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**Acceptability and Preliminary Efficacy Testing of a Web-Based Coach Development
Program Addressing Gender Essentialism among Coaches of Adolescent Girls**

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51 **Abstract**

52 Gender essentialism in coaching discourses often goes unnoticed by coaches, yet
53 promotes gender stereotypes. Currently, no coach development programme addresses gender
54 essentialism. This study tested the acceptability and preliminary efficacy of a novel web-
55 based coaching intervention comprising seven self-led modules, aimed at reducing gender
56 essentialism among coaches. A pilot randomised controlled trial was conducted with 102
57 coaches of adolescent girls across multiple sports. Coaches were randomised into the
58 intervention condition ($n = 54$) or a waitlist control condition ($n = 48$). Both intervention and
59 control group participants completed a baseline self-assessment prior. Intervention group
60 participants undertook *Coaching HER Foundation* (CHF) modules over two weeks and
61 completed a post-intervention self-assessment. Control group coaches completed the post-
62 intervention assessment without completing the CHF modules. Based on the data, coaches
63 found the intervention easy to follow, relevant, applicable, and enjoyable. Efficacy analyses
64 illustrated the intervention group reported lower levels of gender essentialism at post-
65 intervention compared to the control group. Study results must be considered in relation to
66 the small sample size and high attrition rate (72%). Study findings will inform intervention
67 optimisations based on participant feedback, after which CHF will be made freely available
68 within a wider coach education and training framework.

69 *Keywords:* Coach education; Gender; Girls; Sport; Stereotypes.

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71 **Introduction**

72 Girls' participation in sport is associated with improvements in physical,
73 psychological, and social health. However, girls face numerous interconnected barriers to
74 enter and sustain participation in sport activities, including gender essentialism (Allison,
75 2018, 2020; LaVoi, 2018; Messner, 2009, 2011). Gender essentialism posits that men and
76 women have separate and unchanging physical, social, and personality traits (Bohan, 1993;
77 Dzubinski & Diehl, 2018; Greene, 2021). In sport coaching, gender essentialism often
78 manifests when coaches assert that girls and women have inherent, natural, special, or unique
79 characteristics compared to boys and men (LaVoi et al., 2007). Impacts of gender
80 essentialism include persistence of gender stereotypes, masculine dominance in sport and
81 society, and discrimination against girls in sport (Allison, 2018, Messner, 2009, 2011; LaVoi
82 & Goorevich, in press; Love & Kelly, 2011). Despite the harmful potential of gender
83 essentialism in coaching discourses, there has yet to be a coach development programme
84 (CDP) aimed at addressing gender discourses in sport coaching.

85 **Gender Essentialism Defined and Its Impact**

86 Research into pervasive and persistent gender essentialism in sport—including the
87 realm of sport coaching—highlights how essentialism limits the potential for girls in sport to
88 experience maximal benefits from their sport participation (Allison, 2018; Gosai et al., 2022;
89 LaVoi & Baeth, 2018). Gender essentialism is largely shaped by biological divisions of
90 gender, where men and women are believed to have inherently separate traits, characteristics,
91 or essences based on hormonal or genetic differences (Bohan, 1993; Dzubinski & Diehl,
92 2018; Greene, 2021; Hyde, 2005). Generally, gender essentialism can manifest in
93 assumptions that women are naturally caring, nurturing, and emotional, whereas men are
94 naturally agentic and rational. In sport specifically, a common gender essentialist perception
95 is that girls and women are inferior athletes, less confident, and less suitable to (certain)

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96 sports than boys and men. As a result, gender essentialism shapes prevailing notions of
97 masculinity and femininity, which have material impacts. For instance, gender essentialism
98 has been found to promote biases that restrict women's access to leadership positions both in
99 sport and beyond, as well as justify resource inequality between men and women's sport
100 (Allison, 2018, 2020; Dzubinski & Diehl, 2018; Hovden & Tjønndal, 2019).

101 Unchecked and unchallenged gender essentialism is problematic, as these beliefs may
102 marginalise, discriminate against, and negatively impact the psychosocial outcomes of girls
103 in sport, and may render coaches less effective in coaching girls and women (de Haan &
104 Knoppers, 2020; Felton & Jowett, 2013; Jones et al., 2019; Skewes et al., 2018). For
105 example, if girls engage in stereotypical masculine attitudes and behaviours while playing
106 sport (e.g., dominance and aggression), coaches who possess a high level of gender
107 essentialism may react with backlash, gender bias, sanctioning, and marginalisation (Skewes
108 et al., 2018). On the other hand, pressure for girls to conform to stereotypical feminine norms
109 (e.g., being caring and passive) compounds notions of girls as unathletic and unsuitable for
110 sport, and can impact girls' sport performance (Cooky, 2009; LaVoi et al., 2007; Kane,
111 2016).

112 Gender essentialism also normalises an idealised notion of femininity, which is
113 structured around whiteness, heterosexuality, being cis-gender, and economic privilege
114 (Allison, 2018, 2020; Newhall & Buzuvis, 2008; Travers, 2008). As a result, athletes who lie
115 outside of hegemonic identities are further marginalised and discriminated against, often
116 facing added layers of oppression and stereotypes based on race, religion, ability, class, or
117 sexuality (Allison, 2020; McDowell & Carter-Francique, 2017). Although Messner (2009,
118 2011) observed that contemporary gender essentialism has become more 'soft' in its
119 application, where girls and women are accommodated in the sporting sphere, essentialism
120 remains pervasive, as it shapes perceptions of femininity in sport, constructs girls' choices in

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121 sport, and impacts access to leadership opportunities (Cooky, 2009; LaVoi et al., 2007;
122 LaVoi & Goorevich, in press; Love & Kelly, 2011). Notably, gender essentialism is also
123 harmful for boys and men as it replicates hegemonic masculinity, limits gender expression,
124 and perpetuates heterosexism (Messner, 2009, 2011).

125 Despite its power structuring sport hierarchies, where boys and men in sport receive
126 more resources and better treatment than girls and women in sport due to perceptions of
127 women being inferior athletes, research from developmental psychology, neuroscience, and
128 behavioural neuroendocrinology all discredit the reality of gender essentialist binaries (Hyde,
129 2005; Hyde et al., 2019). Gender essentialist beliefs, then, in arenas like sport and sport
130 coaching are subsequently not supported by research-based evidence.

131 **Coaching and Gender Essentialism**

132 Coaches often exhibit high levels of gender essentialism in their coaching practices
133 and methodologies, which harms girls in sport (Gosai et al., 2022; Jones et al., 2019;
134 Norman, 2016a, 2016b). Coaches are highly impactful on athletes' well-being in sport
135 settings (Langan et al., 2013; LaVoi, 2018), have a significant influence on athletes' physical
136 and mental health and well-being, and are powerful mediators of gendered hierarchies and
137 gendered norms (Norman, 2016a, 2016b). Although gender essentialism is a phenomenon
138 that is not exclusive to sport, sport is a salient arena for essentialist beliefs, due to a sex-
139 segregated sport structure, historical hegemonic masculinity in sport, and an emphasis on
140 physical ability (Messner, 2009, 2011). While it is not assumed that sport coaches are more
141 likely to purport essentialism compared to the general population, it is important to address
142 and challenge the essentialist beliefs which permeate sport coaching.

143 Sport scholars have documented essentialist (e.g., 'girls are less competitive than
144 boys, are better listeners than boys, and need more instruction than boys'; LaVoi et al., 2007)
145 and 'gender-neutral' coach discourses (e.g., 'treat girls and boys equally'; de Haan &

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146 Knoppers, 2020; Hovden & Tjønndal, 2019; Norman, 2016b; Spaaij et al., 2019), and have
147 called for new ‘gender responsive’ coaching discourses and methodologies to help
148 practitioners more effectively coach girls in sport (e.g., wearing dark-coloured shorts to
149 alleviate menstrual concerns; Hovden & Tjønndal, 2019; Jones et al., 2019; Norman, 2016a).
150 Recently, coaching discourses have been further documented and defined ([CONCEALED])
151 from essentialist (e.g., ‘girls are more emotional than boys’) to transformative (e.g.,
152 implementing feminist pedagogy in coaching).

153 Despite the power and prominence inherent in the coaching role, research related to
154 gender essentialism in sport coaching is limited (LaVoi, 2016a; LaVoi et al., 2007; Messner,
155 2009, 2011). Furthermore, although gender essentialism is evident in coaching discourses and
156 methodologies, such as characterising girls as less authoritarian, inferior athletes, and more
157 sociable compared to boys (LaVoi et al., 2007; Messner, 2009, 2011), there has yet to be an
158 educational intervention for coaches that directly addresses and challenges gender essentialist
159 perspectives. Coach education and CDPs address a plethora of coaching topics related to
160 athlete motivation, sport-specific strategies, team cohesion, injury and burnout prevention,
161 and disordered eating (Evans et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2020). However, gender-specific coach
162 education programmes directly addressing topics relating to coaching girls and women are
163 rare (Jones et al., 2019; Norman, 2016a), and rigorously evaluated CDPs are no exception.

164 When CDPs do include gender, an essentialist perspective where girls are considered
165 non-normative in sport and different from boys is often promoted (Allen & Shaw, 2009;
166 LaVoi et al., 2007; Norman, 2016a). Examining and questioning discourses in coach
167 education materials through a gender responsive approach is an important way to illuminate
168 and deconstruct gender essentialism. Gender responsive coaching teaches coaches to
169 critically question problematic gender relations and discourses, which shape their strategies,
170 methodologies, and opinions. Gender responsive coaching, “through identifying,

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171 understanding, and redefining gendered ideas, stereotypes, and languages”, better
172 accommodates athletes’ desires and needs and improves coach-athlete relationships and thus
173 athlete performance (Norman, 2016b, p. 11; Schofield et al., 2022). Research has found that
174 coaches seek out gender-responsive coaching methodologies to better support girls and
175 women in sport (Norman, 2016b); however, we are currently not aware of any empirically-
176 tested coaching interventions that take an anti-essentialist, gender responsive position to
177 coaching girls.

178 Significance of this Research

179 In this paper, we examined the acceptability of an educational intervention for
180 coaches of adolescent girls aimed at reducing gender essentialist beliefs in sport coaching.
181 While this intervention was developed for coaches of girls, we note essentialist discourses of
182 coaches also are harmful to boys and men. This study fills an important research gap related
183 to gendered coach discourses; despite making up a large proportion of female sport
184 participants, research on girls specifically—defined as youth under 18 years old assigned as
185 female at birth, as well as all young individuals that identify as female—is lacking. Research
186 on gendered coaching discourses is nearly exclusive to the adult, elite sport level (de Haan &
187 Knoppers, 2020; de Haan & Norman, 2020; Schofield et al., 2022). This study therefore fills
188 a gap by focusing on the coaches of girls, rather than adult women.

189 Recently, researchers have documented and problematised the existence of gender
190 essentialist coach perceptions of the girls they coached (de Haan & Knoppers, 2020; de Haan
191 & Norman, 2020; Jones et al., 2019). Other researchers have examined how gender
192 essentialism restricts female coaches’ careers (Hovden & Tjønndal, 2019; Knoppers, 1992;
193 LaVoi, 2016b; LaVoi & Baeth, 2018; LaVoi & Goorevich, in press; Messner, 2009, 2011),
194 assumes women and girls are less competitive (Mavin & Yusupova, 2020), establishes
195 women and girls as inferior athletes (Allison, 2018; Kane, 1995; Messner, 2009; Schofield et

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196 al., 2022), and erases the diversity found within and between girls and women's sport
197 experiences (Allison, 2020; Newhall & Buzuvis, 2008; Travers, 2008). Furthermore, scholars
198 have emphasised the need for greater attention to issues related to diversity, equity, and social
199 justice in CDPs, as it can support diverse workforces, destabilise harmful social hierarchies
200 present in sport spaces, and create more welcoming and empowering sport experiences for
201 both athletes and coaches (Culver et al., 2023; Norman, 2016a). This intervention follows
202 these scholars' call to action with its focus on eradicating gender essentialism in sport
203 coaching.

204 The aim of the current study was to describe the preliminary testing of a novel web-
205 based intervention aimed at reducing gender essentialist beliefs in sport coaching. The
206 *Coaching HER Foundation* intervention (CHF) fills a gap in the existing literature and the
207 need to target coaches in interventions as mediators of gender norms and key influences of
208 athletes' sport experiences. The primary focus on coaches of girls is warranted, as coaches
209 are salient role models and impactful social agents who shape girls' self-perceptions at a time
210 in girls' developmental trajectory when a majority of girls drop out of sport and therefore fail
211 to have the opportunity to accrue positive psychosocial, developmental, and health benefits
212 (LaVoi, 2018).

213 **The Current Study**

214 Specifically, the CHF intervention aims to: (1) reduce gender essentialism among
215 coaches of adolescent girls in sport; (2) improve coaches' self-efficacy in recognising and
216 addressing gender essentialist beliefs; and (3) increase coaches' perceived importance placed
217 on their role in challenging gender stereotypes and gender essentialism in coaching.

218 The hypotheses that guided this study are: (1) coaches who took part in CHF would
219 find the intervention acceptable, as assessed through affective attitude, burden, ethicality,
220 self-efficacy, perceived effectiveness, and open-ended feedback and (2) coaches who took

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221 part in CHF would report lower gender essentialist beliefs and higher self-efficacy and
222 outcome values in challenging gender stereotypes post-intervention, compared to coaches
223 who did not take part in the intervention.

224 This study measures the efficacy of CHF in reducing gender essentialism among
225 coaches of adolescent girls utilising an existing scale—the Gender Essentialism Scale (GES;
226 Skewes et al., 2018). Although the GES measures the prevalence of gender essentialism in
227 relation to political and social beliefs not specific to sport, we believe this scale can indicate
228 the presence of gender essentialism amongst sport coaches of girls. By monitoring coaches’
229 gender essentialist viewpoints and applying an anti-essentialist coach education intervention
230 to challenge these beliefs, we can illustrate how gender essentialism can be changed to
231 promote more gender-responsive sport environments for girls that will enhance sport
232 performance, well-being, and sustain participation so benefits can accrue (Norman, 2016b).

233 **Materials and Methods**

234 **Study Design**

235 This study followed a two-arm randomised controlled trial design that included an
236 intervention group and a waitlist control group. Coaches of adolescent girls based in the
237 United States were randomly assigned to either the intervention (seven modules of CHF) or
238 waitlist control group. Participants completed online assessments in Qualtrics at baseline (T1;
239 within one week before starting the programme) and immediately post-intervention (T2;
240 within one week of completing the programme). Coaches in the control group received access
241 to the modules after completing the T2 survey. The study was pre-registered on
242 ClinicalTrials.gov (identifier: [CONCEALED]), and University Institutional Review Board
243 approval was obtained from the University of [CONCEALED] (ref no. [CONCEALED]).
244 The CONSORT EHEALTH checklist (V.1.6.1; Eysenback, 2011) and the CONSORT 2010

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245 extension to randomised pilot and feasibility trials statement were followed (Eldridge et al.,
246 2016).

247 Participants and Sample Size

248 Participants were recruited through sports organisations' newsletters, emails to
249 coaches, and posts across various social media channels. Participant recruitment and data
250 collection were conducted between May and August 2022. Coaches indicated their informed
251 consent before taking part. One response per participant was permitted. Inclusion criteria
252 were being a current sport coach of adolescent girls and being based in the United States.
253 Participants were excluded if they did not coach sports, coached only boys, men, and/or adult
254 women, and were not at least 18 years of age.

255 Coaching HER Foundation Intervention**256 *Intervention Development***

257 The development of CHF integrated perspectives from coach education experts;
258 scholarly literature in the realms of sport sociology, sport coaching, and sport psychology;
259 and the voices of athletes and coaches. In a multi-stage process, the CHF content was first
260 derived from existing literature surrounding gender and coaching (e.g., LaVoi, 2018;
261 Norman, 2016a, 2016b) and the core research team's expert knowledge. Next, input from
262 girls and coaches through surveys helped to inform the content needs for the course modules.
263 Throughout the process, content creation was guided by best practice recommendations for
264 developing CDPs (e.g., Griffiths et al., 2018; Nash et al., 2017). Furthermore, as this is a
265 web-based programme, input from website developers was utilised to ensure the feasibility
266 and usability of CHF.

267 *Intervention Components*

268 CHF is made up of seven, 20-minute, self-guided, and digitally available modules. An
269 overview of the content, theoretical underpinnings, and projected learning outcomes for each

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270 module can be found in Table 1. Modules were required to be completed in a sequential
271 order. Modules were completed over a two-week period and were self-paced. Each module
272 began with an introduction, core module content, definitions of key terms, and downloadable
273 PDFs with summarised content. A variety of interactive elements (e.g., case studies,
274 checklists, quizzes, reflection prompts) were present throughout each module, which served
275 to emphasise the importance of self-reflection as a learning tool (Norman, 2016b; Santos et
276 al., 2019). Images within the modules depicted girls with diverse identities, including age,
277 ethnicity, religion, and ability. At the end of each module, coaches were provided free access
278 to additional resources, such as videos, media articles, websites, research reports, and
279 scientific literature, which added information about that module's topic.

280 Procedures

281 To participate in the programme, all coaches provided electronic consent and
282 subsequently completed the baseline survey. Qualtrics randomised participants into either the
283 intervention condition or the waitlist control condition using a 1:1 randomisation ratio.
284 Coaches were told that they would take part in the intervention after completing the first
285 survey or after completing the second survey depending on group assignment, to ensure
286 participants were not influenced by randomisation. As this was a web-based intervention,
287 complete allocation concealment was not possible.

288 The intervention condition consisted of a baseline self-assessment (target outcomes
289 and demographic information), access to the training over the two-week intervention period,
290 and a post-intervention self-assessment (target outcomes and acceptability and adherence
291 measures). Participants accessed the intervention with a link sent via email where they logged
292 in with their email address and a self-created password, which was never revealed to the
293 researchers. To prompt completion of the intervention within two weeks, coaches received
294 reminder emails one week after receiving access to the intervention. Additionally, coaches

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295 received up to two reminder emails to complete the post-intervention survey, the first after
296 three days and the second a week after receiving the initial survey link.

297 Participants in the waitlist control condition completed the baseline self-assessments
298 (target outcomes and demographic information) and a second self-assessment two weeks later
299 (target outcomes only), after which they received access to the online intervention. However,
300 their engagement with the intervention was not monitored or assessed.

301 At completion of the post-intervention survey, all participants received a debrief form
302 outlining the study aims and objectives. Coaches received an electronic \$25 gift voucher to
303 compensate them for their time.

304 **Measures**

305 *Demographic Information*

306 Demographic information consisted of questions related to location, gender identity,
307 ethnicity/racial origin, age, education level, coaching role, gender and age of athletes
308 coached, sports coached, competition level coached, years coaching in current role, and years
309 coaching in total.

310 *Acceptability*

311 Intervention acceptability refers to how well an intervention is received by the target
312 population and the extent to which the intervention meets the needs of the target population
313 and the environment or organisational setting of that population (Ayala & Elder, 2011). In
314 other words, while efficacy of an intervention refers to whether or not the intervention is
315 successful at inducing change in pre-specified outcomes, acceptability of an intervention
316 refers to whether the target population finds the intervention relevant, fair, adequate,
317 enjoyable, and not too burdensome (Milosevic et al., 2015; Sekhon et al., 2017). Intervention
318 acceptability is often an important condition for intervention effectiveness, as individuals
319 who find an intervention acceptable are more likely to adhere to the intervention and gain

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320 benefits from it (Diepeveen et al., 2013; Milosevic et al., 2015). Acceptability is therefore
321 commonly measured in pilot studies assessing new interventions, including interventions
322 targeting sport coaches (e.g., Garnham-Lee et al., 2016; Matthews et al., 2023; Schneider et
323 al., 2023).

324 Acceptability of CHF was assessed retrospectively, corresponding with the theoretical
325 framework of acceptability (Sekhon et al., 2017), which is made up of seven constructs:
326 perceived effectiveness, ethicality, affective attitude, burden, intervention coherence,
327 opportunity costs, and self-efficacy. For the purposes of the current study, we did not assess
328 intervention coherence or opportunity costs. The acceptability items were measured through
329 three questions, rated on a 1–5 Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 5 = *Strongly Agree*).
330 Below, the acceptability items are defined.

331 **Affective Attitude.** Affective attitude refers to how an individual feels about taking
332 part in an intervention (Sekhon et al., 2017). Affective attitude was evaluated through the
333 following questions: (1) “I liked the programme”; (2) “I am satisfied with the programme”;
334 and (3) “I enjoyed engaging with the programme”.

335 **Burden.** Burden refers to the perceived amount of effort that is required to participate
336 in the intervention (Sekhon et al., 2017) and was measured through three questions: (1)
337 “Engaging with the programme was too troublesome” [reversed]; (2) “Engaging with the
338 content of the programme was too difficult” [reversed]; and (3) “It was easy to follow the
339 content of the programme”.

340 **Ethicality.** Ethicality refers to the extent to which the intervention has good fit with
341 an individual’s value system (Sekhon et al., 2017) and was evaluated through three questions:
342 (1) “I think this programme is appropriate for coaches in my organisation or in my sport”; (2)
343 “I would recommend this programme to other coaches”; and (3) “It is important for other
344 coaches to have access to this programme”.

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345 **Self-Efficacy.** Self-efficacy refers to the participant’s confidence that they can
346 perform the behaviour(s) required to participate in the intervention (Sekhon et al., 2017) and
347 was evaluated through three questions: (1) “I am going to use the things I learned from this
348 programme in the future”; (2) “I have been able to apply what I have learned in the
349 programme to my coaching”; and (3) “I am confident that I will use the techniques I learned
350 from the programme in my coaching”.

351 **Perceived Effectiveness.** Perceived effectiveness refers to the extent to which the
352 intervention is perceived as likely to achieve its purpose (Sekhon et al., 2017) and was
353 evaluated through three questions: (1) “The programme was successful in improving my
354 knowledge about gender stereotypes”; (2) “The programme was successful in helping me
355 think about my own gender stereotypes”; and (3) “The programme was successful in
356 improving my knowledge about coaching girls”.

357 **Additional Feedback.** Participants had the opportunity to provide additional
358 feedback about their experience through the following open-ended questions: (1) “Are there
359 any parts of the programme that were not clear (e.g., meaning, relevance, terminology,
360 etc.)?”; (2) “Is there anything missing that you think should be included in this programme?”;
361 (3) “Do you have feedback on the visual design of the modules?”; and (4) “Do you have any
362 further feedback on this programme?”.

363 ***Preliminary Efficacy***

364 **Gender Essentialism.** The Gender Essentialism Scale (GES; Skewes, 2018) assessed
365 coaches’ gender essentialism. The GES is made up of 25 items (e.g., “Genes are at the root of
366 differences between the sexes” and “Wherever you go in the world, men and women differ
367 from one another in the same kinds of ways”). Participants indicated their agreement with the
368 items on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 5 = *Strongly Agree*). Higher mean
369 scores indicate higher adoption of gender essentialist beliefs. The GES demonstrated high

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370 reliability in previous research (Cronbach's alpha = .89-.90) and in the current study
371 (Cronbach's alpha = .88).

372 **Coach Self-Efficacy.** Coaches' self-efficacy in recognising and addressing gender
373 essentialist beliefs was assessed with the Coach Confidence Efficacy scale (CCE), developed
374 for the purposes of this study. Adapted from Vaughan et al. (2004), this 11-item scale
375 measured coaches' expectations regarding their ability to identify and challenge gender
376 stereotypes in sport. Participants were asked to indicate their perceived levels of confidence
377 to each item following the stem "I can...", rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly*
378 *Disagree*, 7 = *Strongly Agree*). Example items included: "I can identify gender stereotypes
379 that are prevalent in sports" and "I can effectively reduce gender stereotypes in my
380 coaching". Higher mean scores indicate higher self-efficacy to identify and challenge gender
381 essentialism and gender stereotypes in coaching practices. The CCE exhibited high reliability
382 in the current study (Cronbach's alpha = .83).

383 **Coach Outcome Values.** Coaches' perceived importance placed on their role in
384 challenging gender stereotypes and essentialism in coaching was assessed with the Coach
385 Outcome Values scale (COV), developed for the purposes of this study. Modified from
386 Vaughan et al. (2004), this 5-item scale measured the value coaches placed on learning how
387 to identify and tackle gender stereotypes in sport. Participants were asked to indicate their
388 perceived value of each item following the stem "As a coach, one of the most important
389 things I can do is...", rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 7 = *Strongly*
390 *Agree*). An example item included: "As a coach, one of the most important things I can do is
391 limit the use of gender stereotypes in my coaching". Higher mean scores indicate a higher
392 value placed on identifying and challenging gender stereotypes and essentialism in coaching.
393 The COV exhibited high reliability in the current study (Cronbach's alpha = .81).

394 ***Adherence and Completion***

395 To assess adherence to CHF, we examined module completion, the use of additional
396 intervention features (i.e., additional resources), time to complete each module, and time to
397 complete the entire intervention (Beintner et al., 2019).

398 **Number of Modules Completed.** The virtual platform hosting the CHF intervention
399 recorded the number of modules coaches completed.

400 **Time to Complete the Intervention.** To measure coaches' self-reported time spent
401 on the intervention, the following questions were asked: (1) "On average, how long did each
402 module take you to complete?" (1 = *Less than 20 minutes*, 2 = *20–30 minutes*, 3 = *30–60*
403 *minutes*, 4 = *1–3 hours*, 5 = *More than 3 hours*) and (2) "How long did the entire programme
404 take you to complete?" (1 = *Less than 1 day*, 2 = *Half a week*, 3 = *1 week*, 4 = *One and a half*
405 *week*, 5 = *2 weeks*, 6 = *Haven't completed yet*).

406 **Engagement with Additional Resources.** Participants were asked whether they
407 engaged with the additional resources (e.g., videos, additional reading, links, reflection
408 exercises). Participants who responded "yes" were asked: "Do you have any feedback about
409 the additional resources (e.g., videos, additional reading, links, reflection exercises)?"
410 Participants who responded "no" were asked: "If no, why did you not engage with the
411 additional resources?"

412 **Data Analysis**

413 Intervention group acceptability and adherence data, both quantitative and qualitative,
414 were collected at post-test. As there was a small sample size and a large number of missing
415 responses, quantitative acceptability and adherence data were summarised using descriptive
416 statistics. An Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) measured group differences on all
417 outcomes. Randomised arms were compared on outcomes at post-test (T2), with pre-test (T1)
418 levels of each measure included as a covariate. Partial eta-squared was selected as a measure

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419 of effect size for its suitability with between- and within-subject effects and intervention
420 effects (Alleva et al., 2015), and was reported for each effect, where $\eta_p^2 = .01, .06, \text{ and } .14$
421 constitute small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively. We considered a significance
422 level of $p < .05$ for all outcome measures.

423 Results

424 Preliminary Analyses

425 Participants ($n = 102$) in both the intervention ($n = 54$) and waitlist control groups (n
426 $= 48$) completed all demographic and outcome measures at pre-test. At post-test, 47%
427 (48/102) of participants dropped out from the study and did not complete outcome or
428 acceptability measures. Specifically, 72% (39 of 54) of the intervention group and 19% (9 of
429 48) of the waitlist control group dropped out at post-test.

430 For both outcome variables and acceptability measures, T1 had 0% missing data,
431 while T2 showed a range of 46.1% to 47.1% of missing items. To measure whether dropouts
432 were missing completely at random (MCAR), we compared participants who dropped out at
433 T2 to those who were retained on T1 scores on the GES, CCE, and COV scales. A Little's
434 MCAR test was insignificant, meaning that missing data was missing completely at random
435 ($\chi^2 = 72.042, df = 89, p = .905$). The t -test showed no significant differences both across
436 arms ($t = -1.487, df = 100, p = .140$), as well as within the intervention arm ($t = -0.835, df =$
437 $100, p = .404$). The result suggests that dropouts were distributed completely at random.
438 ANCOVA assumptions of normal distribution of residuals, homogeneity of regression slopes,
439 continuous dependent variables, homogeneity of covariance matrices, and absence of outliers
440 were met by all outcome variables. The assumption of homogeneity of variance, as assessed
441 by Levene's test, was met for GES, but not for CCE and COV.

442 Sample Characteristics

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443 Of the 102 recruited coaches, the majority (72.5%) identified as women. Most
444 coaches were White (80.3%), followed by multi- or biracial coaches (7.8%) and Black and
445 African American coaches (4.9%). The coaches' average age was 37.85 years ($SD = 11.75$),
446 and there were no significant differences in age between the intervention and waitlist control
447 groups. Most coaches worked as a head coach (64.7%), followed by assistant coach (20.6%)
448 and had a bachelor's degree (44.1%), followed by coaches with a master's degree (33.3%).
449 All coaches worked with adolescent girls, and 45.1% also coached adolescent boys. The
450 coaches were involved in a variety of sports, with the most frequently reported sports being
451 soccer (19.6%), basketball (13.7%), and volleyball (13.7%). Most participants coached at the
452 high school (65.7%) and club level (43.1%). On average, participants had been in their
453 current role for an average of 6.85 years ($SD = 7.04$) and averaged 13.43 years of coaching
454 experience ($SD = 9.36$), with no significant differences between the intervention and waitlist
455 control groups (see Table 2 for a detailed description of the baseline sample). There were no
456 significant differences between the groups for any outcome variable levels at baseline (see
457 Table 3).

458 Intervention Acceptability

459 Of the coaches who completed post-intervention assessments, the average scores
460 indicated high agreement with affective attitude ($M = 4.38$, $SD = 0.62$), ethicality ($M = 4.38$,
461 $SD = 0.75$), self efficacy ($M = 4.38$, $SD = 0.62$), and perceived effectiveness ($M = 4.49$, $SD =$
462 0.59), as well as low agreement with burden ($M = 2.53$, $SD = 0.37$; see Table 4). Overall,
463 coaches were satisfied with the intervention, found it enjoyable, and did not feel burdened to
464 complete the programme. Additionally, coaches thought CHF was relevant, applicable, and
465 indicated that they would recommend this intervention to other coaches. Coaches believed
466 the intervention improved their knowledge around gender essentialism and coaching girls.

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467 Coaches also felt that the intervention offered them knowledge and techniques that they could
468 apply to their coaching in the future.

469 *Loved [the programme]! [I] even printed a few to pass along to other coaches*
470 *and the worksheets for my team to do when the season starts.* (Female swimming
471 coach, aged 31, New Hampshire)

472 *Thank you for doing this, coming from a women's wrestling coach. I wrestled*
473 *boys all throughout high school, and became a coach right around the time North*
474 *Carolina sanctioned wrestling for women to have their own division. So I am trying to*
475 *make sure to deconstruct any coaching methods or words I use since I grew up being*
476 *coached and practising with all males, and sometimes find myself embracing gender*
477 *stereotypes because of how they were expressed commonly when I was in high school.*
478 (Female wrestling coach, aged 20, North Carolina)

479 *The definitions were clearly labelled which made it very easy.* (Female
480 lacrosse coach, aged 33, New Jersey)

481 *The material was very clear.* (Female cross country coach, aged 38, U.S.
482 Virgin Islands)

483 *Organised and visually pleasing.* (Female swimming coach, aged 22, New
484 Jersey)

485 Coaches were offered the opportunity to explicate their experience and feedback
486 through open-ended questions. Many coaches appreciated the “simple” and “easy to follow”
487 design of the intervention, yet some requested more complex and in-depth content and more
488 reflective or interactive activities. In particular, coaches requested opportunities to practise
489 applying concepts to their coaching methodologies and discourses:

490 *I wish that there was more reflection to be done after each module.* (Female field
491 hockey coach, aged 26, Pennsylvania)

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492 *Maybe scenarios or exercises in the modules that guide coaches in the right direction.*

493 *For instance instead of saying this-say that. For coaches learning how to speak*

494 *differently it would be helpful for them to have activities in which they can practise.*

495 (Female gymnastics coach, aged 35, Oregon)

496 **Intervention Efficacy**

497 ***Coaches' Gender Essentialism (GES)***

498 The ANCOVA showed a significant main effect of randomised group ($F[1, 51] =$
499 $26.181, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .339$). The intervention group showed significantly lower levels of
500 gender essentialism at post-intervention than the control group, with a large effect size.

501 ***Coach Self-Efficacy (CCE)***

502 The ANCOVA did not show a significant main effect of randomised group ($F[1, 51]$
503 $= 1.906, p = .173, \eta_p^2 = .036$). There was no significant difference in CCE scores between the
504 intervention and control groups at post-intervention.

505 ***Coach Outcome Values (COV)***

506 The ANCOVA did not show a significant main effect of randomised group ($F[1, 51]$
507 $= 1.288, p = .262, \eta_p^2 = .025$). There was no significant difference in COV scores between the
508 intervention and control groups at post-intervention.

509 **Intervention Adherence and Completion**

510 One hundred percent of the intervention group participants who completed post-test
511 assessments completed all seven modules of CHF. Participants reported completing the
512 modules in a timely manner, with 60% ($n = 9$) completing the entire programme in one day
513 and 40% ($n = 6$) completing the programme within one week. A majority (86.7%, $n = 13$)
514 reported that each module took less than 20 minutes to complete and 13.3% ($n = 2$) reported
515 completing individual modules in 20–30 minutes. Participants frequently engaged with
516 additional resources ($n = 13, 86.7%$). The two participants that did not utilise additional

517 resources stated personal time constraints and a belief they fully understood the content as
518 reasons for not engaging with these resources.

519 **Discussion**

520 In this paper, we analysed the acceptability and preliminary efficacy of a novel web-
521 based intervention for sport coaches that addressed gender essentialism in the coaching of
522 adolescent girls. Data suggests coaches widely accepted the intervention; participants in the
523 intervention group found the intervention relevant, enjoyable, easy to follow, and applicable
524 to their coaching praxis. Additionally, the majority of coaches reported that the intervention
525 greatly enhanced their knowledge of gender essentialism and gender stereotypes. In terms of
526 adherence and intervention completion, there was a high dropout rate (72%) from pre- to
527 post-intervention; however, all coaches who completed post-intervention assessments
528 completed all seven CHF modules. Most of these coaches (86.7%) also engaged in the
529 additional resources provided as part of the intervention.

530 Preliminary efficacy analyses indicated that the intervention group reported
531 significantly lower levels of gender essentialism at post-intervention, compared to the waitlist
532 control group. On average, the intervention group also reported higher levels of self-efficacy
533 in recognising and addressing gender essentialist beliefs (CCE) and higher levels of perceived
534 importance placed on their role in challenging gender stereotypes and essentialism in
535 coaching (COV); however, preliminary efficacy results related to CCE and COV were not
536 statistically significant. Findings related to the efficacy of CHF should be interpreted with
537 caution due to the small sample size. Overall, this pilot study shows promising results for the
538 acceptability of the CHF intervention for coaches of adolescent girls.

539 CHF fills a gap as the first coaches' intervention aimed at addressing gender
540 essentialism and gender stereotypes in coaching. Unlike other CDPs, which often ignore
541 gender completely or focus on biologically essentialist conceptions of gender (Jones, 2019;

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542 Norman, 2016a), CHF is unique because it starts with creating awareness about the many
543 ways gender stereotypes and biases influence—consciously and unconsciously—how
544 coaches ‘coach’ girls. CHF is a novel example of a gender-responsive CDP that aims to help
545 coaches understand gendered power dynamics within coach-athlete relationships, avoid
546 essentialistic discourses, and centre girls’ needs in sport (Jones et al., 2019; Norman, 2016b).

547 CHF is also evidence-based, drawing from developments and research from coaching
548 science, child development, psychology, gender studies, and sport sociology. With the goal of
549 changing and reducing social inequality by educating sport coaches, CHF specifically
550 addresses gender inequality in sport and takes a gender-responsive approach, setting it apart
551 from other coach education programmes (Norman, 2016b). While other CDPs and publicly
552 available coach education materials for coaches of girls often problematise, otherise, and
553 stereotype girls and women in sport (LaVoi et al., 2007; Schofield et al., 2022), CHF offers a
554 way to address girls’ unique needs and gendered experiences, while also avoiding gender
555 essentialist ideologies known to undermine, limit, and negatively harm girls’ sport
556 experiences (LaVoi et al., 2007; Skewes et al., 2018).

557 Finally, CHF aligns with scholars’ call to action for diversifying coach development
558 (Culver et al., 2023). By challenging gendered language in coach methodologies, creating
559 awareness of gendered sport structures within coaching, and encouraging coaches to integrate
560 gender responsive practices, CHF sits within a larger push for social justice and equity-
561 focussed coach education programmes (e.g., Culver et al., 2023; Norman, 2016a, 2016b).
562 Given the promising results of this study, it is our hope that the CHF intervention can become
563 integrated into standard coach education programmes at local, state, and national levels to
564 help coaches learn how to encourage more diverse, equitable, and safe sport environments.

565 Strengths and Limitations

566 This pilot study's findings should be considered with the following strengths and
567 limitations in mind. A key strength of this study is the randomised controlled design and the
568 rigorous evaluation of acceptability and preliminary efficacy of a novel web-based
569 intervention for coaches aimed at reducing gender essentialism in coaching. Additionally,
570 CHF was developed to be delivered completely online, which can enhance the accessibility
571 and scalability of the intervention.

572 Due to the preliminary nature of this study, there are several limitations that should
573 also be acknowledged. First, the high dropout rates caused a lack of power for the efficacy
574 analyses, which should be interpreted cautiously. Compared to the waitlist control group, the
575 intervention group exhibited higher dropout rates. Due to this, ANCOVA tests consisted of
576 highly uneven group sizes (i.e., $N_{\text{Intervention}} = 15$; $N_{\text{Control}} = 39$), which can reduce ANCOVA's
577 power (Wan, 2020) and suggests a need for a different randomisation strategy for a future
578 large-scale randomised controlled trial.

579 In self-guided and web-based interventions where there are limited or no in-person
580 components, high dropout rates are a common concern (Brouwer et al., 2009; Linardon &
581 Fuller-Tyszkiewicz, 2020; Wangberg et al., 2008). For example, a review of 28 web-based
582 mental health interventions found that attrition rates ranged from as low as 5% to as high as
583 65% (Scheutzow et al., 2022). Research on attrition in survey research and online courses
584 suggests that personal (e.g., gender, age, background, etc.), environmental (e.g., work
585 commitments, life events, etc.), and course/programme factors (e.g., course design,
586 programme quality, etc.) can all impact participant dropout (Lee & Choi, 2010). The high
587 dropout rates might also be indicative of self-selection bias, where only coaches who were
588 the most motivated completed the study.

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589 Second, in light of the small sample size and large number of missing responses,
590 adherence data were exclusively summarised by applying descriptive statistics. Future
591 research should incorporate adherence data in efficacy analyses to establish the dose-response
592 effect of the intervention, as well as the added benefit of engaging in additional resources
593 (e.g., videos, additional reading, links, reflection exercises) alongside the core intervention
594 content.

595 To gain additional insight into intervention non-completion, intervention group
596 participants who did not complete the programme within the study timeframe were invited to
597 complete a follow-up survey. Of the five participants who completed this survey, the majority
598 (60%, $n = 3$) did not have time to complete the programme, one (20%) changed their mind
599 about participating in the programme, and one (20%) had technical issues preventing them
600 from accessing the modules. The most common obstacle to intervention completion was time
601 constraints, particularly due to coaching conflicts, external work commitments, and family
602 obligations. Regarding changes to the modules that would encourage further completion,
603 coaches requested more reminders to participate, more time to complete the intervention, and
604 more interactive elements within the modules.

605 Future Directions

606 Although the results of this study showed high acceptance rates of the intervention,
607 coaches provided important feedback to help improve CHF's effectiveness. For instance,
608 coaches reported a desire for more interactive elements within the modules, like case studies
609 and scenario-based exercises, to provide opportunities to practise key concepts and enhance
610 the applicability of certain tools to their coaching methodology. In line with this finding,
611 module content will be revised to include more opportunities for situational training to assist
612 coaches in applying learnings to their own practice. Moreover, although the majority of
613 coaches engaged in the additional resources and materials provided as part of the

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638 gender essentialist attitudes and beliefs. Additional systematic and rigorous evaluations of the
639 CHF intervention are required in different sport settings and organisations.

640

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Tables

Table 1

Outline of the Coaching HER Coaching Intervention

Modules	Learning Content	Underpinning Theories	Learning Outcomes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Module 1: Developing Girls in Sport 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Explains the assets, positive outcomes and benefits that can result when girls participate in sport and a coach's role in ensuring girls experience them. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Positive Youth Development ● Sports-Based Youth Development ● Ecological Systems Theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Understand</i> the assets, or benefits, girls gain from sport participation. ● <i>Identify</i> a coach's role in girls' gaining benefits from sports. ● <i>Reflect</i> about negative outcomes of sport participation that some girls experience and how to avoid them.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Module 2: Challenging Gender Stereotypes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Explains the effect of gender stereotypes on girls' participation in, and enjoyment, of sport. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Gender Essentialism ● Self-Objectification Theory ● Cognitive Bias 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Understand</i> what gender stereotypes are and how they affect girls. ● <i>Identify</i> gender stereotypes that are prevalent in sports. ● <i>Reflect</i> on own explicit and implicit gender stereotypes and biases about girls in sport.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Module 3: Coaching Girls Part 1: The Difference Perspective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Teaches coaches how to recognise The Difference Perspective to coaching girls, a common coach misperception about coaching girls, and how it can undermine girls' positive experiences with sport. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Gender Essentialism ● Schema Theory ● Stereotype Threat Theory ● Cognitive Bias 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Understand</i> common perceptions about coaching girls. ● <i>Identify</i> elements of The Difference Perspective to coaching girls. ● <i>Reflect</i> on how some perceptions may be based on stereotypes and biases that are harmful to girls.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Module 4: Coaching Girls Part 2: The Similarity Perspective 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Outlines The Similarity Perspective, another common coach misperception about coaching girls, and how it can undermine girls' positive sport experiences. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Gender Essentialism ● Schema Theory ● Stereotype Threat Theory ● Cognitive Bias 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Understand</i> the concepts behind The Similarity Perspective. ● <i>Identify</i> the connection between girls' experience in the world and their gender. ● <i>Reflect</i> on how The Similarity Perspective can support you in coaching girls.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Module 5: Eliminating Barriers for Girls 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Teaches coaches about the barriers girls often experience in and through sport. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Positive Youth Development ● Sports-Based Youth Development ● Ecological Systems Theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Understand</i> the many barriers that can limit girls' sport participation on individual, interpersonal, community/environment level, and societal levels. ● <i>Identify</i> barriers that girls may face in individual communities. ● <i>Reflect</i> on and develop strategies that limit or reduce barriers for girls to participate in sport.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Module 6: Recognising Girls' Identities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Teaches coaches about aspects of girls' identities to consider when coaching girls so they have a great experience with sport. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Intersectionality Theory ● Gender Essentialism ● Cognitive Bias 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Understand</i> aspects of identity. ● <i>Identify</i> how all girls' identities intersect and impact their sport experiences. ● <i>Reflect</i> upon a coach's own identities and how those influence coaching approaches.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Module 7: Supporting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Teaches coaches about the three basic psychological 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Self-Determination Theory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● <i>Understand</i> the three psychological needs all of us have: relatedness, competence, and autonomy, also called 'The 3Cs' = care, competence, choice.

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Girls' Needs needs that all girls have: care, competence, choice.

- Identify the positive and negative outcomes that result with the 3Cs are and are not met.
- Reflect on your role in girls getting their 3Cs met in the context of sport.

Table 2

Characteristics of the Baseline Sample

	Total Sample (<i>N</i> = 102)	Intervention (<i>n</i> = 54)	Control (<i>n</i> = 48)	<i>t</i> -Test Comparing Groups
Gender <i>N</i> (%)				
Women	74 (72.50%)	77 (77.8%)	32 (68.1%)	
Men	27 (26.5%)	12 (22.2%)	15 (31.3%)	
Non-binary	-	-	-	
Prefer not to say	1 (1.00%)	-	1 (2.1%)	
Prefer to self-describe	-	-	-	
Age in years <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	37.852 (11.75)	37.89 (11.14)	37.81 (12.53)	<i>t</i> = -0.034, <i>df</i> = 99, <i>p</i> = .97
Ethnicity <i>N</i> (%)				
Asian	2 (2.00%)	1 (1.9%)	1 (2.1%)	
Black or African American	5 (4.9%)	2 (3.7%)	3 (6.3%)	
Hispanic, Latino/a, Spanish origin	3 (2.9%)	2 (3.7%)	1 (2.1%)	
Middle Eastern or North African	-	-	-	
Native American or Alaska Native	-	-	-	
Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander	1 (1.00%)	-	1 (2.1%)	
White	82 (80.40%)	48 (88.9%)	34 (70.8%)	
Multiracial or Biracial	8 (7.80%)	1 (1.9%)	7 (14.6%)	
Prefer not to say	1 (1.00%)	-	1 (2.1%)	
Prefer to self-describe	-	-	-	
Education <i>N</i> (%)				
High school graduate, diploma or equivalent (for example: GED)	1 (1.00%)	1 (1.9%)	-	
Some college credit, no degree	10 (9.8%)	3 (5.6%)	7 (14.6%)	
Trade/technical/vocational training	1 (1.0%)	1 (1.9%)	-	
Associate degree	4 (3.9%)	3 (5.6%)	1 (2.1%)	
Bachelor's degree	45 (44.1%)	28 (51.9%)	17 (35.4%)	
Master's degree	34 (33.3%)	15 (27.8%)	19 (39.6%)	
Professional degree	1 (1.0%)	-	1 (2.1%)	
Doctorate degree	4 (3.9%)	3 (5.6%)	1 (2.1%)	
Role <i>N</i> (%)				
Head coach	66 (64.7%)	37 (68.5%)	29 (60.4%)	
Associate head coach	8 (7.8%)	4 (7.4%)	4 (8.3%)	
Assistant coach	21 (20.6%)	12 (22.2%)	9 (18.8%)	
Volunteer	3 (2.9%)	1 (1.9%)	2 (4.2%)	
Other	2 (2.0%)	-	2 (4.2%)	
Coaching pupils <i>N</i> (%)				
Adult women	21 (20.6%)	12 (22.2%)	9 (18.8%)	
Adult men	9 (8.8%)	4 (7.4%)	5 (10.4%)	
Adolescent girls	100 (98.0%)	54 (100%)	46 (95.8%)	
Adolescent boys	46 (45.1%)	29 (53.7%)	17 (35.4%)	
Competition level <i>N</i> (%)				

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	Total Sample (N = 102)	Intervention (n = 54)	Control (n = 48)	t-Test Comparing Groups
Club	44 (43.1%)	22 (40.7%)	22 (45.8%)	
College/university	14 (13.7%)	7 (13.0%)	7 (14.6%)	
High school/secondary school	67 (65.7%)	38 (70.4%)	29 (60.4%)	
International	2 (2.0%)	1 (1.9%)	1 (2.1%)	
Junior/community college	-	-	-	
Middle/intermediate school/junior high	26 (25.5%)	18 (33.3%)	8 (16.7%)	
National/Olympic	4 (3.9%)	2 (3.7%)	2 (4.2%)	
Recreational/in-house/community leagues	24 (23.5%)	13 (24.1%)	11 (22.29%)	
Other	4 (3.9%)	2 (3.7%)	2 (4.2%)	
Current role length in years <i>M (SD)</i>	6.85 (7.04)	6.23 (4.50)	7.59 (9.18)	$t = 0.912, df = 63.08, p = .365$
Coaching length in years <i>M (SD)</i>	13.43 (9.36)	12.59 (8.51)	14.41 (10.29)	$t = 0.969, df = 98, p = .335$

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Table 3

Outcome Means by Group and Time Points

	Score Range	Total Sample		Intervention		Waitlist Control		<i>t</i> -Test Comparing Groups at Baseline
		T1 (<i>N</i> = 102)	T2 (<i>N</i> = 54)	T1 (<i>N</i> = 54)	T2 (<i>N</i> = 15)	T1 (<i>N</i> = 48)	T2 (<i>N</i> = 39)	
GES <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	1–5	2.69 (0.56)	2.48 (0.55)	2.77 (0.62)	2.36 (0.65)	2.60 (0.53)	2.53 (0.52)	<i>t</i> = -1.487, <i>df</i> = 100, <i>p</i> = .140 <i>t</i> = 1.052, <i>df</i> = 52, <i>p</i> = .298
CCE <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	1–7	5.81 (0.64)	5.88 (0.55)	5.85 (0.63)	6.05 (0.38)	5.77 (0.66)	5.81 (0.59)	<i>t</i> = -0.639, <i>df</i> = 100, <i>p</i> = .525 <i>t</i> = -1.436, <i>df</i> = 52, <i>p</i> = .157
COV <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	1–7	5.83 (0.89)	5.86 (0.79)	5.88 (1.01)	6.13 (0.74)	5.78 (0.76)	5.76 (0.79)	<i>t</i> = -0.598, <i>df</i> = 100, <i>p</i> = .551 <i>t</i> = -1.585, <i>df</i> = 52, <i>p</i> = .119
Affective Attitude <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	1–5				4.38 (0.62)			
Burden <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	1–5				4.82 (0.38)			
Ethicality <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	1–5				4.38 (0.75)			
Self-Efficacy <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	1–5				4.37 (0.62)			
Perceived Effectiveness <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	1–5				4.49 (0.59)			

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Table 4

Feasibility and Acceptability of Coaching HER Foundation Modules

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Affective Attitude Liking the programme, feeling satisfied with the programme, finding the programme enjoyable	4.38	0.62
Burden Following the programme was not troublesome, not difficult, it was easy	4.82	0.38
Ethicality Programme is appropriate, would recommend it, it's important to participate	4.38	0.75
Self-Efficacy Will use learnings in the future, been able to apply learnings, confident to apply learnings	4.37	0.62
Perceived Effectiveness Programme improved knowledge about gender stereotypes, helpful to think about one's own gender stereotypes, successful in improving knowledge on coaching girls	4.49	0.59

Note. Score range is 1–5, with 1 = *Strongly Disagree* and 5 = *Strongly Agree*.