

1 **Title of Article:** Perspectives of applied collaborative sport science research within  
2 professional team sports

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32 **Abstract**

33

34 The purpose of the study was to examine the perspectives of both academics and practitioners  
35 in relation to forming applied collaborative sports science research within team sports. Ninety-  
36 three participants who had previously engaged in collaborative research partnerships within  
37 team sports completed an online survey which focused on motivations and barriers for forming  
38 collaborations using blinded sliding scale (0-100) and rank order list. Research collaborations  
39 were mainly formed to improve team performance (Academic:  $73.6 \pm 23.3$ ; Practitioner:  $84.3$   
40  $\pm 16.0$ ; ES = 0.54, small). Academics ranked journal articles importance significantly higher  
41 than practitioners (Academic: Mrank = 53.9; Practitioner 36.0;  $z = -3.18$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $p < q$ ).  
42 However, practitioners rated one-to-one communication as more preferential (Academic:  
43 Mrank = 41.3; Practitioner 56.1;  $z = -2.62$ ,  $p = .009$ ,  $p < q$ ). Some potential barriers were found  
44 in terms of staff buy in (Academic:  $70.0 \pm 25.5$ ; Practitioner  $56.8 \pm 27.3$ ; ES = 0.50, small) and  
45 funding (Academic:  $68.0 \pm 24.9$ ; Practitioner:  $67.5 \pm 28.0$ ; ES = 0.02, Trivial). Both groups  
46 revealed low motivation for invasive mechanistic research (Academic:  $36.3 \pm 24.2$ ; Practitioner:  
47  $36.4 \pm 27.5$ ; ES = 0.01, trivial), with practitioners have a preference towards 'fast' type research.  
48 There was a general agreement between academics and practitioners for forming research  
49 collaborations. Some potential barriers still exist (e.g. staff buy in and funding), with  
50 practitioners preferring 'fast' informal research dissemination compared to the 'slow' quality  
51 control approach of academics.

52 **Keywords:** Coaching, Education, Sport Science, Barriers, Performance, Survey

## 53 **Introduction**

54 The appreciation and application of sport science support within team sports has grown  
55 exponentially over the past few decades. Support structures traditionally involved one sport  
56 science practitioner having a plethora of roles within a team, such as physical trainer,  
57 nutritionist, physical therapist and even sport psychologist. The growth within the sports  
58 science sector is concurrent to the increased financial wealth of teams (Doust, 2011), allowing  
59 investment in both support staff and technology. Since the early use of heart rate telemetry in  
60 the 1980's (Achten & Jeukendrup, 2003), the substantial growth in technology and data  
61 available to teams has led to an increase in the number of different support roles within a team.  
62 It is now commonplace for professional teams to have upwards of ~10 sport science support  
63 staff in roles across the four disciplines of sports science; physiology, biomechanics, nutrition  
64 and psychology. Practitioners typically adopt roles such as data scientist, strength and  
65 conditioning coach, sports nutritionist, sports psychologist and rehabilitation fitness coach.  
66 Combined with colleagues from other disciplines such as performance analysis and medical  
67 services, there is upwards of ~20 support staff for one team, notwithstanding the team's  
68 technical coaching staff (Eisenmann, 2017).

69 Team sports practitioners work within a results-based environment and as such are  
70 faced with a high amount of pressure to deliver positive outcomes that enhance team  
71 performance. Coutts (2016) recently proposed a conceptual model within applied sport science  
72 which involves both '*fast*' and '*slow*' methods of working. The '*fast*' approach is often adopted  
73 by the practitioners working at the 'coal face' in which they have to make immediate decisions  
74 that have a direct impact on practice. Whilst this approach is relatively effective, due to the  
75 applied nature of data collection and analysis, the quality control checking of the information  
76 provided is often to a lesser standard in comparison to academic researchers. This has led to a  
77 number of collaborations between teams and universities, with the academics from the latter  
78 adopting a '*slow*' approach in terms of quality control, critical analysis and validation of  
79 methods used. This concept of knowledge transfer has been defined as "the process through  
80 which one unit (e.g. group, department, or division) is affected by the experience of another"  
81 (Argote & Ingram, 2000). The successful implementation of such strategies on a long-term  
82 basis could lead to potential enhancement of the sport science support programme (Coutts,  
83 2016).

84 In order to bridge the gap between both approaches, it is now commonplace for teams  
85 to employ both university research consultants and student interns within the organisation  
86 (Jones et al., 2017). The ‘embedded scientist’ approach allows researchers to assess which of  
87 the day-to-day performance questions need answering through scientific rigor. Bishop (2008)  
88 developed an Applied Research Model for the Sport Sciences (ARMSS) which aimed to  
89 provide a guide for those looking to undertake this collaborative approach. The ARMSS model  
90 is broken down into eight stages: 1) defining the problem, 2) descriptive research, 3) predictors  
91 of performance, 4) experimental testing of predictors, 5) determinants of key performance  
92 predictors, 6) efficacy studies, 7) examination of barriers (and motivators) to uptake, and 8)  
93 implementation studies in a real sporting setting. This approach has become more popular  
94 despite sports performance research being seen as underfunded and with underutilized impact  
95 potential (Beneke, 2013).

96 Despite the increase in the amount of applied research being conducted by sport  
97 scientists, there still appears to be a gap when translating into practice with key stakeholders  
98 (i.e. coaches and athletes). Reade, Rodgers and Hall (2009) examined the transfer of sport  
99 science knowledge to high-performance coaches and found that coaches still prefer informal  
100 conversations with fellow coaches to gain knowledge of sport science, rather than with sports  
101 science experts. It may also be the case that sport scientists often research what is relevant to  
102 themselves rather than the key stakeholders, recently defined as ‘*interesting*’ as opposed to  
103 ‘*useful*’ (Jones et al., 2017). Williams and Kendall (2007) found that coaches perceived a  
104 requirement for further research in sports psychology, which is often undervalued within the  
105 professional setting. Bishop, Burnett, Farrow, Gabbett and Newton (2006) revealed the need  
106 for sport scientists to work on the communication of results to both coaches and athletes using  
107 their terminology rather than through traditional methods (e.g. journal articles). It may be the  
108 case that some lesser experienced sport scientists have a high level of theoretical knowledge  
109 but lack the ‘soft skills’ that come with more experience. Therefore, despite the increase in the  
110 number of collaborations within professional team sports, the efficacy of the programme has  
111 not been examined.

112 Given the ever-growing competition for higher education institutions to attract  
113 prospective students to enrol upon sport degree programs, there is necessity for universities  
114 and colleges to excel in higher education league table assessed criteria. For example, the Higher  
115 Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) and Australian Research Council (ARC)

116 have developed frameworks designed to assess the quality of research outputs from academic  
117 institutions (ARC, 2017; HEFCE, 2017). Outputs submitted for this review process are  
118 categorised using a tier structure based on research quality (e.g. from ‘world leading’ to ‘below  
119 national standard’). Such assessment processes have placed pressure on academics to ‘publish  
120 or perish’, with a particular focus on attaining higher tier research outputs. Such studies  
121 typically involve invasive, mechanistic-type research in order to be highly recognised from the  
122 research councils (e.g. ‘four star’ research rating). Although not empirically proven, such  
123 paradigms are likely to have important implications for the nature (descriptive or mechanistic),  
124 duration (fast or slow) and subsequent overall impact (interesting or useful) of collaborative  
125 opportunities that academics decide to pursue with team sport practitioners.

126           The purpose of the present study was to examine the perspectives of both academics  
127 and practitioners in relation to forming applied collaborative sport science research within team  
128 sports. Specifically, the study aimed to identify the outcomes and any potential barriers relating  
129 to collaborations.

130

## 131 **Methods**

### 132 *Participants*

133 Ninety-three participants (male = 82, female = 11) who stated that they had engaged in a  
134 collaborative research partnership within the previous eighteen months of receiving an  
135 invitation to participate, voluntarily completed the survey to examine their perspectives of  
136 applied research between July to September 2017. This was considered the time period when  
137 most team sport practitioners and academic researchers would be operational. Each invitation  
138 to participate was accompanied by a study information cover letter and participants provided  
139 informed consent. The study was approved by the institutional research ethics committee at the  
140 University of Hull.

141           Participants were predominantly from Europe ( $n = 71$ ) and Australia/Oceania ( $n = 16$ ),  
142 with others from Asia ( $n = 2$ ), Africa ( $n = 2$ ), and North America ( $n = 2$ ). All respondents  
143 primarily worked within one of 11 team sports (soccer = 50, rugby union = 22, Australian rules  
144 football (AFL) = 8, rugby league = 4, other sports = 9). These represented national level ( $n =$

145 54), domestic level ( $n = 25$ ), regional level ( $n = 9$ ) and governing bodies ( $n = 5$ ). Respondents  
146 mainly worked with senior squads ( $n = 66$ ), with others working with academy squads (5-16  
147 years;  $n = 12$ ) and development squads (16-23 years;  $n = 15$ ). The majority of respondents were  
148 permanent full-time ( $n = 63$ ) or worked as a consultant ( $n = 21$ ), with others working part-time  
149 ( $n = 8$ ) and as an intern ( $n = 1$ ). Overall 43% of the sample had worked in their current role for  
150 more than five years. Most (84.9%) had been in post for longer than 12 months. A majority ( $n$   
151 = 51) worked as a sport scientist, with others working as a fitness coach/strength and  
152 conditioning coach ( $n = 14$ ), nutritionist ( $n = 11$ ), physiotherapist ( $n = 5$ ), managerial position  
153 ( $n = 5$ ), sociologist ( $n = 2$ ), talent ID scout ( $n = 2$ ), psychologist ( $n = 1$ ), data analyst ( $n = 1$ ) and  
154 a technical coach ( $n = 1$ ). Sixty-three held a doctorate qualification, 23 a Master's degree, and  
155 seven a Bachelor's degree as highest qualification.

### 156 *Procedure*

157 The survey was distributed by the researchers electronically using an online platform  
158 (SurveyMonkey, California, United States). A link for the online survey was emailed to  
159 potential participants and was then accompanied by a second email invitation to those who had  
160 not previously responded during the latter weeks of this period (September 2017). This resulted  
161 in a 43% and 56% survey completion rate for academics ( $n = 57$ ) and practitioners ( $n = 36$ ),  
162 respectively.

### 163 *Survey design*

164 A survey consisting of 106 items was developed to gather information around academics and  
165 practitioner's perspectives to forming applied collaborative sport science research within team  
166 sports. The survey was specific to either academics or practitioners but the number of items  
167 remained equal across groups. Items were developed by the lead researcher based on previous  
168 research and experience, which was then distributed to the research team for critique and  
169 further development. Seven sections were developed for the survey: general information  
170 (Section 1: 25 items), motivations (Section 2: 17 items), formation (Section 3: 15 items), design  
171 (Section 4: 11 items), dissemination (Section 5: 17 items), overall perceptions (Section 6: 9  
172 items) and barriers (Section 7: 13 items).

173 The general information (Section 1) part of the survey comprised of multiple-choice  
174 questions designed to ascertain the eligibility, suitability and additional information (e.g. area

175 of research, funding details and number of embedded research students). Responders were  
176 required to use blinded, sliding (0-100) scales to evaluate the level of motivation (Section 2),  
177 responsibilities during collaboration formation (Section 3), research design (Section 4),  
178 preferred dissemination of findings (Section 5), overall perceptions (Section 6) and perceived  
179 barriers (Section 7) they apportion to discrete components of applied team-sport research  
180 collaboration. For each section, the slider anchors were substituted to match the context of the  
181 primary question. Such lines of enquiry were then followed by an opportunity for the responder  
182 to expand upon their perceptions within an open-text box. For section five (dissemination),  
183 respondents ranked which method of dissemination they would like to be used when receiving  
184 research findings using a rank order list (1 = Most preferred, 8 = Least preferred).

185

### 186 *Statistical analysis*

187 Only fully complete returned surveys were used for the data analysis (n = 93, 45.2%).  
188 Preliminary analyses screened data for outliers using Q-Q plots and normal distribution using  
189 skewness and kurtosis values. All variables demonstrated acceptably normal distribution with  
190 values reasonably close to zero (skewness < 2, kurtosis < 5), with no outliers identified (Field,  
191 2017). Data were corrected for type 1 errors using False Discovery Rate (FDR) (Benjamini &  
192 Hochberg, 1995). Null hypotheses were rejected if  $p < q$  and the 95% confidence interval did  
193 not contain zero. Chi-square analysis compared groups to determine even distribution of  
194 demographic variables within academic and practitioner groups. Independent-samples *t*-tests  
195 were used to compare responses between groups for motivation, responsibility, perceived  
196 importance of research facets, current and past research collaboration, and barriers to  
197 collaboration. Mann-Whitney tests examined the rank order variables of methods of research  
198 dissemination for practitioners and for academics. For each parametric test, 1,000 bootstrapped  
199 samples were ran to generate mean survey scores  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD), mean difference  
200 ( $M_{diff}$ ) with 95% confidence intervals (95% CI), accompanied by relevant effect sizes (ES)  
201 (<0.2 *trivial*, 0.2-0.6 *small*, 0.6-1.2 *moderate*, 1.2-2.0 *large* and >2.0 *very large*) (Hopkins,  
202 Marshall, Batterham, & Hannin, 2009).

203

204

## 205 **Results**

206 *General information*

207

208 Data from respondents showed that fifty-seven percent of respondents had participated in  
209 funded research, which tended to be equally financed ( $52.3 \pm 36.8\%$ ). However, less than half  
210 ( $48.2\%$ ) declared that they used mutually agreed research contracts.

211

212 *Level of motivation*

213

214 High scoring motivators included *improve team performance* (Academic:  $73.6 \pm 23.3$ ;  
215 Practitioner:  $84.3 \pm 16.0$ ; ES = 0.54, *small*), *improve team health* (Academic:  $75.8 \pm 20.9$ ;  
216 Practitioner:  $80.2 \pm 20.1$ ; ES = 0.21, *small*), and *improve own knowledge* (Academic:  $78.6 \pm$   
217  $20.9$ ; Practitioner:  $80.2 \pm 20.1$ ; ES = 0.21, *small*) and *continuing professional development*  
218 (Academic:  $74.4 \pm 22.5$ ; Practitioner:  $75.6 \pm 21.7$ ; ES = 0.05, *trivial*). Low scoring motivators  
219 included *Pressure from senior staff*, (Academic:  $24.4 \pm 25.5$ ; Practitioner:  $20.4 \pm 23.4$ ; ES =  
220  $0.16$ , *trivial*), *pressure from governing body* (Academic:  $16.6 \pm 20.2$ ; Practitioner:  $15.1 \pm 18.9$ ;  
221 ES = 0.08, *trivial*) and *additional paid work*, (Academic:  $22.7 \pm 23.9$ ; Practitioner:  $21.6 \pm 25.1$ ;  
222 ES = 0.05, *trivial*).

223

224 *Responsibilities during collaboration formation*

225

226 Figure 1 highlights that the level (0 – *academic* to 100 – *practitioner*) of perceived  
227 responsibility during collaboration formation is largely considered the responsibility of  
228 academics, with the exception of *practical skill development*. Although not statistically  
229 significantly different, practitioners typically saw responsibilities as a little more shared. Of the  
230 14 issues, the academics rated responsibility in favour of the academic on 13 occasions. The  
231 only exception was funding, which academics ( $47.4 \pm 18.6$ ) rated as more equally shared than  
232 practitioners ( $38.8 \pm 20.8$ ).

233

234 *Research design*

235

236 Table 1 shows that the level (0 – *not important* to 100 *very important*) of perceived importance  
237 placed on research facets. *Player buy in* (Academic:  $80.1 \pm 15.8$ ; Practitioner:  $74.3 \pm 19.2$ ; ES  
238 = 0.33, *small*), *staff buy in* (Academic:  $83.2 \pm 18.9$ ; Practitioner:  $78.0 \pm 16.1$ ; ES = 0.30, *small*)

239 and *application to performance* (Academic:  $81.7 \pm 17.7$ ; Practitioner:  $75.9 \pm 23.3$ ; ES = 0.29,  
240 *small*) were considered greatest importance. Whereas, *conducted on academic facilities*  
241 (Academic:  $36.4 \pm 25.5$ ; Practitioner:  $29.3 \pm 20.0$ ; ES = 0.03, *trivial*), and *invasive mechanistic*  
242 *research* (Academic:  $36.3 \pm 24.2$ ; Practitioner:  $36.4 \pm 27.5$ ; ES = 0.01, *trivial*), were seen as  
243 the least important. Academics rated *embedded research students* as more important than  
244 practitioners did (Academic  $69.7 \pm 22.5$ ; Practitioner:  $59.3 \pm 21.1$ ; ES= 0.48, *small*), though  
245 correcting for multiple comparisons identified that this could be a false discovery. Practitioners  
246 did show a *moderate* (ES = 0.72) difference in preference for *research that is fast* ( $60.8 \pm 23.9$ )  
247 versus *slow* ( $44.3 \pm 21.8$ ).

248

#### 249 *Dissemination of research findings*

250

251 Academics and practitioners demonstrated some variation in identifying a rank (1 – *most*  
252 *preferred* to 8 – *least preferred*) order of methods of perceived preference for research  
253 dissemination (Table 2). Specifically, academics ranked *journal articles* significantly higher  
254 than practitioners did (Academic:  $M_{\text{rank}} = 53.9$ ; Practitioner 36.0;  $z = -3.18$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $p < q$ ).  
255 However, practitioners rated *one-to-one* as more preferential (Academic:  $M_{\text{rank}} = 41.3$ ;  
256 Practitioner 56.1;  $z = -2.62$ ,  $p = .009$ ,  $p < q$ ). There was little difference between groups when  
257 identifying player preference.

258

#### 259 *Overall perceptions of research collaboration*

260

261 In general, both academics and practitioners stated little agreement ( $\leq 50$  [0 - *strongly disagree*  
262 to 100 - *strongly agree*]) to statements relating to their perceptions of current and past  
263 collaboration. The lowest scoring area for academics was their motivation to *seek future*  
264 *collaborations* ( $19.5 \pm 24.9$ ), and that practitioners had *developed own knowledge* ( $29.1 \pm 28.5$ ).  
265 Both academics and practitioners showed that the completion of the survey helped them to  
266 *reflect upon research collaboration* (Academic:  $38.5 \pm 24.5$ ; Practitioners:  $50.3 \pm 24.5$ ; ES =  
267 0.48, *small*).

268

#### 269 *Perceived barriers to collaboration*

270

271 Perceived level (0 – *strongly disagree* to 100 – *strongly agree*) of *barriers to collaboration*  
272 showed that academics reported that *staff buy in* (Academic:  $70.0 \pm 25.5$ ; Practitioner  $56.8 \pm$   
273  $27.3$ ; ES = 0.50, *small*), *Manager buy-in* (Academic:  $68.6 \pm 25.2$ ; Practitioner:  $59.9 \pm 29.7$ ; ES  
274 = 0.32, *small*) and *funding* (Academic:  $68.0 \pm 24.9$ ; Practitioner:  $67.5 \pm 28.0$ ; ES = 0.02, *trivial*)  
275 were the greatest barriers for them participating in collaborative research partnerships (Table  
276 3). However, it was mutually perceived by both that *club secrecy* (Academic:  $58.4 \pm 26.5$ ;  
277 Practitioner:  $58.0 \pm 24.7$ ; ES = 0.02, *trivial*) and *time to dedicate* (Academic:  $65.7 \pm 25.0$ ;  
278 Practitioner:  $67.4 \pm 22.5$ ; ES = 0.07, *trivial*) could also act as barriers.

279

280

**\*\*\*FIGURE 1 NEAR HERE\*\*\***

281

**\*\*\*TABLE 1 NEAR HERE\*\*\***

282

**\*\*\*TABLE 2 NEAR HERE\*\*\***

283

**\*\*\*TABLE 3 NEAR HERE\*\*\***

284 **Discussion**

285

286 The present study examined the perspectives of both academics and practitioners in relation to  
287 forming applied collaborative sport science research partnerships within team sports. In general,  
288 there appears to be agreement in motivations between academics and practitioners for research  
289 collaborations. Potential barriers that were identified include *funding, time to dedicate towards*  
290 *the research* and *staff buy in*. Differences existed in terms of how research should be  
291 disseminated, with academics preferring more formal outputs (e.g. journal articles and  
292 conferences) compared with practitioners preference for more informal methods (e.g. one-to-  
293 one conversations and infographics). Both groups reported low motivation for conducting  
294 invasive mechanistic research, with practitioners favouring *'fast'* type research that has  
295 immediate impact on practice.

296

297 Applied sport science research aims to produce an outcome that is relevant to sport and  
298 can be applied to enhance performance (Bishop et al., 2006). In order for this to be achieved,  
299 relevant information generated from applied studies must be communicated effectively to the  
300 key stakeholders involved in the performance process (Martindale & Nash, 2013). The present  
301 study revealed that academics have a preference for research dissemination in journal articles  
302 and conference proceedings compared with practitioners who favour a more informal approach.  
303 Reade et al. (2009) found that coaches were least likely to gain sport science knowledge from  
304 academic journals due to lack of time and ability to interpret findings. Practitioners in the  
305 present study reported a higher preference toward infographics as a method of dissemination.  
306 The use of infographics is now common place on social media platforms, such as Twitter, with  
307 practitioners preferring their ease of access and simplicity in relaying information (Burke,  
308 2017). It may be the case that academics feel pressure to disseminate findings using established  
309 methods that can be used as part of university research quality metrics, such as the Research  
310 Excellence Framework (REF). Whilst some publishers are now allowing the publication of  
311 informal methods such as infographics in their journals (see Heron et al. (2017) for example),  
312 their lack of ability to score high on the tier structure of research assessment frameworks will  
313 likely deter academics from this approach if key assessed metrics remain unchanged. One  
314 possible solution is for academics to be evaluated more clearly on their 'impact' (e.g. REF  
315 impact case studies) that results in a positive change to policy and practice.

316

317 According to the ARMSS model developed by Bishop (2008), applied research should  
318 aim to solve problems encountered in the applied setting through description, experimentation  
319 and implementation. It was found in the present study that both academics and practitioners  
320 had low motivation to conduct experimental research. By limiting this type of research, the  
321 projects may only reach stage 2 of the ARMSS model (i.e. descriptive) rather than being  
322 experimental to develop practice. Eisenmann (2017) refers to applied sciences as ‘translational  
323 science’ in which researchers aim to bridge the gap between the laboratory and playing field.  
324 The main barriers for preventing invasive research appeared to relate to budget restriction and  
325 player/coach buy in. Although it may be difficult to carry out laboratory-based methods in an  
326 applied setting, this should be seen as an interesting challenge for academics and practitioners  
327 rather than a hindrance. Whilst it has been acknowledged that sports performance research is  
328 underfunded (Beneke, 2013), both academics/practitioners and external bodies (e.g. sporting  
329 teams, league representatives) should both look to contribute to finding solutions in order to  
330 overcome the potential barrier of funding to enhance our understanding of sport science.

331

332 In terms of potential barriers that may exist with establishing applied collaborative  
333 research, both academics and practitioners reported that *funding* and staff *buy in* were major  
334 challenges. One of the issues that may result in a lack of staff buy in is due to the importance  
335 that non-scientific staff place on sport science as a practice. Bishop (2008) described sport  
336 science as ‘using the best evidence at the right time, in the right environment, for the right  
337 individual to improve performance’. Unfortunately it may be the case that non-scientific staff  
338 within team sports see the sport science discipline as insignificant, with practitioners being  
339 marginalized in terms of their input (Eisenmann, 2017). Whilst sport science has been adopted  
340 within coach education programmes for those currently coming through the system, some ‘old  
341 school’ coaches may dismiss the usefulness of sport science research as it could expose a  
342 weakness in their current knowledge base. This finding was evident in the present study, with  
343 practitioners perceiving *inferior knowledge* as a greater barrier than academics (ES = 0.28,  
344 *small*). However, recent research has shown that coaches find sport science support useful,  
345 although the perception of purpose may differ between coach and practitioner (Weston, 2018).  
346 The issue around funding as a potential barrier may relate to who feels ultimately responsible  
347 for providing the finance for research projects. Fifty-seven percent of respondents had  
348 participated in funded research, which tended to be equally financed by both parties.  
349 Interestingly, only 48% of these respondents used a mutually agreed research contract. The  
350 survey also revealed that academics are seen as responsible for the majority of the research

351 process, with practitioners taking a lead on practical skill development. Therefore, it may be  
352 speculated that some of the potential issues regarding funding may be due to a lack of  
353 ownership, with both parties having a difference in opinion in terms of who should ultimately  
354 be responsible for leading the collaborative projects. It would be recommended that both  
355 parties sign a research contract agreement when establishing collaborations to clearly outline  
356 the roles and responsibilities from both sides.

357

358 For the practitioner who works day-to-day in performance-based sport, the  
359 environment can be high paced and often demanding in terms of time commitment (Coutts,  
360 2016). This results-based industry often causes short-sightedness amongst practitioners who  
361 are concerned about the next result in order to keep themselves in employment rather than  
362 thinking long-term. The present study supported this notion, with practitioners favouring the  
363 *'fast'* type approach to research projects rather than the *'slow'* deliberate and focused approach.  
364 Whilst the *'fast'* approach can be useful in the applied setting to get quick buy in from staff  
365 and athletes, ultimately the *'slow'* research improves the quality control of data produced which  
366 ultimately allows for long-term implementation. McCall et al. (2016) discussed the need for  
367 sports teams to adopt the 'research and development (R&D)' approach as used within the  
368 business world to generate new ideas and technology. The use of in-house research projects  
369 may potentially lead to competitive advantage with input from 'off-field brains'. However, the  
370 research conducted must be relevant to the team, rather than academics conducting research  
371 solely for personal interest reasons (Jones et al., 2017).

372

373 One of the main issues that exists is the time-frame involved from initiation of a project  
374 idea through to the final end product. Burgess (2017) describes the need for balance between  
375 using *'slow'* type research and the practical realisation of trying to implement such peer-  
376 reviewed approaches within team sports. Whilst this is a pertinent point raised, practitioners  
377 are sometimes guilty of ignoring the science component of sport science and adopting new  
378 methodologies without quality control and validation (Burke, 2017). In order to enhance the  
379 use of 'off-field brains' for collaborative research, academics must look to improve the process  
380 in which research is administrated and disseminated. For example, peer-review in scientific  
381 journals is a slow and inconsistent process that deters many practitioners from publishing their  
382 work (Smith, 2006). Improving such processes and adopting newer methods (e.g. free-access,  
383 online platforms such as Sport Performance & Science Reports (<https://sportperfsci.com/>))  
384 may help to break down the stigma attached to *'slow'* type research. In addition, if practitioners

385 and academics agree on the research objectives at the beginning of a project, this may allow  
386 for realistic expectations to be managed (i.e. allowing for '*slow*' research to be conducted, with  
387 the knowledge that the results will be worth the wait).

388

389         Whilst the information gathered from the survey provides useful insight into the  
390 perceptions and potential barriers of collaborative research, several areas still require further  
391 investigation. The sample of respondents were mainly from Europe and Australia, with the  
392 majority working in soccer and rugby union. Differences in perceptions may exist in other  
393 regions across the world. For example, Asia is an emerging team sports market in which sport  
394 science is still in its relative infancy. Sports such as soccer, rugby and AFL tend to have  
395 developed links with universities with embedded physical and data scientists. It would be  
396 interesting to have a larger sample across other team sports to see if perceptions differ  
397 depending on the sport (including level of competition). Future research should focus on  
398 strategies to overcome some of the potential barriers raised in the present study, such as funding  
399 issues and staff buy in.

400

401         In summary, the present study found that there appears to be a general agreement in  
402 motivation between academics and practitioners for forming research collaboration. However,  
403 potential barriers still exist when forming such collaborations, most notably staff buy in and  
404 funding sources. Practitioners favoured more '*fast*', informal methods of research  
405 dissemination (e.g. one-to-one conversations and infographics) compared to academics who  
406 preferred '*slow*' scientific outputs (e.g. journal articles and conferences). Both groups were  
407 pessimistic about conducting experimental type research, mainly due to the barriers previously  
408 mentioned. Whilst difficult to conduct in the applied setting, such research can identify which  
409 interventions work with specific athletes and the potentially underlying reasons. We would  
410 recommend that both parties sign research contract agreements when establishing  
411 collaborations to outline the roles and responsibilities, whilst also managing the expectations  
412 across the research timeframe.

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420

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423

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425

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427 **References**

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503

504 **Table 1.** Ranked (1 = most preferred; 8 = least preferred) academic and practitioners  
 505 perspectives of preferred methods of research dissemination.  
 506

Question	Academic		Practitioner		$M_{diff}$ (95% CI)	Effect Size	Qualitative
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Embedded research student	69.7	22.5	59.3	21.1	10.4 (1.8, 19.8)	0.48	Small
Application to performance	81.7	17.7	75.9	23.3	5.9 (-2.6, 15.5)	0.29	Small
Conducted on club facilities	63.3	25.5	64.0	22.4	-0.7 (-10.9, 9.1)	0.03	Trivial
Conducted on academic facilities	36.4	25.5	29.3	20.0	7.2 (-2.0, 16.0)	0.31	Small
Research is <i>fast</i>	52.4	25.8	60.8	23.9	-8.4 (-17.7, 2.0)	0.34	Small
Research is <i>slow</i>	53.7	25.1	44.3	21.8	9.3 (-0.1, 19.0)	0.40	Small
Staff buy in	83.2	18.9	78.0	16.1	5.2 (-1.8, 12.4)	0.30	Small
Player buy in	80.1	15.8	74.3	19.2	5.8 (-1.6, 13.5)	0.33	Small
Invasive mechanics research	36.3	24.2	36.4	27.5	-0.1 (-11.5, 11.2)	0.01	Trivial
Validity/reliability testing	72.2	24.0	72.2	24.9	-0.1 (-9.9, 10.4)	0.00	Trivial

\* Denotes statistically significant difference for subscripted variables ( $P \leq 0.05$ )

Research is *fast* i.e. quick possibly descriptive.

Research is *slow* i.e. longitudinal.

508 **Table 2.** Academic and practitioner perceived importance (0 = Not important; 100 = Very  
 509 important) of research collaboration facets.

510

Question	Preference of practitioner			Practitioner perceived preference of player		
	Academic mean rank score	Practitioner mean rank score	<i>z</i>	Academic mean rank score	Practitioner mean rank score	<i>z</i>
Journal article	53.9	36.0	<b>-3.2*</b>	49.4	43.2	-1.4
Conference	51.8	39.4	-2.2	49.9	42.5	-1.5
Group (>10 people)	44.2	51.5	-1.3	46.4	48.0	-0.3
Intimate seminar (<10 people)	45.3	49.8	-0.8	45.1	49.9	-0.9
One to one	41.3	56.1	<b>-2.6*</b>	43.1	53.2	-1.8
Summary report	47.9	45.6	-0.40	46.0	48.6	-0.5
Video	47.0	46.9	-0.1	47.0	47.0	-0.1
Infographic	43.7	52.3	-1.5	48.8	44.1	-0.8

\* Denotes statistically significant difference for subscripted variables ( $P < 0.05$ )

511

512 **Table 3.** Academic and practitioner level of perceived (0 = Not a factor; 100 = Major factor)  
 513 barriers to research collaboration.

514

Question	Academic (n = 57)		Practitioner (n = 36)		$M_{diff}$ (95% CI)	Effect Size	Qualitative
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Funding	68.0	24.9	67.5	28.0	0.5 (-10.1, 12.5)	0.02	<i>Trivial</i>
Time to dedicate	65.7	25.0	67.4	22.5	-1.7 (-11.2, 8.6)	0.07	<i>Trivial</i>
Senior management	62.7	27.7	52.6	31.0	10.1 (-2.2, 22.3)	0.35	<i>Small</i>
Manager buy in	68.6	25.2	59.9	29.7	8.7 (-3.0, 20.8)	0.32	<i>Small</i>
Staff buy in	70.0	25.5	56.8	27.3	13.2 (2.4, 24.3)	0.50	<i>Small</i>
Player buy in	58.7	26.0	49.2	27.9	9.5 (-2.6, 20.9)	0.35	<i>Small</i>
Inferior knowledge	36.5	24.4	42.8	20.7	-6.3 (-15.2, 3.6)	0.28	<i>Small</i>
Previous negative experience	40.4	25.9	48.6	21.3	-8.3 (-17.5, 1.9)	0.35	<i>Small</i>
Jargon	36.7	24.1	42.9	28.9	-6.2 (-16.7, 4.7)	0.23	<i>Small</i>
Lack of transparency	45.6	25.7	49.9	24.4	-4.3 (-14.1, 6.2)	0.17	<i>Trivial</i>
Own interest	48.4	30.7	56.8	24.7	-8.3 (-19.6, 2.3)	0.30	<i>Small</i>
Club secrecy	58.4	26.5	58.0	24.7	0.4 (-9.9, 10.7)	0.02	<i>Trivial</i>

515

516 **Figures Captions**

517

518 **Figure 1.** Academic (a) and practitioner (b) perceptions of responsibility (0 = Academic; 100  
519 = Practitioner) during the formation and delivery of collaborative research partnerships within  
520 team-sports. Black squares = academics, white diamonds = practitioners.