Talent development researchers have considered the nature of the person-environment interactions for decades. Examples of doing so are Bloom’s talent development phases (Bloom, 1985), communities of practice (Wenger, 1998), the influence of family (Côté, 1999), and The Differentiating Model of Giftedness and Talent (DMGT; Gagné, 2013). This line of research acknowledges that development never occurs in a vacuum where activities can be studied or understood without reference to the environment (Davids et al., 2017). Researchers should therefore consider the reciprocal adaptation between a developing athlete and the people in the environment. Such adaptation is hypothesised to have a more significant impact in stable and advantageous environments (Bronfenbrenner, 1999). Talented athletes might, therefore, be those acquiring exceptionally functional relationships with their environment (Araújo et al., 2009). Therefore, one athletic talent development environment (ATDE) might be superior to others in its capacity to guide developing athletes (Henriksen & Stambulova, 2017).

In the past decade, an important development in the research on talent development was the introduction of the Holistic-Ecological Approach (HEA). It builds on calls for examining the environment or context in which athletes develop (Araújo et al., 2009; Martindale, 2005). In general, environment-focused research highlights three different approaches (Li et al., 2014). First, it can refer to ‘all aspects of the coaching situation’ (Martindale, 2005, p. 354). Second, it might refer to a transformation process of extending aptitude into outstanding abilities in a specific domain over a long term (Gagné, 2011). Last, Henriksen and Stambulova (2017) propose the following ecological definition of athletic talent development:

"... the progressive mutual accommodation that takes place between an aspiring athlete and a composite and dynamic sporting and non-sporting environment that supports the development of the personal, psycho-social and sport-specific skills required for the pursuit of an elite athletic career (p. 272)".

These definitions are vast and potentially include a diverse range of topics (e.g., psycho-social development or...
skill development). Li, Wang, and Pyun (2014) contributed to our collective understanding of ATDEs by providing us with taxonomy. They did so by adopting the definition from Gagné (2011) to collate research in three areas: milieu, individuals, and provisions (Li et al., 2014). Although this study provides increased clarity regarding current knowledge on ATDE factors, a limitation of the review is that it does not critically assess the methodological and theoretical trends. Without this crucial piece of the puzzle, we are left with a classification of terminology, albeit without avenues for how to further this line of research.

The International Olympic Committee's consensus statement on youth athletic development (Bergeron et al., 2015) and The Great British Medallists Project (Rees et al., 2016) also helped establish a solid understanding of effective ATDEs. Yet, neither of these synthesise the current research landscape to identify critical avenues for future research. Collectively, these studies alert us to a gap in the research in that we may have a promising idea of what an ATDE is. However, neither of the reviews mentioned above are concerned about 'how' this research was conducted. We focus on addressing this gap in the current study.

A qualitative meta-study would address the limitations above to provide a foundation for how to advance knowledge (Holt et al., 2017; Walsh & Downe, 2005). After ten years of introducing and elaborating on ATDEs, we also believe that it is time to carry out a critical review and start a dialogue on how to move this line of research forward. Also, a review is warranted considering the significant impact the HEA has on talent development in countries such as Denmark (Diment et al., 2020) and England (Sport England, 2018). Synthesising the methods and theoretical underpinnings can provide a substantial contribution to the field since it seeks to create more familiarity with the methodological landscape and the process of adapting those methods (Levitt et al., 2018). The present review adopts a qualitative meta-study to address a twofold purpose (Walsh & Downe, 2005). First, this study seeks to critically assess the methodological and theoretical trends (i.e., to examine the congruency in underpinning theory) in research on ATDEs using the HEA. Second, the study seeks to reinterpret key research topics and findings to identify critical research gaps.

**Method**

**Sources**

We used the following primary sources to locate published full-length peer-reviewed articles on ATDEs using the HEA: (a) electronic searches using keywords (Table 1) of online databases SPORTDiscus, Pubmed, ProQuest and PsychLIT, Web of Science, OpenGrey, Scopus; (b) citations from papers identified through the electronic searches; and (c) hand searching relevant journals including *The Sport Psychologist, International Journal of Sport Psychology, International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, Journal of Sport Behavior, Medicine and Science in Sport and Exercise, Journal of Sports Sciences, Sport and Exercise Psychology Review, Research Quarterly in Sport and Exercise, Journal of Sociology of Sport, the Scandinavian Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, and Quest.*
Records identified in 2016 through database searching SPORTDiscus, Pubmed, ProQuest and PsychLIT, Web of Science, OpenGrey, Scopus (n = 317)

Records screened using the CASP Qualitative Checklist after removing duplicates and screening initially identified studies against boundaries (n = 84)

Records excluded based on CASP (n = 38)

Full-text articles excluded, with reasons (n = 34)
- Career pathways and transitions = 6
- Factors impacting performance and development = 3
- Insufficient methods = 1
- Mental toughness = 1
- Psychological Characteristics = 5
- Athletes too young/old = 5
- Not sport = 2
- Coaching = 5
- Ecology of games = 1
- Dual career = 1
- Community and significant others (e.g., parents) = 4

Full-text articles assessed for eligibility (n = 46)

Studies presented to co-authors (n = 12)

Studies marked with * in Table 2 included after re-doing search and screening in 2020 (n = 5)

Studies included in qualitative meta-study (n = 1)

Records excluded, with reasons (n = 5)
- Dual career
- Talent Identification
- Community of Practice
Procedure

The present study followed the guidelines for a qualitative meta-study as outlined by Paterson et al. (2001). The topic was ATDEs using the HEA as defined by Henriksen and Stambulova (2017). The first and second author carried out each of the steps in the procedure and later discussed among all authors before moving on to the next step to resolve discrepancies. We defined boundaries and search keywords using the Sixth version of the Thames Valley and Wessex Literature Search Protocol (2016). We left the search terms wide since some articles might use the HEA; and yet, not describe it in the title, abstract, nor keywords. After reaching consensus, the first author searched relevant databases using the keywords, hand-searching journals, and citations in the articles found in the database search in the autumn of 2016 and repeated the search in the autumn of 2019. We identified three hundred and seventeen studies potential studies. The first step entailed screening the titles, abstracts, and keywords against the inclusion criteria (Table 1) and topics. This process excluded two hundred and thirty-three studies. The first and second author assessed hard copies of eighty-four studies against an assessment protocol adapted from Paterson et al. (2001), focusing on dominant cognitive paradigms that provided direction to the included research, ultimately excluding thirty-four studies (Figure 1). Twelve studies were presented to the research team before excluding three studies. As a part of the review process, we completed the search again and included four additional studies which were published/accepted in the interim after the second search in 2019 and the publishing of the current review (See Table 2, studies marked with *). The twelve included studies all used the HEA and the working models, ATDE and ESF.

Table 1: Search Criteria

| Criteria                  | The approach adopted for this review                                                                 |
|---------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Comprehensive review      | English Language journal articles of databases: SPORTDiscus, Pubmed, ProQuest and PsychLIT, Web of Science, OpenGrey, Scopus |
| Topic                     | The Holistic Ecological Approach in Talent Development Environments and Contexts                     |
| Boundaries defined        | Full-length peer-reviewed articles and primary literature                                           |
| Exclusion Criteria        | Non-English articles                                                                                 |
|                           | Must use ATDE and/or ESF model                                                                        |
|                           | Dual Career Research                                                                                 |
|                           | Quantitative or mixed-methods articles                                                                |
|                           | Experiences of athletes younger than 13 and senior elite athletes                                     |
| Period studied            | 2010 – 2021                                                                                         |
| Keywords                  | Talent OR sport* OR performance OR youth OR elite OR adolescent OR young AND environment OR context OR setting AND talent development OR talent development in sport |

The Meta-Study

We reviewed the rigour of the epistemological and methodological underpinnings of the included sample (Booth et al., 2012; Holm et al., 2017). Going beyond merely aggregating results, we aimed to provide an interpretive account of the results and findings in qualitative research (Paterson et al., 2001). We did so by carrying out four interrelated phases: meta-methods, meta-theory, meta-data-analysis, and meta-synthesis as outlined by Paterson et al. (2001). Meta-methods and meta-theory helped address questions of theoretical underpinnings, methodological diversity, and theoretical patterns in the included body of research (Culver, 2012; Ronkainen et al., 2016). This process also included a critical analysis of how theory has informed subsequent methodological decisions and interpretations of findings (Ronkainen et al., 2016). We analysed epistemological soundness by considering how researchers signalled transparency in the thread and congruence from aims, through epistemology, to methodological choices (Collins & Stockton, 2018; Culver, 2012). The meta-data-analysis was a synthesis and reinterpretation of findings in the light of findings in other studies (Paterson et al., 2001; Ronkainen et al., 2016). We also analysed the findings against the features of successful ATDEs (see Henriksen et al., 2010a). All co-authors acted in the role of a critical friend (e.g., asking critical questions to clarify choices and potential gaps) throughout the analysis to stimulate the reflexive process of seeking complex and layered interpretations.

Results and Discussion

We proceed to illuminate the findings of the meta-theory and meta-method extraction (Table 2) followed by the meta-data-analysis. Last, we bring all the parts together in a synthesis of critical issues, limitation, and future directions.
| Author(s) | Journal | Methods of analysis | Type(s) of data | Country researched | Sport(s) researched | Validity |
|-----------|---------|---------------------|----------------|-------------------|--------------------|----------|
| Aalberg, R. R. And Sæther, S. A., (2016) | Sport Science Review | Thematic content analysis | Observations, Interviews and Focus group | Norway | Football | Member checking, methodological triangulation |
| Flatgård, G., Larsen, C. H., and Sæther, S. A. (2020)* | Scandinavian Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology | Deductive coding based on HEA | Observations and semi-structured interviews | Norway | Football | Method triangulation |
| Haukli J. S., Larsen, C. H., Feddersen, N. B., and Sæther, S. A. (2021)* | Current Issues in Sport Science | Thematic content analysis (Braun et al., 2016) | Semi-structured interviews, focus group interview, observations, analysis of documents | Norway | Football | Tracy (2010): credibility, meaningful coherence. Peer validity and triangulation of data collection strategies |
| Henriksen, K., Larsen, C. H., and Christensen, M. K., (2014) | International Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology | Inductive-deductive meaning condensation | Participant observation, semi-structured interviews, analysis of documents | Denmark | Golf | Member checking, methodological triangulation |
| Henriksen, K., Stambulova, N. and Roessler, K., K., (2010) | Psychology of Sport & Exercise | Inductive-deductive meaning condensation | Participant observation, semi-structured interviews, analysis of documents | Denmark | Sailing | Researcher triangulation and member checking, methodological triangulation |
| Henriksen, K., Stambulova, N. and Roessler, K. K., (2010b) | Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports | Inductive-deductive meaning condensation | Participant observation, semi-structured interviews, analysis of documents | Sweden | Track and Field | Researcher triangulation and member checking, methodological triangulation |
| Henriksen, K., Stambulova, N. and Roessler, K. K., (2011) | The Sport Psychologist | Inductive-deductive meaning condensation | Participant observation, semi-structured interviews, analysis of documents | Norway | Kayak | Researcher triangulation and member checking, methodological triangulation |
| Larsen, C. H., Alfermann, D., Henriksen, K., and Christensen, M. K., (2013) | Sport, Exercise and Performance Psychology | Abductive | Participant observation, semi-structured interviews, analysis of documents | Denmark | Football | Member reflection, researcher triangulation, thick descriptions, methodological triangulation |
| Larsen, C. H., Storm, L. K., Sæther, S. A., Pyrdol N. & | Scandinavian Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology | Thematic analysis | Semi-structured interviews, participant | Netherlands | Football | Bracketing hypothesis and expectations, critical friends, |
Meta-theory

HEA's underpinning theory includes Bronfenbrenner’s ecological theory of human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), systems theory (Patton & McMahon, 2014), and organisational culture (Schein, 1990). Together, these theories assist researchers 'in viewing ATDEs as systems with certain functions, components, structure and development’ (Henriksen et al., 2010a, p. 213). We found some unclear use of Bronfenbrenner as the underpinning theory for the ATDE working model. We also found some potential issues with the use of Schein’s (1990) integration perspective on organisational culture in the ESF working model. The use of both is described in this section, and we discuss potential issues in the meta-synthesis below.

Bronfenbrenner as the Underpinning Theory

We found that a limitation to the included studies was uncertainty in their references to underpinning theory regarding the ATDE working model. The studies fell into four categories. First, those influenced by Bronfenbrenner’s (1979) early work, which consists of two papers (Aalberg & Sæther, 2016; Henriksen et al., 2010a). Second, one paper (Seanor et al., 2017) influenced by the second phase (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Third, one paper (Henriksen et al., 2011) directly cited Bronfenbrenner’s Bioecological theory (2005). Last, there were eight studies with no direct reference to Bronfenbrenner’s theoretical influence. Yet, this group is subdivided into two papers (Henriksen et al., 2014; Larsen et al., 2013) citing the bioecological framework via Krebs (2009) and the remaining five papers (Flatgård et al., 2020; Haukli et al., 2021; Henriksen et al., 2010b; Larsen et al., 2020; Mathorne et al., 2020; Ryom et al., 2020) citing studies based on different theoretical underpinnings. Using different phases of Bronfenbrenner’s work has previously been criticised (Tudge et al., 2009) and is, therefore, an important point to consider moving forward. Using Bronfenbrenner’s early work would entail looking predominantly at the environment. However, using Bronfenbrenner’s (2005) bioecological framework would entail being specific about the characteristics of the individual and the developmental processes over time. The underpinnings of the Bioecological framework might be best suited considering the importance of examining the reciprocal adaptation between athlete and the environment.

Theoretical Underpinnings of the ESF Model

A central feature in the ESF model deals with the organisational culture. Henriksen et al. (2010a) also suggest that it is a key feature of successful environments. The underpinning theory is Schein’s (1990, 2010) work on organisational culture. It is used in a consistent way in all studies. Albeit, Mathorne et al. (2020) use a derivative to show the philosophy of collaboration rather than organisational culture.

Meta-Methods

Approaches to Inquiry

All studies favoured a descriptive approach to inquiry (Table 2), and of the twelve studies, only one was theory testing (Henriksen et al., 2014). Considering the limitations described in the meta-theory section, however, we found that the approaches to inquiry represented a significant strength of the body of research. All studies balanced theory and an exploratory approach with multiple data collection strategies, including ethnography. Considering findings by Culver et al. (2012), we suggest that it is rare to see a body of research with such an awareness of the implications of the working models and how they link to the data collection strategies. Yet, future research could benefit from examining ATDEs through more theory-testing research of the definitions and proposed success factors.

| Author(s) | Journal | Methods of analysis | Type(s) of data | Country researched | Sport(s) researched | Validity |
|-----------|---------|---------------------|-----------------|--------------------|---------------------|----------|
| Henriksen, K., (2020)* | Exercise Psychology | deductive, thematic content analysis | Semi-structured interviews and analysis of documents | Denmark | Swimming | member reflections, and triangulation of data collection strategies. |
| Mathorne, O. W., Henriksen, K., and Stambuova, N. (2020)* | Case studies in Sport and Exercise Psychology | Thematic analysis | Semi-structured interviews, observations, desk research | Belgium | Football | Method triangulation |
| Ryom, K., Ravn, M., Düring, R., and Henriksen, K. (2020)* | International Sport Coaching Journal | Thematic analysis | Semi-structured interviews, observations, desk research | Belgium | Football | Method triangulation |
| Seanor, M., Schinke, R., Stambulova, N., Ross, D., and Kpazai, G. (2017) | Journal of Sport Psychology in Action | inductive (Braun and Clarke, 2013), deductive based on the Environment Success Factors Model | Guided walk interviews, interview, analysis of documents, and recorded reflections | Canada | Gymnastics | Member reflection and methodological triangulation |
Setting
The HEA is mainly employed in Scandinavia and is a distinct Scandinavian contribution to international scholarship. Four studies researched environments in Denmark, four studies set in Norway and one study in Sweden. The last three studies were from Ontario, Canada (Seanor et al., 2017), Belgium (Ryom et al., 2020), and the Netherlands (Larsen et al., 2020) (Table 2). Asides from nationality, the sample represents seven different sports (i.e., football n=6, golf n=1, sailing n=1, track and field n=1, kayak n=1, swimming n=1, and gymnastics n=1).

Sampling
Nine studies (Haukli et al., 2021; Henriksen et al., 2010a, 2010b, 2011; Larsen et al., 2013, 2020; Mathorne et al., 2020; Ryom et al., 2020; Seanor et al., 2017) were categorised as successful from the outset. ATDEs were considered successful based on track records of producing elite athletes. Theory testing research would entail sampling neutral environments and testing the ATDEs for the presence of the proposed success factors. The remaining studies featured one predetermined unsuccessful ATDE (Henriksen et al., 2014) and two neutral ATDEs (Aalberg & Sæther, 2016; Flatgård et al., 2020).

Data-Collection Strategies
Contrary to other reviews focused on a body of qualitative research in sport psychology (e.g., Culver, 2012; Ronkainen et al., 2015), we did not find an exclusive reliance on interviews. It is clear, in the sampled studies, that they increased their rigour by including multiple data-collection strategies (Figure 2). We found that ethnography, observations, analysis of documents, and guided walks might be critical strategies to adopt in the future to reveal the breadth and fluid nature of complex environments (Lewis et al., 2014).

Data-Analysis Strategies
The data-analysis strategies represent a change from the first five to the later seven studies (Table 2). The first five studies all used an inductive-deductive meaning condensation approach. Three of which (Henriksen et al., 2010a, 2010b, 2011) came from the same research project (see Henriksen, 2010). Using the inductive-deductive approach seemingly worked as both framework confirming (deductive) and framework elaborating (inductive). We found a consensus in the research that some areas of the working models, particularly organisational culture, benefited from the philosophical assumptions of interpretivism. The subsequent seven studies all carried out thematic analysis (Aalberg & Sæther, 2016; Flatgård et al., 2020; Haukli et al., 2021; Larsen et al., 2020; Mathorne et al., 2020; Ryom et al., 2020; Seanor et al., 2017). They also represent a reversal of the analysis where findings were initially coded concerning the study objective and then grouped into higher-order themes. Changes to the data-analysis approach could suggest that there is less focus on introducing the HEA and rather on elaborating and providing more nuances.

Validity
All studies showed several validity measures, such as method triangulation by using multiple data-collection strategies. The studies also show a change in validity measures since some studies used inter-rater reliability and member-checking (Henriksen et al., 2010a, 2010b, 2011), as evidenced by Henriksen (2010). Later studies (e.g., Mathorne et al., 2020; Seanor et al., 2017) indicate a switch to member reflection. One possible explanation for the trend signposted in Mathorne et al. is the emergence of critical views of member-checking and inter-rater reliability, as explained by Smith and McGannon (2018).

Meta-Data-Analysis
As a final step, we analysed the finding from all included articles against each other. We completed a compare and contrast approach by breaking down the findings from each study and looking for consensus and dissonance (Walsh & Downe, 2005). The process also entailed interpreting how the classification of ATDEs as successful, unsuccessful, or neutral influenced the findings (see first row of Table 3). We grouped the findings from the included research into a table showing how the findings related to the proposed success factors from Henriksen and Stambulova (2017), see Table 3. Yet, Ryom et al. (2020) introduced two additional features: Cultural Sensitivity and Sharing Knowledge. We argue below that under a different approach to culture; then cultural sensitivity could be grouped with organisational culture. Also, Sharing Knowledge is consistent as a positive feature in studies in sailing and kayak (Henriksen et al., 2010a, 2011) and counter-argument to an unsuccessful golf environment (Henriksen et al., 2014).
Table 3: Meta-data-analysis of success factors proposed in Henriksen and Stambulova (2017) and classification of ATDE by the original authors

| Classification of ATDE and case-selection determinants of being successful, neutral, or unsuccessful | (Aalberg & Sæther, 2016) | (Flåtånd et al., 2020) | (Haukli et al., 2021) | (Henriksen et al., 2010a) |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Neutral | Successful | Neutral | Successful | Successful |
| Successful in winning at the youth level, yet, weak relationship with the senior team | New environment with the slogan: ‘we realise dreams’; no classification as un/successful | Marker of success was developing players for the senior elite team (n=6) and most players in the youth national team (n=15) and won U16 and U19 national league | Successful record of producing elite senior athletes, with a large proportion of the pre-elite group managing a successful transition to the senior elite level (p. 214) |
| Training groups with supportive relationships | Close knit group of players and close relationship with U16 | Social, close-knit group of players | Supportive coach-athlete relationships and supportive intra-athlete group relationships. Yet, coach-athlete relationships sometimes suffered due to harsh criticism from coaches | Younger athletes engage in apprenticeship under senior elite athletes |
| Proximal role models | Few role models in the environment Top-6 group, players closest to senior level | Few role models in the environment. Believe in ‘playing up’ | No access to elite senior players as role models | Role models form the ‘spine’ of the program; prospects also teach younger athletes |
| Support of sporting goals from the wider environment | Impatient sports community; increasing support for school opportunities | Challenges with peers. Highlight the importance of parental support. | Strategy of keeping family to minimise family interactions. Yet, some fathers getting into discussions with coaches over playing time and team selections | Negotiating peer relationships can be challenging due to vast time commitments. Parental involvement is unwanted |
| Support for the development of psychological skills | Focus on the players accountability for their own development | Focus on the players responsibility for their own development, supporting coaches | ‘Airplane mechanic’ approach (i.e., negative centred focus on mistakes) and little explicit support for psychological development | Youth athletes do not have access to experts, yet, elite athletes share knowledge openly |
| Training that allows for diversification | None | Few | Early recruitment and specialisation in football (U7) considered necessary to be competitive and get potential elite players before competing clubs | Not mentioned |
| Focus on long-term development | Development before results | Development before results | Espoused focus on long-term development | Athletic achievements are considered less important than developing athletic skills and psycho-social competencies |
| Strong and coherent organizational culture | Long history of success at senior level, clear playing philosophy | Joint community, passion, development focus, openness, humility | Both shared features and ambiguous features. Conflict between organisational culture (early specialisation) and national culture (children’s rights laws requiring late specialisation) | Assumed coherence between values, assumptions, and behaviours carried out by individuals in the environment |
| Integration of efforts | Close school collaboration, transport to school, coach employee both at school and club | Volunteers, no collaboration with school | Some players attended a sports upper-secondary school, which helped manage training load. Other players who did not attend such a school struggled at times | Federation and Team Danmark as key organisations in supporting dual career with little support from educational institutions. |
### Table 3 (continued): Meta-data-analysis of success factors proposed in Henriksen and Stambulova (2017) and classification of ATDE by the original authors

| Classification of ATDE and case-selection determinants of being successful, neutral, or unsuccessful | (Henriksen et al., 2010b) | (Henriksen et al., 2011) | (Henriksen et al., 2014) | (Larsen et al., 2013) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Integration of efforts | Successful | 'IFK Våxjö was selected for the study because it has a successful record of producing elite senior athletes.' (p. 124) | Successful | '... success in developing young paddlers into elite senior athletes. Indicators of this success are the impressive results of Norwegian senior elite kayakers and the flow of young Wang paddlers into the Norwegian senior national team.' (p. 345) |
| | Selected because it was: 'one of the oldest and most successful Danish soccer clubs' (p. 4) |
| Training groups with supportive relationships | | | Inductive training group with 'room for everybody' approach; individualised training programmes at an early stage; low cohesion in the group; lack of knowledge sharing | Supportive relationships; friendships within and across age groups |
| | | | | |
| Proximal role models | | | Airtight boundaries between athletes at different levels. Elite-level athletes keep their secrets and regard prospects as future rivals | No proximal elite player role models; informal relationships between groups of prospects |
| Support for the development of psychological skills | | | | |
| Support for sporting goals from the wider environment | | | | |
| | | | | |
| Support for the development of psychological skills | | | | |
| | | | | |
| Training that allows for diversification | | | | |
| | | | | |
| Focus on long-term development | | | | |
| | | | | |
| Strong and coherent organizational culture | | | | |
| Integration of efforts | | | | |

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| Factor | Larsen et al., 2020 | Mathorne et al., 2020 | Ryom et al., 2020 | Seanor et al., 2017 |
|--------|---------------------|-----------------------|------------------|---------------------|
| **Classification of ATDE and case-selection determinants of being successful, neutral, or unsuccessful** | Successful | Selected because of the Ajax academy's status as one of the most successful in the world (p. 35) | Successful | Successful |
| | | The collaboration between a local club, the municipality, and the Danish Swimming Federation was selected because of its successful record in producing successful senior athletes at the international level. (p. 14) | | Develops athletes from entry to Olympic podium; producing four Olympic athletes earning all of Canada's Olympic medals |
| **Training groups with supportive relationships** | Highly competitive environment; Clubhouse as a community | Not mentioned | Peer feedback within training groups and an espoused focus on creating a 'safe' learning environment | 'Star makers' help future elite athletes develop through tacit relationships |
| **Proximal role models** | Little interaction with senior elite players. Opportunity to interact daily with older youth players. | Not mentioned | No opportunity for interaction with senior elite players. Yet, mixing age groups once a week allowed older academy players to practice with younger players | Senior athletes model habits and skills. |
| **Support of sporting goals from the wider environment** | Players can stay with foster families if they come from afar. Large network of clubs supporting recruitment for Ajax | Municipal support for developing in sport including joint initiatives with local club | Strong community support and interest. Coaches and club try to limit the influence of pressure. | Not mentioned |
| **Support for the development of psychological skills** | Ajax 'took care of every need' (p. 37) suggesting little autonomy or opportunity to develop responsibility for own development. Focus on developing social skills | Not mentioned | Competing findings: player's needs are handled by the club, suggesting little opportunity to develop responsibility for their own development. Also, an explicit focus on holistic development of skills to help them in their daily lives (e.g., making decisions on their own in football specific drills) | Athletes must seek outside support. |
| **Training that allows for diversification** | Early specialisation in football. | Goal of being the best 'Dry-land' training club; establishing collaborations with a track and field club and a gymnastics club | No training allowing for diversification | Incorporating athlete-led games into training |
| **Focus on long-term development** | Espoused focus on developing players to the first team, also emphasis on learning 'how to win' (p. 39) | Espoused focus on long-term development from leaders | Visible path for players to follow to first team supporting a focus on age-appropriate training. Consistent focus on performance rather than results. Players encouraged to take risks | 'Slow and steady' athletes make own choice to intensify after age 15 |
| **Strong and coherent organizational culture** | Managers, coaches, and other stakeholders constantly reinforce that there is a 'correct' way to perceive, feel, think. Consistent with Schein's (2010) view of top-down control of culture | Shared philosophy underpinning collaboration | Indication of a top-down controlled culture where players who do not comply with rules are benched and later released from the academy. Cultural sensitivity to players' cultural heritage acknowledging multiple cultures to blend multiple cultures | 'Catch the feeling of flying' integrates the stories of Skyriders, values, and assumptions |
| **Integration of efforts** | Players are picked up from school and Ajax employ part-time teachers to make up for lost lessons in school. | Collaboration between club, federation, and municipality; informal relationships as catalyst for positive formal integration of efforts | Collaboration with local school, and an espoused focus on schooling over sport due to the small percentage of players who transition to the senior elite level. | Not mentioned |
Our meta-data analysis indicated that studies classifying the ATDE as successful tend to associate success with positive features (e.g., supportive relationships, coherent culture). In contrast, not-so-good things might be marginalised or demoted, such as findings in a successful ATDE (Henriksen et al., 2011) highlighted competing beliefs regarding long term development and the apparent demotion of findings suggesting that the same environment highlighted a desire to develop athletes from a younger age. In Henriksen et al. (2010b), the inclusion of different skill levels is presented as a positive, and yet, in Henriksen et al. (2014), inclusive training groups is viewed as a negative and ‘too inclusive.’ We also found that Henriksen et al. (2010b) suggest that the coherent culture in that specific ATDE came from the exclusion of people (i.e., coaches and parents) who do not share the same beliefs. Further, Larsen et al. (2020) showed that a coherent culture might come from a pervasive attempt from managers, coaches, and other stakeholders to reinforce ‘correct’ ways to perceive, feel, and think. However, reinforcing ‘correct’ ways of thinking might lead to potential issues such as groupthink (Mannion & Davies, 2016). Research on cultural hegemony (Ray, 1986) also problematise attempts to decide what correct or incorrect behaviours and highlight the potentially negative influence on persons in such a context. Also, Haukli et al. (2021) found that the successful Stabæk football academy had both shared features and conflict in the organisational culture. Altogether, these findings suggest that researchers should view organisational cultures from both shared and not shared features to not overlook potentially important findings.

Some features were presented differently across studies and might be positive in one setting and negative in another. Henriksen et al. (2010a) suggest that peer relationships can be challenging; Henriksen et al. (2011) propose that non-sport peers can be a source of positive relief; yet, Henriksen et al. (2014) suggest that such challenge is a clear negative feature. Furthermore, the exclusive focus on sport-specific skills found in Henriksen et al. (2014) is also highlighted in several other studies (Aalberg & Sæther, 2016; Flatgård et al., 2020; Haukli et al., 2021; Larsen et al., 2013, 2020). Six studies (Aalberg & Sæther, 2016; Flatgård et al., 2020; Henriksen et al., 2010a, 2011, 2014; Seanor et al., 2017) mention that the successful Stabæk football academy had both shared features and conflict in the organisational culture. Altogether, these findings suggest that researchers should view organisational cultures from both shared and not shared features to not overlook potentially important findings.

The reviewed studies have revealed how the normative research discourse shape the results regarding ATDEs. We will first discuss the strengths of the research before looking at the possible weaknesses and how to move forward with HEA.

Strengths of the Included Research

Chamberlin (2011) suggests that too many qualitative researchers do not think carefully and critically about how they use different methods. Yet, our meta-method analysis indicates that the included studies showed robust rigour and connection between the theory, method, and analytical strategy. A ‘tight fit’ remains critical as qualitative research moves forward amidst methodological tensions (Whitley & Massey, 2018).

Culver et al. (2012) suggested that returning to the interviewees to gather more data could be a step forward since it might allow the researcher to achieve more depth and comprehensiveness. All studies used multiple data-collection strategies to increase contextual depth in the research (Collins & Stockton, 2018). Further, Seanor et al. (2017) reflect an approach where guided walks were coupled with subsequent interviews and recorded reflections. Particularly the guided walks were described as influential in prompting contextual depth. Increased sensitivity to epistemology might have influenced the reflexive stance to how contextual depth is achieved (Costantino, 2008).

Moving forward with HEA might also benefit from unstructured, open-ended interviews with grand tour questions (e.g., tell me about your life) (Culver, 2012), ethnography (see Wagstaff, Fletcher, & Hanton, 2012), or arts-based methods (see Bagnoli, 2009; Fraser & Al Sayah, 2011). Using such approaches may be helpful to young people since arts-based approaches can go beyond the verbal mode of thinking and help include wider dimensions of experiences (Bagnoli, 2009). Future studies could also take an existential view of the experiences of being-in-the-world (May, 1983). Drawing on existential thought could illuminate ‘how’ developing individuals emerge through their relationships and actions towards the social and physical world (Richert, 2010).

Opportunities for Refining the HEA

The use of Bronfenbrenner

The meta-theory analysis included tracing the different theoretical underpinnings and suggested that there might be room for refinement of the HEA. Tudge et al. (2016) suggested that Bronfenbrenner’s work can be subject to confounding uses. Not fully describing the theoretical foundations could limit the impact of the research and appropriately testing or evaluating findings (Tudge et al., 2016). We found that Bronfenbrenner’s ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) was used interchangeably with the bioecological model (Bronfenbrenner, 2005). Yet, being influenced by the bioecological model would entail being explicit about examining the ‘engines of development’ or proximal processes and the Person-Process-Context-Time model (Bronfenbrenner, 2005) and potentially focus more on the process element of the ESF model or longitudinal research.

Moving forward should involve considering the use of Bronfenbrenner’s theory. A book chapter authored by Henriksen and Stambulova (2017) serves to explain the HEA and draws only on Bronfenbrenner’s work from the
1970s. It might, thereby, show the progression of clarifying the theoretical foundation. We suggest, however, that using the underpinning features of the bioecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 2005) is most in line with the proposed definition: “the progressive mutual accommodation that takes place between an aspiring athlete and a composite and dynamic sporting and non-sporting environment” (Henriksen & Stambulova, 2017, p. 272) since it is explicitly considering the progressive mutual accommodation.

**Organisational Culture**

Recent research (McDougall et al., 2019, 2020) and systematic reviews of organisational culture (Maitland et al., 2015; Wagstaff & Burton-Wylie, 2018) question the use of the integration perspective (i.e., emphasising congruency) on organisational culture. In terms of the HEA, we suggest that researchers should examine who gets to determine what ‘correct’ ways of thinking are, as described in Larsen et al. (2020) and Ryom et al. (2020). The integration approach to organisational culture has been subject to severe critique across other research fields (e.g., anthropology, sociology, and management studies) (McDougall et al., 2020). Here, Alvesson (2017) suggests that the integration position represents a significant restriction because it only privileges what is shared and consistent.

Realising that success and positive features might not go together questions whether a coherent organisational culture is a fundamental feature of successful ATDEs. One argument is that the integration perspective and the description of this feature marginalises what is not shared, which is also explained in Henriksen, Larsen, Christensen’s (2014) examination of ‘the opposite pole.’ Nonetheless, most studies covered Scandinavian contexts, which could induce a sense of imagined sameness. Agergaard and Sørensen (2010) explain that imagined sameness is central to Nordic self-understanding and is a tendency to downplay differences. Our meta-data analysis showed several examples of potentially competing beliefs and practices in the individual studies, which were not included in the original analyses of organisational culture. One example was Henriksen et al. (2010b), where participants from a Swedish track and field club reported inclusion and room for everyone (i.e., athletes), and at the same time, they had rejected a group of coaches and parents since their intentions were not coherent. Another example was Ryom et al. (2020) which mentioned both elements of a top-down controlled culture and cultural sensitivity aiming at being open to the cultural heritage of the players. With a differentiated approach to studying culture, cultural sensitivity could be included under organisational culture.

One argument may be that these are separate features of distinct successful ATDEs. However, McDougall et al. (2020) explain that an over-adherence to shared elements of culture might mean downplaying ambiguous sources of culture. Mountjoy (2019) exemplified this and describes how abuse might manifest in cultures that denies or ignores non-shared features of culture. It might, therefore, be worthwhile considering the underpinning understanding of organisational culture because the integration perspective might add to a false sense of unity (McDougall et al., 2020).

Moving forward with organisational culture as a key feature in the ESF model might benefit from changing the underpinning theory and assumptions of integration. In its current form, the ESF model might not be flexible enough to examine other areas of the ATDE (e.g., collaboration between organisations) as exemplified by considering the philosophy of collaboration in Mathorne et al. (2020) and philosophy of the dual career development environment in Henriksen et al. (2020). It might, therefore, be worthwhile considering philosophy rather than organisational culture in the ESF model. Yet, continuing with culture should avoid looking for only shared features, which might further the efforts to be more neutral and open in the inquiry. Also, recent research suggests taking a sceptical approach to cultures that appear homogenous and uniformly understood (McDougall et al., 2020). Researchers working from the HEA could follow up growing empirical evidence supporting that ambiguity is endemic in sports organisations (Gibson & Groom, 2018). To do so, Meyerson and Martin (1987) present two other approaches to study culture: the differentiation paradigm (i.e., emphasising diversity) and the ambiguity paradigm (i.e., accepting perpetual ambiguity). Alvesson (2017) mentions that continuing onwards with an integration perspective risks categorical thinking and false positives (and negatives).

**Sampling in Future HEA Studies**

Coupling positive features to the status of being a successful ATDE might give a skewed sense of coherence. Instead, it might be worthwhile recognising that success, in terms of medals and developing elite athletes, might not go together with positive developmental features, and vice versa. We believe that exploring open and neutral cases is an important next step rather than contrasting good with the opposite pole. Two studies in the current synthesis (Aalberg & Saether, 2016; Flatgård et al., 2020) refrained from passing judgement on the successful or unsuccessful nature of the ATDEs. Instead, Aalberg and Saether (2016) considered that it might be a coincidence that some environments are successful. These two studies opted for open and more neutral descriptions of what is going on in the ATDE. Doing so might eliminate confirmation biases emerging from categorising an ATDE as un/successful ahead of the research. We acknowledge that it is not possible to include all populations in talent development research. However, the recognition that underrepresentation of outliers, neutral or negative cases, alert us to potential benefits by purposefully including outliers to ensure more nuances.

**Practical Implications of (Un)Successful ATDEs**

Refining the HEA and ATDEs might help provide a more well-researched foundation for classifying ATDEs for those working in sports. Our meta-data analysis also showed that both negative and positive features of success might be present in all ATDEs (e.g., inclusion, testing, early intensifying in sport; Table 3). We, therefore, suggest that the current definition of successful ATDEs could benefit from a more holistic view of success. The consensus statement on improving the mental health of high-performance athletes (cf. Henriksen et al., 2019) suggested that some environments can nourish or malnourish mental health. Including thriving or flourishing could, therefore, be a welcome next step. In our review, all the included successful ATDEs viewed success from the vantage points of a history of producing successful senior elite athletes,
and yet, only 1% might ever make it to elite sports (Relvas et al., 2010). Furthermore, recent revelations of misconduct in sport such as swimming in Denmark (Kammeradvokaten, 2020) details abusive behaviours of youth athletes as young as fifteen-year-olds. Such findings suggest that even successful environments could also malnourish athlete mental health. Or that despite being successful in terms of medal count or producing elite athletes, environments can be highly unsuccessful in terms of safeguarding young people’s mental health and broader development.

The contrasts suggest that it might be timely to rethink the definition of successful ATDEs. Findings from Ryom et al. (2020) propose that safety, or what we interpret as psychological safety (Edmondson, 1999), is a key feature since it allows developing athletes to take risks and facilitate learning. One issue might be linking success to positive features. Instead of predetermining the success of an ATDE, researchers could go for the open and neutral. We suggest detaching the definition from the potential effect to explain how the different features and elements of the ATDE and ESF models combine to form an environment which optimises learning. Also, contrasting the successful with obviously less successful might confound negative features with successful ones due to the predetermined success of an ATDE. Instead, it might be worthwhile to revisit the notion of ‘stable’ environments (Araújo & Davids, 2009) or environments optimising development (Bronfenbrenner, 2005).

Concluding remarks and limitations

Our qualitative meta-synthesis aimed to provide a critical review of the theoretical and methodological trends in research using the HEA in talent development to provide suggestions for future research. A limitation to our meta-study is that it requires more abstraction and limits considering idiosyncratic features. The findings showed that the studies featured robust methods fitting the approach. Yet, there is some ambiguity and room for refinement in the underpinning theory. That is, considering the use of Bronfenbrenner and the theory underpinning organisational culture could help develop the HEA and allow better testing of the approach. It is increasingly important to have these considerations since the HEA now underpins Dual Career Development Environment research (Henriksen et al., 2020), talent identification research (Reeves & Roberts, 2020), and community research (Balish & Côté, 2014). Also, considering the way we classify successful environments might need a rethink. As we have explained, we found competing findings in all studies, and a successful ATDE might not equal positive features, and positive features might not equal a successful ATDE. Instead, we suggest thinking of successful ATDEs as more advantageous or as optimising development.

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