournament; 19% losing finalists; 39% semi finalists and just 4% quarter finalists (the eventual outcome for England). Therefore 99% of fans surveyed expected England to progress further than they did and 96% did not consider England's outcome successful, a fact which influences the evaluation of outcomes.

5.3.2 Levels of trust

A 2x3 repeated measures ANOVA varying stage (baseline, progression and exit) and leader (SGE and DB) revealed that DB (M=4.46, SD= 1.59) was rated significantly more trustworthy than SGE **(**M=3.19, SD=1.41**)** (*F* (1,112) = 93.29, p=<.001, partial η^2 = .45). A significant main effect for stage of competition was found (*F* (1.86, 209.16) = 66.71, p=<.001, partial η^2 =.37). Post hoc Tukey analyses revealed significantly lower trust at exit (M= 3.22, SD=1.42) than at baseline (M=4.19, SD=1.53) or progression (M=4.08, SD=1.56). No significant interaction between leader and stage of competition was found (see Figure 15).

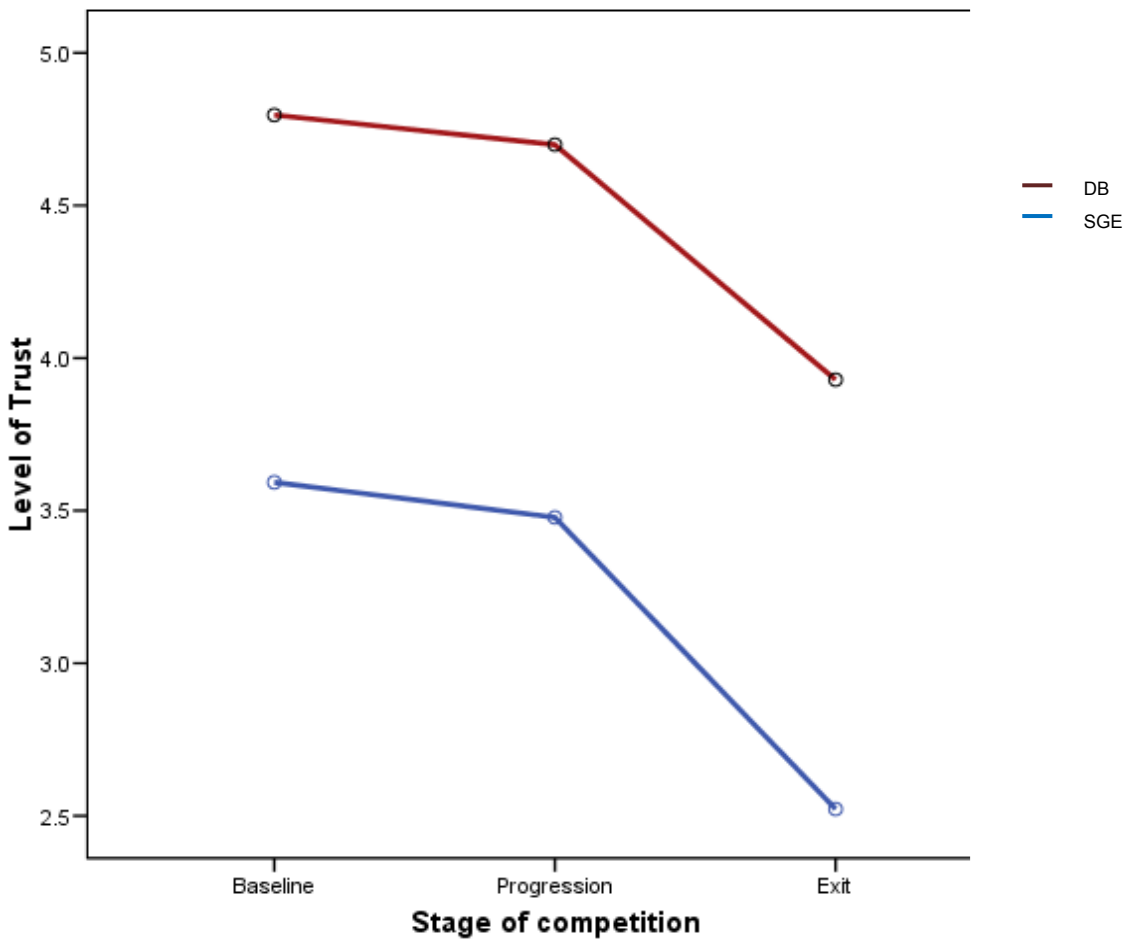


Figure 15. Levels of fan trust in SGE and DB over the WC competition 2006

The significant decrease in trust by the end of the competition, though perhaps unsurprising, suggests that trust in football leaders is contingent on performance outcomes and is thus temporary and unstable. The finding supports the recommendation that 'snap-shot' measures of trust may be limited and even misleading (Lewicki, Tomlinson and Gillespie, 2006), and that repeated measures designs are likely to be more illuminating.

5.3.3 Trust, perceptions of player trust and desire for SGE to remain

Correlations between fans' trust in SGE with their desire for him to remain England manager and their perceptions of players' trust in SGE were analysed. Pearson correlations for each stage indicated significant relationships (baseline, r =.67, p=<.001, progression, r =.70, p =0.00; exit, r =.69, p=<.001) between fans' trust and their desire for SGE to remain manager. This finding is consistent with the suggestion that trust was related to intention to vote in political voters (Pillai et al., 2003). In addition, correlations between fans' own trust and their perceptions of players' trust in SGE were similarly significant (baseline r=.55, p =<.001; progression r = .49, p=<.001; exit r =.57, p=<.001). This finding implies an association of fans' trust with the views of significant others and may suggest that (in the absence of a personal relationship with the leader) fans use their perceptions of players' trust as a source of information in appraisals.

5.3.4 Influences on the trust appraisal

At baseline fans reviewed a list of seven potentially influential factors; ratings of the perceived influence of these factors on trust in SGE are displayed in table 1.

Table 12. Perceived influence of 7 factors on trust in SGE at baseline

Influence	Mean Rating	SD
The way that the players talk about SGE	4.8	1.25
SGE record as England manager	4.6	1.57
SGE record as a club manager	4.4	1.10
Impression that SGE gives in interviews	3.9	1.28
Key decisions of SGE	3.6	1.70
Events in SGE personal life	3.2	1.18
What you have seen (or read in the press) about SGE's professional conduct	3.2	1.24

The average scores represented noncommittal responses, ranging between 3.2 and 4.8 on 7-point scales. This finding is surprising given that many of the options presented in the scales were strongly akin to those which later emerged strongly in qualitative responses. For example 'key decisions of SGE' and 'events in SGE's personal life' were each awarded an average rating of 3.2 (where the theoretically neutral point was 4), but references to such aspects appeared frequently when fans expanded on why they did not trust SGE. It is possible that fans were unwilling to commit themselves to extreme

responses to the prescribed scale items, whereas the opportunity to give more personalised and precise explanations served to draw out specific influences where the scales did not. This would support recommendations for the inclusion of qualitative methods in both fan and trust research (Jones, 2000; Conger and Kanungo, 1998). The specific reasons for the decline in fans' trust are best revealed in their open-ended responses.

5.3.5 Categorisation of open ended responses

Over the duration of the WC competition fans provided a total of 1154 separate distinguishable comments regarding why they did/didn't trust a leader. The result of the subsequent analysis is a list of discriminatory categories (4 for 'trust builders' and 5 for 'trust busters') which incorporated a total of 43 themes employed by fans. The nine categories represent 98% of the reasons cited by fans making trust appraisals of SGE and DB. As is evident on inspection of the frequency of meaning units shown in Table 13, some categories were used more predominantly for SGE than DB, and some were used exclusively as trust busters or builders rather than for both aspects. It is also helpful to note the number of meaning units produced in relation to particular categories at each stage of the competition as trust in the pair declined.

Interestingly, although DB was consistently rated as more trustworthy than SGE, the decline in fans' trust of the pair fell at the same rate when England failed to reach the semi-finals. The qualitative methodology allowed the specific details underlying these changes to emerge, best illustrated by the rise in fans' references to outcomes and performance at the exit stage. Since the team had underperformed in relation to fans' expectations, it is clear that the competence of both leaders may have been called into question. This association with performance outcomes is in keeping with claims within the literature concerning assessments of charismatic and distant leaders (Bryman, 1992; Shamir, 1995) and theories of trust which include appraisals of leader ability (Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). Fans' reasons for awarding trust (trust builders) and for withholding trust (trust busters) are presented below table 13. For each category the total number of meaning units is highlighted along with a breakdown based on stage (baseline/progression/exit). All nine categories are described and discussed in relation to relevant theory from the literature; verbatim quotes from fans are employed to provide an insight in to the trust appraisals made by fans.

Table 13 - Categories utilised by fans making positive trust appraisals – trust 'builders' and negative trust appraisals 'trust 'busters'

Trust Builders							Trust Busters						
	Meaning units SGE			Meaning units DB				Meaning units SGE			Meaning units DB		
Category	Baseline	Progression	Exit	Baseline	Progression	Exit	Category	Baseline	Progression	Exit	Baseline	Progression	Exit
External influences Total= 107 SGE=43 DB=64	14.9% N=16	16.8% N=18	8.4% N=9	22.4% N=24	30.8% N=33	6.5% N=7	**Situational factors** Total= 79 SGE=49 DB=30	27.8% N=22	21.5% N=17	12.6% N=10	17.7% N=14	17.7% N=14	2.5% N=2
Outcome assessment Total= 21 SGE=9 DB=12	42.8% N=9	-	-	23.8% N=5	-	33.3% N=7	**Outcome assessment** Total=70 SGE=70 DB=0	17.1% N=12	20% N=14	62.8% N=44	-	-	-
Leader attributes Total = 197 SGE=26 DB=171	4.6% N=9	5.6% N=11	3% N=6	32% N=64	35% N=69	19% N=38	**Leader attributes** Total= 136 SGE=136 DB=0	38.2% N=52	27.2% N=37	34.5% N=47	-	-	-
Football related Actions/Behaviours Total= 110 SGE=15 DB=95	6.3% N=7	7.2% N=8	-	13.6% N=15	42.7% N=47	30% N=33	**Football related Actions/Behaviours** Total= 398 SGE=324 DB=74	13.5 N=54	27.3% N= 109	40.4% N=161	4% N=16	5.7% N=23	8.7% N=35
							Actions/Behaviours (non football related) Total= 36 SGE=31 DB=5	55.5% N=20	30.5% N=11	-	13.7% N=5	-	-

The following discussion begins with two similar categories *external influences* and *situational factors* which feature in the respective trust building and trust busting sections. The trust building *external influences* category contained references to external issues which may not require a detailed appraisal; these included statements of fact such as 'manager was appointed by the FA', or 'the leader has much previous experience'. The trust busting *situational factors* category was also broadly concerned with external issues, but the distinction here was that these tended to be transitory in nature, or specific to that moment in time. Category themes therein included the influence of specific press stories, or a current preference for another team member as leader (in the case of DB). While themes in each category tend to reference issues 'outside' of the leader, the two categories are subtly different.

Next in the discussion is the *outcome assessment* category which was employed by fans in both trust building and trust busting appraisals; themes within this category revolved around factors which were suited to more extensive appraisal by the fan such as results or evaluations of team and leader performances. The subsequent category, *leader attributes*, also featured in both trust building and trust busting appraisals. Themes in this category revolved around personal characteristics of the leaders; areas of focus included integrity, passion, good intentions, lack of charisma and self-interest. The penultimate category, *football related actions/behaviours,* was employed in both trust busting and trust building appraisals. Accounting for 44% of all responses, the

contribution of this category was significant. Trust building appraisals included a focus on style of management and relationships with players; within trust busting appraisals integral aspects of the football manager's role such as selections and tactics were critically reviewed by fans. The final category, *non football related actions/behaviours*, featured only among trust busting appraisals and concerned specific personal actions; these included views on the personal conduct of either leader and the commercial side of DB's career.

Category: External influences – total 107 (40/51/16)

Trust building themes: *FA appointed, leader respected (by fans and players), leader experienced in the role, and one emerging theme which essentially asked 'why not trust him'?*

There were 107 trust building references to factors which exist 'outside' the leader. For example the theme of '*why not trust him*?' emerged in comments such as this - '*(SGE) I have no reason not to trust him in his role'.* This theme was relatively minor (7 meaning units) but relates to suggestions within earlier studies that a level of presumptive trust exists in football. Although contemporary studies place greater influence on other factors (such as trustee characteristics) the role of this propensity to trust is acknowledged as small but significant (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). Given their distant relationship with each figure, fans were unable to assess all aspects of the leaders; as a result there was some evidence that their appraisals were influenced by the evaluations of others. This is illustrated by references to the players' views of each leader and faith placed in the FA who had appointed the manager, another example of institution-based trust (as observed in Study 1) -

> (SGE) He is the manager and if he wasn't trustworthy he wouldn't have the job.
> (DB) The players have such admiration and trust in his ability to captain the team.

Category: Situational factors – total 79 (36/31/12)

Trust busting themes: *General influences of press, specific tabloid stories, future elsewhere and prefer other leaders*.

There were 79 trust-busting references which demonstrated the impact of current or situational influences. For example a number of fans suggested that DB was no longer the best player to be captain - *(DB) 'I feel there are better captains in the England squad, this is not DB's fault just a fact'.* This issue did not reflect the actions or traits of Beckham himself but rather the wider view of team personnel. This category also included general references to press stories on SGE, for example -

> (SGE) Numerous negative reports about him in the national press.

> (SGE) Too much negativity about him in the press and it can't all be made up!
> (SGE) Because of the coverage he has received in the press, not over his personal life but over his alleged professional dealings.

The trust-busting influence of these negative reports is likely impact on trust appraisals by influencing perceptions of the integrity of the leader –

> (SGE) The media coverage of his personal life casts doubt on the type of man he is, plus the media coverage of comments he made about his players….Ferdinand being lazy etc.

Integrity is a source of cognition-based trust (McAllister, 1995) and is also an established factor in the trust model proposed by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995).

One highly situational theme raised by fans highlighted that SGE's guaranteed future elsewhere contributed to perceptions that he had less invested in the outcome than the average fan. Knowledge-based trust, as proposed by Lewicki and Bunker (1996), is based upon the cost and rewards of possible actions and is central to predictions of others' behaviours. Leaders with a great personal investment in the outcome are deemed more trustworthy as their behaviours are seen as more predictably aligned to the group's welfare. The announcement that SGE would not be manager following the WC competition, and speculation that he was already interested in securing a future elsewhere, made fans sceptical about his intentions. This is best highlighted in quotes such as those below which all accompanied low levels of trust in SGE.

> (SGE) He shouldn't have told us he was leaving straight after the World Cup, puts a lot of uncertainty in the camp.
> (SGE) Concerns regarding commitment to England given that he is leaving us after the tournament.

This issue may also be related to the personal risk dimension of charismatic leadership (Conger et al., 1997) whereby leaders are seen positively if they are personally invested in the outcomes of the group and willing to make sacrifices on its behalf –

> (SGE) Not staying after the World Cup so has no vested interest in England succeeding.
> (SGE) his general 'couldn't care less I'm on 5M a year and I'm leaving after the World Cup anyway' attitude.

Since SGE had already agreed to leave the role he wasn't risking his future employment on the outcome of the competition (as managers commonly do).

Category: **Outcome Assessment – total 91 (26/14/51)**

Trust building themes: *Results, Performances, Track record*

Given the underwhelming performance of the team it is not surprising that this category was associated with trust building on the fewest occasions (21 meaning units). When the theme was employed in relation to trust building, fans referred to previous outcomes, records, efficiency or other aspects of their performance.

> (SGE) Has always done a good job as far as the team and football is concerned.
> (SGE) I think he's done a better job than most other England managers.

Such references probably reflect evaluations of the leader's ability or competence in the role. Both ability and competence are frequently cited sources of cognition-based trust (Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995; McAllister, 1995).

Trust busting themes: *results, mistakes, team performances, leadership performances and let downs*.

Utilised by fans solely in relation to SGE, this category includes 70 meaning units which demonstrate fans' disappointment with outcomes and performances (disappointments were likely given the high expectations of fans). For example:

> (SGE) I tried to be positive, even with the awful unbalanced squad he picked, but in the end felt he did not do the job he was paid to do.

This category demonstrates that outcomes can influence future trust appraisals; for example, knowledge of previous performances (good track record) led to early levels of trust but this deteriorated. This suggestion supports research suggestions that prior task performance (such as track record) influences future cognition-based trust (Cook and Wall, 1980; McAllister, 1995). Over the course of the competition, recent outcomes are employed in the constant re-appraisal of leaders with 56% of references to outcomes appearing at the exit stage. Results or outcomes are judged against the expectations of the fans which, in this instance, were high since 99% of fans surveyed expected England to progress further than they did –

> (SGE) This England team should be in its prime, playing great football and taking the tournament by storm, but so far we have limped through each game lethargically.
> (SGE) He clearly could not get the best out of the best players England had to offer.
> (SGE) Cannot trust SGE as he has not lead the team to achieve their potential.

As highlighted previously, outcome evaluation may contribute to perceptions of leader ability and may also represent a knowledge-based trust appraisal. Knowledge of the

leader's competence (based on his record) did in some cases influence a belief that SGE could perform a functional role in the WC competition. However, knowledge of the disappointing results achieved with a highly talented team influenced future trust in SGE's ability to perform under the same circumstances and as a result trust diminishes –

> (SGE) This was his stage to show that he was a top class manager, that he knew how to get the best out of some top quality players, but he failed.

Category: Leader Attributes – 333 (125/117/91)
Trust building themes - *leader qualities, integrity, passion, honesty, good intentions; knowledge and ability*.

Fans generated 197 references related to personal characteristics of leaders as trust builders (171 of which referred to DB); such statements provide further evidence of cognitive assessments of integrity of leaders - *(SGE) 'He seems to have integrity and strikes me as an honest man'.* Fans made 29 attributions which were character based but non-specific such as 'Has the *correct* character' or 'has all the *right* attributes'; these generic examples were included under a general theme heading of 'leader qualities'. As is evident in Table 13, themes within this trust building category were generated predominantly in relation to DB and generally reflected the attribution of a personal trait or characteristic by the fan. Assessment of personal characteristics is inherent to forms of cognition-based trust; indeed, both McAllister (1995) and Dirks and Ferin (2002) labelled cognition-based trust the 'character-based' perspective.

Trust busting themes: *nationality, lack of emotion, lack of charisma, priorities, self interest, not an open person, general character, motivated by money and lacks commitment*.

Personal characteristics were referenced as trust-busters 136 times by fans; these references were related entirely to SGE. Fans appraised particular aspects of personality including passion and emotion (or lack of), integrity and honesty, and some specifically highlighted charisma.

> (SGE) He also shows no passion from the touchline; my brother (who doesn't watch football but loves England all the same) caught a match on TV and on seeing Sven said 'I hope to god he isn't the coach'. That just proves that he isn't charismatic like he needs to be.

Such personal characteristic factors were mirrored within the trust building and trust busting comments about DB and SGE, implying that fans may seek and expect a particular 'type' of leader personality. For example fans commented -

> As he (SGE) shows little passion or charisma I feel he is difficult to read or interpret. Therefore I cannot get a feel for whether he is pleased or displeased with something.
>
> He ain't passionate. we need passionate! We're england! It's do or die! We need english blood to lead us, fight fight fight til the end, thats english through and through.

In contrast, personal qualities were celebrated in assessments of trustworthiness in DB-

> He is a full blooded player who plays with passion and heart leads by example, passionate.

Fans also made a number of references to the intentions, priorities and motivations of SGE. Such references are aligned with the appraisals of intentions outlined in several definitions of trust (Rousseau et al., 1998; Burke et al., 2007) and the benevolence described in the model from Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995). Followers will appraise whether the intentions of the trustee are aligned with their own before relying on a belief in them (trusting). References to interests were made as both trust builders and trust busters-

> (DB)He has passion, loyalty and commitment to the team and the fans.
> (SGE) I feel I can trust him as he seems to act in the best interests of the players and the team overall.
> (SGE) I do not feel he has England's best interests at heart and he does not feel very strongly towards the team.
> (SGE) I'm not convinced he has England's success as his number 1 priority.
> (SGE) I'm not convinced he is playing to win.

Some fans felt that the nationality of SGE made it more difficult to trust him while others questioned how much the manager was motivated by money. The issues of both nationality and financial motivation impacted on trust by affecting perceptions of SGE's 'true' interests –

> (SGE) He is Swedish and has no allegiance to England as a country. Also with Sweden in the group stage, how can he be impartial?
> (SGE) I don't totally trust him because he is Swedish. I think that the money he gets paid is as important to him as winning, where as if he were English it would only be about winning.
> (SGE) He's foreign so can never fully understand how much competitive football means to us as a nation.

Research on political leaders by Pillai et al. (2003) did establish perceptions of identification-based trust as the mediator between perceptions of the leader and intention to vote. In football contexts it would appear that forms of identification-based trust (where the follower feels almost 'at one' with the approach and characteristics of

the leader) are less evident in a distant leader such as SGE who was quite distinctive from most fans.

Category*:* **Actions/Behaviours non football related – total 36 (25/11/0)**
Trust busting themes: *Beckham branding, behaviours reported in press/tabloid stories and perceptions of personal lives.*

This category encompasses just 36 meaning units but represents the influence of leaders' actions away from football. Some such comments included dismay at reports of questionable behaviour in the leader's personal life –

> (SGE) Ulrika,….his secretary….not really an English gent is he?
> (SGE) Off field antics that suggest he isn't the sharpest knife in the box.

Once again such comments can be seen as reflections of the leader's integrity. Other remarks reflect displeasure at the leader's actions outside of football which may distract them from the focus on task –

> (DB) Brand first, success second. He is all that's bad about the modern game.
> (DB) Too concerned with how he looks on a pitch; too concerned with his brand.
> (DB) He's become a one man media circus that perhaps detracts from the other players in the squad and possibly causes resentment.
> (SGE) His après football activities don't inspire me.
> (SGE) He spent too much time chasing women rather than concentrating on the world cup.

References to actions outside of football reflect further evaluations of leader intentions. Fans may feel that trusted leaders should prioritise football over other aspects of their lives and may interpret other interests as indicative of a lack of drive. There were no references to behaviours outside of football which may act as trust builders (for example charity work) and this implies a heavy task focus from fans.

Category: **Football related leader behaviours – total 508 (92/187/229)**
Trust building themes: *effort, leading by example, style of management and good relationships with players.*

There were 110 references to actions or behaviours of leaders which encouraged fans to trust; once again these were predominantly related to DB. A number of comments referenced easily observable contributions made by DB on the pitch –

> (DB) I feel that I can trust Beckham as I know that he gives 110% in all matches.
> (DB) Legend always gives 100% and more.
> (DB) Leads by example, never stops running.

Evaluating the effort of DB is far easier for the fan than assessments of SGE's contributions. Again these themes appear to impact upon the perception of intentions or benevolence; effort exerted in pursuit of winning confirms to followers that the leader shares the goal (of winning).

Trust busting themes: *selections, tactical decisions, favouritism, management style and leader actions*.

This was the most substantial category of all with 398 separate meaning units describing unfavourable actions/behaviours of the leader (324 of which referred to SGE). A number of fans (N=53) included generic issues such as 'management actions' or 'poor decision making', without offering anything more specific. Since these were still deemed to be representative of the larger category, they were included under the general heading 'leader actions'.

Some reference was made to favouritism shown by SGE in player selections; such actions may be deemed to reflect a disparity which goes against the 'fairness' included in many descriptions of cognition-based trust (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002).

> (SGE) Because he insists on playing favourites, no matter what their form.
> (SGE) he brought Theo Walcott because Wenger said so.

The large majority of comments from fans tended to concern role-specific behaviours such as selections and tactical decisions. For example:

> (SGE) Walcott…he'd never seen him play but says he looks good on video, so do I but he's not phoned me yet – need I say more?
> (SGE) Didn't take out the right players, seemed to take Theo Walcott for the experience rather than to play him, which points to how much did he care about winning – also taking two injured strikers and one he didn't want to play not the wisest decision ever. Seemed more like a jolly than a proper go at winning it.

A key behaviour associated with trust in the transformational leader involves unconventional behaviour and going beyond the status quo (Conger and Kanungo, 1998; Bass and Riggio, 2006). In the case of SGE his selection of one particular player emerged as an ideal illustration of behaviour that met such criteria. Theo Walcott, a 17 year old player who had not only never appeared for England but never even made a 1st team league appearance for his club team, led to widespread discussion. At the time the squad was announced, SGE was also quoted in the press as admitting that he had never seen Walcott play a match –

> I've seen him perhaps three times in training. At Arsenal training on Saturday I saw him play 11 against 11 on a half pitch. (BBC, 2006).

Even the fans acknowledged that this selection was a risk-

> He has only ever made one big gamble while he has been england manager, that being theo Walcott.

Despite the fact that the squad selection was made public in advance of the baseline stage, early references to team selection were minimal but rose by more than three times between the baseline and exit stages. At this point over 70 specific references were made concerning Walcott's inclusion in the squad as fans attacked SGE's selection strategy, this is exemplified by comments such as -

> He picked a 17 yeah old who's never played a first team game for his club.
> He took the wrong squad. Why was Walcott there?
> He takes walcott not played in the prem or hardly during the season but leaves out defoe and swp [shaun wright-phillips] who played more than walcott did.
> He has no tactical acumen. not bringing another striker like defoe was a bad decision.

The delay in focussing on Walcott is likely to be a product of hindsight bias (Hawkins and Hastie, 1990), with fans convincing themselves once outcomes were known that they had believed all along that SGE's strategy had been flawed. Guilbault et al.'s (2004) meta-analysis shows the pervasiveness of such post-incident distortions; indeed, Bonds-Raacke et al. (2001) found that even students who had been taught about the hindsight bias were later likely to claim incorrectly that they'd predicted the outcome of a major football tournament prior to the game. Of particular relevance is Pezzo and Beckstead's (2008) finding that the hindsight bias appears to be even more extreme when uncontrollable events are involved.

Puffer (1990) describes an 'intuitive' decision making style which includes engaging in innovative, risky and unconventional behaviours in the pursuit of the group vision. Though associated with charisma, she notes that leaders who adopt an intuitive style and prove unsuccessful are viewed as lacking in expertise. It is possible that fans initially may have felt that the selection of Walcott, though seemingly inexplicable, signalled some extra-ordinary understanding on the part of SGE which would prove to be insightful. But as the World Cup progressed and Walcott was not utilised, even when the first choice striker Michael Owen was injured, his selection came to be considered as a grave error and perceptions of SGE as trustworthy fell accordingly. One fan remarked -

> At the beginning of the tournament I believed Sven made a strong statement when he announced his squad. It wasn't what I expected and I considered it a signal of intent to go out and take the tournament by the throat. Instead he hasn't used the players.

The Walcott issue was also implicated in fans' views about SGE's communication skills in conveying his vision for the team. Associated with transformational behaviour, the

leader's articulation of an appropriate model requires a clear explanation of aims and the manner in which these will be achieved. The use of rhetorical skills by transformational leaders has been well documented (Conger and Kanungo, 1998). Evidence suggests that SGE was, in one respect, seen positively in this regard: '*He is plain speaking, experience at highest level'* and *'He is knowledgeable of the game, and speaks his mind'* while DB was seen as lacking in this respect – '*DB sounds unintelligent when he talks.. making him capt was a publicity stunt'*. However, despite the manager's ability to communicate clearly, it was apparent that fans struggled to understand SGE's vision and were unsure of his strategies for achieving the team's goals. Many followers remarked that SGE's decisions were unclear or ambiguous, for example:

> (SGE) He made bad decisions in team selection and has not been able to justify why.
> (SGE) Like I said before I don't understand why he took Walcott and didn't play him, when he could of took Defoe who would have stepped into Michael Owens shoes easily.

5.4 Conclusions and Limitations

The trust busting and trust building categories found in this research provide a basis for describing the typical trust appraisal employed by English national football fans during the World Cup 2006. The instability of trust was demonstrated, as fans regularly re-appraised the trustworthiness of their football manager and captain. Notably, trust in the two football leaders was found to be strongly associated with the outcomes of the team. This influence may well supersede the role played by the character or actions of the leader. As one fan commented at the baseline stage -

> *SGE is a **** but if he steers England to world cup glory then all shall be forgiven*.

The results also revealed that appraisals of trust incorporated evaluations of integrity, ability and benevolence or intentions of trustees. Forms of trust which were established were exclusively cognitive and based upon calculus-based and knowledge-based rather than identification or affect based processes. Of particular interest was that established transformational leader behaviours including risk taking and articulation of a vision were strongly related to perceptions of trustworthiness, even in the context of leadership at a distance. Indeed, although outcomes were often referenced by fans, the football-related actions/behaviour categories were cited the largest number of times.

It is also clear that a number of behaviours and characteristics were consistently associated with trust in the leader, suggesting that fans may appraise a leader based on a particular ideal. This finding may be related to claims in the leadership literature (Eden and Leviatan, 1975) that followers often hold a leader 'prototype' (often known as an

implicit leadership theory) and that leaders are judged against this ideal. Assessments of fans' implicit leadership theories may prove a worthwhile avenue in the effort to understand trust in remote football leaders.

Results of the current study do not suggest that such prototypes are based around nationality or perceived similarity; although there were indeed many references to SGE's non-Englishness in the trust busting categories, the extent to which nationality played a role in DB's consistently higher trust ratings is unclear. In fact, when fans were asked to indicate their preferred successor to SGE after the exit phase, three of the top five managers proposed were not English. Instead, it appears that cognition-based, role-related factors such as ability feature heavily in fans' trust appraisals. Predominant employment of cognitive factors is in keeping with players' appraisals of trust in football. As a remote leader within football it would seem that 'what you do' influences trust appraisals far more than 'who you are', though not as much as 'whether you win'.

Since the number of fans completing the three surveys decreased at each stage, it is possible that fans who completed all three in the series represent a particular type of football fan rather than an average fan. In addition, although the response periods were limited, there was no way of controlling the exact time at which fans responded. Since press reports were cited as influential and new revelations concerning SGE, DB or the team emerged on a daily, even hourly, basis during the World Cup, the time of completion may well have been an influential factor in the study.

Finally, since ninety-nine percent of fans predicted that England would progress further than they ultimately did, responses at the baseline stage could support the notion that sports fans employ 'cognitive illusions' such as unrealistic optimism or illusory superiority. Jones (2000) suggests that such cognitions are commonly employed by serious football fans, who believe wholeheartedly that great success will be enjoyed at some stage in the future. Since only one team will ever win a World Cup tournament, it could be that the vast majority of fans are destined to feel disappointed in their team and thus a betrayal of trust.

Chapter 6: Study 4

6.1 Introduction

A central aim in this research was to examine trust in all contexts of football leadership, including leaders at distant as well as close proximity. Study 3 presented a unique examination of trust in distant leaders in the context of football. As well as tracking changes in trust over time the results provided an indication of factors assessed by fans during trust appraisals. In the case of SGE, fans' trust 'building' and trust 'busting' influences were led primarily by factors such as actions/behaviours of the leader, and to a lesser extent, by perceptions of their personal characteristics. The predominant appraisal of actions/behaviours of the leader must be interpreted in light of the disappointing outcome for the national team at this competition. In the case of SGE particular role-related actions such as selections and tactics were cited as trust busting factors; this was almost certainly influenced by the ultimately poor performance of the team.

The literature review in Chapter 1 established the use of markers including competence or ability in cognitive appraisals of trust in others. The attribution of trust deterioration to factors such as selections and tactics may be interpreted as evidence of fans appraising the role-related competence or ability of SGE. The assessment of personal characteristics observed in Study 3 is also related to the existing trust literature reviewed in Chapter 1. Determining trust by identifying similarity between oneself and the trustee is a concept which has received a large amount of attention in studies of interpersonal trust by Lewicki and colleagues (1996; 1998; 2006). In the case of the distant followers involved in Study 3 there were indications that similarity may be an issue as fans drew upon characteristic differences in integrity, passion and nationality. For example one fan remarked -

> He (SGE) is foreign so can never fully understand how much competitive football means to us as a nation.

The use of the term 'us' in this quote and several like it may be indicative of an ingroup – outgroup segregation of the national manager. However, the role of identification with distant managers requires further scrutiny since such quotes were not consistently evidenced throughout the study and were heavily overshadowed in quantitative terms by references to actions and behaviours.

Study 3 also permitted an assessment of two leaders over the course of a competition, though any direct comparison of the two leaders was inappropriate given their distinctive leadership roles. As a result, the factors which emerged in the appraisals of SGE are unique to his leadership during the World Cup competition and as such can only form a

basis for describing factors employed in appraisals of football managers; findings do not permit a view of 'typical' influences.

6.1.1 Implicit leadership theory

Implicit leadership theories (ILTs) (Eden and Leviatan, 1975) can be described as a 'lens' through which leaders are cognitively appraised. ILTs are essentially cognitive schemas or prototypes of leaders; perceptions about leadership which followers may hold (Eden and Leviatan, 1975). Implicit leadership theory lends support to the idea that followers arrive at the point of appraisal with a conceptualisation of what leaders are like already in their mind; this could be in the form of a general leader prototype. ILTs are certainly relevant to our understanding of the process involved in trust appraisals. For example, ILTs may impact on the expectations placed upon leaders; trusting itself is often referred to as a 'positive expectation' an aspect which has been discussed earlier in the thesis. Furthermore, Lord and Mayer (1993) suggested that implicit leadership theories are employed as a mechanism to reduce uncertainty – another crucial factor in the operation of trust. Lower levels of uncertainty result in more confident expectations; the view that followers may adopt a particular approach to trust appraisals which could alter expectations and lower uncertainty is noteworthy. Further research supports the relevance of ILTs to perceptions of others; Judge, Colbert and Ilies (2005) provided support for the existence of implicit leadership theory and described the tendency for individuals to employ such prototypes to simplify information-processing tasks such as the trust appraisal process.

Research has identified particular traits employed in implicit leader prototypes; such characteristics include *intelligence*, *conscientiousness, sincerity*, *sensitivity* and *dedication* (Offerman, Kennedy and Wirtz, 1994; Engle and Lord, 1997; Epitriopaki and Martin, 2005). If fans do tend to hold a leader prototype, this may have impacted upon the appraisals of SGE which were examined in Study 3. Indeed Lord, Foti and Devader (1984) suggested that spotting characteristics associated with prototypic leaders in new leaders could impact strongly on followers' subsequent ratings of them. Furthermore, Schyns and Hansbrough (2008) demonstrated how implicit leadership theories may result in cognitive errors in attribution; for example, leaders who were perceived to have positive characteristics (such as 'heroic') were less likely to have negative outcomes attributed to them. In such cases the follower was more likely to attribute outcomes to other factors rather than leader error. In Study 3 a large number of fans attributed negative outcomes to the manager; according to Shyns and Hansbrough such errors may have been reduced had SGE matched a particular prototype held by fans. To date, assessments of implicit leadership have focussed almost exclusively on the impact of such theories on close leader-follower relationships. For example, Engle and Lord

(1997) demonstrated that implicit leadership theories were important predictors of both liking and leader-member exchange (LMX) quality. Epitropaki and Martin (2005) also assessed LMX, finding that significant differences in the 'matching' of leaders to prototypes had a negative effect on LMX quality.

The leadership categorisation theory (Lord, Foti and Devader 1984; Lord et al., 2001) describes a two-stage prototype 'matching' process. According to the authors during stage one relevant implicit leadership prototypes are activated, and during stage two target leader figures are compared to the active prototype. Lord et al., lend support to the growing contention of this thesis in confirming that perceptions of leaders rely heavily on cognitive processes. In adopting a symbolic-level view of leadership perception the authors also suggest that such appraisals may be more systematic (and therefore intensive) than heuristic.

While the concept of prototype matching received attention in a large number of studies, Ritter and Lord (2007) more recently presented a phenomenon known as 'leader transference' which serves as an alternative to the idea of prototype matching. Leader transference is a cognitive process which involves the activation of established leader prototypes when new leaders with similar features are encountered; when similar features are not observed in the new leader a follower is likely to revert to a general leader prototype. In their research Ritter and Lord 'primed' participants (generally using behavioural mannerisms, personality characteristics and social labels of their old leader) in order to establish leader similarity. Tests showed that followers were likely to generalise attributes from their old leader when presented with information about the new leader which was reminiscent of the old one.

The concepts of both prototype matching and leader transference present interesting questions for the focus of this research. For example, Lord et al. (2001) argue that no single leadership prototype applies to all leadership situations and suggest that context specific prototypes could exist. The authors contend that leadership prototypes are 'extremely sensitive to innumerable factors' (p.344). As such it is possible that fans may hold a general leader prototype and another prototype for a football manager; indeed the fan may hold different prototypes for different football managers since specific contexts may involve such different demands. It is logical to presume that fans may see the demands of club football management, and management of the national team, as distinct in their contextual demands. As such, factors employed in trust appraisals of SGE in Study 3 may only be representative of national team managers. Alternatively it may be argued that fans establish a prototype for football managers based on the manager to whom they are first exposed (likely their club team manager). Indeed this figure could provide a prototype on which all future leaders are appraised,

suggesting that it is the contextual aspect of a leader (e.g. 'this is a football manager') which activates a prototype rather than the personal ones such as 'here is an authoritarian leader'. This point is particularly pertinent given the lack of personal information a fan can accrue about a manager. The idea that individuals develop multiple leader prototypes and the concept of leader transference may in fact co-exist. The two could represent two distinct manners of leader appraisal, one more and one less intensive form.

Although the work of Lord and colleagues has dominated research in this area there are some alternative views. For example, Epitropaki and Martin (2005) present findings which contradict Lord et al. (2001), suggesting that ILTs can be employed consistently across situations. Their research determined that employment of implicit leadership theories were unaffected by both individual and contextual differences, but influenced by levels of intrinsic motivation in followers. This contention may be related to discussions of Chaiken's systematic and heuristic levels of processing discussed in Chapter 1 and Study 1; the implication is that some followers may be more inclined to engage in cognitive saving 'categorisation' of leaders. Study 3 proposed a wide range of factors employed by fans during appraisals which held some common employment of central themes/factors such as behaviours and personal attributes. According to the heuristic theory forwarded by Chaiken (1980), it is individuals with lower levels of motivation who tend to engage in heuristic processing. Given the distance involved and their level of involvement with the team, are fans likely to be motivated enough to employ intensive systematic appraisals of distant leaders (for example in generating alternate context specific prototypes) or might they tend to employ a common general leader prototype to all football managers?

6.1.2 Types of distance

The operation of 'distant leaders' has been explored by a number of researchers given its importance in political and organisational settings. Authors have not only suggested that leaders are able to operate effectively from distance, but also that in some instances the distance between themselves and followers may serve to facilitate that effectiveness; particularly in the case of charismatic leaders (Katz and Kahn, 1978; Hollander, 1978). Shamir (1995) explored the operation of charisma within 'socially distant' leaders and stressed 'the first difference to be noted between close and distant leaders is the much greater availability of information about the leader in close leadership situations' (p.22). Here the emphasis was on availability of information rather than defining particular aspects of leader distance which may limit information availability. Although the apparent lack of opportunity to evaluate distant leaders could lead to idealised perceptions of them, Shamir found no support for the proposition that

distant leaders would be perceived more idealistically than close ones. Additional research also demonstrated that charismatic leadership is achievable in close leadership situations where leaders are perceived more realistically (Bass, 1990; Bryman, 1992).

In an attempt to extend studies of distant leadership, some scholars have defined distinct types of distance. Napier and Ferris (1993) conducted a review of traditional supervisory leadership in organisations which highlighted the lack of attention given to types of distance in such settings. The authors proposed the model of Dyadic Distance which defined three dimensions of distance: psychological, structural and functional. **Psychological distance** included demographic factors, power, perceived similarity and values similarity. **Structural distance** described the level of interaction between leader and follower while **Functional distance** depicted the degree of closeness and quality of relationship between leader and follower. This model formed the basis for further assessments of leadership distance. Antonakis and Atwater (2002) later presented a less normative model with equivalent dimensions; these were **social distance** - differences in aspects such as status, rank and power, **physical distance** simply the proximity between leaders and followers and **perceived leader-follower interaction** - the degree to which the leader and follower interact.

Antonakis and Atwater suggested that multiple types of distant leader exist; they proposed 8 typologies of leader distance which are used to detail high (H) or low (L) levels of physical distance (P), perceived social distance (S) and perceived leader-follower interaction frequency (F). The resulting combinations demonstrate how leader distance can be considered a combination of high or low P, S and F rather than simply distant or close. To illustrate, it cannot be assumed that a leader who is proximal is psychologically close to followers since a leader may be present yet socially absent. Antonakis and Atwater provide the example of the Duke of Wellington as a close, but socially distant leader; one who had frequent contact with soldiers and operated at close proximity to them, but who remained aloof and distant in his manner. Ostensibly, a football manager could be considered 'distant' from fans on all dimensions in the aforementioned models; however, it is important to highlight the 'type' of distance involved, particularly with regard to the psychological and social dimensions.

In terms of psychological distance there are a number of ways in which a manager may share some of the same demographic background as a fan; distance between fan and manager is commonly smaller than the distance between, say, presidential candidates and voters. There are also a number of perceived similarities which a fan may appraise; one of the strongest similarities could literally be the strong affiliation with the football team whom the fan follows and the manager leads. Value similarity could also be

appraised by fans; managers could demonstrate their personal values in the way they manage the team and even the style of football they adopt. In relation to physical distance, managers are not proximal, however images and videos of them are present in the lives of fans; this is distinct from, say, a CEO whom followers may not be able to recognise. Results from Study 3 suggested that fans' cognitive appraisals were based strongly around the football-related actions of the leader. Trust was lost particularly often where the fan did not understand a particular decision; therefore, the level of proximity with a leader may allow a clearer appraisal of such information.

While both national and club level football managers are physically removed from fans, a club manager may be seen 'in the flesh' more often - on the touchline at games and/or on the television on a weekly basis. Whilst live interaction between managers and fans is extremely rare, forms of interaction between managers and fans do exist and are evidenced in a number of 'virtual' forms. In the same manner that a company CEO may relay messages to lower level employees; managers do communicate with the fans by employing a range of virtual means. Football managers of club sides are often able to contribute messages in match day programs; managers of Premier and Championship league clubs also give regular pre-match press conferences and post match interviews with broadcast providers. Club managers are also regularly interviewed for articles in newspapers, magazines, websites and even club specific television channels for their clubs. Many of these forms of communication are also employed by national managers, but with far less frequency; examples include a newspaper interview with England manager Steve McClaren in which the manager was quoted as saying 'Trust me; I'm here to stay' (see Appendix 9).

There is also evidence of football managers attempting to influence fans directly by making public calls or pleas to them as reported by Stewart (2009) who described –

> Alan Shearer's rallying call to Newcastle United supporters before their crunch clash with Portsmouth…

Whilst a relationship which involves exclusive evaluation of managers by fans has been described, some club managers have made criticisms of fans' 'performances', for example Sir Alex Ferguson's evaluation of Manchester United fans (Taylor, 2008) –

> The atmosphere inside the ground wasn't very good…..the crowd was dead. It's the quietest I've heard them here. It was like a funeral, it was so quiet. We needed the crowd today. It's all right saying the players will make the fans respond, but in some situations, like today, we need them to get behind us. We've played game after game in this period and in these moments we need a lift.

The words of Ferguson reflect the perception of a reciprocal relationship between the fans and manager/team. There is an expectation that the fans will play their role in the team's success.

Since the media focus and attention centres on the football manager and players, the communication between managers and fans is predominantly one way. In spite of this barrier football fans have established methods of communicating their thoughts by displaying messages at football grounds. Examples are abundant, these include Arsenal fans who display a banner entitled 'In Arsene we trust', and England fans who displayed the message 'S.O.S: Sack Mac and bring Beckham back' during Steve McCLaren's reign as manager. Illustrations of such forms of communication are provided in Appendix 9.

On average, a football club manager will lead the team through every football league game plus any pre-season friendly fixtures, cup, and European competitions that the club may compete in. By comparison, an England manager in an average year (not a World or European Cup competition year) would only lead the team during intermittent friendly or qualifying games. National fixtures peak every 2 years when the national team may attend the international competitions; as a result the national manager leads intermittently while the club manager leads 'week in week out'. Shamir (1995) claims that distance impacts upon availability of information, and findings from Study 3 confirm the impact of results on leader appraisals. Each of these factors contributes to the suggestion that the difference in exposure may allow football fans greater opportunity to build information about their club manager than their national manager. To illustrate this point, comparisons may be drawn between the fixtures of the England team and two clubs later represented in this study, Manchester United and Manchester City. In the 2007-2008 season the national team competed in just 10 matches, far fewer than club teams Manchester City and Manchester United who competed in 49 and 56 matches respectively (see Figure 16).

It has been established that familiarity in the form of sheer exposure leads to an increase in liking (Zajonc, 1968) and that people are more inclined to like those who share common features with themselves. A club manager is a figure who is in consciousness of the club fan on a more regular basis. Research suggests that whilst greater levels of information about a club manager could confirm the fallibility of the manager, greater exposure could also lead to higher levels of perceived similarity and liking, providing followers with greater levels of information on which to base appraisals.

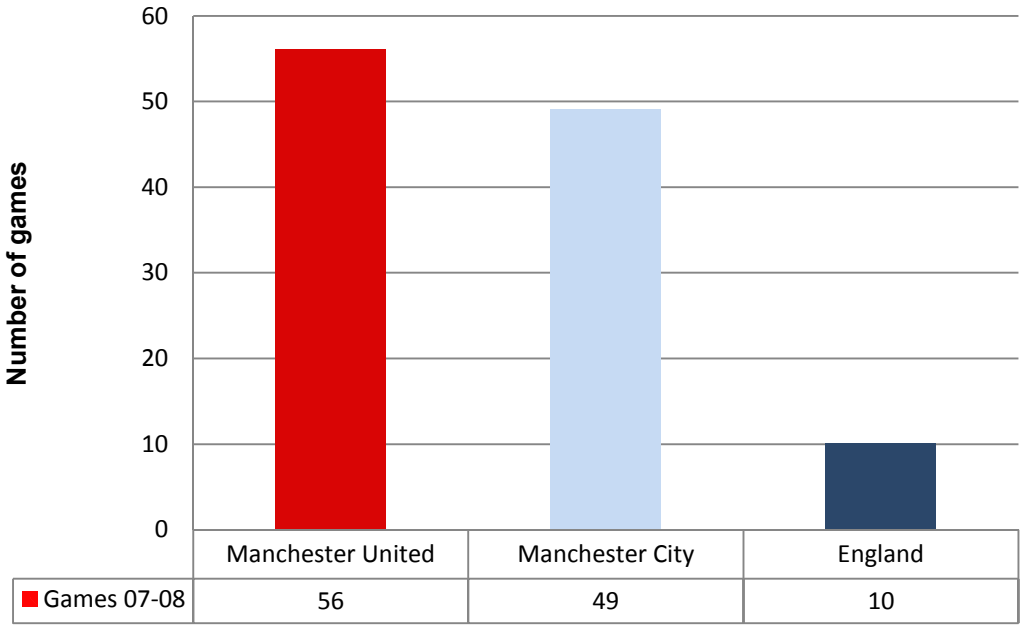


Figure 16. Quantity of fixtures for national and 2 Premier league teams in 2007

6.1.3 Identification-based trust

McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi (2006) emphasise the importance of internalisation of the other party's desires and intentions in the formation of identification-based trust (IBT). The authors conceive IBT to be the highest of three levels of trust which were discussed in Chapter 1. IBT was clearly conceived as a form of interpersonal trust rather than a form observed in distant and 'virtual' relationships such as leadership at distance. As such it is prudent to question the rationale for using only a measure of IBT in assessments of trust in distant leaders such as in the research of Pillai et al. (2003). The author is not currently aware of any research which demonstrates that trust at distance is based on a process of identification, rather than a cognitive one.

There was evidence in the findings of Study 3 that fans were not always able to identify with the actions/behaviours of the manager -

> At the beginning of the tournament I believed Sven made a strong statement when he announced his squad. It wasn't what I expected and I considered it a signal of intent to go out and take the tournament by the throat. Instead he hasn't used the players.

Concepts and measures of IBT from Lewicki and colleagues (1996;2006) include items such as '*this person and I share the same basic values*' and '*this person will do whatever I would do if I were in the same situation*'; there was some evidence of fans referring to the personal values SGE such as –

> (SGE) Ulrika,….his secretary….not really an English gent is he?

Ultimately, references to fans' own identities and ways of doing things were not heavily represented; this may be because fans simply did not use themselves as a measure with which to gauge the manager. In many ways one would not expect trust in a high level distant leader to be entirely identification-based; since such jobs are so influential and pressurised, average followers are likely to place a high expectancy on the leader to be extraordinary rather than 'a lot like me'. It is also possible that fans simply did not express the comparison with themselves explicitly. Similarly fans did not reference terms such as ability or competence when remarking upon the manager's mistakes although this may be the wider factor they were appraising –

> (SGE) I tried to be positive, even with the awful unbalanced squad he picked, but in the end felt he did not do the job he was paid to do.

The issue of identification with club and national managers is also interesting given the findings on how expressions of regional (often club) identity have often surpassed national identity in some football fans. The work of sociologists Gibbons and Lusted (2007) examined the importance of expressions of regional club identities and found that some fans even felt allegiance to players who were from their club, but played for other nations –

> 'I stick up for players who play for the club but may be in the opposition' (p.304)

Clearly for some followers, identification as a club fan is even stronger than as national fan, thus raising questions regarding identification with club and national team managers. The current investigation includes a unique focus on followers who will rate their existing club manager (Sven Göran Eriksson) both in his current role, and as a former England manager. This aspect of the study may illustrate more about the way in which fans appraise and identify with distant managers, and demonstrate whether familiarity with a former England manager (who is currently the club manager) can bias ratings of the leader's previous performance.

The existing literature presents a firm case for the relevance of implicit leadership theories; suggesting that football managers may be appraised on the same factors – irrelevant of their status as a club or national manager. Indeed, Leadership Categorisation Theory implies that club and national football leaders may be 'matched' to an existing leader prototype during appraisals. This study aims to explore the level of intensity involved in fans' appraisals to determine both the relevance of leader prototypes in football settings, and the factors involved in appraisals.

As well as identification, factors such as like, competence, similarity, reliability and others have been related to trust both in this research and elsewhere. While Study 3

adopted a highly inductive approach to interpreting factors employed in trust appraisals, this study aims to test factors from both the literature and the present research in a more deductive manner.

6.1.4 Aims of Study 4

There were three primary aims to Study 4 -

i) To determine the extent to which factors emerging in these assessments and in existing literature (including like, competence, similarity and reliability) may relate to levels of trust in leaders.

ii) For fans to simultaneously rate club and national managers in order to demonstrate any difference in ratings of more and less distant leaders.

iii) To apply the notion of implicit leadership theories to football contexts and provide evidence of any consistent patterns of factors employed in appraising managers (e.g., existence of a 'trusted football manager' prototype).

6.2 Method

6.2.1 Materials

An internet survey was constructed specifically for the study. The vast majority of items in the survey were based on a 7-point Likert scale and the remainder were either selection based or open-ended. In the survey a trust rating was included alongside an additional eleven rating items, these eleven were sourced either from measures within the existing trust literature or from emerging themes within this research. Table 15 details the items and their origins (items are listed by their basis rather than sequentially). Based on a similar format as the series of surveys in Study 3, this edition consisted of five distinct sections.

6.2.1.1 Format

Section 1 gathered basic demographic information on the participant including gender, nationality, residential status and details of club affiliations.

Section 2 included a simple rating of trust in club manager and then a rating of the trustworthiness of each England Manager.

Section 3 included a number of 'cognitive' items and involved ratings of likability, reliability, competence, professionalism and dedication, track record, and predictability of the manager. At the end of this section a 'buffer' item was included simply to break up the ratings for fans.

Section 4 addressed 'affective' and identification-based dimensions of trustworthiness and involved ratings of the care and concern given to players, how much the manager is 'like me', how much the manager is seen as trustworthy by others, how much the manager does 'what I would do', how much the manager shows care and concern for

fans. Particular attention was paid to the order of the manager presentation; for each factor in sections three and four the participants were presented with the club manager rating first followed by the three England managers; the order of the England trio was randomised on each item.

Section 5 included a rating of factors which emerged during earlier studies. Fans were asked to rate the importance of 8 factors on the trust in a club and England manager respectively. The full list of influences is presented in table 14. Finally fans were able to select a manager who they would trust most to be England manager.

Table 14. Potential influences on the trust appraisal rated by fans in Section 5.

Influence	Item: When deciding how much you can trust your (Club manager/England manager), how important are the following factors?
1	His history as a player
2	Results of the team
3	His character
4	The selections he makes
5	The tactics he chooses
6	His record as a manager
7	Where he is from
8	The relationship he has with players

6.2.2 Participants

Following ethical approval for the study, participants were recruited through England, Premier League and Championship football fan sites and discussion boards. Participants from Study 3 who requested an invitation for future studies were also sent a link to this survey directly via email. A total of 279 fans (born and currently residing in England) that identified themselves as club football fans provided informed consent and completed the survey. The ratio of males to females was 220/59. Due to the optional anonymity of the survey there was no way of defining how many fans involved in Study 4 were also participants in Study 3 (particularly when they may have followed a link from an online discussion board). However, only 98 fans from Study 3 received direct invitations to the survey. Email and/or IP addresses of participants were recorded alongside participants' responses in order to identify any multiple submissions; there were no multiple submissions of completed surveys.

Table 15 – Items included in sections 3 and 4 of the survey

Item	Factor	Item	Basis	Origin
1	Trust	How much do you trust (manager)?	Aligned with ratings used in this research.	CART-Q measure (Jowett and Ntoumanis, 2004).
3	Reliability	(Manager) is reliable	Cognition-based	McAllister (1995) Gillespie (2003)
4	Competence	(Manager) is competent	Cognition-based	McAllister (1995) and emerging theme in this research (often labelled ability)
5*	Professionalism and Dedication	(Manager) approaches job with professionalism and dedication	Cognition-based	McAllister (1995)
6	Track Record	(Manager) had a good track record when appointed	Cognition-based	Emerged in Study 3 and features (in part) in McAllister (1995) measure
7	Predictability	I can usually predict the things (manager) will do	Knowledge-based	Based on item from McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi (2006)
8	CandC players	(Manager) shows care and concern for players	Affect-based (vicarious)	Included to explore influence on fans of perceived player-leader relations
2	Liking	How much do you like (manager)?	Affect-based	Employed to explore themes emerging in this research
12	CandC fans	(Manager) shows care and concern for fans	Affect-based (virtual relationship)	Included to assess the perception of reciprocated relations between distant leaders and fans.
9	Like me	(Manager) is very much like me	Identification-based	Adapted from several items in McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi (2006) scale
10	Others see as	I believe that the players and staff see (manager) as trustworthy	Social contagion	Adapted from Lewicki et al. (1997)
11	Does what I would do	(Manager) does what I would do if I were manager	Identification-based	Adapted from McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi (2006)

*Item five is featured in the established cognition and affect-based scale from McAllister (1995); it is included here in order to test the efficacy of the item construction which appears questionable.

6.2.3 Procedure

Adopting a similar approach to Study 3, links to the survey were placed on a total of 18 fan websites with the permission of moderators; sites were both club and national team focussed. The link was accompanied by a brief explanatory note describing the project and inviting fans to take part. As well as agreeing to post the link, some sites actively promoted the survey to members (see Appendix 10). The survey was made available for 14 days in the middle of the 2007-2008 football season.

6.3 Results and Discussion

6.3.1 Levels of trust

The influence of proximity on trust in managers was assessed by way of a 3x4 repeated measures ANOVA varying leader (leaders were Club manager, Steve McClaren, Sven-Göran Eriksson and Bobby Robson) and fan group (the groups were Premier league fans, Manchester City fans and Non Premier league fans). Results revealed a significant main effect for leader (F (3,828) = 470.71, p<.001, partial η^2 = .63). Post-hoc comparisons demonstrated that club managers (M=5.88, SD=1.17) and Steve McClaren (M=2.06, SD=1.13) were significantly different from the remaining managers. Results showed that Sven Göran Eriksson (M=4.47, SD=1.26) and Bobby Robson (M=4.73, SD=1.26) were significantly different from club managers and Steve McClaren, but not significantly different from one another (p=0.30). No main effect was observed for fan group, but a significant interaction was observed between leader and fan group (F (6,828) = 6.72, p=.001, partial η^2 = .04) this interaction is displayed in Figure 17.

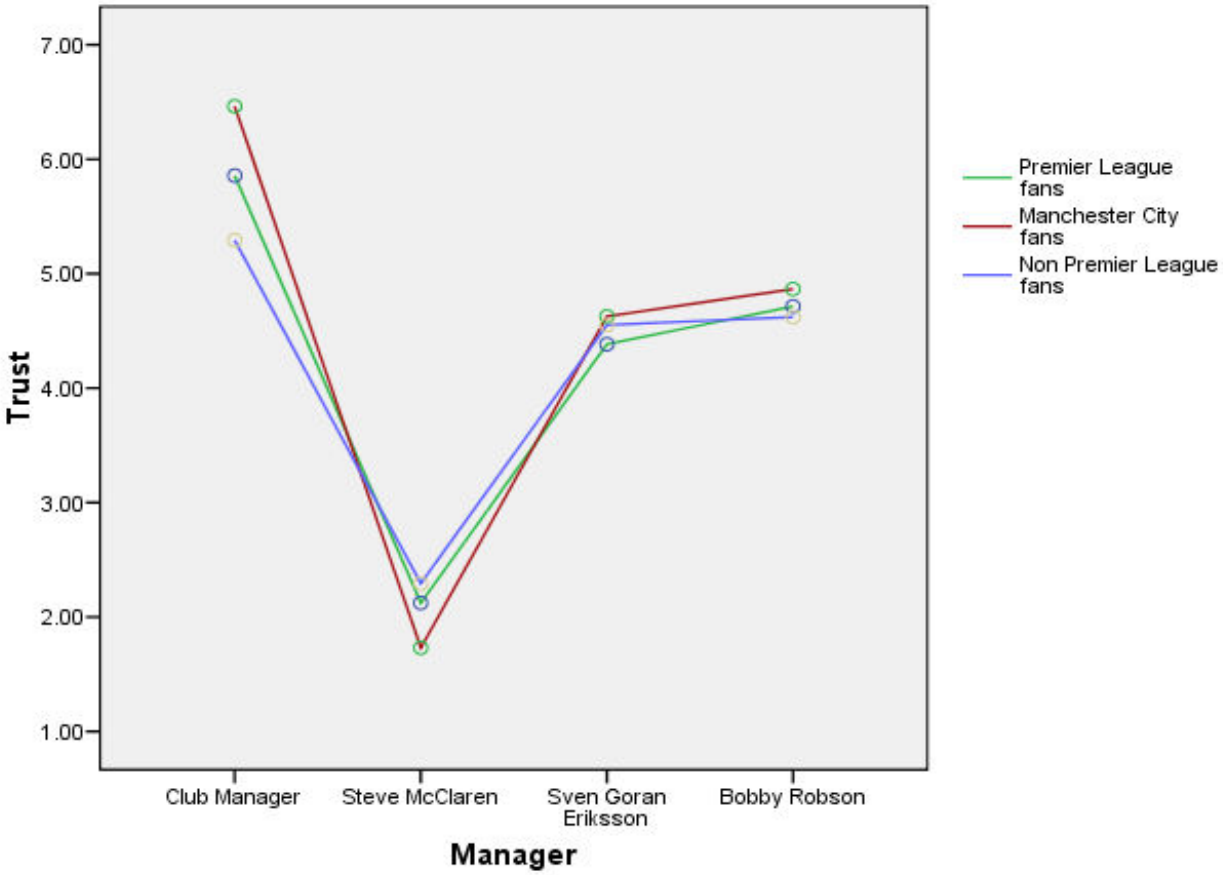


Figure 17. Fans' trust in club and former national football managers.

Separate follow-up one-way ANOVA analyses were conducted to test the interaction of fan group with each manager. Results demonstrated significant differences for fan group on trust in club managers (F (2,276) = 17.29, p = <.001). Tukey post hoc

analyses indicated significant differences between all three fan groups with Manchester City fans demonstrating the highest (M=6.46, SD= 0.87) and Non-Premier league fans providing the lowest (M=5.29, SD=1.32) trust ratings for club managers. A significant effect for fan group on trust in Steve McClaren was also observed (F= (2,276) = 4.36, p = <.05). For this effect Tukey analyses revealed significant differences between Premier League and Manchester City fans, and between Manchester City fans and Non-Premier league fans. Manchester City fans awarded Steve McClaren less trust (M=1.73, SD=1.22) than the Premier League (M=2.12, SD=1.17) and Non-Premier league (M=2.29, SD=1.13) fans. There were no significant effects for fan group on trust in either Sven Göran Eriksson or Bobby Robson.

The leader and fan group assessments reveal that managers are certainly appraised on a leader specific basis rather than as a group (for example there is no evidence to support a general perception of trust in managers such as 'managers are trustworthy/untrustworthy'). This finding confirms the contention that trust is a process of target-specific and repeated appraisal. Results also indicate that trust in the most proximal leaders (club managers) is higher than that in former England managers, supporting the contention that club managers may be awarded higher trust than more distant national managers. Findings on fan group differences indicate that in this sample, Manchester City fans provided more extreme trust ratings (the highest for the most trusted and lowest in the least trusted). This finding is difficult to explain, Manchester City fans did not rate Sven Göran Eriksson (as England manager) significantly more highly than any other manager, despite his proximity as their current club manager. This finding certainly suggests that fans can make discreet appraisals based on the performance of a manager in a particular role (fans felt Eriksson was a more trusted club manager than England manager).

6.3.2 Predicting trust from existing items

Multiple regression analyses were employed to test the relationship between trust and the eleven associated items (*Like, Reliability, Competence, Professional and Dedicated, Track Record, Predictability, Care and Concern for players, Like Me, Others see as trustworthy, Does what I would do* and *Care and Concern for fans).* This analysis was investigative in nature and designed to allow factors which may significantly contribute to perceptions of trust to emerge from the data. The stepwise regression method was utilised in this case in order to ensure that the strongest predictors were able to emerge from the analyses (as opposed to forced-entry regression techniques which can prioritise the order of variable entry based upon existing literature or research design). The regression results for each of the four managers are described in tables 16-19. The association between trust in club managers and ratings of *Like, Reliability* and

Predictability was moderately strong (multiple R = 0.80, f^2 = 1.63). Together, *Like*, *Reliability* and *Predictability* ratings accounted for 62% of the variation in trust in club manager scores (adjusted R^2). The standardized regression coefficients show that *Like* is a stronger predictor of trust in club managers than both R*eliability* and P*redictability*. All variables, however, are positively and significantly related to trust in club managers.

Table 16. Regression results for club manager

	B	SE B	β
Step 1			
Like	0.69	0.03	.76*
Step 2			
Like	0.51	0.05	.58*
Reliability	0.23	0.05	.24*
Step 3			
Like	0.50	0.04	.57*
Reliability	0.20	0.05	.22*
Predictability	0.09	0.03	.10*

Note R^2 = .58 for step 1; ΔR^2 =.61 for step 2; ΔR^2=.62 for step 3. *p<.01

The association between trust in Steve McClaren and ratings of *Like*, *Reliability*, *Did what I would* and *Track Record* was moderately strong (multiple R = 0.78, f^2 = 1.43). Together the four factors accounted for 59% of the variation in trust scores for Steve McClaren. The standardized regression coefficients indicate that *Like* is a stronger predictor of trust than the remaining factors but that all factors are positively and significantly related to trust in Steve McClaren.

Table 17. Regression results for Steve McClaren

	B	SE B	β
Step 1			
Like	0.50	0.03	.65*
Step 2			
Like	0.32	0.03	.41*
Reliability	0.37	0.04	.41*
Step 3			
Like	0.29	0.04	.38*
Reliability	0.33	0.04	.36*
Does what I would	0.20	0.04	.21*
Step 4			
Like	0.27	0.04	.36*
Reliability	0.31	0.04	.34*
Does What I would	0.19	0.04	.20*
Track Record	0.10	0.03	.11*

Note R^2 = .42 for step 1; ΔR^2 =.54 for step 2; ΔR^2=.58 for step 3; ΔR^2=.59. *p<.01

The association between trust in Sven Göran Eriksson and ratings of *Reliability*, *Like, Did what I would, Competence* and *Predictability* was moderately strong (multiple R = 0.74, f^2 = 1.17). Together the five factors accounted for 54% of the variation in trust scores for Sven Göran Eriksson. The standardized regression coefficients indicated that *Reliability* was a stronger predictor of trust than the remaining factors. All factors were positively and significantly related to trust in Sven Göran Eriksson with the exception of *Predictability* which was negatively and significantly related to trust (CI – upper bound -0.01, lower bound -0.14).

Table 18. Regression results for Sven Göran Eriksson

	B	SE B	β
Step 1			
Reliability	0.61	0.04	.63*
Step 2			
Reliability	0.48	0.49	.50*
Like	0.23	0.38	.30*
Step 3			
Reliability	0.40	0.50	.41*
Like	0.19	0.38	.25*
Does What I would	0.19	0.42	.23*
Step 4			
Reliability	0.29	0.06	.21*
Like	0.17	0.03	.20*
Does What I would	0.17	0.04	.22*
Competence	0.21	0.05	
Step 5			
Reliability	0.30	0.06	.30*
Like	0.17	0.04	.22*
Does What I would	0.18	0.04	.21*
Competent	0.21	0.05	.23*
Predictability	-0.08	0.03	-.1*

Note R^2 = .40 for step 1; ΔR^2 =.47 for step 2; ΔR^2=.51 for step 3; ΔR^2=.53 for step 4; ΔR^2=.55 for step 5. *p<.01

The association between trust in Bobby Robson and ratings of *Reliability*, *Like, Competence* and *Care and Concern* for fans was moderately strong (multiple R = 0.80, f^2 = 1.77). Together the four factors accounted for 64% of the variation in trust scores for Bobby Robson. The standardized regression coefficients indicated that *Reliability* was a stronger predictor of trust than the remaining factors. All factors were positively and significantly related to trust in Bobby Robson with the exception of *Care and Concern* for fans which was negatively and significantly related to trust (CI – upper bound -0.02, lower bound -0.19).

Table 19. Regression results for Bobby Robson

	B	SE B	β
Step 1			
Reliability	0.77	0.04	.74*
Step 2			
Reliability	0.55	0.05	.54*
Like	0.30	0.04	.33*
Step 3			
Reliability	0.41	0.06	.40*
Like	0.27	0.04	.30*
Competence	0.20	0.06	.20*
Step 4			
Reliability	0.42	0.06	.40*
Like	0.30	0.04	.33*
Competence	0.23	0.06	.23*
Care and Concern fans	-0.11	0.04	-.10*

Note R^2 = .56 for step 1; ΔR^2 =.62 for step 2; ΔR^2=.64 for step 3; ΔR^2=.65 for step 4. *p<.01

Findings demonstrated that two key factors (Like and Reliability) were consistent predictors of trust for club and all three national managers. This result implies that trust appraisals of football managers incorporate evaluations of the same key factors (even when the target manager is varied). The finding lends support to Implicit Leadership Theory which suggests that leaders are evaluated against an existing prototype; it suggests a prototype for a trusted football manager which centres upon perceptions of Like and Reliability. Evidence from the literature would suggest that followers are inclined to assess ability during trust appraisals (McAllister, 1995; Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995). Indeed data from the present research has supported appraisals of leader ability from both fan and player followers. It may be surprising then to observe that *Competence* was not a consistent predictor of trust in these responses; this result may reflect the inherent difficulty involved in prescribed items as perceptions of the term may cause confusion. Fans may have responded differently to items which specifically identified aspects of managerial competence such as *tactical competence.*

In relation to models of trust, both cognition and affect-based forms of trust appear to feature in these appraisals. Reliability is a cognition-based influence which is present in the literature and has featured in the results of several studies in the current research. Like is an affective dimension which may be considered to reflect a feeling about another person. The suggestion that Like influences trust in distant managers is an interesting finding given the emphasis on cognitive appraisals which has emerged in this research and elsewhere in the leadership literature (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). One explanation for this finding again relates to the perception of the term 'Like'. Fans have demonstrated that *Like* and *Trust* in a manager are significantly related and that Like

may predict changes in levels of trust; however, it is possible that Like is formed through other antecedent influences (such as ability or outcomes). The term Like was provided to participants and their understanding of the term is difficult to gauge; this reflects the weakness of exclusive reliance on pre-determined measures and supports the mixed-methods approach employed in this research.

In relation to the eleven items drawn from the current research and existing measures, four factors were found to be unrelated to ratings of trust. These included the two factors drawn from measures of IBT (*Does what I would do* and *Like me).* This finding indicates that fans do not include identification-based issues in trust appraisals of distant football managers. Given the influence of proximity on making trust appraisals (information about and experience of the leader is limited) it is unsurprising that this form of trust is not supported. The result also supports the critique of Pillai et al. (2003) in Chapter 5; the authors' use of an IBT measure in assessments of trust in distant political leaders seems inappropriate. A cognition-based item (*Professional and Dedicated*) drawn from an established measure (McAllister, 1995) was also unrelated to trust in leaders. As indicated in the measures section, this item was deemed problematic due to its 'double-barrelled' and ambiguous nature; a manager could be professional but not dedicated and visa versa. In retrospect the use of this item is not recommended in football contexts, two items may achieve the same aims (one on professionalism and one on commitment). The final item which failed to feature in regression results was *Care and Concern players,* this item was included after respondents in Study 3 noted the relations that SGE had with players. It was also felt that fans may appraise affective trust vicariously through the player-manager relationship; this suggestion was not supported.

6.3.3 Ratings of emerging factors

As detailed in the measures section, fans were also presented with eight factors and asked to rate their influence on trust in the managers. This section detailed several areas of influence which had emerged in this research and included dimensions which players and/or fans themselves had generated (such as tactics, playing history and selections). Having achieved the Kaiser-Meyer-Olking measure of sampling adequacy (club managers= .731; England managers=.728) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (club managers = 0.00; England managers= 0.00) data for each group was subject to a varimax method of analysis. A principal components analysis revealed a similar underlying pattern in the influences of factors for both club and national managers, with three underlying factors; results are shown in tables 20 and 21.

Table 20. Club manager Rotated Component Matrix			
	Component		
	1	2	3
CMWhereFrom	.066	**.818**	-.001
CMPlayingHist	.006	**.779**	.146
CMRelationships	.290	-.012	**.709**
CMCharacter	.055	.166	**.821**
CMRecord	**.581**	.064	.249
CMSelections	**.765**	-.024	.161
CMTactics	**.793**	-.006	.165
CMTeamResults	**.772**	.086	-.036
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.a Rotation converged in 4 iterations.			

Table 21. England manager Rotated Component Matrix			
	Component		
	1	2	3
EMWhereFrom	.037	**.823**	.075
EMPlayingHistory	-.017	**.827**	.021
EMCharacter	.017	.203	**.808**
EMRecord	.205	-.106	**.659**
EMRelationships	.350	.058	**.581**
EMSelections	**.903**	.041	.149
EMTactics	**.863**	-.011	.178
EMTeamResults	**.786**	-.008	.186
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.a Rotation converged in 4 iterations.			

The first factor may be labelled 'manager ability' and includes record, selections, tactics and results of club managers, and results, selections and tactics for England managers. It is interesting to see that manager record does not load on this factor for England managers; this may reflect the fact that most national managers will have little experience as an international manager when appointed. Factor two may be labelled 'background factors' and includes where the manager is from and their history as a player. It is interesting to note that fans do not place the emphasis on history as a player that was observed with academy players in Study 1. This may relate to the academy player's need for identification with the leader, whereas fans focus more heavily on the ability of the manager to perform their role. Factor three may be known as 'personal factors', for club managers this includes leader character and leader relationships with players, and for England managers the management record also loads on this factor. As discussed above, the different loading of manager record implies a slight distinction in priority factors for trust in club and England managers.

6.4 Conclusions and Limitations

The findings drawn from regression analyses of rating items revealed the consistent relevance of Like and Reliability in trust appraisals, but did not provide a complete picture of the trust appraisal. While references to 'liking' the manager also emerged in Study 1, the items employed in this study are not able to entirely explain the trust appraisal; at best, the significant predictors of trust accounted for only 60% of variance. Regression results do not fully support the use of existing items to gauge trust and suggest that several (including IBT items) are ineffective in this context. These issues do confirm that the simple transfer of an organisational trust measure to the football context may not provide particularly conclusive evidence on trust in this setting. This result demonstrates the inherent limitations involved in the employment of scales and supports the use of alternative methods as employed elsewhere in this thesis. The factors emerging from influence ratings where fans responded to factors and terms

which have emerged in the current research appear promising. Future measures may use more context-specific terms related to managers (involving tactics etc) to determine the impact of these factors on trust appraisals.

The findings of the study do indicate that football fans assess different managers by evaluating a similar pattern of factors, and that three components (manager ability, background factors and personal factors) may form distinct aspects of leader evaluation. The results of the current study suggest that fans may employ a 'cognition-saving' implicit theory of leadership during trust appraisals; there could be a prototype of a trusted manager which is common to many fans and this may be worthy of future research.

Chapter 7: Study 5

7.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 reviewed a variety of explanations of both the process of trusting, which ranged from rational-choice to identification-based trust, and factors involved in trust appraisals which may be both cognitive and affective in nature. The research reported in this thesis provides a useful description of trust in football contexts; Studies 1 and 2 allow a detailed view of how players define and appraise trust, while Studies 3 and 4 examine the factors employed when fans make trust appraisals of distant leaders. The research contained in this thesis provides support for calculus-based and knowledge-based processes of trust. In most cases 'higher' forms of interpersonal trust such as affect and identification-based trust (which are observed in other settings) were less evident in football, though liking the manager was referenced by players in Studies 1 and 2, and related to trust by fans in Study 4.

According to the present findings the decision to trust a football leader (for both fans and players) appears to follow a largely cognitive appraisal of factors such as ability, intentions of the leader, and reliability; these are factors which may impact on the leader's performance and/or treatment of the follower. At times categories such as prior results, honesty and fairness are also considered as evidence of how the leader may influence outcomes which concern the follower. The nature of football as an activity creates a context which revolves around results and outcomes. These results tend to predominate over other factors as markers of leader ability; this is evidenced by the extremely high turnover of managers in professional football. This context specific focus seems to be reflected in appraisals by both fans and players, who often place emphasis on outcomes rather than the process of leadership. Even when outcomes or results were not specifically referenced, participants in the current research had a tendency to place great emphasis on factors which directly influence results. For example a follower may appraise results, selections and tactics in order to appraise the managerial ability of the leader. Many of these indicators were central to appraisals made by both players and fans.

7.1.1 Dimensions of trust in football

The four studies demonstrate both distinctive and consistent factors in trust appraisals of players and fans. All four studies provide support for the prominence of cognition-based trust and a smaller proportion of findings also confirm aspects of affect-based trust (predominantly in close player-manager contexts). A central aim of this thesis was to explore the specific factors which are considered in trust appraisals and the research presents detailed illustrations of such factors. Findings from Studies 1-4 support the existence of four overarching trust dimensions which include ability, integrity and

benevolence (three sources of trust presented by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995) and extend the established view of trust in proposing a fourth dimension - relational factors.

Table 22. Four dimensions of trust appraisals in football and their sub-categories

Dimension	Ability								Character and Integrity				Benevolence		Relational		
Categories of Appraisal	Results/ Outcome	Selections	Tactics	Communication	Risk taking	Unconventional behaviour	Experience	Intelligence	Fairness	Charisma	Honesty	Reliability	Intentions	Commitment	Liking	Care and Concern	Respect
Players																	
Study One Academy Interviews	■		■	■			■		■		■	■	■		■	■	■
Study Two Repertory Grid Assessment							■	■			■	■	■	■	■	■	
Fans																	
Study Three World Cup Study of SGE and DB	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■	■	■		■	■			■
Study Four Distant leaders at different proximities												■			■		

■ = category was employed in appraisals, empty fields indicate that data did not emerge (Studies 1-3) or was not assessed (Study 4)

The review detailed in table 22 illustrates the four overarching dimensions of ability, character and integrity, benevolence, and relational factors which have emerged in this research, and details the specific categories which followers use to appraise each dimension. The table also indicates the factors observed in responses of both fans and players and those which are unique to each. The proposed dimensions are discussed below in relation to existing literature and the current research.

Ability, one of the proposed four dimensions, was defined by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) as 'a group of skills, competencies and characteristics' (p.717); Dirks and Ferrin (2002) also describe the appraisal of ability in the formation of cognition-based trust. The ability of managers was assessed by both players and fans through the evaluation of a wide variety of factors. For example, players' assessments of ability have considered results, communication, experience and intelligence. Similarly, fans' assessments of ability have been predominant in their trust appraisals, and centre heavily on specific aspects of the leader role such as selections, tactics and results. The assessment of ability is fundamental to the understanding of trust appraisals in

football contexts where great emphasis is placed upon outcomes. Typically followers employ estimates of competence or ability in the factors most influential to them; fans may focus on the results of the team whereas a player gauges the leader's ability to assist in the development of his/her game. Results suggest that perceptions of ability may initially be based on the known experience or previous results of the leader, whereas the subsequent re-appraisal of trust can be based upon specific competencies such as communication skills, tactics and selections. In the majority of cases the assessment of ability is judged in light of associated outcomes/results, an example of evidence-based cognitive trust. Examples of such judgements were observed in Study 3 where fans attributed a loss of trust to the selection of Theo Walcott, after they became convinced that his selection was illogical. The centrality of ability in trust appraisals is undeniably related to the condition of risk in football, and in turn on the consideration of follower interests. The reliance on the leader to perform particular tasks generates a focus on the ability of the leader to meet the demand.

Another of the four dimensions is character and integrity. Integrity was defined by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) as 'adherence to a particular set of principles' (p.719) and is also regarded as a perceived consistency or congruence between the values of truster and trustee (McAllister, 1995). Factors such as fairness, honesty and reliability or consistency are commonly aligned with integrity. Fairness was a key concern of participants when appraising trust in others; perceived unfairness in team selections was commonly associated with lower levels of trust from both players and fans (though players placed more emphasis upon it). This distinction is understandable in consideration of the interests of followers; players were concerned by favouritism (unfairness) as it could impact upon their personal interests. Furthermore, Study 1 suggested that when players benefitted from unfair actions (the scenario described in Vignette 2) they did not lose trust in the manager. Similarly fans were concerned where favouritism was deemed to have weakened the strength of the team rather than just as a point of principle. Honesty was also related to trust by both players and fans in several of the studies, for example in Study 2 players used honesty-dishonesty to differentiate trusted figures from others (this was recorded within the CSPC construct sincere-insincere); likewise in Study 3 fans listed honesty as a key feature of trusted leaders. Since followers invest trust in the words and actions of leaders a lack of honesty would logically lead to a withdrawal of such trust. Honesty is necessary in order to permit followers to invest in trust relationships; in essence this may be seen as a form of reliability – usually to rely on the words of the leader. The current research offers an extension to the established dimension of integrity, adopting the term 'character and integrity'. This extension is made in order to recognise additional aspects of the leader which followers (particularly fans) appear to involve in trust appraisals. In addition to

integrity which is often appraised through reliability, fairness and honesty, 'character' recognises the appraisal of factors such as passion and charisma which were clearly relevant to fans in Study 3.

The third dimension supported by the current research is benevolence. Benevolence was defined by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman as 'the degree to which the trustee is believed to want to do good' (p.718). Forms of this factor were apparent in several studies although there may be contextual differences which influence perceptions of benevolence in football. In most cases trusters assessed the likely intentions of the trustee, e.g. 'is this person concerned about me or the same things as me', or their 'commitment to the team cause' (in the case of SGE's imminent departure). The role of benevolence can be related to Hardin's 'encapsulated interest' account of trust whereby the truster assesses the interests of the trustee. In the football context benevolence may not be considered a form of altruism, but rather as shared/aligned interests. In this setting 'doing good' is considered doing what is best for the interests of the team or player rather than what is generically 'good'. In Study 3 SGE was criticised for a lack of commitment to the competition (not having the right interests) and players in Study 1 players commended leaders who demonstrated concern for the player as a person. The intentions of the leader (in relation to follower interests) are the key issue in football versions of benevolence.

Throughout the four studies evidence has emerged which suggested that relational factors also influenced trust appraisals in football. Such factors were particularly evident in the findings of Study 1 where players discussed the importance of reciprocal care and concern, and of liking the coach; forms of interpersonal attraction also emerged as a key construct in Study 2 (CSPC constructs such as pleasant-unpleasant and warm-cold). In Study 4 fans consistently rated likeability of distant managers as important in their trust in that manager. As a result, this research proposes an additional dimension of trust in football to the three offered by Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) – relational factors. The relational dimension does confirm the relevance of affective forms of trust, but a reduced number of relational references throughout the research suggest that such forms are secondary to cognitive varieties. While affective dimensions do contribute, trust in football appears to be grounded in task concerns; each of the aforementioned categories and the four dimensions tend to be interpreted in light of how they may influence outcomes important to the follower (their interests). This is in keeping with previous research on cognitive and affective forms of trust (McAllister, 1995; Dirks and Ferrin, 2002) which suggested that cognitive forms are first required in order for affective forms to develop. The current research supports the view that affective forms of trust are 'higher order' forms (that may only be established upon a basis of cognition-based

trust), which are less likely to emerge in distant leadership contexts. In light of previous research findings from Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995), Dirks and Ferrin (2002), McAllister (1995) and findings presented in the thesis thus far, a conceptual model can be proposed. Figure 18 illustrates the operation of trust in football contexts and highlights the factors which are appraised within each of the four dimensions. The figure identifies factors which are common to both close and distant followers and those which are distinct. Note that the trust appraisal process is seen to be continual.

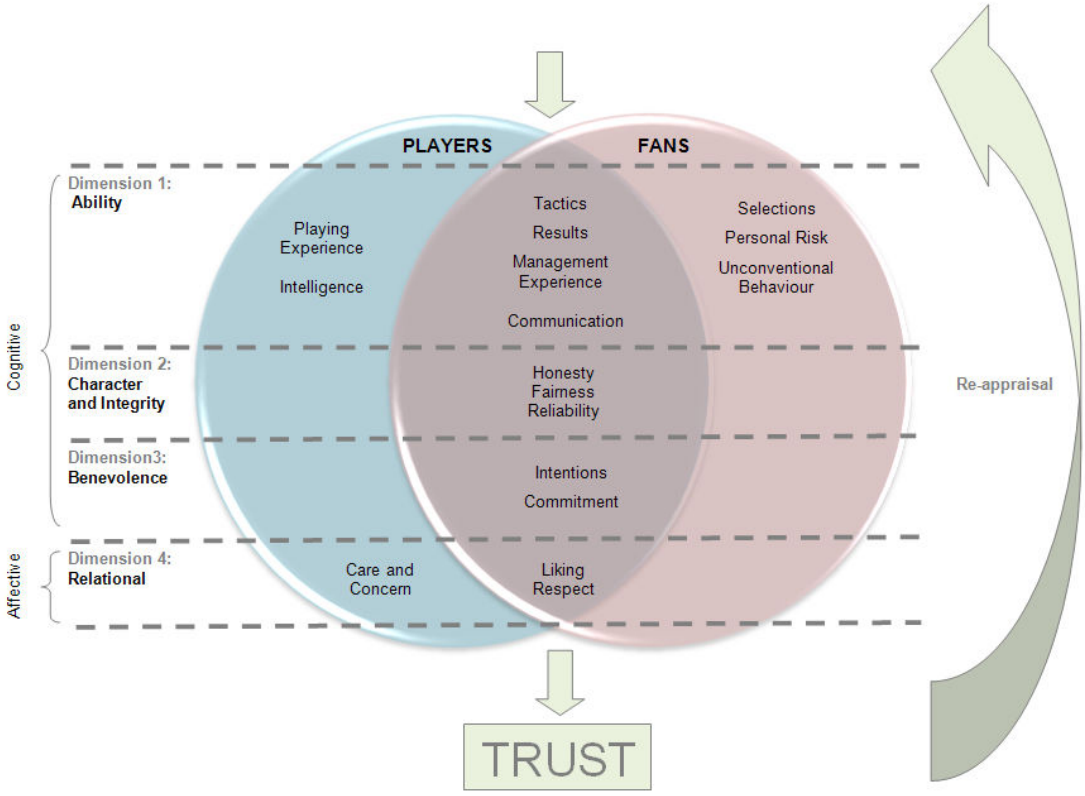


Figure 18. A conceptual model of trust in football.

7.1.2 Aims of Study 5

Studies 1-4 present an initial perspective of trust in the context of football which examines the perspectives of multiple followers, and is strengthened by the employment of several different methods. A particular strength of Studies 1 and 3 was that participants (players and fans) were able to communicate their own thoughts on trust. However, none of the studies thus far has permitted a simultaneous examination of both fans and players. Following the predominantly quantitative approach of Study 4, Study 5 marks a return to qualitative methods and is designed to examine the detail of real world incidents which either built or eroded trust in football managers.

Following the proposed conceptual framework for trust in football, the challenge for the final study was to test the real-world relevance of the framework. The final study employed the Critical Incident Technique (CIT) with a larger sample of football players

and fans in order to extract information on real world incidents which had impacted critically on trust in leaders (either by building or eroding trust).

Study 5 aimed to achieve the following –

i) To conclude the research with a final study of 'real world' experiences.
ii) To directly compare responses of players and fans.
iii) To determine how well the conceptual model emanating from the current series of studies' accounts for trust in 'real world' situations.

7.1.3 Critical Incident research

The critical incident technique (CIT) was designed by John Flanagan in 1954; the method is an inductive procedure which lends itself to both qualitative and quantitative analysis. The aim of CIT is to focus participants on a particular event and allow them to provide their 'story' of a particular incident in a manner which allows researchers to learn about key aspects of such events. Flanagan was a member of the American Aviation Psychology team during World War II and originally developed the method for the aviation industry. The team were tasked with devising a method for identifying effective behaviours of flight crew, particularly behaviours which were critical to the success or failure of a flight mission. Aviation bodies sought a system for the quick and efficient selection and training of the most suitable flight crew candidates. Flanagan's CIT method successfully met such criteria and was widely implemented in subsequent selection criteria and training schedules throughout the aviation industry.

Flanagan emphasised the utility of the CIT for addressing real world, practical problems; since its inception the technique has been successfully employed in a wide number of contexts. The inherent flexibility of the method has permitted its adaptation for a number of investigations including research in organisations, education and health. For example Norman et al. (1992) employed CIT in an assessment of key 'indicators' of high and low quality nursing (from the perspective of both patients and nurses). Their findings confirmed the potential value of the CIT method in nursing research as respondents had provided rich and detailed responses from which the authors were able to draw practical implications.

In a similar study Cox, Bergen and Norman (1993) employed CIT to assess patients' views of specialist cancer care nurses. The results provided an insight into the aspects which crucially affected perceptions of these professionals; these included the possession of specialist knowledge and the specific impact of interventions. Kemppainen (2000) further supported the use of CIT in such settings, highlighting its suitability for exploring patient experiences, dimensions of nurse-patient interactions, and responses of patients to treatment.

Cooner (2006) employed the CIT in an educational setting to allow trainee leaders to reflect upon incidents which were critical to their leadership training. The technique allowed the author to build a picture of the demands of the leadership training. The variety of incidents provided by participants demonstrated the complexity of the leader role they were training for (which had implications for both supervisors and trainees). Elsewhere in educational training, O'Bryant, O'Sullivan and Raudensky (2000) employed CIT among a number of other qualitative methods (including interviews) to assess the socialisation of new physical education teachers; findings from the study propose a number of shared motivating factors and priorities among trainee PE teachers.

Among organisational settings, researchers have employed the technique to explore perceptions of effective leadership. Hamlin and Sawyer (2007) collected 337 reports of effective or ineffective leadership practice and were able to recommend behaviours which organisational leaders should demonstrate (or avoid demonstrating) in order to be considered 'effective'. Behaviours which were most associated with effective leadership included those which focussed on inclusion, openness and facilitating, whilst 'ineffective' leaders were more likely to demonstrate control, compliance and coercion. Such findings are aligned with the principles of transformational leadership discussed in Chapter 1, where followers responded more positively to empowerment than dominance. Hamlin and Sawyer suggest that their recommendations are strengthened by the CIT methodology since the findings were derived from 'real world' experiences of leadership.

Of specific interest to this research is a study from Lapidot, Kark and Shamir (2007), which employed the CIT to elicit followers' accounts of trust in leaders. In their study 733 military cadets provided examples of incidents of trust-building and trust-erosion. The study aimed to specifically examine the impact of situational vulnerability on such incidents and found that vulnerability generally served to increase the chance of trust-erosion incidents. The general findings of the study are discussed in relation to the proposed conceptual model of trust in football (Figure 18). Results demonstrated that ability and integrity were more commonly featured in incidents of trust-erosion and that benevolence was associated with more trust-building incidents. The design and findings of this study lend significant support to the notion that the CIT can be employed effectively to determine factors associated with trust in leaders. As such Study 5 was designed in order to elicit real-world experiences of trust from both players and fans.

7.2 Method

The design of the study was based upon the five-stage recommendation for implementing CIT (Flanagan, 1954). The following section details Flanagan's stages and includes information on participants, measures and procedures.

Stage One: formulating the general aim of the activity

Flanagan highlighted that it is important to set out the general aim of the activity in question prior to beginning the CIT in order to properly assess the findings. In the present study the general aim of leadership in football was established as a process of guidance and social influence which leads a group/individual toward an objective.

Stage Two: setting plans and specifications

At stage two the researcher decided on the particular focus which the CIT would adopt; in this case the aim was to focus on specific incidents which built and eroded trust in football leaders. The number of participants in CIT studies is normally determined by the number of incidents provided rather than the number of participants recruited (Norman et al., 1992). As such it was established that if saturation of categories was not achieved during the first analysis, a second phase of the study would be carried out.

Stage Three: collecting the information

Following ethical approval, the CIT 'retrospective accounts' collection method was adopted in the study; this involved participants providing stories through recall. Norman et al. (1992) recommended eliciting separate 'extremes', and so incidents of trust gained and trust lost were sought rather than asking for a general account of a trust experience. The critical incident elicitation process was based upon that used by Lapidot, Kark and Shamir (2007). Following informed consent, participants were presented with the two items - '*Please think of an incident when you lost/gained trust in a football manager, describe what happened below'*. A space was then provided for the participant to write their own open-ended description of the incident; provision of written accounts (including those provided via the web) is an accepted version of CIT (Sharoff, 2008). A total of 253 participants (170 fans and 83 players) completed the CIT exercise. Players were recruited through contact with their clubs while fans agreed to take part in the study after following a link in a football website forum, all participants completed an informed consent process. A high proportion of the participants in Study 5 also contributed to the data produced in Study 2 (players) or Study 4 (fans).

Stage Four: analysing the information

A procedure for inductive classification of categories was performed with a general aim of describing the issues related to the critical incidents. Consequently, the conceptual framework from this research or models from the literature were not employed during

the analysis (as was the case in Lapidot, Kark and Shamir, 2007). The researchers' primary concern was to determine the underlying factor/factors within each incident and to cluster similar factors together. It was understood that quite distinctive incidents may share similar underlying factors. For example, many players provided a trust-eroding incident which described a promise of selection which was reneged by the manager; similarly, some fans reported a loss of trust after the manager made claims that the team would achieve, but subsequent results were poor. On face value these incidents are about selections (players) and results (fans) but they actually share similar underlying experience – feeling let down or disappointed. Within Stage Four, a five step procedure for analysis was adhered to in order to maximise reliability (Cox, Bergen and Norman, 1993).

Firstly, two independent researchers read and re-read the incidents in order to become familiar with them and removed any incidents which were incomplete or impossible to classify; for example, a number of participants simply indicated that they couldn't think of an incident where they had lost/gained trust in a manager. Next, the lead researcher reviewed the data more critically, independently clustering incidents into similar groupings to form a general framework of categories. In step three, the second researcher was tasked with independently assigning incidents to proposed categories within the framework, or (in the case of incidents which did not appear to fit existing categories) generating new categories. In step four, both researchers came together to discuss the allocations and reach agreements on any incidents upon which they had disagreed. As was the case in the analysis of Study 3, the nature of the football-related incidents resulted in chiefly uncomplicated classifications. In the case of fans there were a vast number of similar types of incidents and (due to the fact that so many of them shared the same leaders) even descriptions of the same incident.

In total the researchers only disagreed on 4% (18 incidents), in these cases the researchers discussed the incident until they were able to reach a consensus. In some cases participants included incidents that might be represented in more than one category, or listed two separate incidents. On these occasions the incident was coded under each of the categories to which it related. The decision to avoid mutually exclusive categories has been employed in earlier CIT studies (Rimon, 1979). The final number of incidents included in the analysis was 449. Finally, as a 'validity check' the framework was reviewed by a third researcher who was able to challenge the inclusion of individual incidents and/or categories.

Stage Five: reporting and interpreting the findings

Following the categorisation in Stage Four, the classified incidents were separated in order to provide separate profiles of player and fan responses among the categories. In

addition the categories of incident were separated by type (trust gained or trust lost) to produce a profile of the most crucial factors in each type of incident.

7.3 Results and Discussion

7.3.1 Categorising critical incidents

The researchers' final framework included 16 separate categories of critical incident (gained-trust and lost-trust), each of which contained between 5 and 86 incidents. The full range of incident allocation is displayed in table 23; as is evident within the table, more than 70% of participant responses were accounted for within just seven of the fifteen factors – *selections, results/outcomes, tactics, competence, interests, disappointments* and *honesty*. Each of the top seven categories is described in detail below the table with exemplar critical incidents, a discussion which relates each category to the literature, and conceptual model of trust in football. The categories are introduced in order of frequency of incidents (highest-lowest). Above any excerpts, the type of participant (player/fan), and type of incident (gained trust/lost trust) is indicated in brackets.

Table 23. Overall allocation of critical incidents to categories (high - low)

	Fans			Players			All participants	
Theme *(N)*	**Gained Trust**	**Lost Trust**	**Fan Total**	**Gained Trust**	**Lost Trust**	**Player Total**	**Totals**	**Cumulative %**
Selections	19.40 % *(26)*	33.19% *(59)*	27.60% *(85)*	1.47% *(1)*	1.37% *(1)*	1.42% *(2)*	**19% *(87)***	**19%**
Results/ Outcomes	30.60% *(41)*	17.82% *(31)*	23.38% *(72)*	8.82% *(6)*	8.22% *(6)*	8.51% *(12)*	**19% *(84)***	**38%**
Tactics	11.19% *(15)*	17.24% *(30)*	14.61% *(45)*	1.47% *(1)*	2.74% *(2)*	2.13% *(3)*	**11% *(48)***	**49%**
Competence	17.16% *(23)*	10.92% *(19)*	13.64% *(42)*	4.41% *(3)*	1.37% *(1)*	2.84% *(4)*	**10% *(46)***	**59%**
Interests	0.75% *(1)*	1.15% *(2)*	0.97% *(3)*	23.53% *(16)*	20.55% *(15)*	21.99% *(31)*	**8% *(34)***	**67%**
Disappointments	-	-		5.88% *(8)*	26.03% *(19)*	19.15% (27)	**6% *(27)***	**73%**
Honesty	5.97% *(8)*	1.15% *(2)*	3.25% *(10)*	4.41% *(2)*	12.33% *(9)*	7.80% *(11)*	**5% *(21)***	**78%**
Care and Concern	0.75% *(1)*	0.57% *(1)*	0.65% *(2)*	2.94% *(16)*	-	11.35% *(16)*	**4% *(18)***	**82%**
Commitment	2.24% *(3)*	1.72% *(3)*	1.95% *(6)*	1.47% *(4)*	6.85% *(5)*	6.38% *(9)*	**3% *(15)***	**85%**
Communication	4.48% *(6)*	1.15% *(2)*	2.60% *(8)*	5.88% *(3)*	2.74% *(2)*	3.55% *(5)*	**3% *(13)***	**88%**
Professional Conduct	1.49% *(2)*	2.30% *(4)*	1.95% *(6)*	2.94% *(2)*	6.85% *(5)*	4.96% *(7)*	**3% *(13)***	**91%**
Personality	3.73% *(5)*	2.87% *(5)*	3.25% *(10)*	1.47% *(1)*	1.37% *(1)*	1.42% *(2)*	**3% *(12)***	**94%**
Relations/Liking	2.24% *(3)*	2.30% *(4)*	2.27% *(7)*	5.88% *(4)*	-	2.84% *(4)*	**2% *(11)***	**96%**
Conflict	-	2.30% *(4)*	1.30% *(4)*	-	5.48% *(4)*	2.84% *(4)*	**2% *(8)***	**98%**
Personal Conduct	-	2.87% *(5)*	1.62% *(5)*	-	2.74% *(2)*	1.42% *(2)*	**1% *(7)***	**99%**
Fairness	-	1.72% *(3)*	0.97% *(3)*	1.47% *(1)*	1.37% *(1)*	1.42% ***(2)***	**1% *(5)***	**100%**
Totals	**134**	**174**	**308**	**68**	**73**	**141**	**449**	

Selections (19.38% of all incidents; 28% of fan incidents, 1% of player incidents)

This aspect of leader ability was referenced the highest number of times among the incidents and was employed most heavily by fans. Selections may be considered one of five sub-factors of manager ability (along with results, tactics, competence and communication skills) and this result supports the emphasis placed upon this area by fans in earlier studies.

> (Fan LT)
> When McClaren dropped Beckham, only to recall him again when he needed him.
>
> (Fan LT)
> Continually picking players for England based on their name rather than current form i.e Frank Lampard, David Beckham, Downing.
>
> (Fan GT)
> Roy Keane opted against playing Craig Gordon in goal, when other managers (despite poor form from the player) would have kept him in the team purely because they paid 9 million pounds for his services.
>
> (Fan GT)
> Recently at my club, the board invested quite a bit of cash in new players over the summer. Unfortunately, one of the pricey new signings, striker Michael Ricketts, turned out to be a dud. In fact, there were some reports filtering through that he was even having a negative impact in the dressing room by flaunting his cash and generally being a bit arrogant. Had this confidence been reflected on the pitch it probably wouldn't have been an issue, but performances were lacklustre and sloppy. Well done to the manager then, for biting the bullet and sending him out on loan, and putting faith in the younger players who have been putting in some great performances ever since.

The influence of selections was also observed in Study 3 where references to the unusual selection of Theo Walcott may have increased its representation. However, in Study 5 fans were able to describe any incident relating to any manager (club or national) and while the Walcott selection did feature, there were a wealth of other examples evident in the incidents. The emphasis on this aspect of ability also supports the evidence offered in Study 4 where a particular 'managerial ability' factor emerged which comprised tactics, selections and results. Clearly fans place a great deal of emphasis on the selection and deployment of playing personnel, and consider this to be a key marker of ability and in turn trust.

Results/Outcomes (18.71% of all incidents, 23% of fan incidents, 9% of player incidents)

Incidents which made reference to outcomes or results were common and cited most often by fans. Having established the importance of ability in this study and throughout

the thesis, this research contends that outcomes and results are used by fans as a method of assessing the ability (and therefore trustworthiness) of managers. The process was also evidenced in the descriptions from players in Study 1 who described an evidence-based form of trust which was built on the successful outcomes of managerial actions/decisions. This result also underlines the importance of interests/football benevolence whereby followers are most highly concerned with their own interests. In the case of fans, success and positive outcomes are a high priority and as such they relate trust to these outcomes.

> (Fan GT)
> Sam Allardyce response when media hype suggested his job was under threat. Commented well and produced two good performances, 1-1 Arsenal then 2-1 against Birmingham. Howay the Toon !!

> (Fan GT)
> Club manager Sir Alex Ferguson winning 20 honours in 21 seasons, spanning from the premiership, champions league and even winning the super cup. Complete success complete trust from me.

> *(Fan LT)*
> Defeat in Russia and having to rely on other results to help qualify for Euro 2008 which in the end we failed to do anyway.

> (Fan LT)
> Failure to qualify for Euro 2008.

Tactics (10.69% of all incidents, 14.61% of fan incidents, 2.13% of player incidents)

This category represents another aspect of ability which was observed heavily in the incidents reported by fans. Tactical ability is an essential role-related competency which impacts upon trust in leaders and this was referenced heavily by fans in Study 3. In the present study players also employed tactical ability in trust appraisals of managers. Again this category is deemed to contribute to perceptions of leader ability, and therefore trust.

> (Player LT)
> I lost trust in my manager when he started playing me out of position (RB). I used to play CM and got moved ½ way through the season. I don't know why he plays me there.

> (Fan GT)
> As Liverpool were 3-0 down in the champions league final at Istanbul Benitez made the decision to bring a defensive midfielder on. Most managers would have chosen to incorporate a more attacking player but as it turned out Benitez was right and the rest of the world was wrong as Haman led Liverpool to victory.

(Fan LT)
When McClaren played Peter Crouch up front on his own agasint Croatia instead of playing 4-4-2 and that he only changed the tactics at half time when he should of done it after 20 minutes.

Competence (10.24% of all incidents, 13.64% of fan incidents, 2.84% of player incidents)

Issues relating to the general competence of managers were observed predominantly in incidents from fans. These incidents included less central or specific aspects of the managerial role including buying/selling players, appointing support staff, communicating knowledge of the game and often inaction of managers. A belief that the manager has general competence contributes to perceptions of the manager's ability. Ability is an established source of trust and featured both in the model from Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) and the framework proposed within this thesis. These cognitive assessments of trust are central to the belief that a manager can be trusted to perform their role.

(Player GT)
First being managed by *****, he has real belief in our team and knowledge.

(Fan GT)
Buying a bunch of players that no one had heard of and creating a successful team (Sven at MCFC).

(Fan LT)
World Cup vs Brazil. 2-1 down and Sven sat in the dugout like a rabbit caught in the headlights.

(Fan LT)
I don't know if I'd already lost trust in McClaren but when Israel beat Russia he acted like it was job done when it clearly wasn't. Idiot!

Interests (7.57% of all incidents, 0.97% of fan incidents, 21.99% of player incidents)

Incidents from the 'interest' section are closely related to the above discussion. Incidents relating to interests were reported most heavily by players, and support the idea that players are highly concerned with their own interests. Stories seem to suggest that leaders who provided opportunities and believed in players were trusted, and those who questioned the ability of a player or limited their opportunity to play were not trusted. This is highly consistent with the core of many definitions of trust where followers gauge whether the leader '*has good intentions towards you.'*

(Player GT)
I have gained trust in my manager in football when he told me that I was a good player and that I will be playing the match, you know that you can trust your manager as they trust you.

(Player GT)
I gained trust in my coach when I started football and they first picked me to play.

(Player LT)
When I was taken off after 15 mins against Blackburn. I never started that well but should have been given more time to play and improve.

(Player LT)
When I was 14 at *********(former club) before I got released a coach called **** said I would not be a professional footballer and I'd reached my potential at 14.

Rather than focussing on aspects of the manager such as ability or integrity, players appear to focus on their own relation with the leader. This suggests that players award trust to those who show faith in them, an example of reciprocation. This finding may be supportive of Case (1998) who determined that 'starters' in a basketball team consistently rated the leader more favourably than 'non-starters'. Case concluded that the finding represented the effects of in-group and out-group segregation, players' references to interests in this research may also be a distinction of in-group and out-group membership. Throughout the current research there was very little evidence that players gained trust in incidents where a manager had acted in the best interests of the team but not the player. This may also be a reflection of the maturity and perspective of the players and/or the level of risk and reliance involved in their context (academy players naturally seek to progress their personal career).

Disappointments (6.01% of all incidents, 0% of fan incidents, 19.15% of player incidents)

The relevance of people either keeping or breaking assurances was a factor which only emerged in incidents reported by players. Many of these incidents related to an erosion of trust following a broken promise and most of these promises related to playing opportunities. The same tendency was evident in trust-building examples where managers '*kept their word'* or '*promised me I'd play and then made sure that I did'*. Broken promises clearly impact on the perceived reliability of leaders (considered a sub-factor of integrity) since words and actions are incongruent. In many senses 'let-downs' are reflections of reliability (or rather lack of reliability), but moreover they inform the player that the leader will not protect their interests or concerns. As in the case of honesty which features later, incongruence may increase the sense of risk to a follower who needs to build a belief that the leader is likely to do as they say. Disappointments

and Honesty are two categories which seem inter-related; certainly both may feature in the same critical incident. This represents a further factor which may relate to the idea of benevolence or interests in football as followers are highly concerned with their interests (wanting to play (player) or for the team to win trophies (fan). A trust belief may often be built on an expectation that these interests will be met; as a result disappointments are inevitable in this competitive environment.

In the model from Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) benevolence is considered the likelihood that the person will 'do good'. This research can extend that view, confirming that in football (particularly in the case of players) 'doing good' is not a general action, but one related to specific football outcomes; in the case of the player, outcomes of highest concern to them. During the course of the research there have been no references to the general 'good' intentions of leaders. Rather, followers are concerned with the team results (in the case of fans) or with their own development and opportunities (in the case of players). Followers are concerned with their interests. There were many examples of this in the incidents provided by players and in their comments in Study 1. The implication of this finding is that managers should not make promises which they cannot deliver or even imply that there may be opportunities which may not emerge as players are highly sensitive to this (as is evidenced in the first quote below). In such cases it is advisable to 'under promise and over-deliver'.

> (Player LT)
> At another club I was a fringe player and always played out of position. One particular game the LB was injured and I played there as a left footer, I was really pleased. After playing well and having both players and the manager tell me this I had the hope of starting the next game. Unfortunately in the next game I was named as sub and the injured player put back on while still injured and this caused me to lose trust in the manager and disbelieve anything positive they tried to say to me.
>
> (Player GT)
> I gained trust in my manager and teammates during my injury as I knew I could trust them if I was struggling to do something, and I could rely on them because they kept their promise they helped me through the long time I was injured for.

Honesty (4.68% of all incidents, 3.25% of fan incidents, 7.80% of player incidents)

This factor has emerged in a number of studies throughout the thesis and featured in the conceptual framework shown in Figure 18. Perceptions of honesty are integral to trust appraisals as honesty impacts highly on followers' sense of vulnerability. In general a leader who is honest may be commended for such behaviour (see the first fan incident below); honesty provides information to a truster which can be used to base beliefs including trust. If a leader has demonstrated dishonesty then it is difficult to rely on the words and actions of that person in the context of risk since their behaviour and

accuracy of their statements are difficult to predict. Managers should avoid dishonesty and might be advised to be very honest (even when it is difficult to do so) as this appears to win the trust of followers.

> (Fan GT)
> Acting honestly when describing results/poor performances (Arsene Wenger's initial stand when joining though not so much now).
>
> (Player LT)
> I lost trust in an ex coach due to the fact she was dishonest with myself and my team mates about a situation which occurred within the club to do with new players.

7.3.2 Comparing player and fan incidents

The descriptions of critical incidents above, and the information contained in table 23, demonstrate that fans' and players' incidents fell in to different factor categories. Figure 19 presents an overview of fan and player, gained and lost trust incidents for over 70% of incidents. Similar clusters of factors appear related to gained and lost trust incidents for each group, but the factors employed by fans and players are different. A clear distinction is evident whereby fans' incidents are clustered highly around categories such as selections, results and tactics while players' incidents centre on interests, disappointments, and care and concern. Figure 19 also demonstrates that descriptions of selections, tactics and disappointments appear more frequently among lost trust incidents than within gained trust ones. In contrast, issues such as results and care and concern, appear to precede gained trust incidents more regularly than lost trust incidents.

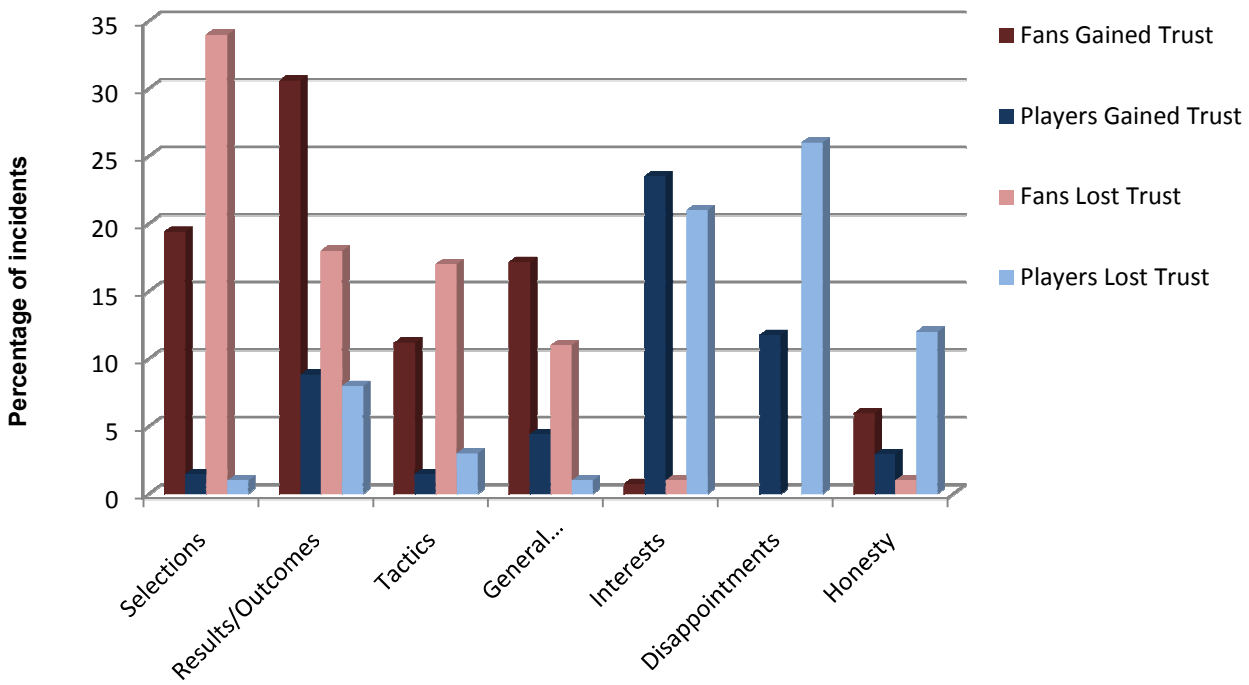


Figure 19. Allocations of gained and lost trust critical incidents among the top 7 categories for all participants

Figure 20 displays the gained trust incidents described by players and fans where a similar pattern is clear. A particular increase is evident for players in the care and concern category; fans continue to emphasise role related factors including selection and results. Figure 21 displays the lost trust incidents described by both close and distant followers (players and fans). Again, a clear emphasis on role related actions is observed in the incidents of fans while players appear to describe aspects such as dissapointments and interests.

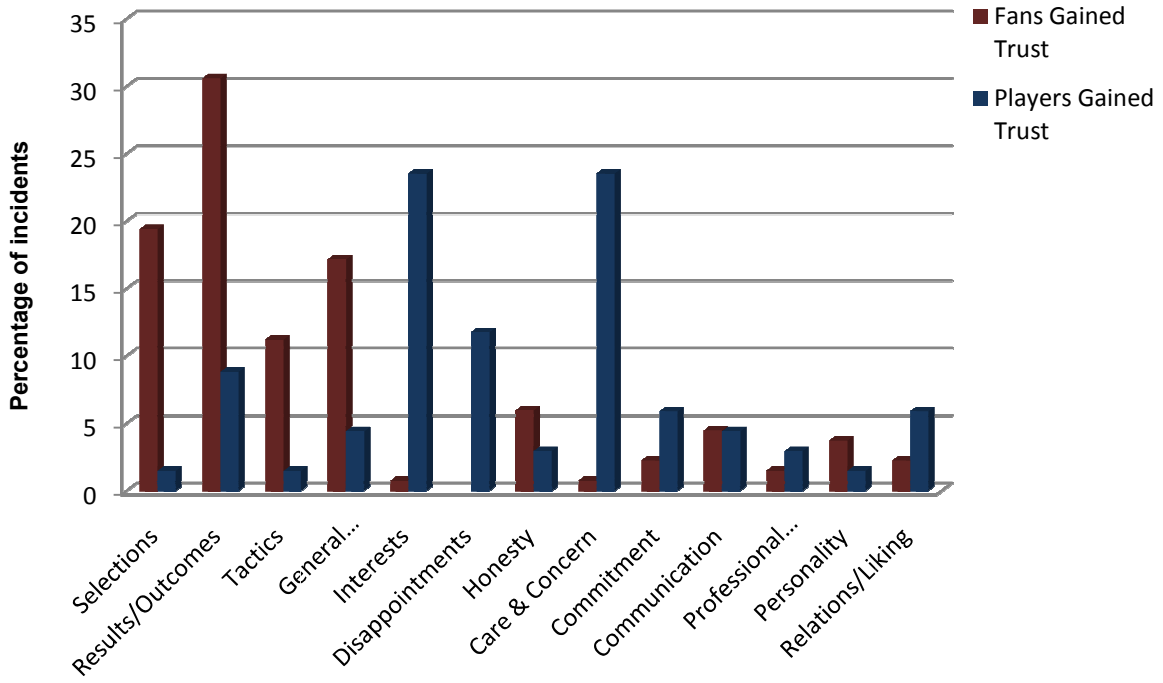


Figure 20. Categories of gained trust critical incidents for all participants

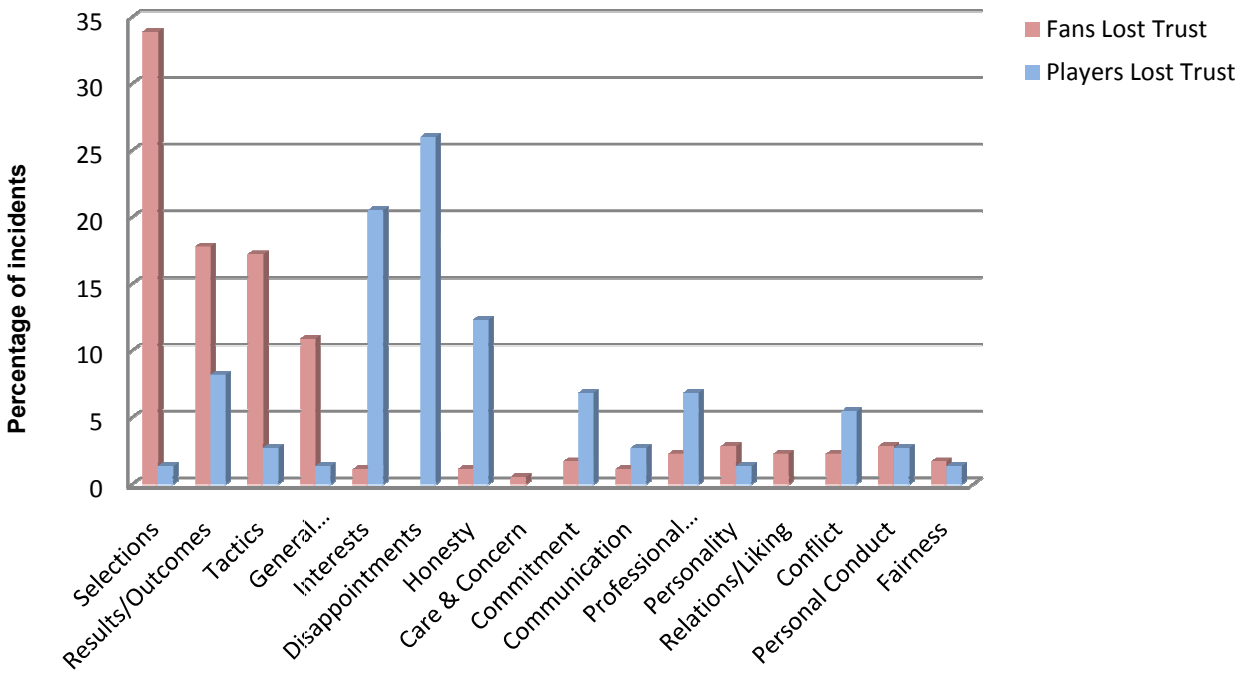


Figure 21. Categories of lost trust critical incidents for all participants

The incidents displayed in Figures 19-21 are useful in confirming the distinction between players' and fans' trust in managers. Such differences may occur as a result of the distance and/or the nature of the involvement with the manager (including the level of risk involved). Furthermore, in the case of players, the figures demonstrate a distinction in categories employed in gained trust and lost trust incidents.

The current research aimed to assess differences in trust appraisals of close and distant followers. As the first study to directly compare responses from both players and fans, the results of the current investigation appear to present clear differences in the appraisals performed by the two groups. Figures 22 and 23 graphically illustrate the types of categories employed by fans and players in eighty percent of all critical incidents; these display the fact that players appear to consider a wider range of issues than fans. This result may imply that players employ a more systematic appraisal than fans who adopt a more heuristic route to gauging trust; perhaps employing an implicit leadership theory in their appraisal. Such a contention may well be in keeping with suggestions from Chaiken (1980) that those with higher motivation follow more detailed and considered thought processes. It is also likely that this difference is influenced by the availability of information; a fan appraising factors which they can evaluate and (given the distance) these are limited in comparison to those which the player may observe.

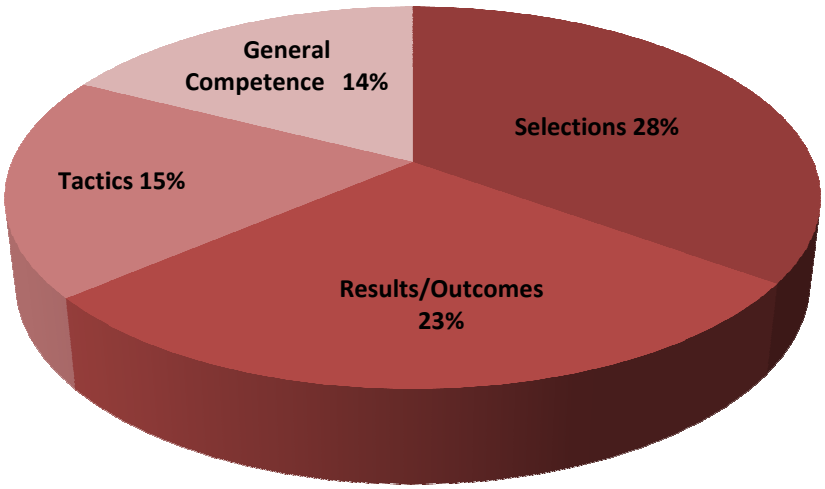


Figure 22. Distribution of categories employed by fans in 80% of fans' trust appraisals

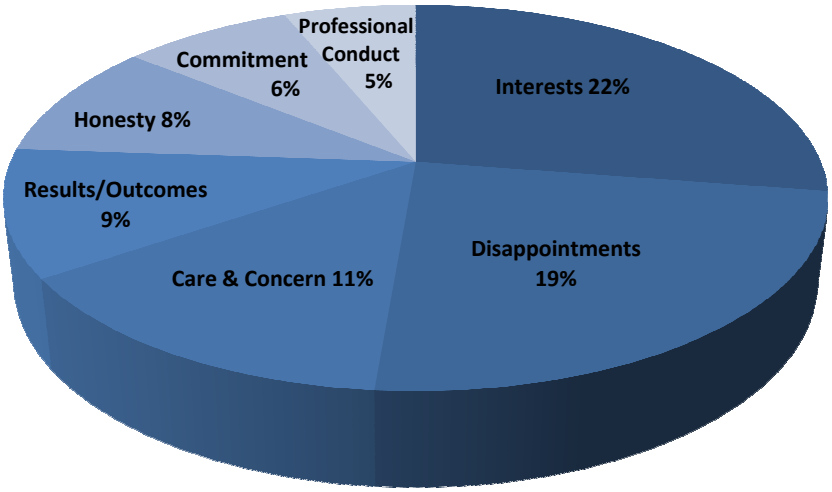


Figure 23. Distribution of categories employed by players in 80% of players' trust appraisals

While the category allocations above may imply distinctive types of appraisal from players and fans, understanding may only be reached through the interpretation of these group categories within higher order themes. Table 24 demonstrates the fit of the critical incident categories within the four dimensions of trust (ability, benevolence, character and integrity and relational) which were suggested earlier.

Table 24 illustrates the predominance of ability categories in the trust appraisals of fans, and the wider distribution of categories in the appraisals of players. The strongest influence on player appraisals appears to be benevolence, while the remainder of incidents are distributed more evenly among the remaining three dimensions of trust. Figure 24 demonstrates very similar distribution patterns in gained trust and lost trust incidents (almost identical for fans) among the four trust dimensions. Here it is shown that players' gained trust and lost trust incidents were most commonly related to benevolence, within their lost-trust incidents a sharp rise in references to character and integrity was observed. This finding is consistent with those of Lapidot, Kark and Shamir (2007), who suggested that integrity was more closely related to trust-erosion than trust-building.

Table 24. Critical Incident categories within four dimensions of trust

		Fans			Players			
	Theme	**Gained Trust**	**Lost Trust**	**Fan Total**	**Gained Trust**	**Lost Trust**	**Player Total**	**Totals**
Ability All (61.92%) Fans (81.83%) Players (18.45%)	Selections	19.40%	33.19%	27.60%	1.47%	1.37%	1.42%	***19.38%***
	Results/ Outcomes	30.60%	17.82%	23.38%	8.82%	8.22%	8.51%	**18.71%**
	Tactics	11.19%	17.24%	14.61%	1.47%	2.74%	2.13%	**10.69%**
	Competence	17.16%	10.92%	13.64%	4.41%	1.37%	2.84%	**10.24%**
	Communication	4.48%	1.15%	2.60%	5.88%	2.74%	3.55%	**2.90%**
Benevolence All (16.92%) Fans (2.92%) Players (47.52%)	Interests	0.75%	1.15%	0.97%	23.53%	20.55%	21.99%	**7.57%**
	Disappointments	-	-		5.88%	26.03%	19.15%	**6.01%**
	Commitment	2.24%	1.72%	1.95%	1.47%	6.85%	6.38%	**3.34%**
Character and Integrity All (12.92%) Fans (11.04%) Players (17.02%)	Honesty	5.97%	1.15%	3.25%	4.41%	12.33%	7.80%	**4.68%**
	Professional Conduct	1.49%	2.30%	1.95%	2.94%	6.85%	4.96%	**2.90%**
	Personality	3.73%	2.87%	3.25%	1.47%	1.37%	1.42%	**2.67%**
	Personal Conduct	-	2.87%	1.62%	-	2.74%	1.42%	**1.56%**
	Fairness	-	1.72%	0.97%	1.47%	1.37%	1.42%	**1.11%**
Relational All (8.24%) Fans (4%) Players (17.03%)	Care and Concern	0.75%	0.57%	0.65%	2.94%	-	11.35%	**4.01%**
	Relations/Liking	2.24%	2.30%	2.27%	5.88%	-	2.84%	**2.45%**
	Conflict	-	2.30%	1.30%	-	5.48%	2.84%	**1.78%**

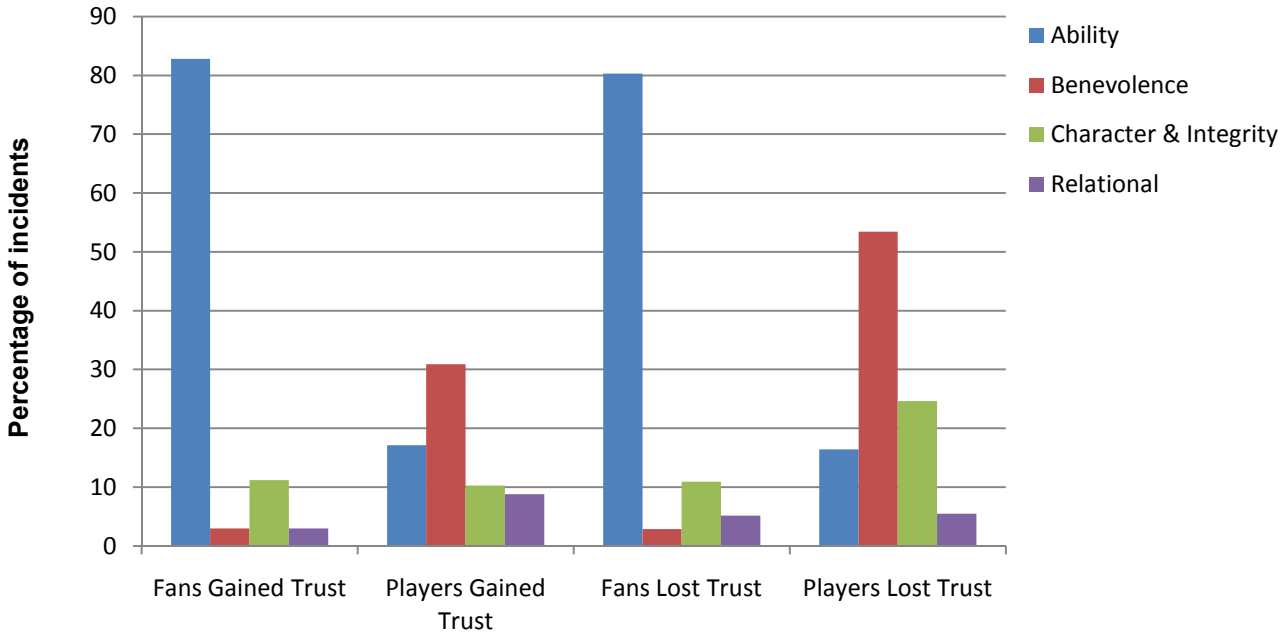


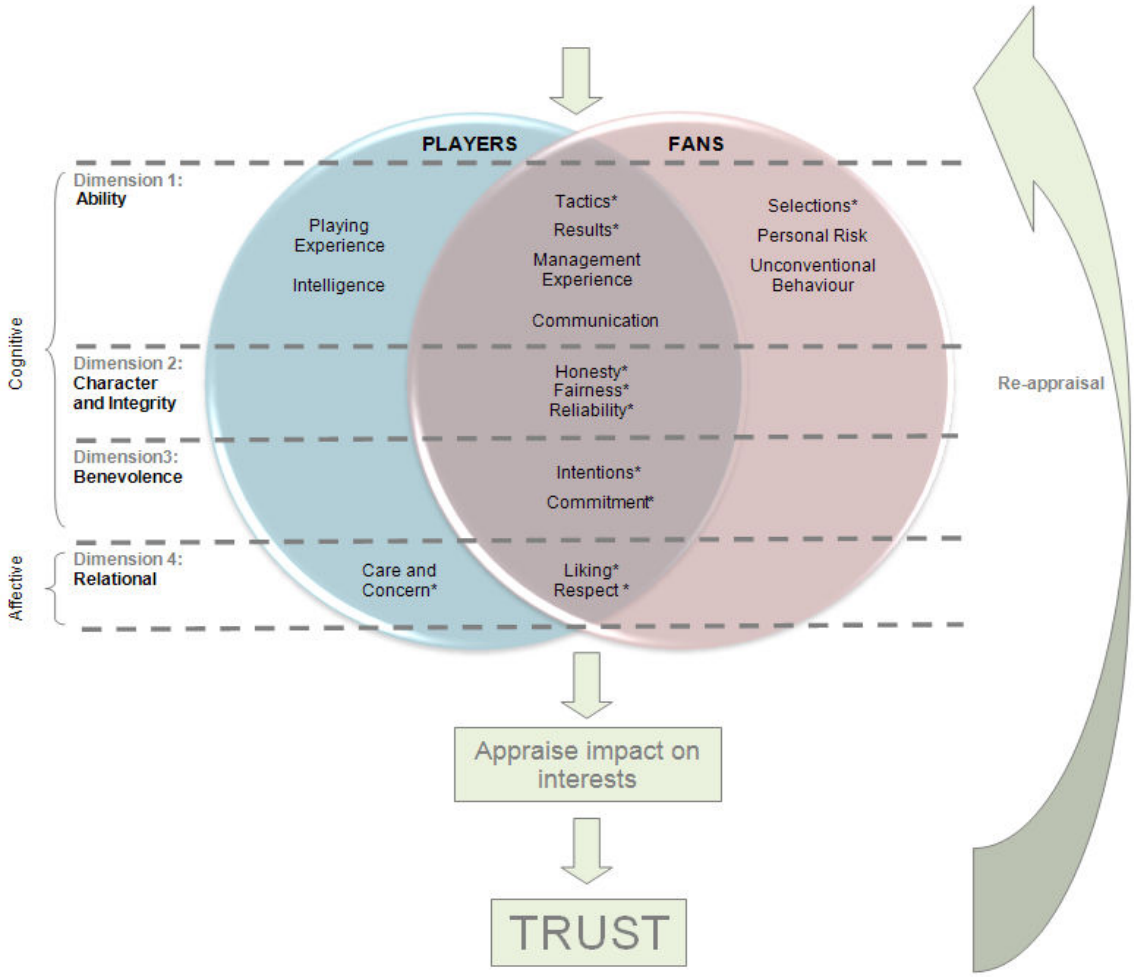
Figure 24. Distribution of gained trust and lost trust critical incidents within the four dimensions of trust

What is clear from the findings is that a distinction exists between gain-trust and lost-trust incidents of players whereas fans employ almost identical factors in the consideration of each. As well as demonstrating differences in available information, this finding reflects the differences in interests of each group; players must evaluate leaders in a more complex fashion than fans who may focus heavily on the ability of the leader.

7.4 Conclusion and Limitations

Both close and distant followers employ knowledge of the leader to determine how he/she is likely to impact upon their own interests under conditions of risk. Players tend to focus on ability and relational factors, and whether the manager is likely to provide them with opportunities to play (their interest). Fans employ information available to them to determine the ability of the leader to provide results for the team (their interest) and focus upon a number of specific areas such as selections and tactics as the best 'markers' of leader ability. Issues of integrity such as honesty, reliability and fairness are observed throughout the thesis and in the critical incident accounts of trust. These factors appear to be relevant to the appraisal process, but secondary to those mentioned above. The findings from the player group lend support to research from Lapidot, Kark and Shamir (2007) in confirming the relevance of benevolence (interests) in trust-building and integrity in trust-busting incidents. This issue is not applicable to the fan group who have no opportunity to develop a relationship, and tend to focus on ability in trust appraisals of leaders.

Such emphasis on the interests of followers relates strongly to the theory of transformational leaders who are said to inspire followers to accept the vision for the group (Bass and Riggio, 2006). This research demonstrates that in incidences where the interests of followers may be met through the interests of the group, higher trust in the group leader may emerge. Consequently, any comprehensive assessment of the operation of trust in football must acknowledge the relevance of follower interests in predicting the sources of leader appraisal, and the forms of trust which may develop. A revised version of Figure 18 (which has been updated to recognise the role of follower interests) is presented below in Figure 25. This model incorporates the full range of trust influences suggested in this research and marks those which were observed in 'real –world' incidents in Study 5.



*demonstrates factors observed in real-world critical incidents

Figure 25. Updated conceptual model of trust in football contexts

There are some limitations to this study and implementation of the CIT. As was encountered within some earlier studies, responses were not always complete or useful, and some respondents were unable to provide an incident or provided one which was

quite generic in nature. Researchers with experience of the CIT highlight that incidents are not always accounts of single happenings, but rather an amalgamation of incidents of a single type (Norman et al., 1992; Sharoff, 2008). This was the case here in that some fans made reference to a 'type' of incident (with some detail); these were still considered valuable to this research and included in the analysis. In future it may be useful to repeat the CIT with such participants within individual interviews (rather than online or in group settings) in order to assist participants in understanding the nature of critical incidents and to ensure more distinct 'incidents' are elicited. Although the framework of studies 1-4 was not explicitly employed, the researcher was obviously highly familiar with it; thus the potential bias of the lead researcher's role in the analysis is acknowledged. It is felt that the involvement of two independent researchers served to greatly reduce the possible influence of this bias. Use of the critical incident technique in both sport and trust research is recommended since the flexibility and simplicity of its design permit a wide variety of applications. The quality of information gathered from such techniques might be particularly useful in exploring trust-building and trust-erosion within close coach-athlete relationships.

Chapter 8: Review & Implications

8.1 Review

The aim of this final chapter is to present a brief overview of Studies 1-5, to evaluate the theoretical and methodological implications of the findings, and to suggest areas for future research.

The research programme began with a qualitative exploration of trust using interviews with academy footballers. Adopting a grounded-theory approach, these in-depth interviews informed a developing conceptual framework of trust in football academies and provided data which was both extensive and rich. Findings demonstrated the relevance of trust in football settings; players discussed cognitive factors (evidence-based and character-based) and affective factors (relational issues) which impacted on trust in managers. There was also an indication that academy players award an initial level of almost un-appraised trust, based on presumptive or institutional trust. The development of trust in the setting was described as a 'trial and error' process where players trust leaders, until recognising a reason not to trust. Cognition-based influences included the manager's playing experience, fairness and honesty; evidence-based factors focussed on results, reliability, communication skills and application of knowledge. Relational or affect-based influences included liking, sensing care and concern from the manager and getting on well. The chapter confirmed the relevance of established cognitive and affective forms of trust, illustrated the particular factors employed by male players in trust appraisals and provided grounding for subsequent studies.

The second study employed the repertory grid technique (Kelly, 1955), and sought to assess the criteria employed by players in constructing trust and distrust. Results demonstrated that trusted figures were grouped with liked figures, but were still constructed slightly differently, suggesting a distinction between what makes someone liked and what makes them trusted. An analysis of triads within the repertory grids revealed that trusted figures were constructed through assessments of reliability, personal characteristics and interactions. Within each of these, specific aspects of the trustee such as integrity (honesty) ability (intelligence) and benevolence (sympathetic) were assessed. The number of common constructs employed by players suggested a similar pattern in appraising trust. There were no significant differences in the constructs of male and female players, confirming that perceptions of trust in football follow similar patterns for both genders. This study established the relevance of trust in the football context, and provided more extensive information on the sources of trust appraisals for players; furthermore it incorporated a unique methodology which was confirmed as a challenging but effective research tool. A comprehensive picture of

players' trust in managers emerged in the first two studies, permitting future comparisons with other crucial followers in the context.

Study 3 utilised an online survey method in a repeated measures design; this approach advanced the earlier studies by tracking levels of trust 'live' during an ongoing international competition, and recruiting larger numbers of participants via internet discussion boards. The unique design of the study was a strength of the chapter which combined quantitative ratings with qualitative descriptions to gain a unique insight into fans' trust in leaders. A significant decline in trust over the course of the competition confirmed trust as a process involving regular re-appraisals. Analysis of fans' reasons for trust gains and trust losses revealed that fans' trust appraisals are heavily cognitive and that identification-based trust is rarely observed; a finding which challenges the employment of identification-based trust measures in distant leadership situations. Qualitative analyses showed that particular 'markers' were used to appraise trust in the manager; these centred around role related actions such as tactics and selections and resultant outcomes including defeats. There was also some evidence that aspects of leadership which are traditionally considered 'transformational' were appraised by fans including charisma, articulating a vision (communication), unconventional behaviour (Walcott's selection) and personal risk (SGE leaving).

Study 4 also utilised the online survey method with fans, in this case to assess the impact of level of proximity of distant leaders, determining that closer distant leaders (club managers) were trusted more highly than more distant (national) managers. This entirely quantitative study also determined that several items which are used commonly in the trust literature appear to have little or no relevance to trust in distant football leaders. For example, identification-based items (from scales by Lewicki et al.) such as 'the manager is a lot like me', and 'I can predict the manager's behaviour', were not strong predictors of trust. Perceptions of *like* (a factor emerging from results of this thesis) and *reliability* (common in cognition-based measures) were consistent predictors of trust in <u>both</u> club and national managers; perceptions of *competence* also accounted for some variance in trust. The issue of '*like*' for managers is difficult to explain in the context of distant leadership; it was suggested that *like* may occur as a consequence of other key factors. This result served to highlight the limitations in the use of scales to explore trust in new settings; it was difficult to determine what players meant by the ratings of *like* and *reliability*. The consistent pattern among fans' trust appraisals suggests that an implicit theory of football leadership may be used to assess both club and national managers; a 'prototype' trusted manager may exist for distant followers. Employment of such a prototype in trust appraisals may represent a heuristic or cognition-saving approach to the evaluation.

Fans also rated the relevance of more specific sub-factors (which had emerged in the thesis) and three clear underlying factors emerged; these were: Managerial Ability (selections, tactics, results, record), Background Factors (where manager is from, record as a player) and Personal Factors (leader character and relationships with players). It was suggested that future research could assess whether these factors may be better predictors of trust in football managers.

The fifth and final study marked a return to 'real world' descriptions of trust and employed the critical incident technique (CIT) (Flanagan, 1954), to gather descriptions of incidents which preceded a gain or loss of trust. The central aim of the study was to compare player and fan responses to a conceptual model based on the findings of studies 1-4. Results demonstrated that the influences on trust which had emerged through a variety of methods in the previous studies readily accounted for the descriptions of real life trust gain and trust lost incidents. The study demonstrated that key dimensions (ability, benevolence, integrity, and relational issues) are each appraised by followers in relation to their own interests prior to an award of trust. The pattern of influences among players and fans was distinct, but it was felt that this reflected a difference in their interests.

8.2 Theoretical Implications

This thesis provides a valuable description of trust in football contexts; furthermore, the work offers a conceptual model of trust based upon empirical findings, and presents theoretical implications for several sectors of existing research. For example, trust scholars have indicated that the presence of risk is a pre-requisite for trust development; the current findings indicate that risk is present for both football players and fans. Specifically, football followers are vulnerable to the team manager who has control over crucial factors and the nature of football contributes to increased uncertainty for followers (particularly fans who cannot influence the game on the pitch); these factors, alongside the importance placed upon football by such followers, result in risk. In contrast to organisational followers, the perception of risk for academy players (and similar professional athletes) can be exacerbated by their intense personal investment in the sporting process and performance outcomes, suggesting that elite level sport settings may well provide a rich environment for future trust research.

Several 'types' of trust, such as those described within the literature by Lewicki and colleagues (1995; 1996; 2006), and Rousseau et al. (1998), were evident in these studies of football. Weaker forms such as presumptive, deterrence-based, and calculus-based trust (which permit only low risk-taking from followers) were present, but much of the evidence indicates that football followers make a more detailed appraisal of their

leader; trust in football certainly appears to operate beyond the rational-choice explanations preferred by some theorists. Instead, improved forms such as knowledge-based or cognition-based trust were most prevalent, suggesting that followers seek to gain information about their leader during the appraisal process. Knowledge-based trust is often associated with a process of social exchange but can be considered a cognition-based form of trust since it relies on perceptions the leader. Since there can be little, if any, reciprocation between a football leader and fan, the process of social exchange appears inadequate in explaining trust in distant figures. This research promotes the view that cognition-based forms of trust offer the strongest explanation of trust in action. Football players and fans are shown to appraise trust in a predominantly cognitive fashion, whether this is a weak calculus-based form or a detailed cognition-based appraisal of relevant leader characteristics.

According to McAllister, Lewicki and Chaturvedi (2006) two 'higher' forms of trust are affect-based and identification-based trust. Football players in this research did appraise some relationship-based or emotional aspects of their relationship with the leader, though such aspects appear secondary to cognitive concerns. This result mirrors suggestions in the literature that cognition-based trust precedes the formation of the affect-based variety (Murnighan, Malhotra & Weber, 2004). Crucially, the present research suggests that identification-based trust does not appear to be a particularly relevant form of trust in the context of football, particularly in distant leadership scenarios. Instead, a heavy focus on ability suggests that what football leaders 'do' far supersedes the influence of 'who they are' in the eyes of followers. These findings raise questions about the use of identification-based measures of trust when examining distant leadership (as used in a presidential study by Pillai et. al, 2003). Researchers who aim to examine trust in distant leaders should exercise caution in selecting the most appropriate trust scales.

Aspects of this thesis may further inform studies of leadership at distance; the distant follower studies included in this research confirm the relevance of fans as a follower group, and the undeniable interest shown in national and club level football leaders. As with political figures, such leaders are unable to form close bonds with followers and must gain their trust through other means. This research demonstrates the typical focus employed by distant followers in football and also indicates that fans may employ a similar leader 'prototype' when appraising trust in different football leaders. Future research on leader prototypes may benefit from studying manager transitions, exploring the appraisal of a new leader following the departure of an established one. Although the studies did uncover some distinctive aspects of close and distant appraisals, a high number of the cognitive factors were employed by both players and fans. The focal point

of the thesis is the suggestion that all influences on trust are in fact appraised in light of follower interests; therefore recognition of follower interests is crucial to understanding trust appraisals.

A notable strength of the current programme is the contribution it offers to the existing literature on charismatic and transformational leadership, predominantly through findings on follower interests. While the aforementioned sectors have produced a wealth of research promoting the influence of 'extra-ordinary' figures on the minds and behaviours of followers, few findings manage to extrapolate exactly how such leaders bring about these responses. Transformational theorists have sought to de-mystify such leaders, identifying key attributes and actions of effective leadership. In much of this transformational literature trust is consistently associated with effective leadership, but it is only rarely defined and expressly tested. For example authors such as Podsakoff et al. (1990) conceive trust to be the mediator of transformational leader behaviours and follower responses, though they were unable to isolate the specific behaviours which serve to build trust. In summary, the operational role of trust has remained ill-defined, even within the highly developed transformational models of the past decade.

This research programme proposes that high levels of trust in transformational leaders reported within the literature may result from a transition of follower interests – the process of aligning follower interests with the interests of the group. This may form part of the Inspirational Motivation described in Bass & Riggio's (2006) 4I model of leadership; within this dimension leaders provide 'meaning and challenge to followers' work' (p.6). Transformational leaders may build trust by demonstrating to followers how meeting the needs and challenges of the group could also achieve their own personal needs. Results from the current research certainly support the notion that trust is built when leaders address the interests of the follower; considering the individual interests of followers in a group setting appears to be one crucial challenge of effective transformational leadership. Future research may include specific examinations of follower interests and trust in leaders to determine the full impact of this aspect of leadership.

A key finding of this work confirms the relevance of both cognitive and affective forms of trust in this setting, and demonstrates that cognitive aspects of trust tend to predominate over affective ones. While such outcomes mirror findings from existing psychological research (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002), they also serve to question the conceptualisation of trust within models of the coach-athlete relationship forwarded by Jowett and colleagues over the past decade. Evidence presented in this thesis confirms that trust is multi-dimensional and related more highly to task than relational issues. It is clear that the

current 'I trust my coach' item included in the CART-Q measure (Jowett and Ntoumanis, 2004), is unlikely to accurately represent the complex factor which is trust. Moreover, although the importance of trust is emphasised by coach-athlete researchers, there appears little specific theoretical basis for its inclusion and location within the current coach-athlete relationship model. Jowett and colleagues consistently conceptualise trust as an affective dimension of the coach-athlete relationship. In contrast, the present research provides empirical evidence that trust in sports leaders has both cognitive and affective components, of which the cognitive factors tend to predominate. It is conceivable that the mechanics of close coach-athlete dyads among individual (rather than team sports) may result in wholly different descriptions of trust than those found in this research. For example, individual coach-athlete relations may elicit identification-based trust; therefore studies which explore forms of trust in both individual and team leaders may provide useful extensions to existing models. Overall, the current research concurs with the assessment of Lavoi (2007), who called for further inductive approaches to research on coach-athlete relationships and particular exploration of the factors which constitute 'closeness' in the CART-Q measure. Specific assessments of trust within coach-athlete relationships would certainly advance understanding of this crucial bond and further test the existing literature.

The current research details the sources employed in trust appraisals and confirms that some trust may be awarded by football players at the outset; however, little is known about incidents of trust violation in sport contexts. Explorations of distrust in both team and individual sports may provide further insight on the role and influence of follower interests. Researchers from organisational settings have begun to explore and describe the issue of trust repair; this area may also present a worthy focus within future studies of the coach-athlete relationship. Finally, this research represents a distinctive methodological approach to research on trust and sport leadership. Results demonstrate the true value of qualitative methods in providing rich and insightful information in a particular context. The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was effective in this research since the primary objective in all studies was to gain understanding of trust in football. It is hoped that the depth and quality of the information presented has allowed followers to openly describe their perceptions of trust in football contexts, and has resulted in a genuine contribution to theoretical knowledge in this area.

8.3 Applied implications

Alongside the varied theoretical implications provided by this research, certain findings might also inform applied practitioners and training providers within sport. Trust in sports leaders has consistently been regarded as a positive feature of effective leadership in sport; this is certainly evidenced by the inclusion of trust in coaching codes of conduct. However, the actual mechanics for building and maintaining trust in sport have never been explicitly assessed. The current research provides an evidence-based grounding for understanding trust in football leaders, and may form the basis for future leader training programmes and initiatives. The Football Association (FA) or individual club academies may guide staff and implement procedures which help to elicit trust from players. Such processes could include taking action to reduce perceptions of uncertainty and vulnerability which inevitably contribute to high perceptions of risk. Participants in the present research indicated that the football environment is fast-changing and unstable, one where removal from the club can come without warning and players may fall 'out of favour' without explanation. While certain aspects of this culture are partly a function of the business demands of the setting, there is some evidence that clubs might improve their management of the player environment to reduce potentially deleterious effects of high risk and low trust.

For example, academy football leaders might benefit from an understanding of the way that followers evaluate them. Managers could act to provide clarity within their decision making, thereby providing followers with greater levels of information for their appraisals. Furthermore, particular transformational behaviours such as 'Articulating a vision' and 'Providing an Appropriate model' seem central to the aim of informing followers of the intentions of the leader and the route they plan to take to achieve their aims. A key recommendation for leaders would be to demonstrate how the interests of players may be met through the objectives of the team. In practice, the centrality of interests in trust appraisals presents an interesting dilemma in player-leader trust relations, since a team manager may not be able to concurrently act in the best interests of the team and every individual player. This may result in a lack of trust from players who perceive that their own interests are not being met. In academy football settings there is a greater focus on the development of players than the performance of the team; future research may assess trust in close leader-follower relationships where more emphasis is placed upon team performance. For leaders, a possible solution to this issue is to raise followers to identify with the team interests above and beyond their own; indeed this is a recognised feature of transformational leadership but one which may bring inherent challenges for leaders.

When leading football followers at distance, the issue of interests is likely to be less of an issue. In general, the fans who participated in the current research were interested primarily in positive outcomes and performances for the team, managers are likely to have the same focus. The thesis suggests that distant leaders also build trust primarily through meeting the interests of followers (winning games and ensuring good performances), but also through ensuring that they clearly articulate their vision for the team and take care in adopting risky or unconventional strategies. Results from Study 3 suggest that leaders who attempt something unconventional and fail are regarded less highly than those who make no such attempts.

In both close and distant leadership scenarios the character and integrity, ability, and benevolence of the manager were most crucial to trust assessments. Managers may benefit from an approach which ensures that positive information about these dimensions is available. The critical recommendation for football leaders is to understand that information about them, their aims and methods is employed by followers to appraise the impact on their own interests before any award of trust is made.

Appendix 1. Trust definitions

Definition	Disposition	Belief/Expectation	Benevolence	Risk	Reliance
The conscious regulation of one's dependence on another Zand (1972)					✔
The extent to which one is willing to ascribe good intentions to and have confidence in the words and actions of other people (Cook and Wall, 1980)	✔	✔	✔		
1. trust entails the assumption of risks some form of trust in inherent in all relationships, willingness to take risks (one of the few characteristics common to all trust situations) (Johnson-George and Swap, 1982)				✔	
A state involving confident positive expectations about another's motives with respect to oneself in situations entailing risk (Boon and Holmes, 1991)		✔		✔	
The extent to which a person is confident in, and willing to act on the basis of, the words, actions and decisions, of another (McAllister, 1995)		✔			✔
The willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other party will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control the other party (Mayer, Davis and Schoorman., 1995)		✔		✔	✔
Trust implies a belief that an individual will not act opportunistically or in a self-serving manner; belief of a congruence of values (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995)		✔	✔		
Risk or having something invested, is requisite to trust; trust is evident only in situations where the potential damage from unfulfilled trust is greater than possible gain if trust is fulfilled (Sheppard & Sherman, 1998)				✔	
Trust reflects an expectation or belief that the other party will act benevolently (Whitener et al., 1998)		✔	✔		
Confident positive expectations regarding another's conduct in a context of risk (Lewicki, McAllister and Bies., 1998)		✔		✔	
A psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability (to another) based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another (Rousseau et al., 1998)		✔	✔		✔
Willingness to be vulnerable Willingness to rely on another (Rousseau et al., 1998)					✔
Two components: Trusting intention: one is willing to depend on the other person in a given situation Trusting beliefs: one believes the other person is benevolent, competent, honest, or predictable in a situation (McKnight, Cummings and Chervany, 1998)			✔		✔
Accepting the risks associated with the type and depth of the interdependence inherent in a given relationship (Sheppard and Sherman, 1998)				✔	✔
One believes in and is willing to depend on another party ()		✔			✔
Disposition to trust: refers to a tendency to be willing to depend on others (McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998)	✔				
Trust (3 Facets) 1. trust in another party reflects an expectation or belief that the other party will act benevolently. 2. trust involves a willingness to be vulnerable and risk that the other party may not fulfil the expectations. 3. trust involves some level of dependency on the other party so that the outcomes of one individual are influenced by the actions of another Trust can be viewed as an attitude (derived from trustor's perceptions, beliefs, and attributions about the trustee based upon trustee's behavior) held by one individual toward another (Whitener et al., 1998)		✔	✔	✔	✔
Based on individuals' expectations that others will behave in ways that are helpful or at least not harmful (Williams, 2001; Gambetta, 1998)	✔				
Interpersonal trust: two dimensions 1. Cognitive — reflect issues such as the reliability, integrity, honest, and fairness of a referent 2. Affective — reflect a special relationship with the referent to demonstrate concern about one's welfare (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002)			✔		
Cognitive trust refers to beliefs about another's trustworthiness Affective trust refers to the important role of emotions in the trust process. Behavioural trust in teams is relying on another and disclosing sensitive information to another (Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Gillespie, 2003)		✔			✔

Appendix 2. Study 1 participant information sheet

Human Cognitive Neuroscience Unit

Division of Psychology
Northumbria University
Newcastle upon Tyne NE1 8ST
Telephone: (0191) 2048818

Football interviews – information sheet

Thank you for expressing an interest in taking part in a research study. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask me if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. Take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part.

What is the purpose of the study?

The aim of the study is to examine the role of trust in football.

Why have I been chosen?

Academy players are being used in this study as they have achieved a high standard of performance and have a lot of contact with coaching/management staff. Academy players are the future professional footballers in the UK. Their views should help us to understand the role which trust plays in football at a very high level.

Do I have to take part?

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. Your decision to take part, and your subsequent inclusion in the study, will not affect your football career in any way.

What will happen to me if I take part?

Taking part will involve an interview of approximately one hour or less. All you will have to do is talk about your experiences of football and answer some questions about it. The interview will be taped so that it can be transcribed later on, but only the researchers will ever hear your tape or read your interview. Your name, club and any other details which could identify you will be altered so that anything that you say during the interview will be totally confidential.

What do I have to do?

All you need to do is attend the session as organised by the academy and be as honest as possible during the interview.

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

The interview will be taped so that it can be transcribed later on, but only the researchers will ever hear your tape or read your full interview. If you give your consent to take part your name will not appear on any paperwork; instead you will be referred to by a code number (e.g. – interviewee 003). Your club, teammates and any other details that could identify you will be altered so that anything that you say during the interview will be totally confidential.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of the study will be used as part of a PhD thesis. Eventually this study may be published in a peer-reviewed journal but anonymity and confidentiality will be maintained throughout.

What if I've got any questions or problems?

If you need more information, would like to discuss your participation, or experience any problems as a consequence of taking part in the study you should contact Cherrie Daley by phone on 01524 526543 or by email at c.daley@ucsm.ac.uk.

Appendix 3 – Study 1 Informed consent sheet

Football interviews: Participant consent form

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research that aims to study the role of trust within football. Each individual's interview data (what you say) will be allocated a code and suitably altered to protect their anonymity and maintain confidentiality. If you wish to discuss the findings of the study with the researcher - please feel free to make contact at any time.

You are free to withdraw from the study **now or at any time** during the research.

Please would you now answer the following questions regarding your personal details.

I am

I play at ……football academy

In the……..age group.

I have been at the club for ……years……months

☐ I know I am going to be at the club for another ……..years/months

OR

☐ I don't yet know how much longer I will be at this club

Have you ever had an injury (or injuries) which meant that you could not play? Y / N

Please provide details of type of injury if unable to play for 2 weeks+

……..

I am aware of the nature of the research in which I am participating and **have read the information sheet provided**.
The information I have given above is correct.
I am aware that I may withdraw from the study now or at any time.

Participant's Signature .....…….. Date .....

Researcher's Signature .....…… ..... Date .....

Interviewee Code ……

Appendix 4. Developing Conceptual Frameworks Study 1

General Aims:

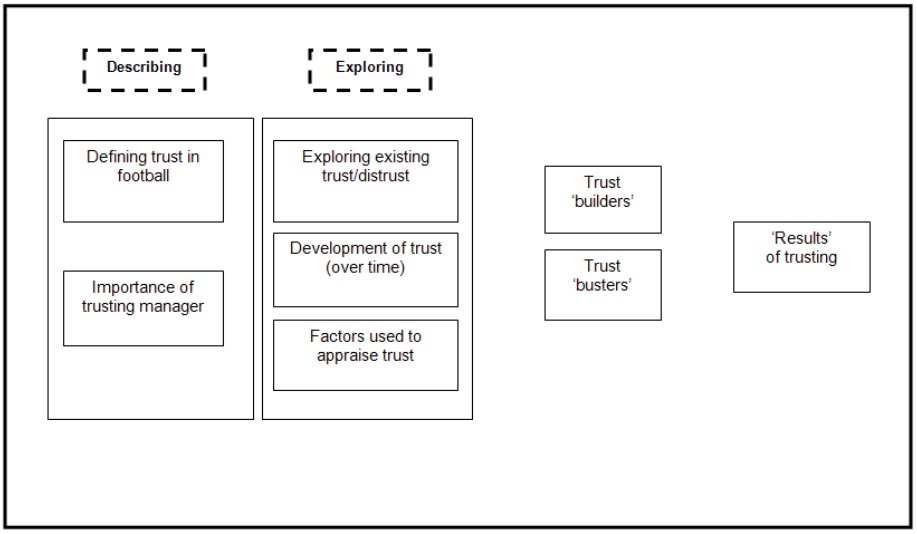
- Exploring 'meaning' of trust in football – how do those involved within football define it?
- Compare and contrast the coach & player perspectives

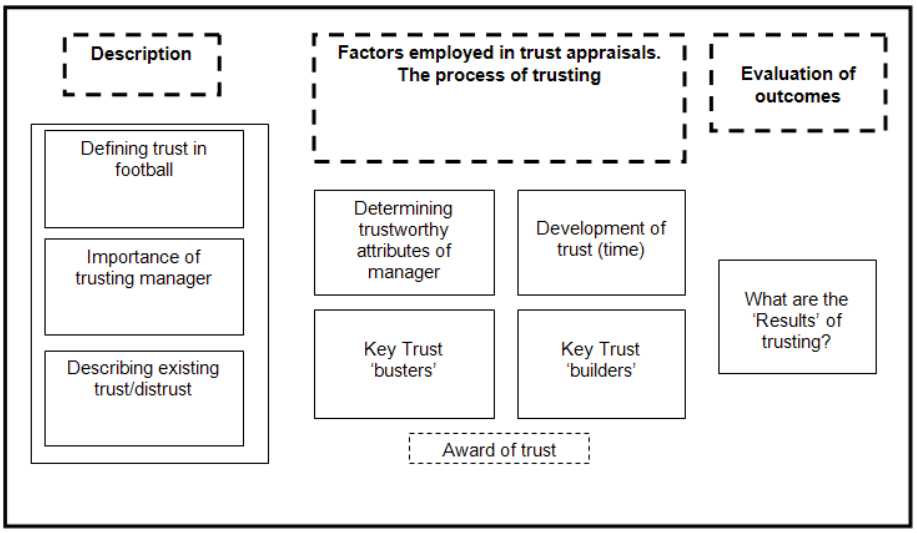
Specific areas – Manager

- How does a manager view the football environment? Is there need for trust?
- How does a manager build trust with his players?
- Who are the key people for the manager to trust?
- What is trust in football?

Specific areas – Player

- How does the player view the football environment? Is there a need for trust?
- How does a player appraise trust?
- Who are the key people for players to trust?
- What is trust in football?





Appendix 5. Images of Study 2 repertory grid screens

Before you start, please read the following.

Thank you for expressing an interest in taking part in a research study. Before you decide to complete this task, it is important that you understand what will be involved, and why the research is being done. Just ask if there is anything which is not clear.

What is the purpose of the study?

The aim of the study is to examine how football players view themselves and other people, such as coaches/managers and fellow players.

Why have I been chosen and do I have to take part?

Players like you are being used in this study, as they have achieved a high standard of performance and have also had a lot of contact with coaches and managers. It is up to you whether or not you decide to take part. You will be asked to confirm whether you agree to take part in the study later on. If you do take part, you are still free to withdraw at any time.

What will I have to do?

Taking part will involve completing a number of questions on a computer screen. This should take about 25 minutes of your time. All you need to do is fill in your answers on the computer screen as honestly as possible.

Press 'Continue' for more instructions

Continue

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential?

Yes, the computer program is designed to work without storing your name or other personal details. This means that your completed results will be assigned a code, and that nobody (even the researcher) will be able to identify which player provided which answers. You will not be asked to enter your name and you will not have to enter the real names of anybody you know (such as your coach), on to the screen. Your individual answers will be kept totally confidential and never made available, even to your club.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of the study will be used as part of a PhD thesis. Eventually, this study may be published, but anonymity and confidentiality will be maintained throughout.

What if I've got any questions or problems?

If you need more information, would like to discuss your participation, or experience any problems as a consequence of taking part in the study, you should talk to one of the researchers today, or later. If you think of anything you would like to discuss, or you wish to withdraw from the study after you have taken part, then you should contact Cherrie Daley by phone, on 01524 526543 or by email at c.daley@ucsm.ac.uk.

I confirm that I have read and understand the above information and agree to take part in this research ☐ Check to select

I have decided not to take part in this research ☐ Check to select

Please check one of the above options, then click 'Continue'

Continue

In order to monitor the type of people taking part in this study, we require some basic details about you. Please note, we don't need anything that identifies you personally.

Please enter the following information:-

Club

Age

Gender (Tick Box) ☐ Male ☐ Female

Have you played in any of the following representative teams? ☐ Senior National ☐ Junior National ☐ Regional ☐ County ☐ None

Once you have entered the above details, please click 'Continue' to be shown a demonstration of the trial procedure

Continue

Footballers' Views

Hello. We are interested in finding the views of football players like you.

You will be asked to identify six people from your life, and answer some simple questions about them. If you don't wish to write their real names, you can use their initials, such as 'CD' or a code such as 'Newcky' so that you know which person to think of. You can come up with people who are in your life at the moment, or people that you have known in the past.

In order to identify these people, you will use a screen like this to enter their initials or codes:-

* 1. Actual Self - this is how you think you really are.

* 2. Ideal Self - this refers to how you would ideally like to be.

3. A coach you trust - name or code
4. A coach you don't trust - name or code
5. A team mate you trust- name or code
6. A team mate you don't trust - name or code
7. A person in your life you like - name or code
8. A person in your life you don't like - name or code

* So remember that besides the 6 people from your life, you will also be asked to think about yourself in two ways:

1) Your actual self - this is how you think you really are....and
2) Your ideal self - this is how you would like to be ideally.

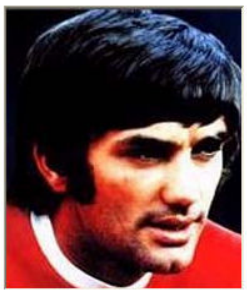
Don't worry - this is fairly easy once you get started!

Continue

Next you will be asked to think about a group of three people (the computer will show you which three). All you have to do is think of a way in which one of these people is different from the other two.

For instance, suppose these three names come up:-

Your Actual Self
George Best
Alan Shearer



You would then be asked to think of a way in which one of these people is different from the other two.

Continue

You will see the three names/codes laid out as they are below. Click 'run demo' for an example of what will happen.

Run Demo

Your Actual Self	George Best	Alan Shearer
☐	☑	☐

Your job is to think about how one of the people is different in some way from the other two. In this case perhaps you think that 'George Best' is different from your 'Actual Self' and 'Alan Shearer'.

Continue

Now you would write what characteristic 'George Best' has which makes him different from your 'Actual Self', and 'Alan Shearer'. You might think that 'George Best' was hot tempered, where both your 'Actual Self' and 'Alan Shearer' are calm. Your answer would appear like this.

Hot Tempered

Write the opposite characteristic which makes your 'Actual Self', and 'Alan Shearer' different from 'George Best'.

Calm

In the actual study you will click a 'continue' button to accept your description.

Continue

Once you have come up with the similarities and differences, you will then be asked to rate all of the people from your list on a scale of calm - hot tempered. The screen you will see will look like the example below. You will notice that three of the ratings are already entered in this example. Click demo and the computer will demonstrate the entry of ratings. You will then be able to click 'Accept Selection' to move on.

Actual Self	Hot Tempered	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☑ 4.	☐ 5.	Calm
Ideal Self	Hot Tempered	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Calm
Alan Shearer	Hot Tempered	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☑ 4.	☐ 5.	Calm
George Best	Hot Tempered	☑ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Calm
Coach you trust	Hot Tempered	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Calm
Coach you don't trust	Hot Tempered	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Calm
Person you like	Hot Tempered	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Calm
Person you don't like	Hot Tempered	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Calm

Demo

Accept Selection

Let's get started with your real answers!

Please begin the exercise by thinking of 6 people you know.

The six people we would like you to think of are listed below.
Type in the name (or use a code if you want the name to remain confidential) for each actual person.
Do not use the same person more than once.

1. Actual Self - this refers to you as you really are. Actual Self
2. Ideal Self - this refers to how you would ideally like to be. Ideal Self
3. A coach you trust the most - name or code:----------
4. A coach you don't trust - name or code:----------
5. A team mate you trust the most - name or code:----------
6. A team mate you don't trust - name or code:----------
7. A person in your life you like the most - name or code:--------
8. A person in your life you don't like - name or code:----------

Click on 'Continue' when you have finished entering the names/codes.

Continue

Now that you have done the hardest part, you can sit back and relax. The computer will guide you through the rest of the questions. All you have to do is be as honest as possible

*** TRIAD 1 ***

Mum	Mark	Jim
☐	☑	☐

Use the mouse to select which of the above is the odd one out

Write a short decription of how Mark is different from Mum and Jim

Write a short description of how Mum and Jim resemble each other, and are different from Mark

Click 'Continue' to go to next screen.

Continue

Please rate each of the 8 people in turn by selecting one of the boxes numbered 1 to 5
You must only tick one box per person and all 8 people must be rated.
Once they are all rated click 'Accept Selection' to move on.

Actual Self	Selfish	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4	☐ 5.	Selfless
Ideal Self	Selfish	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Selfless
Bob	Selfish	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Selfless
Dave	Selfish	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Selfless
Nigel	Selfish	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Selfless
Ian	Selfish	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Selfless
Mum	Selfish	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Selfless
Simon	Selfish	☐ 1.	☐ 2.	☐ 3.	☐ 4.	☐ 5.	Selfless

Accept Selection

Appendix 6. Statistical analysis (Study 2)

Element correlation matrices

Females

		Actual Self	Ideal Self	CoachT	CoachDT	TeammT	TeammDT	Personlike	PersonDlike
ActualSelf	Pearson Correlation	1	.553(**)	.367(**)	-.507(**)	.549(**)	-.399(**)	.503(**)	-.505(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
IdealSelf	Pearson Correlation	.553(**)	1	.585(**)	-.363(**)	.658(**)	-.550(**)	.660(**)	-.421(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
CoachT	Pearson Correlation	.367(**)	.585(**)	1	-.208(**)	.493(**)	-.402(**)	.510(**)	-.252(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.004	.000	.000	.000	.000
CoachDT	Pearson Correlation	-.507(**)	-.363(**)	-.208(**)	1	-.420(**)	.454(**)	-.358(**)	.482(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.004		.000	.000	.000	.000
TeammT	Pearson Correlation	.549(**)	.658(**)	.493(**)	-.420(**)	1	-.548(**)	.645(**)	-.431(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
TeammDT	Pearson Correlation	-.399(**)	-.550(**)	-.402(**)	.454(**)	-.548(**)	1	-.484(**)	.495(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
Personlike	Pearson Correlation	.503(**)	.660(**)	.510(**)	-.358(**)	.645(**)	-.484(**)	1	-.465(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
PersonDlike	Pearson Correlation	-.505(**)	-.421(**)	-.252(**)	.482(**)	-.431(**)	.495(**)	-.465(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

Males

		ActualSelf	IdealSelf	CoachT	CoachDT	TeammT	TeammDT	Personlike	PersonDlike
ActualSelf	Pearson Correlation	1	.568(**)	.408(**)	-.322(**)	.605(**)	-.030	.353(**)	-.313(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.740	.000	.000
IdealSelf	Pearson Correlation	.568(**)	1	.713(**)	-.489(**)	.626(**)	-.206(*)	.533(**)	-.663(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.022	.000	.000
CoachT	Pearson Correlation	.408(**)	.713(**)	1	-.452(**)	.460(**)	-.147	.475(**)	-.558(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.104	.000	.000
CoachDT	Pearson Correlation	-.322(**)	-.489(**)	-.452(**)	1	-.399(**)	.303(**)	-.508(**)	.473(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.001	.000	.000
TeammT	Pearson Correlation	.605(**)	.626(**)	.460(**)	-.399(**)	1	-.190(*)	.428(**)	-.354(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.035	.000	.000
TeammDT	Pearson Correlation	-.030	-.206(*)	-.147	.303(**)	-.190(*)	1	-.305(**)	.266(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.740	.022	.104	.001	.035		.001	.003
Personlike	Pearson Correlation	.353(**)	.533(**)	.475(**)	-.508(**)	.428(**)	-.305(**)	1	-.470(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001		.000
PersonDlike	Pearson Correlation	-.313(**)	-.663(**)	-.558(**)	.473(**)	-.354(**)	.266(**)	-.470(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	

Cluster Analysis

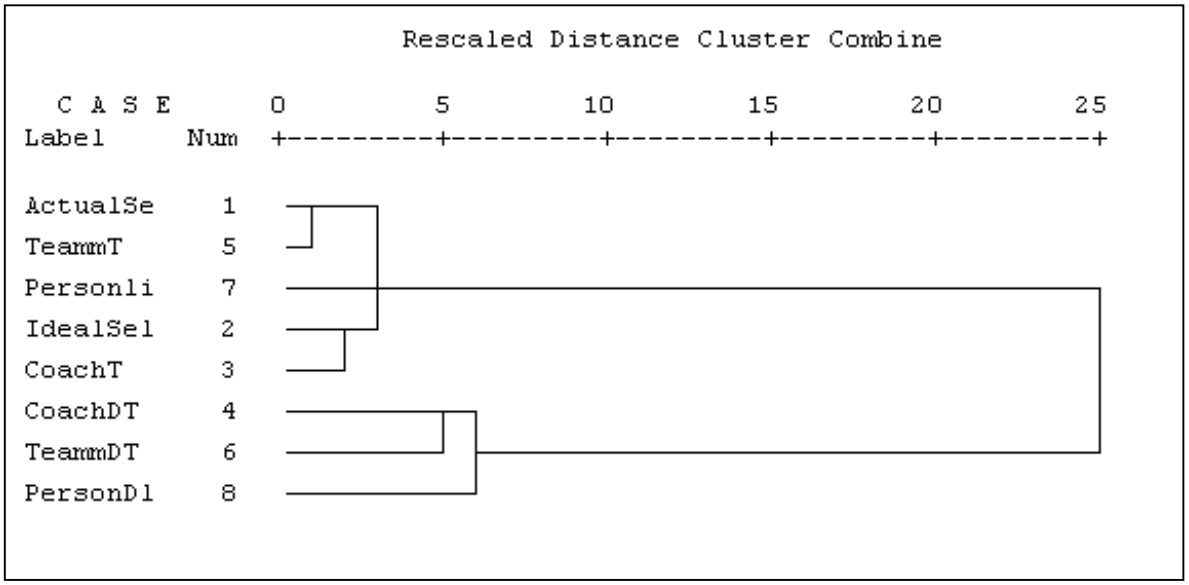
All participants

Agglomeration Schedule

Stage	Cluster Combined		Coefficients	Stage Cluster First Appears		Next Stage
	Cluster 1	Cluster 2		Cluster 1	Cluster 2	
1	1	5	469.000	0	0	3
2	2	3	539.000	0	0	4
3	1	7	602.500	1	0	4
4	1	2	628.167	3	2	7
5	4	6	717.000	0	0	6
6	4	8	757.500	5	0	7
7	1	4	1904.400	4	6	0

Horizontal Icicle

Case	Number of clusters						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PersonDlike	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X					
TeammDT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X				
CoachDT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X						
CoachT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X	X	
IdealSelf	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X			
Personlike	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X		
TeammT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
ActualSelf	X	X	X	X	X	X	X



Cluster Analysis (continued)

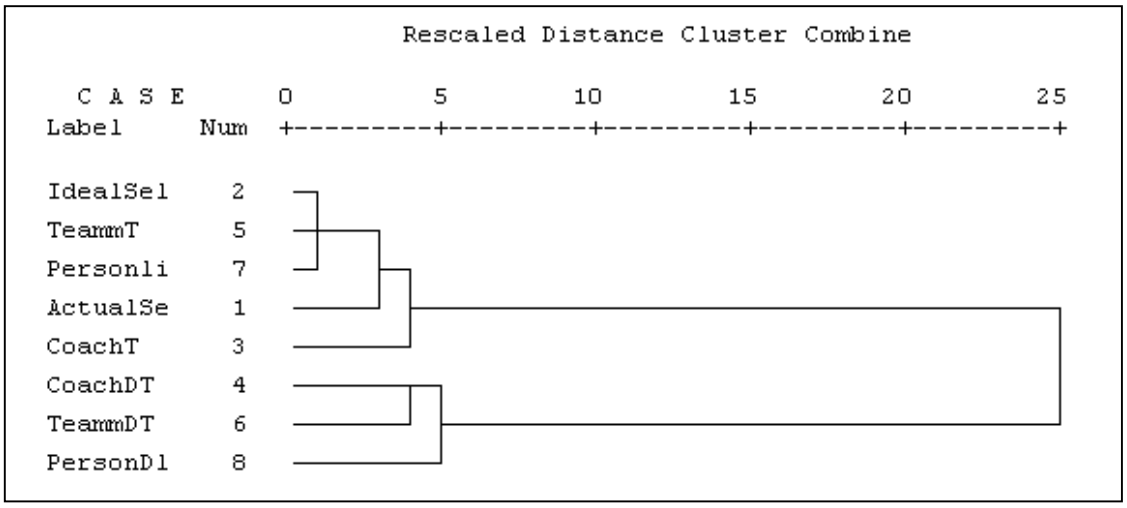
Females

Agglomeration Schedule

Stage	Cluster Combined		Coefficients	Stage Cluster First Appears		Next Stage
	Cluster 1	Cluster 2		Cluster 1	Cluster 2	
1	2	5	274.000	0	0	2
2	2	7	290.000	1	0	3
3	1	2	352.000	0	2	4
4	1	3	396.000	3	0	7
5	4	6	423.000	0	0	6
6	4	8	443.500	5	0	7
7	1	4	1236.133	4	6	0

Horizontal Icicle

Case	Number of clusters						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PersonDlike	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X					
TeammDT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X				
CoachDT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X						
CoachT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X			
Personlike	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X	X	
TeammT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
IdealSelf	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X		
ActualSelf	X	X	X	X	X	X	X



Cluster Analysis (continued)

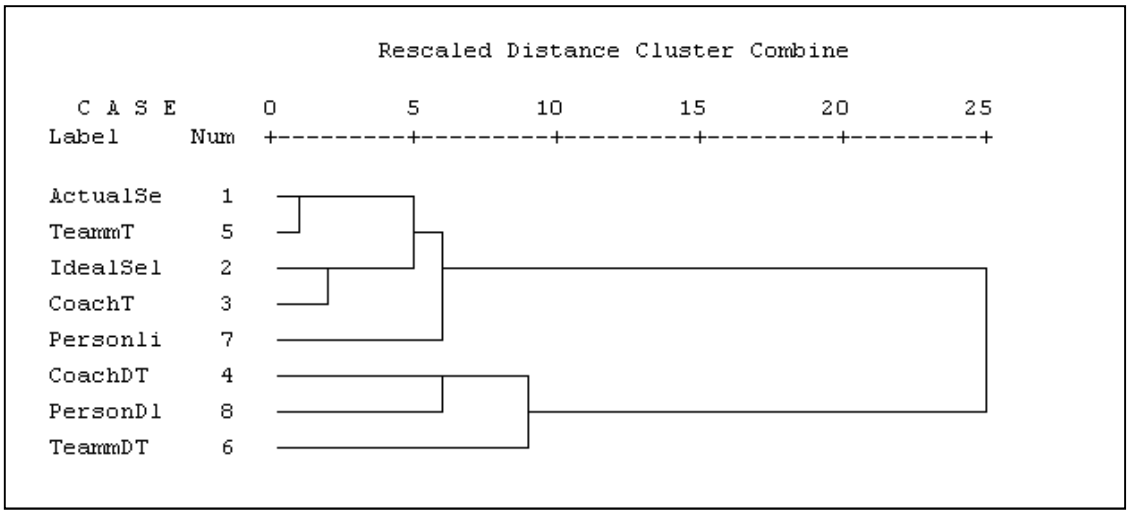
Males

Agglomeration Schedule

Stage	Cluster Combined		Coefficients	Stage Cluster First Appears		Next Stage
	Cluster 1	Cluster 2		Cluster 1	Cluster 2	
1	2	5	274.000	0	0	2
2	2	7	290.000	1	0	3
3	1	2	352.000	0	2	4
4	1	3	396.000	3	0	7
5	4	6	423.000	0	0	6
6	4	8	443.500	5	0	7
7	1	4	1236.133	4	6	0

Horizontal Icicle

Case	Number of clusters						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PersonDlike	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X					
TeammDT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X				
CoachDT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X						
CoachT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X			
Personlike	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X	X	
TeammT	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
IdealSelf	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
	X	X	X	X	X		
ActualSelf	X	X	X	X	X	X	X



Principal Components Analysis
All participants

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
ActualSelf	1.000	.515
IdealSelf	1.000	.713
CoachT	1.000	.471
CoachDT	1.000	.429
TeammT	1.000	.625
TeammDT	1.000	.380
Personlike	1.000	.601
PersonDlike	1.000	.496

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.229	52.867	52.867	4.229	52.867	52.867
2	.861	10.760	63.627			
3	.711	8.892	72.518			
4	.593	7.413	79.931			
5	.505	6.317	86.248			
6	.460	5.747	91.995			
7	.360	4.494	96.489			
8	.281	3.511	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]

	Component
	1
ActualSelf	.718
IdealSelf	.844
CoachT	.686
CoachDT	-.655
TeammT	.790
TeammDT	-.616
Personlike	.775
PersonDlike	-.704

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Principal Components Analysis (continued)

Female participants

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
ActualSelf	1.000	.598
IdealSelf	1.000	.762
CoachT	1.000	.714
CoachDT	1.000	.713
TeammT	1.000	.690
TeammDT	1.000	.549
Personlike	1.000	.681
PersonDlike	1.000	.654

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.353	54.413	54.413	4.353	54.413	54.413	2.898	36.230	36.230
2	1.008	12.604	67.017	1.008	12.604	67.017	2.463	30.787	67.017
3	.604	7.550	74.566						
4	.532	6.649	81.215						
5	.478	5.976	87.191						
6	.402	5.023	92.215						
7	.330	4.125	96.340						
8	.293	3.660	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
ActualSelf	.745	-.208
IdealSelf	.826	.280
CoachT	.645	.545
CoachDT	-.627	.566
TeammT	.818	.146
TeammDT	-.735	.090
Personlike	.797	.215
PersonDlike	-.679	.440

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 2 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
ActualSelf	.423	-.648
IdealSelf	.806	-.334
CoachT	.845	-.016
CoachDT	-.098	.839
TeammT	.711	-.430
TeammDT	-.494	.553
Personlike	.741	-.364
PersonDlike	-.220	.778

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Principal Components Analysis (continued)

Male participants

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
ActualSelf	1.000	.690
IdealSelf	1.000	.800
CoachT	1.000	.613
CoachDT	1.000	.559
TeammT	1.000	.626
TeammDT	1.000	.699
Personlike	1.000	.573
PersonDlike	1.000	.582

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.034	50.420	50.420	4.034	50.420	50.420	3.121	39.016	39.016
2	1.109	13.861	64.281	1.109	13.861	64.281	2.021	25.264	64.281
3	.777	9.715	73.995						
4	.593	7.408	81.403						
5	.491	6.132	87.536						
6	.426	5.319	92.854						
7	.364	4.554	97.409						
8	.207	2.591	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
ActualSelf	.654	.512
IdealSelf	.882	.147
CoachT	.777	.092
CoachDT	-.696	.273
TeammT	.733	.298
TeammDT	-.357	.756
Personlike	.724	-.221
PersonDlike	-.741	.181

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 2 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
ActualSelf	.828	.060
IdealSelf	.814	-.371
CoachT	.696	-.358
CoachDT	-.425	.616
TeammT	.775	-.162
TeammDT	.126	.827
Personlike	.477	-.588
PersonDlike	-.514	.564

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Appendix 7. Images of screens from Study 3

1. Football fans project - World Cup 2006

Introduction

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather opinions of England fans before, during and after the 2006 World Cup tournament. This questionnaire is the first in a series of three. Participants who complete and submit all three in the series will be entered into a prize draw to win club shop vouchers for a team of their choice (£50 first prize, £25 second prize, £10 third prize).

We will contact you when the next two questionnaires are ready if you leave your email address below. We do hope that you will contribute your views.

This initial questionnaire is 43 questions long, but shouldn't take longer than 10 minutes to complete. The next two questionnaires will be much shorter and quicker to complete.

Your answers are confidential and anonymous. Although your email address is required for us to send out the next two questionnaires (and to provide you with a summary of the findings if you request it), each identity will be converted to a code following the final questionnaire.

If you would like to be sent a summary of the findings when the project ends, there will be an opportunity to enter your contact details after completing the final questionnaire.

The questionnaires are part of a Northumbria University research project investigating the opinions of football fans. If you have any questions please contact c.daley@ucsm.ac.uk

Your email address will not be given to any other source, nor will it be used for any other purpose. You have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and may do so by email request to the above address.

1. Please tick the box below to confirm that you have read the above information and consent to take part in this study.

○ I agree ○ I do not wish to take part

2. Your email address

2. 1. If you wish to receive details of the next two questionnaires, please put your email address below. Your details will not be used for any other purpose.

21. What would you consider a successful tournament for England?

- [ ] Winners
- [ ] Losing Finalists
- [ ] Semi Finalists
- [ ] Quarter Finalists
- [ ] Out at group stage

26. The England manager (past & present) I would trust the most is -

- ○ Glen Hoddle
- ○ Sven Goran Eriksson
- ○ Kevin Keegan
- ○ Sir Bobby Robson
- ○ Ron Greenwood
- ○ Sir Alf Ramsey
- ○ Graham Taylor
- ○ Terry Venables
- ○

27. I feel I would trust this manager because (enter answer below)

28. How much do you trust Eriksson as England manager?

- ○ 1. Not at all
- ○ 2.
- ○ 3.
- ○ 4.
- ○ 5.
- ○ 6.
- ○ 7. Totally

29. The reason I feel I can or cannot trust Eriksson is - (please enter answer below)

33. In what way do you think that the impression Eriksson gives in interviews influences the trust you have in him?

- ○ 1. Negative influence
- ○ 2.
- ○ 3.
- ○ 4. No effect
- ○ 5.
- ○ 6.
- ○ 7. Positive influence

34. In what way do you think that events in Sven's personal life influence the trust you have in him?

- ○ 1.Negative influence
- ○ 2.
- ○ 3.
- ○ 4.No effect
- ○ 5.
- ○ 6.
- ○ 7.Positive influence

35. In what way do you think that his record as England manager influences the trust you have in Eriksson?

- ○ 1. Negative influence
- ○ 2.
- ○ 3.
- ○ 4. No effect
- ○ 5.
- ○ 6.
- ○ 7. Postitive influence

Appendix 8. Statistical Analysis (Study 3)

Repeated Measures ANOVA

Within-Subjects Factors

Measure: MEASURE_1

Leader	StageT	Dependent Variable
1	1	TSGE1
	2	TSGE2
	3	TSGE3
2	1	TDB1
	2	TDB2
	3	TDB3

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
TSGE1	3.5929	1.41192	113
TSGE2	3.4779	1.48863	113
TSGE3	2.5221	1.35025	113
TDB1	4.7965	1.66454	113
TDB2	4.6991	1.64689	113
TDB3	3.9292	1.49831	113

Multivariate Tests[b]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Leader	Pillai's Trace	.454	93.297[a]	1.000	112.000	.000	.454
	Wilks' Lambda	.546	93.297[a]	1.000	112.000	.000	.454
	Hotelling's Trace	.833	93.297[a]	1.000	112.000	.000	.454
	Roy's Largest Root	.833	93.297[a]	1.000	112.000	.000	.454
StageT	Pillai's Trace	.490	53.317[a]	2.000	111.000	.000	.490
	Wilks' Lambda	.510	53.317[a]	2.000	111.000	.000	.490
	Hotelling's Trace	.961	53.317[a]	2.000	111.000	.000	.490
	Roy's Largest Root	.961	53.317[a]	2.000	111.000	.000	.490
Leader * StageT	Pillai's Trace	.020	1.160[a]	2.000	111.000	.317	.020
	Wilks' Lambda	.980	1.160[a]	2.000	111.000	.317	.020
	Hotelling's Trace	.021	1.160[a]	2.000	111.000	.317	.020
	Roy's Largest Root	.021	1.160[a]	2.000	111.000	.317	.020

a. Exact statistic

b. Design: Intercept
Within Subjects Design: Leader+StageT+Leader*StageT

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity[b]

Measure: MEASURE_1

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon[a] Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
Leader	1.000	.000	0	.	1.000	1.000	1.000
StageT	.929	8.163	2	.017	.934	.949	.500
Leader * StageT	.937	7.259	2	.027	.940	.956	.500

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized transformed dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.

a. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

b. Design: Intercept
Within Subjects Design: Leader+StageT+Leader*StageT

Repeated Measures ANOVA (continued)

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Leader	Sphericity Assumed	276.532	1	276.532	93.297	.000	.454
	Greenhouse-Geisser	276.532	1.000	276.532	93.297	.000	.454
	Huynh-Feldt	276.532	1.000	276.532	93.297	.000	.454
	Lower-bound	276.532	1.000	276.532	93.297	.000	.454
Error(Leader)	Sphericity Assumed	331.968	112	2.964			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	331.968	112.000	2.964			
	Huynh-Feldt	331.968	112.000	2.964			
	Lower-bound	331.968	112.000	2.964			
StageT	Sphericity Assumed	127.673	2	63.836	66.717	.000	.373
	Greenhouse-Geisser	127.673	1.868	68.363	66.717	.000	.373
	Huynh-Feldt	127.673	1.898	67.265	66.717	.000	.373
	Lower-bound	127.673	1.000	127.673	66.717	.000	.373
Error(StageT)	Sphericity Assumed	214.327	224	.957			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	214.327	209.169	1.025			
	Huynh-Feldt	214.327	212.581	1.008			
	Lower-bound	214.327	112.000	1.914			
Leader * StageT	Sphericity Assumed	1.437	2	.718	.978	.378	.009
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1.437	1.881	.764	.978	.374	.009
	Huynh-Feldt	1.437	1.912	.751	.978	.375	.009
	Lower-bound	1.437	1.000	1.437	.978	.325	.009
Error(Leader*StageT)	Sphericity Assumed	164.563	224	.735			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	164.563	210.664	.781			
	Huynh-Feldt	164.563	214.141	.768			
	Lower-bound	164.563	112.000	1.469			

Tests of Within-Subjects Contrasts

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source	Leader	StageT	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Leader	Linear		276.532	1	276.532	93.297	.000	.454
Error(Leader)	Linear		331.968	112	2.964			
StageT		Linear	106.108	1	106.108	89.935	.000	.445
		Quadratic	21.564	1	21.564	29.387	.000	.208
Error(StageT)		Linear	132.142	112	1.180			
		Quadratic	82.186	112	.734			
Leader * StageT	Linear	Linear	1.170	1	1.170	1.455	.230	.013
		Quadratic	.266	1	.266	.400	.528	.004
Error(Leader*StageT)	Linear	Linear	90.080	112	.804			
		Quadratic	74.484	112	.665			

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Transformed Variable: Average

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	9978.173	1	9978.173	1345.921	.000	.923
Error	830.327	112	7.414			

Correlation Analysis

Fans' trust in SGE and desire for SGE to stay on as manager

Baseline

		TSGE1	SGEstayon
TSGE1	Pearson Correlation	1	.676(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	383	383
SGEstayon	Pearson Correlation	.676(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	383	401

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Progression

		TSGE2	SGEstayon2
TSGE2	Pearson Correlation	1	.702(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	178	175
SGEstayon2	Pearson Correlation	.702(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	175	177

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Exit

		TSGE3	SGEstayon3
TSGE3	Pearson Correlation	1	.693(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	150	149
SGEstayon3	Pearson Correlation	.693(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	149	151

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Fans' trust and Players' trust in SGE

Baseline

		TSGE1	PLTSGE1
TSGE1	Pearson Correlation	1	.558(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	383	380
PLTSGE1	Pearson Correlation	.558(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	380	398

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Progression

		PLTSGE2	TSGE2
PLTSGE2	Pearson Correlation	1	.492(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	182	113
TSGE2	Pearson Correlation	.492(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	113	178

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlation Analysis

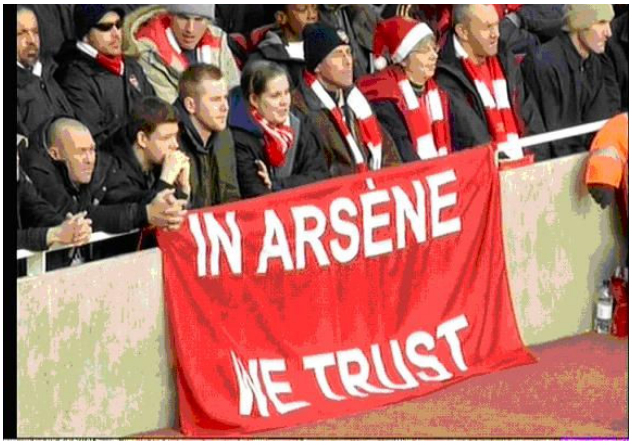
Fans' trust and Players' trust in SGE (continued)

Exit

		PLTSGE3	TSGE3
PLTSGE3	Pearson Correlation	1	.572(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	152	150
TSGE3	Pearson Correlation	.572(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	150	150

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 9. Examples of references to trust in the press.



ENGLAND'S BOND OF TRUST

BY MARK BRADLEY

DAVID Beckham stressed the England squad's complete belief in Sven-Goran Eriksson as he revealed the bond of trust which is underpinning their bid to win the 2006 World Cup.

ERIKSSON'S qualities had been questioned by former international Robbie Fowler, who criticised his managerial style and insisted England would never win a major tournament while he was still in charge.

Beckham nevertheless sprung to Eriksson's defence ahead of tomorrow's friendly in Denmark as he maintained the squad were united behind their coach.

"Everyone has their right to an opinion. Robbie has done that with his book.

"I don't personally agree with him as I believe we have a finals of doing something special," he said.

"That only comes with hard work and a bit of luck. But we believe we've got the right manager for the job. We have definitely got faith in him and everyone in the country has to have faith in him.

"I think the manager we've got is the best man for the job. We believe in him and he believes in us."

Beckham was also at pains to stress the squad's belief in their own ability as they look ahead to a season ending in the World Cup finals in Germany.

"I remember Sir Alex Ferguson telling us at Manchester United that we should look around the dressing room and if we trusted those players and knew they would give 110 per cent, we knew we were on to a winner.

"I believe we've got that with England. The players all believe in the ability we've got in our team. The young talent is exceptional.

"Even players from Brazil and France are commenting on players in our team like Wayne Rooney – we know we've got

BECKHAM: 'We have the right manager for the job', he told

Appendix 10. Online link to the survey in Study 4.

Appendix 11. Images of screens from Study 4 survey

Introduction

The purpose of this Northumbria University project is to gather opinions of football fans. This should not take longer than 15 minutes of your time to complete. We do hope that you will contribute your views.

Participants who complete the survey will be entered into a prize draw to win club shop vouchers for a team of their choice (£50 first prize, £25 second prize, £10 third prize).

Your answers are confidential and anonymous. Your email address will not be given to any other source, nor will it be used for any other purpose. There is no obligation to provide your email address.

If you have a question contact cherrie.daley@cumbria.ac.uk

You have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and may do so by email request to the above address.

*** Please tick the box below to confirm that you have read the above information and consent to take part in this study.**

○ I agree ○ I do not wish to take part

Please rate your club manager and then Steve McClaren, Bobby Robson and Sven-Goran Eriksson based ONLY on their time AS AN ENGLAND MANAGER.

*** My club manager is competent**

○ 1.Strongly disagree ○ 2. ○ 3. ○ 4. ○ 5. ○ 6. ○ 7.Strongly agree

*** This manager was a competent England manager**

	1.Strongly disagree	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.Strongly agree
Bobby Robson	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sven-Goran Eriksson	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Steve McClaren	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

*** When deciding how much you can trust your CLUB MANAGER, how important are the following factors?**

	Not at all important						Very important
Relationships he has with players	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
His history as a player	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Results of the team	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
His character	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The selections he makes	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
The tactics he chooses	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
His record as a manager	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Where he is from	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please rate your club manager and then Steve McClaren, Bobby Robson and Sven-Goran Eriksson based ONLY on their time AS AN ENGLAND MANAGER.

*** My club manager is reliable**

○ 1.Strongly disagree ○ 2. ○ 3. ○ 4. ○ 5. ○ 6. ○ 7.Strongly agree

*** This manager was a reliable England manager**

	1.Strongly disagree	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.Strongly agree
Steve McClaren	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sven-Goran Eriksson	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Bobby Robson	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Appendix 12.Statisitical Analysis (Study 4)

Repeated measures ANOVA

Within-Subjects Factors

Measure: MEASURE_1

LeaderType	Dependent Variable
1	CMTrust
2	SMTrust
3	SGETrust
4	BRtrust

Between-Subjects Factors

		N
ClubCode	1.00	154
	11.00	67
	99.00	58

Descriptive Statistics

	ClubCode	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
CMTrust	1.00	5.8571	1.11689	154
	11.00	6.4627	.87609	67
	99.00	5.2931	1.32465	58
	Total	5.8853	1.17579	279
SMTrust	1.00	2.1234	1.17339	154
	11.00	1.7313	.88046	67
	99.00	2.2931	1.22844	58
	Total	2.0645	1.13613	279
SGETrust	1.00	4.3831	1.21105	154
	11.00	4.6269	1.32386	67
	99.00	4.5517	1.31352	58
	Total	4.4767	1.26035	279
BRtrust	1.00	4.7143	1.29713	154
	11.00	4.8657	1.22963	67
	99.00	4.6207	1.22586	58
	Total	4.7312	1.26497	279

Repeated measures ANOVA (continued)

Multivariate Tests[c]

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
LeaderType	Pillai's Trace	.847	507.395[a]	3.000	274.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.153	507.395[a]	3.000	274.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	5.555	507.395[a]	3.000	274.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	5.555	507.395[a]	3.000	274.000	.000
LeaderType * ClubCode	Pillai's Trace	.143	7.082	6.000	550.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.858	7.289[a]	6.000	548.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.165	7.495	6.000	546.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.157	14.358[b]	3.000	275.000	.000

a. Exact statistic

b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

c.
Design: Intercept+ClubCode
Within Subjects Design: LeaderType

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity[b]

Measure: MEASURE_1

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon[a] Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
LeaderType	.982	4.971	5	.419	.988	1.000	.333

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized transformed dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.

a. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

b.
Design: Intercept+ClubCode
Within Subjects Design: LeaderType

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
LeaderType	Sphericity Assumed	1808.878	3	602.959	470.711	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1808.878	2.965	610.075	470.711	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	1808.878	3.000	602.959	470.711	.000
	Lower-bound	1808.878	1.000	1808.878	470.711	.000
LeaderType * ClubCode	Sphericity Assumed	51.711	6	8.618	6.728	.000
	Greenhouse-Geisser	51.711	5.930	8.720	6.728	.000
	Huynh-Feldt	51.711	6.000	8.618	6.728	.000
	Lower-bound	51.711	2.000	25.855	6.728	.001
Error(LeaderType)	Sphericity Assumed	1060.630	828	1.281		
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1060.630	818.342	1.296		
	Huynh-Feldt	1060.630	828.000	1.281		
	Lower-bound	1060.630	276.000	3.843		

Repeated measures ANOVA (continued)

Tests of Within-Subjects Contrasts

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source	LeaderType	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
LeaderType	Linear	10.307	1	10.307	8.371	.004
	Quadratic	947.407	1	947.407	764.007	.000
	Cubic	851.164	1	851.164	620.580	.000
LeaderType * ClubCode	Linear	7.340	2	3.670	2.981	.052
	Quadratic	28.101	2	14.051	11.331	.000
	Cubic	16.270	2	8.135	5.931	.003
Error(LeaderType)	Linear	339.825	276	1.231		
	Quadratic	342.254	276	1.240		
	Cubic	378.551	276	1.372		

Pairwise Comparisons

Measure: MEASURE_1

(I) LeaderType	(J) LeaderType	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[a]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[a]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	3.822*	.099	.000	3.559	4.085
	3	1.350*	.105	.000	1.072	1.629
	4	1.137*	.101	.000	.869	1.405
2	1	-3.822*	.099	.000	-4.085	-3.559
	3	-2.471*	.110	.000	-2.765	-2.178
	4	-2.684*	.106	.000	-2.966	-2.403
3	1	-1.350*	.105	.000	-1.629	-1.072
	2	2.471*	.110	.000	2.178	2.765
	4	-.213	.108	.300	-.500	.075
4	1	-1.137*	.101	.000	-1.405	-.869
	2	2.684*	.106	.000	2.403	2.966
	3	.213	.108	.300	-.075	.500

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Oneway ANOVA Club Manager

Descriptives

CMTrust

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1.00	154	5.8571	1.11689	.09000	5.6793	6.0349	2.00	7.00
11.00	67	6.4627	.87609	.10703	6.2490	6.6764	3.00	7.00
99.00	58	5.2931	1.32465	.17393	4.9448	5.6414	1.00	7.00
Total	279	5.8853	1.17579	.07039	5.7467	6.0239	1.00	7.00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

CMTrust

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
5.373	2	276	.005

ANOVA

CMTrust

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	42.799	2	21.399	17.293	.000
Within Groups	341.531	276	1.237		
Total	384.330	278			

Post Hoc Tests

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: CMTrust

Tukey HSD

(I) ClubCode	(J) ClubCode	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	11.00	-.60554*	.16280	.001	-.9892	-.2219
	99.00	.56404*	.17138	.003	.1602	.9679
11.00	1.00	.60554*	.16280	.001	.2219	.9892
	99.00	1.16958*	.19951	.000	.6995	1.6397
99.00	1.00	-.56404*	.17138	.003	-.9679	-.1602
	11.00	-1.16958*	.19951	.000	-1.6397	-.6995

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Oneway ANOVA Steve McClaren

Descriptives

SMTrust

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1.00	154	2.1234	1.17339	.09455	1.9366	2.3102	1.00	6.00
11.00	67	1.7313	.88046	.10757	1.5166	1.9461	1.00	4.00
99.00	58	2.2931	1.22844	.16130	1.9701	2.6161	1.00	5.00
Total	279	2.0645	1.13613	.06802	1.9306	2.1984	1.00	6.00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

SMTrust

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.650	2	276	.072

ANOVA

SMTrust

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	11.001	2	5.501	4.365	.014
Within Groups	347.837	276	1.260		
Total	358.839	278			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: SMTrust

Tukey HSD

(I) ClubCode	(J) ClubCode	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	11.00	.39203*	.16430	.046	.0049	.7792
	99.00	-.16973	.17295	.589	-.5773	.2378
11.00	1.00	-.39203*	.16430	.046	-.7792	-.0049
	99.00	-.56176*	.20134	.016	-1.0362	-.0873
99.00	1.00	.16973	.17295	.589	-.2378	.5773
	11.00	.56176*	.20134	.016	.0873	1.0362

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Oneway ANOVA Sven Göran Eriksson

Descriptives

SGETrust

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1.00	154	4.3831	1.21105	.09759	4.1903	4.5759	1.00	7.00
11.00	67	4.6269	1.32386	.16174	4.3040	4.9498	1.00	7.00
99.00	58	4.5517	1.31352	.17247	4.2064	4.8971	1.00	7.00
Total	279	4.4767	1.26035	.07546	4.3282	4.6252	1.00	7.00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

SGETrust

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.282	2	276	.754

ANOVA

SGETrust

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.186	2	1.593	1.003	.368
Within Groups	438.413	276	1.588		
Total	441.599	278			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: SGETrust

Tukey HSD

(I) ClubCode	(J) ClubCode	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	11.00	-.24375	.18445	.384	-.6784	.1909
	99.00	-.16861	.19417	.661	-.6262	.2889
11.00	1.00	.24375	.18445	.384	-.1909	.6784
	99.00	.07514	.22604	.941	-.4575	.6078
99.00	1.00	.16861	.19417	.661	-.2889	.6262
	11.00	-.07514	.22604	.941	-.6078	.4575

Oneway ANOVA Bobby Robson

Descriptives

BRtrust

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1.00	154	4.7143	1.29713	.10453	4.5078	4.9208	1.00	7.00
11.00	67	4.8657	1.22963	.15022	4.5657	5.1656	1.00	7.00
99.00	58	4.6207	1.22586	.16096	4.2984	4.9430	1.00	7.00
Total	279	4.7312	1.26497	.07573	4.5821	4.8803	1.00	7.00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

BRtrust

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.111	2	276	.123

ANOVA

BRtrust

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.964	2	.982	.612	.543
Within Groups	442.875	276	1.605		
Total	444.839	278			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: BRtrust

Tukey HSD

(I) ClubCode	(J) ClubCode	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1.00	11.00	-.15139	.18539	.693	-.5882	.2855
	99.00	.09360	.19515	.881	-.3663	.5535
11.00	1.00	.15139	.18539	.693	-.2855	.5882
	99.00	.24498	.22719	.528	-.2904	.7803
99.00	1.00	-.09360	.19515	.881	-.5535	.3663
	11.00	-.24498	.22719	.528	-.7803	.2904

Stepwise Regression Analysis Club Manager

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
CMTrust	5.8853	1.17579	279
CMLike	5.9140	1.32211	279
CMReliable	5.7957	1.27420	279
CMPredict	4.3584	1.36260	279

Correlations

		CMTrust	CMLike	CMReliable	CMPredict
Pearson Correlation	CMTrust	1.000	.766	.683	.320
	CMLike	.766	1.000	.748	.253
	CMReliable	.683	.748	1.000	.295
	CMPredict	.320	.253	.295	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	CMTrust	.	.000	.000	.000
	CMLike	.000	.	.000	.000
	CMReliable	.000	.000	.	.000
	CMPredict	.000	.000	.000	.
N	CMTrust	279	279	279	279
	CMLike	279	279	279	279
	CMReliable	279	279	279	279
	CMPredict	279	279	279	279

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	CMLike	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	CMReliable	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
3	CMPredict	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: CMTrust

Stepwise Regression Analysis Club Manager (continued)

Model Summary[d]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.766[a]	.588	.586	.75651	.588	394.547	1	277	.000
2	.784[b]	.615	.612	.73225	.027	19.657	1	276	.000
3	.791[c]	.626	.622	.72312	.011	8.016	1	275	.005

a. Predictors: (Constant), CMLike

b. Predictors: (Constant), CMLike, CMReliable

c. Predictors: (Constant), CMLike, CMReliable, CMPredict

d. Dependent Variable: CMTrust

ANOVA[d]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	225.801	1	225.801	394.547	.000[a]
	Residual	158.529	277	.572		
	Total	384.330	278			
2	Regression	236.341	2	118.171	220.389	.000[b]
	Residual	147.989	276	.536		
	Total	384.330	278			
3	Regression	240.533	3	80.178	153.333	.000[c]
	Residual	143.797	275	.523		
	Total	384.330	278			

a. Predictors: (Constant), CMLike

b. Predictors: (Constant), CMLike, CMReliable

c. Predictors: (Constant), CMLike, CMReliable, CMPredict

d. Dependent Variable: CMTrust

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.854	.208		8.915	.000	1.445	2.263					
	CMLike	.682	.034	.766	19.863	.000	.614	.749	.766	.766	.766	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	1.501	.216		6.933	.000	1.075	1.927					
	CMLike	.516	.050	.580	10.316	.000	.417	.614	.766	.528	.385	.441	2.267
	CMReliable	.230	.052	.249	4.434	.000	.128	.332	.683	.258	.166	.441	2.267
3	(Constant)	1.272	.229		5.566	.000	.822	1.722					
	CMLike	.509	.049	.572	10.289	.000	.411	.606	.766	.527	.380	.440	2.273
	CMReliable	.206	.052	.223	3.960	.000	.103	.308	.683	.232	.146	.429	2.330
	CMPredict	.094	.033	.109	2.831	.005	.029	.160	.320	.168	.104	.911	1.098

a. Dependent Variable: CMTrust

Excluded Variables[c]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	CMReliable	.249[a]	4.434	.000	.258	.441	2.267	.441
	CMPredict	.135[a]	3.443	.001	.203	.936	1.068	.936
2	CMPredict	.109[b]	2.831	.005	.168	.911	1.098	.429

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), CMLike

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), CMLike, CMReliable

c. Dependent Variable: CMTrust

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions			
				(Constant)	CMLike	CMReliable	CMPredict
1	1	1.976	1.000	.01	.01		
	2	.024	9.073	.99	.99		
2	1	2.961	1.000	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.028	10.362	.99	.14	.11	
	3	.012	15.853	.00	.86	.89	
3	1	3.898	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.01
	2	.064	7.794	.01	.05	.03	.92
	3	.026	12.128	.99	.10	.09	.07
	4	.012	18.232	.00	.85	.88	.01

a. Dependent Variable: CMTrust

Casewise Diagnostics[a]

Case Number	Std. Residual	CMTrust	Predicted Value	Residual
6	-3.204	3.00	5.3171	-2.31711
59	6.019	7.00	2.6476	4.35237

a. Dependent Variable: CMTrust

Stepwise Regression Steve McClaren

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
SMTrust	2.0645	1.13613	279
CMCompetent	5.9355	1.20377	279
SMLike	2.6523	1.50213	279
SMReliable	2.2652	1.25860	279
SMDidWhat	2.1111	1.21672	279
SMSeenAs	3.5627	1.69282	279
SMProfDed	4.3978	1.76582	279
SMTrackRecord	2.7491	1.47209	279
SMPredict	4.0753	1.98684	279
SMCandCPlayers	4.4803	1.52867	279
SMLikeMe	2.0000	1.15678	279
SMCandCFans	3.6237	1.72318	279

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	SMLike	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	SMReliable	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
3	SMDid What	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
4	SMTrack Record	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: SMTrust

Stepwise Regression Steve McClaren (continued)

Model Summary[e]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.652[a]	.425	.423	.86314	.425	204.653	1	277	.000
2	.735[b]	.540	.537	.77337	.115	69.037	1	276	.000
3	.763[c]	.582	.577	.73885	.042	27.394	1	275	.000
4	.771[d]	.594	.588	.72937	.012	8.198	1	274	.005

a. Predictors: (Constant), SMLike

b. Predictors: (Constant), SMLike, SMReliable

c. Predictors: (Constant), SMLike, SMReliable, SMDidWhat

d. Predictors: (Constant), SMLike, SMReliable, SMDidWhat, SMTrackRecord

e. Dependent Variable: SMTrust

ANOVA[e]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	152.470	1	152.470	204.653	.000[a]
	Residual	206.369	277	.745		
	Total	358.839	278			
2	Regression	193.761	2	96.881	161.979	.000[b]
	Residual	165.077	276	.598		
	Total	358.839	278			
3	Regression	208.716	3	69.572	127.444	.000[c]
	Residual	150.123	275	.546		
	Total	358.839	278			
4	Regression	213.077	4	53.269	100.135	.000[d]
	Residual	145.762	274	.532		
	Total	358.839	278			

a. Predictors: (Constant), SMLike

b. Predictors: (Constant), SMLike, SMReliable

c. Predictors: (Constant), SMLike, SMReliable, SMDidWhat

d. Predictors: (Constant), SMLike, SMReliable, SMDidWhat, SMTrackRecord

e. Dependent Variable: SMTrust

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.757	.105		7.208	.000	.550	.964					
	SMLike	.493	.034	.652	14.306	.000	.425	.561	.652	.652	.652	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	.384	.104		3.683	.000	.179	.589					
	SMLike	.316	.038	.418	8.414	.000	.242	.390	.652	.452	.344	.677	1.477
	SMReliable	.372	.045	.412	8.309	.000	.284	.460	.650	.447	.339	.677	1.477
3	(Constant)	.124	.111		1.113	.267	-.095	.343					
	SMLike	.290	.036	.384	8.029	.000	.219	.362	.652	.436	.313	.665	1.504
	SMReliable	.328	.044	.363	7.514	.000	.242	.414	.650	.413	.293	.651	1.535
	SMDidWhat	.203	.039	.217	5.234	.000	.126	.279	.440	.301	.204	.885	1.130
4	(Constant)	-.011	.120		-.092	.926	-.246	.224					
	SMLike	.274	.036	.362	7.559	.000	.202	.345	.652	.415	.291	.647	1.545
	SMReliable	.310	.043	.344	7.135	.000	.225	.396	.650	.396	.275	.639	1.566
	SMDidWhat	.186	.039	.200	4.828	.000	.110	.263	.440	.280	.186	.866	1.154
	SMTrackRecord	.092	.032	.119	2.863	.005	.029	.155	.393	.170	.110	.853	1.172

a. Dependent Variable: SMTrust

Stepwise Regression Steve McClaren (continued)

Excluded Variables[e]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	CMCompetent	-.067[a]	-1.475	.141	-.088	.991	1.009	.991
	SMReliable	.412[a]	8.309	.000	.447	.677	1.477	.677
	SMDidWhat	.278[a]	6.228	.000	.351	.920	1.087	.920
	SMSeenAs	.031[a]	.623	.533	.038	.848	1.179	.848
	SMProfDed	.146[a]	2.903	.004	.172	.794	1.259	.794
	SMTrackRecord	.205[a]	4.402	.000	.256	.898	1.114	.898
	SMPredict	.025[a]	.545	.586	.033	1.000	1.000	1.000
	SMCandCPlayers	.013[a]	.275	.784	.017	.921	1.086	.921
	SMLikeMe	.150[a]	3.166	.002	.187	.896	1.116	.896
	SMCandCFans	.038[a]	.759	.449	.046	.827	1.210	.827
2	CMCompetent	-.061[b]	-1.502	.134	-.090	.991	1.009	.672
	SMDidWhat	.217[b]	5.234	.000	.301	.885	1.130	.651
	SMSeenAs	-.046[b]	-1.011	.313	-.061	.813	1.230	.641
	SMProfDed	.082[b]	1.761	.079	.106	.769	1.300	.613
	SMTrackRecord	.149[b]	3.468	.001	.205	.872	1.147	.655
	SMPredict	.024[b]	.599	.550	.036	1.000	1.000	.677
	SMCandCPlayers	-.018[b]	-.420	.675	-.025	.914	1.094	.653
	SMLikeMe	.109[b]	2.525	.012	.151	.883	1.133	.647
	SMCandCFans	-.012[b]	-.264	.792	-.016	.812	1.231	.620
3	CMCompetent	-.051[c]	-1.303	.194	-.078	.988	1.012	.651
	SMSeenAs	-.053[c]	-1.216	.225	-.073	.812	1.231	.627
	SMProfDed	.053[c]	1.173	.242	.071	.756	1.322	.608
	SMTrackRecord	.119[c]	2.863	.005	.170	.853	1.172	.639
	SMPredict	.011[c]	.286	.775	.017	.995	1.005	.651
	SMCandCPlayers	-.038[c]	-.915	.361	-.055	.906	1.103	.644
	SMLikeMe	.075[c]	1.802	.073	.108	.860	1.163	.641
	SMCandCFans	-.060[c]	-1.364	.174	-.082	.779	1.284	.617
4	CMCompetent	-.055[d]	-1.412	.159	-.085	.987	1.013	.639
	SMSeenAs	-.058[d]	-1.356	.176	-.082	.811	1.233	.616
	SMProfDed	.046[d]	1.043	.298	.063	.755	1.325	.596
	SMPredict	.009[d]	.243	.808	.015	.995	1.005	.638
	SMCandCPlayers	-.048[d]	-1.191	.235	-.072	.899	1.112	.631
	SMLikeMe	.064[d]	1.542	.124	.093	.851	1.175	.628
	SMCandCFans	-.070[d]	-1.601	.111	-.096	.775	1.291	.605

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), SMLike

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), SMLike, SMReliable

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), SMLike, SMReliable, SMDidWhat

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), SMLike, SMReliable, SMDidWhat, SMTrackRecord

e. Dependent Variable: SMTrust

Stepwise Regression Steve McClaren (continued)

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions				
				(Constant)	SMLike	SMReliable	SMDidWhat	SMTrack Record
1	1	1.871	1.000	.06	.06			
	2	.129	3.801	.94	.94			
2	1	2.761	1.000	.02	.02	.02		
	2	.136	4.510	.97	.25	.15		
	3	.103	5.180	.01	.73	.83		
3	1	3.584	1.000	.01	.01	.01	.01	
	2	.196	4.280	.02	.20	.13	.65	
	3	.118	5.513	.97	.05	.08	.32	
	4	.103	5.908	.00	.74	.78	.01	
4	1	4.423	1.000	.01	.01	.01	.01	.01
	2	.196	4.748	.02	.22	.15	.54	.01
	3	.174	5.038	.02	.04	.06	.30	.68
	4	.104	6.528	.90	.11	.01	.15	.27
	5	.103	6.567	.06	.63	.78	.00	.02

a. Dependent Variable: SMTrust

Casewise Diagnostics[a]

Case Number	Std. Residual	SMTrust	Predicted Value	Residual
275	5.202	6.00	2.2059	3.79415

a. Dependent Variable: SMTrust

Stepwise Regression Sven Göran Eriksson

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
SGETrust	4.4767	1.26035	279
SGELike	4.3620	1.66474	279
SGEReliable	4.6774	1.29882	279
SGECompetent	4.9319	1.31087	279
SGEProfDed	4.9247	1.60195	279
SGETrackRecord	5.7491	1.25583	279
SGEPredict	4.5448	1.57680	279
SGECandCPlayers	5.1147	1.26139	279
SGELikeMe	2.4158	1.36209	279
SGESeenAs	4.7563	1.53077	279
SGEDidWhat	3.7061	1.50048	279
SGECandCFans	4.2473	1.51484	279

Variables Entered/Removed(a)

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	SGEReliable	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	SGELike	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
3	SGEDidWhat	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
4	SGECompetent	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
5	SGEPredict	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a Dependent Variable: SGETrust

Model Summary[f]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.633[a]	.400	.398	.97783	.400	184.853	1	277	.000
2	.688[b]	.474	.470	.91753	.074	38.606	1	276	.000
3	.715[c]	.511	.506	.88580	.038	21.124	1	275	.000
4	.734[d]	.539	.532	.86177	.028	16.553	1	274	.000
5	.741[e]	.549	.540	.85454	.009	5.654	1	273	.018

a. Predictors: (Constant), SGEReliable

b. Predictors: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike

c. Predictors: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike, SGEDidWhat

d. Predictors: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike, SGEDidWhat, SGECompetent

e. Predictors: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike, SGEDidWhat, SGECompetent, SGEPredict

f. Dependent Variable: SGETrust

Stepwise Regression Sven Göran Eriksson (continued)

ANOVA[f]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	176.746	1	176.746	184.853	.000[a]
	Residual	264.852	277	.956		
	Total	441.599	278			
2	Regression	209.247	2	104.623	124.277	.000[b]
	Residual	232.352	276	.842		
	Total	441.599	278			
3	Regression	225.822	3	75.274	95.934	.000[c]
	Residual	215.777	275	.785		
	Total	441.599	278			
4	Regression	238.115	4	59.529	80.158	.000[d]
	Residual	203.484	274	.743		
	Total	441.599	278			
5	Regression	242.243	5	48.449	66.346	.000[e]
	Residual	199.355	273	.730		
	Total	441.599	278			

a. Predictors: (Constant), SGEReliable

b. Predictors: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike

c. Predictors: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike, SGEDidWhat

d. Predictors: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike, SGEDidWhat, SGECompetent

e. Predictors: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike, SGEDidWhat, SGECompetent, SGEPredict

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.605	.219		7.324	.000	1.174	2.037					
	SGEReliable	.614	.045	.633	13.596	.000	.525	.703	.633	.633	.633	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	1.228	.214		5.730	.000	.806	1.651					
	SGEReliable	.479	.048	.494	10.074	.000	.386	.573	.633	.518	.440	.793	1.261
	SGELike	.231	.037	.305	6.213	.000	.158	.304	.530	.350	.271	.793	1.261
3	(Constant)	1.079	.210		5.151	.000	.667	1.492					
	SGEReliable	.401	.049	.413	8.181	.000	.304	.497	.633	.442	.345	.697	1.435
	SGELike	.187	.037	.247	5.033	.000	.114	.260	.530	.290	.212	.740	1.351
	SGEDidWhat	.191	.042	.227	4.596	.000	.109	.273	.525	.267	.194	.726	1.378
4	(Constant)	.721	.222		3.249	.001	.284	1.158					
	SGEReliable	.287	.055	.295	5.177	.000	.178	.395	.633	.298	.212	.517	1.934
	SGELike	.166	.036	.219	4.547	.000	.094	.238	.530	.265	.186	.725	1.379
	SGEDidWhat	.175	.041	.209	4.317	.000	.095	.255	.525	.252	.177	.719	1.390
	SGECompetent	.211	.052	.220	4.069	.000	.109	.314	.577	.239	.167	.576	1.736
5	(Constant)	.982	.246		3.993	.000	.498	1.466					
	SGEReliable	.299	.055	.308	5.426	.000	.191	.408	.633	.312	.221	.512	1.953
	SGELike	.166	.036	.219	4.585	.000	.095	.237	.530	.267	.186	.725	1.379
	SGEDidWhat	.176	.040	.210	4.374	.000	.097	.255	.525	.256	.178	.719	1.390
	SGECompetent	.218	.052	.227	4.233	.000	.117	.320	.577	.248	.172	.574	1.741
	SGEPredict	-.079	.033	-.099	-2.378	.018	-.144	-.014	.037	-.142	-.097	.962	1.039

a. Dependent Variable: SGETrust

Stepwise Regression Sven Göran Eriksson (continued)

Excluded Variables[f]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	SGELike	.305[a]	6.213	.000	.350	.793	1.261	.793
	SGECompetent	.294[a]	5.114	.000	.294	.599	1.671	.599
	SGEProfDed	.089[a]	1.714	.088	.103	.799	1.251	.799
	SGETrackRecord	.107[a]	2.202	.028	.131	.903	1.108	.903
	SGEPredict	-.082[a]	-1.745	.082	-.104	.966	1.035	.966
	SGECandCPlayers	.026[a]	.516	.606	.031	.885	1.130	.885
	SGELikeMe	.117[a]	2.496	.013	.149	.968	1.033	.968
	SGESeenAs	.164[a]	3.238	.001	.191	.813	1.230	.813
	SGEDidWhat	.292[a]	5.848	.000	.332	.778	1.286	.778
	SGECandCFans	.096[a]	1.963	.051	.117	.900	1.112	.900
2	SGECompetent	.242[b]	4.361	.000	.254	.581	1.720	.552
	SGEProfDed	.022[b]	.447	.655	.027	.760	1.317	.705
	SGETrackRecord	.062[b]	1.329	.185	.080	.878	1.139	.756
	SGEPredict	-.086[b]	-1.938	.054	-.116	.966	1.035	.773
	SGECandCPlayers	-.054[b]	-1.120	.264	-.067	.824	1.213	.738
	SGELikeMe	.075[b]	1.672	.096	.100	.944	1.060	.773
	SGESeenAs	.057[b]	1.083	.280	.065	.692	1.445	.675
	SGEDidWhat	.227[b]	4.596	.000	.267	.726	1.378	.697
	SGECandCFans	.007[b]	.147	.883	.009	.812	1.232	.715
3	SGECompetent	.220[c]	4.069	.000	.239	.576	1.736	.517
	SGEProfDed	-.019[c]	-.388	.698	-.023	.734	1.363	.649
	SGETrackRecord	.041[c]	.910	.364	.055	.869	1.151	.677
	SGEPredict	-.088[c]	-2.074	.039	-.124	.966	1.036	.682
	SGECandCPlayers	-.090[c]	-1.925	.055	-.115	.803	1.245	.683
	SGELikeMe	.048[c]	1.100	.272	.066	.926	1.080	.696
	SGESeenAs	.008[c]	.157	.875	.010	.662	1.512	.656
	SGECandCFans	-.035[c]	-.734	.463	-.044	.782	1.278	.689
4	SGEProfDed	-.056[d]	-1.157	.248	-.070	.710	1.409	.506
	SGETrackRecord	-.011[d]	-.233	.816	-.014	.799	1.252	.517
	SGEPredict	-.099[d]	-2.378	.018	-.142	.962	1.039	.512
	SGECandCPlayers	-.105[d]	-2.303	.022	-.138	.799	1.252	.513
	SGELikeMe	.033[d]	.774	.440	.047	.918	1.089	.517
	SGESeenAs	.003[d]	.056	.956	.003	.661	1.513	.506
	SGECandCFans	-.050[d]	-1.084	.279	-.065	.778	1.286	.516
5	SGEProfDed	-.039[e]	-.798	.425	-.048	.692	1.445	.504
	SGETrackRecord	.000[e]	.004	.997	.000	.791	1.265	.512
	SGECandCPlayers	-.087[e]	-1.891	.060	-.114	.769	1.300	.510
	SGELikeMe	.042[e]	.980	.328	.059	.912	1.096	.512
	SGESeenAs	.022[e]	.431	.667	.026	.645	1.550	.503
	SGECandCFans	-.050[e]	-1.093	.275	-.066	.778	1.286	.511

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), SGEReliable

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike, SGEDidWhat

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike, SGEDidWhat, SGECompetent

e. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), SGEReliable, SGELike, SGEDidWhat, SGECompetent, SGEPredict

f. Dependent Variable: SGETrust

Stepwise Regression Sven Göran Eriksson (continued)

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions					
				(Constant)	SGEReliable	SGELike	SGEDidWhat	SGECompetent	SGEPredict
1	1	1.964	1.000	.02	.02				
	2	.036	7.352	.98	.98				
2	1	2.895	1.000	.01	.01	.01			
	2	.070	6.438	.25	.07	.94			
	3	.035	9.035	.74	.93	.05			
3	1	3.816	1.000	.00	.00	.01	.01		
	2	.080	6.909	.07	.01	.21	.92		
	3	.070	7.405	.30	.07	.76	.03		
	4	.034	10.531	.63	.92	.02	.05		
4	1	4.779	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.084	7.536	.09	.01	.00	.89	.04	
	3	.075	8.009	.05	.01	.99	.07	.02	
	4	.038	11.278	.84	.25	.01	.02	.15	
	5	.025	13.942	.02	.72	.00	.01	.78	
5	1	5.677	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.124	6.773	.01	.00	.11	.20	.00	.47
	3	.078	8.518	.00	.00	.51	.68	.01	.03
	4	.063	9.506	.04	.10	.38	.09	.16	.32
	5	.034	12.961	.89	.21	.00	.01	.05	.17
	6	.024	15.238	.05	.69	.00	.01	.78	.01

a. Dependent Variable: SGETrust

Casewise Diagnostics[a]

Case Number	Std. Residual	SGETrust	Predicted Value	Residual
42	-3.486	1.00	3.9788	-2.97880
209	-3.089	3.00	5.6399	-2.63987

a. Dependent Variable: SGETrust

Stepwise Regression Bobby Robson

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
BRtrust	4.7312	1.26497	279
BRLike	5.5448	1.42585	279
BRReliable	4.9606	1.23289	279
BRCompetent	5.0000	1.26945	279
BRProfDed	5.6810	1.21236	279
BRTrackRecord	5.4158	1.18712	279
BRPredict	4.3154	1.22657	279
BRCandCPlayers	5.4731	1.18981	279
BRLikeMe	2.9211	1.56429	279
BRSeenAs	5.6344	1.24760	279
BRDidWhat	4.3835	1.32215	279
BRCandCFans	5.4158	1.24336	279

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	BRReliable	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	BRLike	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
3	BRCompetent	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
4	BRCandCFans	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: BRtrust

Stepwise Regression Bobby Robson (continued)

Model Summary[e]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.745[a]	.555	.554	.84520	.555	345.705	1	277	.000
2	.787[b]	.620	.617	.78296	.064	46.787	1	276	.000
3	.799[c]	.638	.634	.76549	.018	13.749	1	275	.000
4	.804[d]	.646	.641	.75793	.008	6.509	1	274	.011

a. Predictors: (Constant), BRReliable

b. Predictors: (Constant), BRReliable, BRLike

c. Predictors: (Constant), BRReliable, BRLike, BRCompetent

d. Predictors: (Constant), BRReliable, BRLike, BRCompetent, BRCandCFans

e. Dependent Variable: BRtrust

ANOVA[e]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	246.960	1	246.960	345.705	.000[a]
	Residual	197.879	277	.714		
	Total	444.839	278			
2	Regression	275.641	2	137.821	224.818	.000[b]
	Residual	169.197	276	.613		
	Total	444.839	278			
3	Regression	283.698	3	94.566	161.384	.000[c]
	Residual	161.141	275	.586		
	Total	444.839	278			
4	Regression	287.437	4	71.859	125.090	.000[d]
	Residual	157.402	274	.574		
	Total	444.839	278			

a. Predictors: (Constant), BRReliable

b. Predictors: (Constant), BRReliable, BRLike

c. Predictors: (Constant), BRReliable, BRLike, BRCompetent

d. Predictors: (Constant), BRReliable, BRLike, BRCompetent, BRCandCFans

e. Dependent Variable: BRtrust

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.939	.210		4.468	.000	.525	1.353					
	BRReliable	.764	.041	.745	18.593	.000	.684	.845	.745	.745	.745	1.000	1.000
2	(Constant)	.381	.211		1.807	.072	-.034	.797					
	BRReliable	.552	.049	.538	11.225	.000	.455	.649	.745	.560	.417	.600	1.666
	BRLike	.291	.043	.328	6.840	.000	.207	.374	.668	.381	.254	.600	1.666
3	(Constant)	.190	.213		.893	.373	-.229	.609					
	BRReliable	.411	.061	.400	6.697	.000	.290	.531	.745	.374	.243	.369	2.712
	BRLike	.266	.042	.300	6.318	.000	.183	.349	.668	.356	.229	.585	1.709
	BRCompetent	.206	.056	.207	3.708	.000	.097	.315	.674	.218	.135	.424	2.358
4	(Constant)	.464	.237		1.964	.051	-.001	.930					
	BRReliable	.417	.061	.406	6.855	.000	.297	.536	.745	.383	.246	.368	2.715
	BRLike	.294	.043	.331	6.818	.000	.209	.378	.668	.381	.245	.548	1.825
	BRCompetent	.233	.056	.234	4.159	.000	.123	.343	.674	.244	.149	.409	2.445
	BRCandCFans	-.109	.043	-.107	-2.551	.011	-.194	-.025	.325	-.152	-.092	.728	1.373

a. Dependent Variable: BRtrust

Stepwise Regression Bobby Robson (continued)

Excluded Variables[e]

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics		
						Tolerance	VIF	Minimum Tolerance
1	BRLike	.328[a]	6.840	.000	.381	.600	1.666	.600
	BRCompetent	.263[a]	4.468	.000	.260	.435	2.298	.435
	BRProfDed	.077[a]	1.591	.113	.095	.676	1.479	.676
	BRTrackRecord	.137[a]	3.002	.003	.178	.747	1.338	.747
	BRPredict	.034[a]	.803	.422	.048	.919	1.088	.919
	BRCandCPlayers	.059[a]	1.292	.198	.078	.773	1.293	.773
	BRLikeMe	.094[a]	2.267	.024	.135	.916	1.091	.916
	BRSeenAs	.158[a]	3.373	.001	.199	.708	1.412	.708
	BRDidWhat	.114[a]	2.505	.013	.149	.764	1.309	.764
	BRCandCFans	.009[a]	.212	.832	.013	.818	1.222	.818
2	BRCompetent	.207[b]	3.708	.000	.218	.424	2.358	.369
	BRProfDed	.028[b]	.612	.541	.037	.658	1.519	.503
	BRTrackRecord	.084[b]	1.932	.054	.116	.720	1.389	.539
	BRPredict	.014[b]	.363	.717	.022	.914	1.094	.581
	BRCandCPlayers	.018[b]	.415	.678	.025	.757	1.320	.541
	BRLikeMe	.069[b]	1.782	.076	.107	.908	1.102	.583
	BRSeenAs	.079[b]	1.727	.085	.104	.652	1.533	.540
	BRDidWhat	.078[b]	1.840	.067	.110	.752	1.330	.533
	BRCandCFans	-.074[b]	-1.747	.082	-.105	.755	1.324	.554
3	BRProfDed	-.031[c]	-.657	.512	-.040	.584	1.712	.361
	BRTrackRecord	.050[c]	1.127	.261	.068	.680	1.470	.363
	BRPredict	.000[c]	-.004	.996	.000	.905	1.105	.366
	BRCandCPlayers	-.018[c]	-.413	.680	-.025	.720	1.390	.363
	BRLikeMe	.053[c]	1.378	.169	.083	.894	1.118	.367
	BRSeenAs	.017[c]	.357	.721	.022	.555	1.801	.361
	BRDidWhat	.045[c]	1.055	.292	.064	.712	1.404	.362
	BRCandCFans	-.107[c]	-2.551	.011	-.152	.728	1.373	.368
4	BRProfDed	.007[d]	.141	.888	.009	.527	1.899	.361
	BRTrackRecord	.079[d]	1.768	.078	.106	.645	1.550	.363
	BRPredict	.006[d]	.157	.875	.009	.901	1.110	.366
	BRCandCPlayers	.027[d]	.590	.556	.036	.617	1.621	.363
	BRLikeMe	.055[d]	1.455	.147	.088	.894	1.119	.367
	BRSeenAs	.064[d]	1.264	.207	.076	.496	2.016	.360
	BRDidWhat	.072[d]	1.663	.097	.100	.679	1.473	.362

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), BRReliable

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), BRReliable, BRLike

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), BRReliable, BRLike, BRCompetent

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), BRReliable, BRLike, BRCompetent, BRCandCFans

e. Dependent Variable: BRtrust

Stepwise Regression Bobby Robson (continued)

Collinearity Diagnostics[a]

Model	Dimension	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions (Constant)	BRReliable	BRLike	BRCompetent	BRCand CFans
1	1	1.971	1.000	.01	.01			
	2	.029	8.184	.99	.99			
2	1	2.945	1.000	.01	.00	.00		
	2	.033	9.402	.98	.12	.25		
	3	.022	11.587	.02	.88	.74		
3	1	3.922	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	
	2	.035	10.538	.96	.07	.02	.10	
	3	.028	11.785	.04	.03	.90	.22	
	4	.014	16.694	.00	.90	.08	.68	
4	1	4.891	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
	2	.041	10.864	.25	.10	.04	.10	.26
	3	.028	13.143	.11	.02	.80	.18	.01
	4	.025	13.944	.64	.00	.06	.04	.69
	5	.014	18.786	.00	.87	.10	.68	.03

a. Dependent Variable: BRtrust

Casewise Diagnostics[a]

Case Number	Std. Residual	BRtrust	Predicted Value	Residual
188	-3.092	3.00	5.3432	-2.34322
238	-4.268	2.00	5.2346	-3.23464

a. Dependent Variable: BRtrust

Principal Components Analysis

Club Manager

Correlation Matrix

		CMWhere From	CMPlayHist	CMCHaracter	CMRecord	CMSelections	CMTactics	CMRelati onships	CMTeam Results
Correlation	CMWhereFrom	1.000	.305	.147	.054	.054	.070	.066	.054
	CMPlayHist	.305	1.000	.159	.073	.044	.026	.122	.066
	CMCHaracter	.147	.159	1.000	.256	.121	.205	.280	.139
	CMRecord	.054	.073	.256	1.000	.309	.328	.204	.399
	CMSelections	.054	.044	.121	.309	1.000	.575	.361	.379
	CMTactics	.070	.026	.205	.328	.575	1.000	.301	.452
	CMRelationships	.066	.122	.280	.204	.361	.301	1.000	.186
	CMTeamResults	.054	.066	.139	.399	.379	.452	.186	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	CMWhereFrom		.000	.007	.183	.184	.122	.135	.186
	CMPlayHist	.000		.004	.113	.234	.333	.021	.136
	CMCHaracter	.007	.004		.000	.022	.000	.000	.010
	CMRecord	.183	.113	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	CMSelections	.184	.234	.022	.000		.000	.000	.000
	CMTactics	.122	.333	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	CMRelationships	.135	.021	.000	.000	.000	.000		.001
	CMTeamResults	.186	.136	.010	.000	.000	.000	.001	

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.731
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	364.071
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
CMWhereFrom	1.000	.673
CMPlayHist	1.000	.629
CMCHaracter	1.000	.705
CMRecord	1.000	.403
CMSelections	1.000	.611
CMTactics	1.000	.656
CMRelationships	1.000	.586
CMTeamResults	1.000	.605

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.597	32.458	32.458	2.597	32.458	32.458	2.238	27.974	27.974
2	1.341	16.764	49.222	1.341	16.764	49.222	1.316	16.456	44.430
3	.931	11.635	60.857	.931	11.635	60.857	1.314	16.427	60.857
4	.863	10.792	71.649						
5	.710	8.871	80.520						
6	.608	7.603	88.123						
7	.552	6.903	95.026						
8	.398	4.974	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Principal Components Analysis

Club Manager (continued)

Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
CMWhereFrom	.210	.707	.359
CMPlayHist	.218	.736	.198
CMCHaracter	.455	.367	-.603
CMRecord	.631	-.071	.023
CMSelections	.734	-.239	.126
CMTactics	.763	-.231	.140
CMRelationships	.574	.094	-.498
CMTeamResults	.671	-.200	.339

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 3 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
CMWhereFrom	.066	.818	-.001
CMPlayHist	.006	.779	.146
CMCHaracter	.055	.166	.821
CMRecord	.581	.064	.249
CMSelections	.765	-.024	.161
CMTactics	.793	-.006	.165
CMRelationships	.290	-.012	.709
CMTeamResults	.772	.086	-.036

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3
1	.869	.187	.458
2	-.345	.893	.289
3	.355	.409	-.841

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Principal Component Analysis

England Manager

Correlation Matrix

		EMWhere From	EMPlaying History	EMCHaracter	EMRecord	EMSelections	EMTactics	EMRElationships	EMTeam Results
Correlation	EMWhereFrom	1.000	.388	.181	.025	.051	.005	.081	.077
	EMPlayingHistory	.388	1.000	.133	.013	.025	-.002	.051	-.041
	EMCHaracter	.181	.133	1.000	.257	.202	.201	.328	.179
	EMRecord	.025	.013	.257	1.000	.258	.254	.218	.328
	EMSelections	.051	.025	.202	.258	1.000	.758	.359	.629
	EMTactics	.005	-.002	.201	.254	.758	1.000	.392	.538
	EMRElationships	.081	.051	.328	.218	.359	.392	1.000	.276
	EMTeamResults	.077	-.041	.179	.328	.629	.538	.276	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	EMWhereFrom		.000	.001	.337	.196	.465	.089	.101
	EMPlayingHistory	.000		.013	.413	.340	.488	.200	.248
	EMCHaracter	.001	.013		.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	EMRecord	.337	.413	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	EMSelections	.196	.340	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	EMTactics	.465	.488	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	EMRElationships	.089	.200	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	EMTeamResults	.101	.248	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.728
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	566.651
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
EMWhereFrom	1.000	.684
EMPlayingHistory	1.000	.684
EMCHaracter	1.000	.695
EMRecord	1.000	.487
EMSelections	1.000	.839
EMTactics	1.000	.777
EMRElationships	1.000	.463
EMTeamResults	1.000	.652

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.836	35.456	35.456	2.836	35.456	35.456	2.344	29.296	29.296
2	1.463	18.286	53.741	1.463	18.286	53.741	1.520	18.994	48.290
3	.981	12.268	66.010	.981	12.268	66.010	1.418	17.719	66.010
4	.813	10.163	76.173						
5	.645	8.057	84.230						
6	.603	7.531	91.761						
7	.433	5.409	97.171						
8	.226	2.829	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Principal Component Analysis

England Manager (continued)

Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
EMWhereFrom	.154	.775	-.244
EMPlayingHistory	.080	.780	-.265
EMCHaracter	.458	.387	.579
EMRecord	.507	.011	.479
EMSelections	.846	-.164	-.310
EMTactics	.823	-.195	-.249
EMRElationships	.606	.107	.291
EMTeamResults	.762	-.170	-.209

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 3 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
EMWhereFrom	.037	.075	.823
EMPlayingHistory	-.017	.021	.827
EMCHaracter	.017	.808	.203
EMRecord	.205	.659	-.106
EMSelections	.903	.149	.041
EMTactics	.863	.178	-.011
EMRElationships	.350	.581	.058
EMTeamResults	.786	.186	-.008

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3
1	.846	.523	.101
2	-.266	.250	.931
3	-.462	.815	-.351

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

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