

Cardiff School of Sport
DISSERTATION ASSESSMENT PROFORMA:
 Empirical ¹

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Comments	Section		
	Title and Abstract Title to include: A concise indication of the research question/problem. Abstract to include: A concise summary of the empirical study undertaken.		
	Introduction and literature review To include: outline of context (theoretical/conceptual/applied) for the question; analysis of findings of previous related research including gaps in the literature and relevant contributions; logical flow to, and clear presentation of the research problem/ question; an indication of any research expectations, (i.e., hypotheses if applicable).		
	Methods and Research Design To include: details of the research design and justification for the methods applied; participant details; comprehensive replicable protocol.		
	Results and Analysis ² To include: description and justification of data treatment/ data analysis procedures; appropriate presentation of analysed data within text and in tables or figures; description of critical findings.		
	Discussion and Conclusions ² To include: collation of information and ideas and evaluation of those ideas relative to the extant literature/concept/theory and research question/problem; adoption of a personal position on the study by linking and combining different elements of the data reported; discussion of the real-life impact of your research findings for coaches and/or practitioners (i.e. practical implications); discussion of the limitations and a critical reflection of the approach/process adopted; and indication of potential improvements and future developments building on the study; and a conclusion which summarises the relationship between the research question and the major findings.		
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CARDIFF METROPOLITAN UNIVERSITY
Prifysgol Fetropolitan Caerdydd

CARDIFF SCHOOL OF SPORT

DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF SCIENCE
(HONOURS)

SPORTS COACHING

HOW THE COACH ATHLETE RELATIONSHIP
CAN BE AFFECTED THROUGH THE USE OF
POWER

(Dissertation submitted under the discipline of
Coaching)

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CAN BE AFFECTED THROUGH THE USE OF
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Abstract

This study has attempted to build upon existing research, to allow coaches a better understanding of how the coach athlete relationship can be affected through the utilisation of power. The study specifically drew upon French and Ravens (1959) 5 stage typology theory of power, which had great value in highlighting how the nature of power can be a very complicated and complex one (Jones, Armour & Potrac, 2004). The study consisted of 4 participants who were coaching at an elite level from a range of different sports. Semi-Structured interviews were adopted in order for the data to be collected; results were then presented through the use of Schematic models and content analysis.

Results showed that power played an important role when attempting to create a working relationship between the coach and the athlete. A key finding was that all of French and Ravens (1959) bases of power could not be used individually, as an over reliance on one more than the other resulted in athletes losing respect for their coach. In order for any power base to work effectively coaches needed to ensure that the athletes perceptions of the coaches actions were correct. As a coach may feel they are an expert but an athlete's perception may be the complete opposite.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction to the study

Previous research (e.g Jones & Wallace, 2005, Cushion; Armour & Jones 2006) has suggested that sports coaching has come to be viewed as a rationalistic procedure that can often be expressed through models of good practice and flow charts. An example of this would be the rationalistic view of Fairs (1987) model of coaching, which involves a five-step process that a coach will follow during a session. The models approach argues that once a coach has reached the last step of the flow chart, they return back to the start and carry out the same process again. The work of Bourdieu (1977, 1984) has stated that the development of coaches through this type of practice becomes a natural automatic process. The actions that coaches may then take are often seen as tactical, with coaches appearing to act subconsciously through the so-called 'art of coaching' and improving practice during this process (Jones, Potrac, Cushion, Ronglan 2011). In this respect, research has endeavored whether this statement is true and whether practice is effectively improved during a rationalistic way of coaching.

Even though the traditional approach to coaching however, has been labeled as rationalistic it has in some occasions proven to help improve practice. Such work on the other hand, has been continuously criticised for not adequately taking into account the activity's complex nature (Cassidy, Jones & Potrac 2004). Although coaches have been able to adhere to effective practice through the rationalistic approach to coaching, Jones and Wallace (2005) claim that such an experience may cause tension and result in coaches failing. Research carried out by Cushion, Armour and Jones (2003), Jones and Wallace, (2004), Saury and Durand, (1998) has argued that expressing coaching through models and flow charts is not providing an understanding of the complexity of coaching. Rather, they have placed coaching as a 'personal, power-ridden, everyday pursuit' (Potrac & Jones, 2009, P.223) where a coaching situation will depend on the actions of other stakeholders involved in the process. Indeed, such work (e.g. Cushion et al, 2003; Jones & Wallace, 2005; Armour & Jones 2006) has placed the emphasis towards a sociological theory of coaching so that the multifaceted and complex nature of the activity can be better understood. Research by Potrac, Jones & Armour (2002) and

Jones, Armour & Potrac. (2004) have drawn upon the work of French and Raven (1959) to highlight how coaches express a range of power's (e.g. legitimate, referent, coercive) in order to deal with complex coaching situations and relationships.

With this in mind, the purpose of this study is to provide a more in-depth understanding of how power is used and negotiated within the complex activity of sports coaching. It aims to explore how power is used as a critical component in the negotiation of coaching relationships. In drawing upon French and Raven's 5 stage typology of power, the study will specifically examine how power is used, why it is used and the effects that it has in the context it occurs. These overall aims will be addressed through four mutually informing detailed objectives. They are as follows;

- a) How do the coaches use power and in what way do they use it during the coaching process.
- b) How important is the use of power within the coaching context when creating a relationship with an athlete.
- c) Are all of French and Ravens (1959) 5 bases of power vital when coaching and do all coaches utilise each one individually.
- d) What are the advantages and limitations of the use of power when coaching?

1.2 Rationale

Due to Academics (e.g Saury & Durand 1998, D'Arripe-Longueville, Fournier & Dubois 1998, & Jones & Wallace 2005) increasingly recognising the complex nature of coaching and "highlighting its multifaceted, integrated and dynamic character" (Lyle & Cushion, 2010, P.15) a gap exists within the research relating to how the complicated nature of the coaching process may have an effect on coach athlete interactions. "The attempt to theorise and understand power has been one of the principle concerns of sociological analysis" (Jones, Potrac, Cushion & Ronglan, 2011) as power plays such a big role throughout the difficult coaching process. Power has been considered as a universal feature of social life, with even the most basic use of power interaction creating differences and authority over people (Gruneau, 1993).

The rationale of this study is to really identify how this may also affect relationships between the coach and their athlete. Work of (Potrac & Jones, 2009) has viewed power within coaching research as being linked to manipulation and strategy where coaches utilise the power they have over their athletes in order to get them to do what they want them to do.

Therefore the significance of this study lies not so much on criticising what has already been done, but instead it tries to build on the existing knowledge to give a more wider understanding of coaches immediate actions, strategies and responses when different bases of power are used during coaching (Lyle & Cushion, 2010)

**CHAPTER TWO:
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

2.1 Introduction

With regards to the structure of this chapter, a brief historical summary of coaching research is initially given. This is followed by a review of the related research that better deals with the activity's complex nature. The third section shifts to focus on the sociological perspectives of coaching. The final section discusses, power within coaching, drawing attention to French and Ravens (1959) Typology and how it can affect the coach athlete relationship.

2.2 Historical Conceptualisation

Traditionally, the coaching process has been viewed from a rationalistic perspective that is a repetitive sequence with the same thing happening over and over again (Jones & Wallace; 2005). It was believed that coaches should have known what was going to happen during their coaching sessions before it had occurred and that each session would have the same outcome. A lot of existing research (e.g Fairs, 1987; Lyle, 1996; Borrie & Knowles, 2003) attempted to describe coaching as an activity that follows a series of stages that coaches go through in order to help the athlete learn and improve a particular skill.

Many studies (e.g Fairs, 1987; Lyle, 2002) have also tried to capture the coaching process through a development of models, which guide coaches through a number of stages that they must go through. Lyle (1986, 1991, 1996) and Fairs (1987) have supported the use of models by suggesting that for improved performance to occur a planned, coordinated and progressive sequence needs to occur. Within historical literature there appears to be four commonly named models related to coaching. The most common being Fairs (1987), Franks & Miller (1986), Sherman, Crassini, Maschette and Sands (1997) and Lyle (2002)

The work of Fairs (1987) highlighted the need for a methodical approach and stated that coaching should involve a series of arranged and organised steps. Fairs theory consists of five set steps that the coach follows during their session. Once the last step has been achieved, the model goes back to the beginning and is started again. This approach described coaching as a

continuous cycle allowing procedures and outcomes to be constantly assessed and reflected upon. Its full aim was to give coaches a systematic, simplistic guide to structuring and delivering a coaching session. This approach however, has been criticised in many quarters as Lyle (1999) and Cushion (2001) suggested that they don't adequately reflect the complexities inherent within the coaching process.

Another model that has been proposed in the past by Franks et al (1986) has proposed that coaching is conceptualised as a teaching episode where coaches follow instructions (Cushion, Jones & Armour; 2006). Franks et al, (1986) created a simple flowchart of the coaching process, which outlined the coaching process in its observational, analytical and planning phase. This model has attempted to measure player progress and coach effectiveness through the use of performance analysis, whilst being developed in conjunction with a computer based system for representing coach behavior (Moore, McGarry, Partidge & Franks, 1996). However, the work of Franks et al (1986) has also been criticised by (Lyle, 1999) for over simplifying and limiting the understanding of the process through embracing a teaching approach to coaching.

An additional attempt made to model the coaching process has also been done by (Lyle, 1996, 1998) where he highlighted the activity in a way that represents it as holistic and interdependent. Importantly, the model recognises external constraints and distinguishes the process as a set of interactive personal relationships that are subject to related factors that exist in a cultural environment (Cushion, Armour & Jones; 2006). Lyle has also developed his idea of the different models within the current literature where he has separated them into two categories. These being, 'models for coaching' and 'models of coaching'.

The work of Lyle (1999, 2002) has proposed a number of ideas and considerations that have been known to be helpful when assessing the models that have been created. Cushion, Armour and Jones (2006) researched into Lyle's work and have explained that he suggested that

models should initially represent the structure and process of the coaching procedure, including an identification of each models proportions, structure and function of the practice, and how they interact within the coaching. Furthermore, and more importantly he individualises between two types of model: Models *for* and models *of* coaching. Models of the process are based on realistic research investigating expert and successful coaching practice. These types of models have been developed based on an analysis of expert coaches within practice. Examples of these types of models would be that of Cote, Salmela, Russell (1995), Jowett and Cockerill (2002). Much of this research remains informed by the positivist tradition and focuses on the fact that coaches go through the process in a methodical and unproblematic way where performers only receive the coaching.

On the other hand, these types of models have also been criticised by researchers (e.g Lyle, 1996; Cross & Ellice, 1997; Mathers 1997), which have labeled Lyle's model as too simplistic and not fully highlighting the elements that are required for effective practice. But the contribution made by these models to our understanding of the coaching process has been useful for coaches, but there is very limited information that allows greater knowledge in this field of research. It has been argued by (Cushion, 2003; Jones et al, 2004) that inadequate attention has been paid to important social aspects of coaching.

There are many models that have been created in the past and it is clear to see that in earlier years, coaching was initially viewed as a rationalistic activity. Many models gave people the idea that there was only one way to coach and that there was a set routine and procedure of doing it. It has been stated by (Cassidy, Jones & Potrac 2004) that even though these earlier takes on coaching may not signify the true nature of coaching, coaches should use models in order to help them structure their sessions. Models can help to create a better understanding of how to structure sessions and should only use them as a base starting position. This is because models do not offer the coach any help or guidance in situations that may be new to them or for when something may go wrong.

2.3 Recent conceptualisation

Since the earlier reductionist approach to sport coaching, the current literature argues that the activity is in fact a complex one. Jones & Armour, (2000); Cassidy, Jones, & Potrac, (2004); Jones and Wallace, (2005) have increasingly criticised the rationalistic conceptualisation statements of sports coaching that have portrayed it as a controllable sequential process. One of the first studies that began to shed some light on the complexity of the coaching process was that of Saury and Durand (1998) which critiqued Cote, Salmela, Trudel, Baria & Russell's (1995) research for describing the process as being specifiable in advance, allowing coaches to distinguish what was going to happen before coaching sessions occurred.

Indeed, Saury and Durand's (1998) work examined expert coaches' knowledge in elite sailing. Their findings highlighted that coaching interactions were bound by a set of interacting constraints that generated inaccurate problems. Likewise, further research from d'arripe-Longueville, Fournier and Dubois, was one of the first studies to move away from the positivist paradigm (1998). It Examined coaches' and athletes' behaviors in elite French judo and their perceptions of their respective interactions. Conclusions from the study, considered the actions in term of the complex coaching context; however, the analysis moved away from its original focus and considered sport leadership styles, in particular, the autocratic behaviours outlined by Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) and Chelladurai (1993). This research developed the multidimensional model of sport leadership, which determined certain leadership theories within the sporting environment. The purpose of the development was to attempt to deal with certain problems that related to leadership within the sporting context by testing the Multidimensional Model (Salminen & Liukkonen, 1994).

The first problem to be identified by Chellandurai & Saleh (1980) was that the existing theories for leadership in sport did not contain sufficient models to measure and test their theory and there had been no attempt to develop upon acceptable scales and describe coaching behavior. They also found that there was no previous confirmation that leadership models used in other organisational settings were anywhere near relevant to the sport context and past studies of the subject failed to present reliable correct evidence. Chelladurai (1990) identified three main purposes for his research and that it has been used to study athletes' preference for specific leader behavior and athlete's perceptions of their coaches behavior. It has also been used to study coaches' perception of their own behavior.

The five dimensions of leader behavior were defined by Chelladurai (1990) as Training and instructions, which referred to the behavior of the coach that is purposely directed towards improving the performance of their athletes. These types of behaviors would involve instructing athletes' skills, techniques and tactics of their sport. Whilst having control and organisation over the activities they are overlooking. Democratic behavior relates whether the coach allows athletes to participate in important coaching decisions as well as just the coach that may be associated with the whole groups goals, aims, methods of practice, game tactics and strategies. Autocratic behavior relates to the authority and independent decision making of the coach. Social support is when the coach may have concern for his/her athletes and creating a positive and fun environment. Positive feedback means the coach giving athletes motivation and recognising when they have performed very well and rewarded them.

Research by (e.g Potrac, Jones & Armour, 2002, Potrac, Jones, & Cushion 2006, d'Arripe-Longueville, Fournier & Dubois, 1998) has now positioned coaching as a personal, power-ridden, everyday pursuit where nothing is ever the same, which more accurately relates to the complex reality of coaching. The process has now moved forward from being associated with flow charts and models and is now defined as a non-predictable activity. Indeed, Coaching has become recognised as a personal speculation, negotiated

between various participants that are involved within the activity (Jones et al, 2004). Such work has been supported by that of Squires (1999) who argues that it is undeniable that much of a coach's work can be linked to a wide range of important others, which include athletes, managers and colleagues making the process even more complex.

Despite the recent recognition that coaching is a more complex process, Potrac (2000) considered it to be a largely under developed and an under researched area. Taking this point on board, many have cited the need to investigate the problems and realities of human interaction that are apparent within the coaching process (e.g Abraham & Collins, 1998; Lyle, 1999; Potrac et al, 2000). Coaches work as social beings within a social environment, so in order to fully understand the context of coaching, research now needs to focus on the social world of individual coaches and how they operate (Jones, 2000; Potrac & Jones, 1999; Portac, Brewer, Jones, Armour & Hoff, 2006)

2.4 sociological perspectives of coaching

Jones, Armour & Potrac, (2003) have indicated that over the years, the sociological role within coaching has been fundamentally ignored as current trends in coach learning research have focused more on 'what works' and allowing coaching to be described as a rationalistic procedure. Cushion & Ronglan (2011) and Trudel (2006) have said that much coach development is still restricted and designed in a 'train and certify' type of approach where coaches are expected to obtain concept, skills and behaviors.

But the recent upsurge into sport coaching now expresses the growing support for the argument that the coaching process is not something that's not just delivered but instead is a dynamic social activity that vigorously involves the coach (Potrac et al, 2000; Jones & Armour, 2000; & Lyle, 1999). Cushion & Ronglan (2011) has increasingly acknowledged sports coaching as a social activity with social interaction between coaches and athletes being the fundamental part of the process. Jones et al (2004) support a notion by stating that 'the art of coaching is about recognising the people and responding to the people you are working with'.

The idea of the coaching process has in many ways recently tried to stimulate athletes' learning and progressive performance (Jones, Potrac, Cushion & Ronglan 2011; Jones, Armour & Potrac 2000, 2003 & 2004). In order for coaches to naturally achieve this, it has been argued that they have to socially interact with a wide range of significant others that may have an impact throughout their coaching career (Potrac, Jones, Cushion & Ronglan 2011). Examples of these would be parents, additional staff, members and administrators. Coaches are then expected to have the ability to handle all of these different individuals and groups being able to utilise the possibilities caused by the environment around them. (Cushion & Ronglan, 2011).

Undeniably, sport coaching doesn't exist as a social vacuum but is subject, to a certain amount, of the social and sporting structures within which it operates (Cross & Lyle, 1999). Therefore, the process is essentially a social activity, which is linked to both the constraints and opportunities of human communication (Cushion, Armour & Jones, 2003). Coaches are social beings working in a social environment meaning that social interaction plays a big role within the process, which explains why the quest to find a one to fit all generic model of effective coaching has proved to be so difficult (Jones, Armour & Potrac 2002; Jones, 2001; Cross & Lyle, 1999).

Many researchers (e.g Lyle, 1999b; Abraham & Collins, 1998; Streat, 1998) have identified a need to investigate the multi-faceted social relationship between the coach and the athlete in order to more fully understand the complexity of the coaching process (e.g Lyle, 1999b; Abraham & Collins, 1998; Streat, 1998). Woodman (1993) highlighted the importance of social application and individual talent within the coaching process as vital requirements in achieving desired goals. Cross & Lyle, (1999) and Cote, Salmela, Trudel, Baria & Russel, (1995) have similarly highlighted this and also indicated the lack of research into the complex reality into how coaches work.

The whole idea of the coaching process is, that coaches in various ways try to stimulate athletes learning and performance. In order to achieve this, coaches have to interact with their athletes. Therefore social interaction has been viewed as the principle of coaching, with coach-athlete relationships being at the main aspect of the activity (Jones et al, 2004). In order for full interaction to occur it has been known that coaches also need to hold power over their athletes. Westwood (2002) believed that no social interaction can take place without authority over your athletes, meaning that power is also an essential source required. By looking at what power has to offer within the coaching environment it has the potential to offer new ideas, improvements and outlooks for coaching practice and education. (Robyn, Jones, Potrac, Cushion & Ronglan 2011)

2.5 Power within coaching

Power has been classically defined as having the ability to get others to do what you request them to do (Weber, 1978). It replicates the skill to influence others to further interests and/or to resist the activities of others (Atlee and Atlee, 1992). Many views (e.g Kipnis 2001; Cassidy, Jones & Potrac 2004; Lukes 1993; Thompson 1998) have considered it to be a universal feature of social life, where the use of power not only has an impact on our own individual thoughts but impacts on how we may interact with others. Lyle (2002) notes, that the coach athlete relationship is no exception and the exercise of power is an internal social issue. Cassidy, Jones & Potrac (2004) have explained how power is so important during the process of coaching as respect and trust can be gained from their athletes if it is utilised in the correct manner.

Research into the theory of power has considerably grown over recent years since. Research by Shogan (1999) and Johns and Johns (2000) stated that power within coaching had been largely ignored. A lot of different views and opinions have now been generated. Many academics (e.g Jones 2009; Purdy, Cassidy & Jones, 2009) have written about power and the Theories and frame works that have been created in order to give people a better understanding of how power works within the coaching context. It is important for research to

be carried out within this area as it can help coaches, gain a better understanding of how they can use power in order to help the relationship between themselves and their athletes. Using it effectively will then allow them to communicate successfully and improve their athletes' performance (Cassidy, Jones & Potrac 2004; Jones & Potrac 2009).

One of the common theories based on power would be the work of sociologist Pierre Bourdieu. The reason behind Bourdieu's thinking was the notion of capital. Tomlinson (2004) defines capital to be the volume of an individual or groups of people to have and impact upon, change or control situations. The availability of capital to an individual then determines the degree to which he or she can control other people. Initially Bourdieu describes social life as the process of individuals constantly being engaged in striving to accumulate their capital and therefore their ability to influence others (Calhoun, 1995). There are three types of capital that Bourdieu identified which were economic, cultural and social. Bourdieu's research has rarely been utilised to critically analyse the nature of power relations that exist between coach and athlete. However, the work of Cushion and Jones (2006) within top-level English youth football gives us some interesting insights into how his Bourdieu's work could be applied to improve our understanding of this context.

Foucault's disciplinary power (1980) is also another example of a theory within power. For Foucault, power is something that isn't something that can be possessed by certain individuals (Chapman 1997; Markula and Pringle 2006). But instead involves 'both a complex flow and a set of relationships between different groups and areas of society which changes with circumstances and time' (Danaher, Schirato and Webb, 2003). His work focuses more on the use of discourse which refers to 'ways of constituting knowledge, together with the social practices, forms of subjectivity and power relations which inhere in such knowledge's and relations between them. Discourses are more than ways of thinking and producing meaning. They constitute the 'nature' of the body, unconscious and conscious mind and emotional life of the subjects they seek to govern' (Weedon, 1987, p. 108).

Work done by (e.g. Jones et al., 2004; Cassidy et al., 2009) has focused on the influential role of coaches using the theoretical framework of power developed by French and Raven (1959) which is one of the most common theories within this subject field. The concentration here involved interpreting coaching from 5 different bases of power that individuals used by getting others to do what they want them to do. These included, legitimate, expert, reward, coercive and referent power. French and Ravens typology has recently been used by Jones et al (2004) and Potrac et al. (2002) who both studied coaching practices of a number of elite coaches that were involved in various different sports.

It has been argued (e.g Cassidy, Jones & Potrac 2004; Armour & Jones 2000) that the power scales used within French and Ravens framework have only used very narrow item content and each power can only be used successfully upon experiences and judgment from the coaches using them. There have also been disagreements with the definition that French and Raven (1959) created for referent power as they suggested referent power was a crucial component of the power bases and was an identification or feeling of oneness. Podsakoff, Todor, Grover & Huber (1984) showed clear indications that French and Ravens (1959) framework of power also has implications, even though it has been a widely used structure.

Based on the evidence found from the relevant literature there is a clear amount of research based on the different types of power in coaching. However, there seems to be a lack of research looking into how the different types of power, when used by a coach may affect the coach athlete relationship. In this respect it is important for coaches to realise that the control they have over their athletes is always variable and limited, as coaching has been known to be problematic and complex to allow anything else (Jones and Wallace, 2005). Therefore coaches are advised to carefully reflect upon their ways in which they show themselves to their athletes and how they interact with them. As power is effectively the best way to gain respect and trust from your athletes (Jones et al., 2004)

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This section of the study intends to highlight the choice of particular strategies and tools that were carried out in order for data and analysis to be performed. Reasons as to why these certain approaches were chosen are included, such as why a qualitative approach was adopted, why and how the participants were selected, how the study was carried out, why Schematic models and themes were created for results and analysis to be accomplished and lastly ethical considerations were taken into account. The choice of methodology relates entirely to the research question and theoretical framework ensuring that as much information can be gained in order to achieve maximal information.

3.2 Proposing a qualitative approach

First of all, it is essential to provide a reason as to why a qualitative approach was used in order to gather information for this study. Black (1994) has suggested that we need qualitative research as it allows us to gain a better understanding of the nature, strengths and actions of a phenomenon, resulting in a holistic approach, which symbolises the complexities of human behavior.

Over the years there has been a significant increase in the amount of qualitative research studies being carried out within the sporting domain. With the main goal being 'to obtain rich, in-depth, and detailed information from an "insider's" view - one that stresses the perspective of the participant and strives to understand the context or situation in which the experience takes place' (Hardy, Jones & Gould, 1996, p. 256).

The required qualitative approach that was carried out for this study, aimed to gain qualities that cannot be assessed, through the use of numbers, such as feelings, thoughts and experiences individuals may have had (Gratton and Jones, 2004). This certain study consisted of asking in-depth questions about how the coach athlete relationship may be affected when coaches utilise the different bases of power, re-visiting past experiences and feelings that they may have faced during their coaching career past or present.

Due to the size and scope of this study being fairly small, it has been recognised that any attempt to make rational evaluations about the experiences stated throughout the interviews to be inappropriate. Wolcott (1995) stated that as researchers we should only be focusing on studying and researching one thing at a time in order to ensure our understanding of a particular phenomenon is maximised.

3.3 Participant selection criteria

All of the participants that were selected for this study were required to meet a certain criteria. Here, the selection of relevant participants was based on who would provide the strongest information that can be learned from when addressing the research question (Quinn-Patton, 1990). Variation was utilised in selecting the participants as Maykut and Moorhouse (1994) suggested, that this process is beneficial in demonstrating a wide range of different experiences based on the same phenomenon being investigated. For example, each coach that was involved within the study was involved in coaching different sports and were required to be coaching at an elite level.

3.4 Participants

For this study four elite coaches from various sports including trampolining, volleyball and swimming were selected from a university. All participants were asked to take part in individual formal semi structured interviews that consisted of open ended and additional questions if needed, in order for maximum information to be gathered (Landin and Herbert, 1999). Morgan (1997) highlighted that by using this way of interviewing it is then possible to gain strong amounts of information on the exact topic of interest. Each participant was selected and confirmed on a voluntary basis and before the interviews took place, participants were asked to fill out informed consent forms (see in appendix A) after reading through the participant information sheet (see in appendix B). In line with recommendations of Christians (2000) each coach was guaranteed confidentiality to ensure anonymity and a shield against any unwanted exposure. They were also given the approval to drop out of the study at any time without reason.

3.5 Instrumentation

Semi structured interviews were implemented in order for data to be gathered. These were chosen, so the technique of this procedure would allow the participants to speak freely and develop on their experiences. Following research carried out by Bernard (1995) the researchers role throughout this process was to adopt the character of a 'listener' for the coach where exchanges in conversation took place, ensuring that the overall objectives and focuses of the interview were covered. Such work resonates with that of Quinn-Patton (2002) where interviews were adopted to yield quotations from people that relate to their experiences, opinions, feelings and knowledge.

In order for the interviews to be recorded a Dictaphone was used to gather data before being transcribed and analysed. Each interview lasted for approximately 30 minutes and 24 pages of transcription were yielded. A semi-structured arrangement was implemented here as although in-depth interviews being 'open' helping explore peoples' experiences and highlighting important topics, you can also control the process and ensure that all relevant topics are covered (Liamputtong and Ezzy, 2005). This strategy was chosen in order for knowledge to be developed within the phenomenon of the coach athlete relationship. Therefore, it was decided that there was no need to have any type of process throughout the study that related with quantitative research (Thomas and Nelson, 1990).

3.6 Procedure

A similar protocol was used throughout all of the interviews. Each participant was asked a number of open questions to ease the participant into the conversation. These first set of questions were used in order to not only settle the participant and make them feel comfortable but to also get them into an interviewing type of mode to generate a flow of conversation.

Participants were asked to relate the questions to the specific subject phase of the interview. According to Clough & Nutbrown (2007) the interviews effectiveness heavily depends on the communication skill of the researcher. So every question that was asked helped to maximise the recall of experiences for the coaches and in situations where they were unable to answer the question the interviewer would help by either restructuring the question or moving on with the interview and returning to the topic question later on. Following the work of Clough & Nutbrown (2007) the interviewer for this study listened attentively and paused, probed and prompted appropriately throughout the interviews. Accurate thoughts and feelings of the interview related to power within the coach athlete relationship.

Before the interviews took place participants were given a copy of the interview transcript (see in appendix C) to give them an insight into what they are expected to answer during the process. Participants were also told to add any other experiences that they may feel are relevant to the topic of questioning in order to create an overall experience. All of the interviews were carried out by the same interviewer in order to create a consistency of rapport throughout the study and were performed away from their coaching environments. Interviews lasted around 30 minutes and were recorded and transcribed.

3.7 Data analysis

The main aim of any analysis procedure should relate back to the research question. Researchers should then start to evaluate the information that has been gathered in association with the question asked and the perceptions identified (Veal, 1997). According to Sanders and Pinhey (1983) researchers should also have a high standard of organisation to ensure things are done during the time limit of the study.

After looking at the transcripts the researcher repeatedly read through them in order to generate as much familiarity with the data as possible. Once this was done the transcripts were then examined even further so emergent themes could be created along with meaningful quotes and phrases to be collected for

further analysis. At this particular stage of the study content analysis was adopted. This is where the data was broken down into smaller units, revealing their characteristic elements and structure of the information gained from the interviews (Dey, 1993). According to Patton (1990) content analysis involves the researcher to make sense of the situation without making rational opinions on the earlier established expectations of the study. The analysis process carried on until all of the thematic links had been identified and themes were created.

3.8 Ethical considerations

A number of ethical considerations needed to be respected throughout this study. Halloway (1997) described ethical issues to be particularly distressing in qualitative research because of the intensive nature of the disclosure of private and personal information. An informed approach was utilised for this study where participants were informed about the study, with verbal and written consent being received from the participants prior to the interviews taking place (Gratton and Jones, 2004)

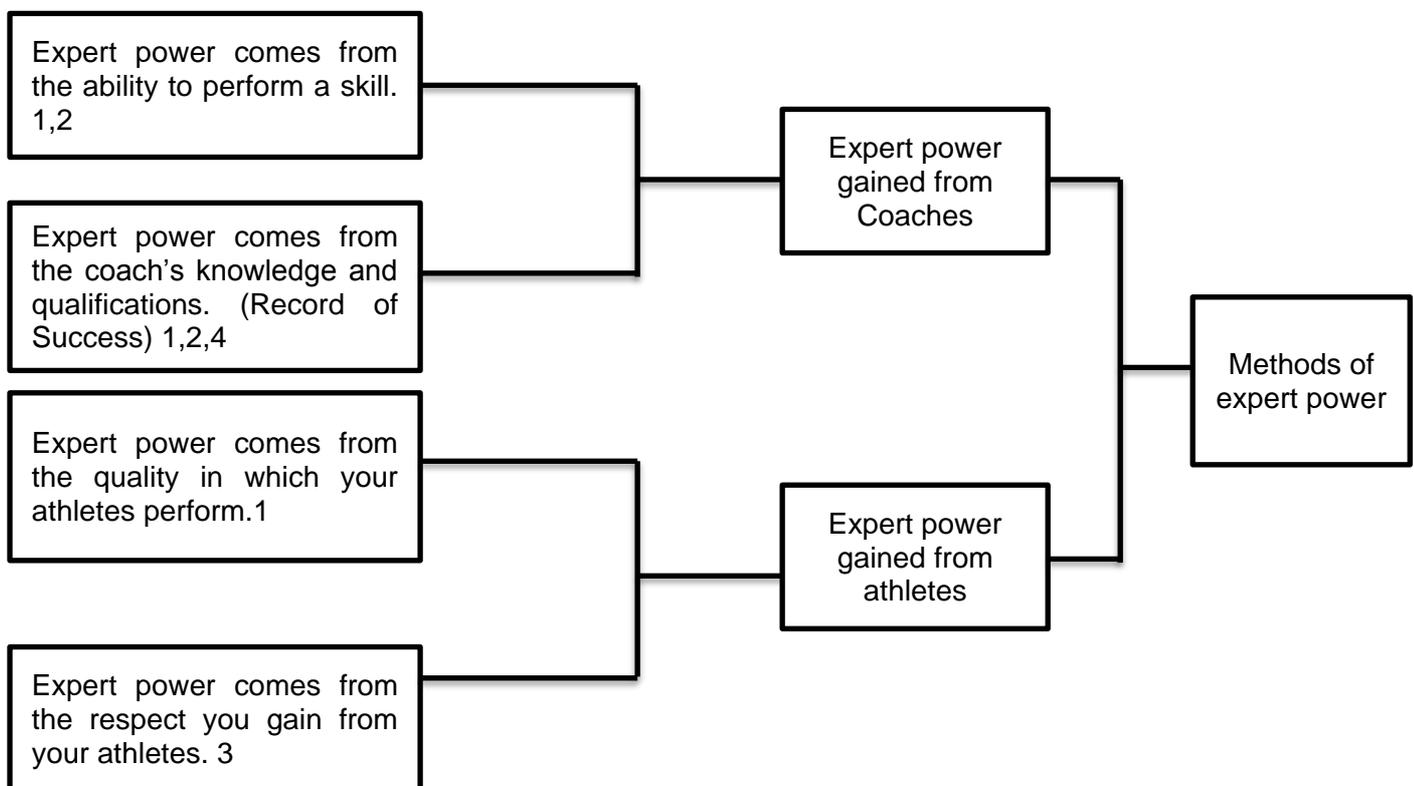
Another important factor within this research is anonymity. McNamee et al (2007) recommends that assurances and promises that were made to the participants by the researcher should be obeyed at all times. In order to do this, Mason (1996) suggested that people who share their experiences by restating occurrences and memories should be dealt with sensitivity. Participants' emotions and feelings were taken into account and dealt with care throughout the whole process of the study. Ethical procedures were also closely linked to the Cardiff school of sport, where ethical approval was needed from the university before the study was allowed to take place.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The results section presents data gained from the present study. Firstly a Schematic model (e.g figure 4.2) was created in order for the findings of this study to be presented. Once this was done for each theme, a more narrative detailed presentation of the results was produced. The narrative contains direct quotes taken from the transcripts to allow the reader a broader and better understanding of the coaches' experiences and thoughts.

4.2. Schematic model of expert power



At the start of the interview's participants were specifically asked to relate their answers to French and Ravens (1959) 5 stage typology and how they may utilise these different types of power within their coaching practice. The first power of interest was expert power. One participant highlighted how being able to actually perform the skills within that sport, made his athletes listen to him:

And they would be “woooow!! Look at the way he can summersault! Look what he can do!!” So pretty much all of my expert power in that first case came from being able to do the skills and it was the one thing above all else, that made me worth listening to. (Participant 1)

Other participants stated that expert power came from the knowledge and record of success that one person may have. For example:

It is important to have that background and technical knowledge about the sport, tactics etc, but also the knowledge about how to transfer that information to the players. (Participant 2)

I don't think I would be where I am if I hadn't (a) been a swimmer myself to a reasonable level, and (b) hadn't been working under my mentor who has had a swimmer on a British team for every Olympic Games for the last 30 or 40 years. (Participant 4)

One participant goes on to state how from being a swimmer himself he knows exactly what his athletes are going through helping create a good relationship.

For example:

When they're coming in, if they've been to school, when they've just had PE, if they're hurting or whatever else then I can – If I say "sympthasise" maybe that's not the correct word, but I can understand what they're going through on a day to day basis. (Participant 4)

Another participant explains that getting their athletes to see them as an expert was particularly hard at first due to integrating to the UK. For example:

Yes, I do use that in my coaching, especially initially because I wasn't in their environment and had to integrate into their environment. So they needed to know that I am an expert and to respect me for that because they don't know me as a person. (Participant 3)

Johns & Johns (2000) work highlighted how coaches need to consider that expert power is also based on the athletes perceptions of such factors and even though some coaches may have a considerable amount of coaching qualifications this may not mean the athlete will see them as an expert. For example:

All of the academic side I definitely, definitely use and its definitely influenced my style of coaching. So my qualifications in terms of my academic record, yes; but also not so much the formal swimming qualifications because the issue with those is that they're 5 or 6 maybe years out of date. (Participant 4)

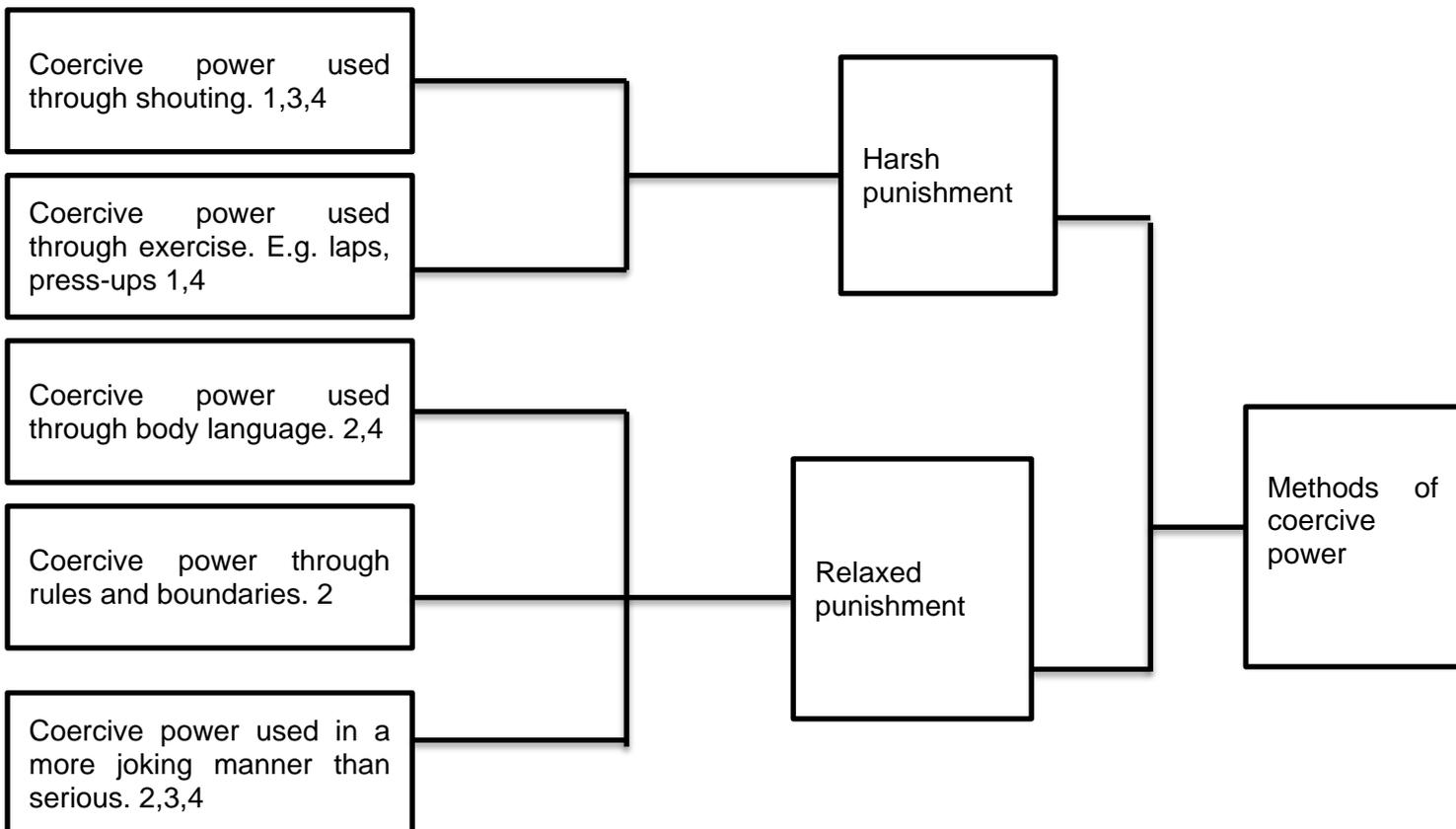
One participant also goes on to say that the athletes' perception is very important. For example:

People are there to get something from you, to be developed by you and if you're not able to do that, if they don't see you as somebody who's able to do that then its not really going to work. (Participant 1)

Demonstrations have been known to play a big role in being perceived as an expert (Johns & Johns, 2000). One participant reported that demonstrations should always be performed to a high standard. For example:

The crux with things, especially with demonstrations, is that if you get very wrong, and if you get lazy with your demos, you're going to get lazy swimmers in the pool. (Participant 4)

4.3 Schematic model for coercive power.



The second power that was focused on was 'coercive power'. Participants were asked whether they agreed with punishing their athletes and whether they used this type of power when coaching. One participant believed that athletes needed to be made aware of the rules and boundaries from the beginning:

Especially with a young group of teenagers, U17 boys and stuff like that, to set up some rules from the start. So before I actually coached them in how to play, I coached them in how to train. So that they know how to behave in training and be able to accept some rules. (Participant 2)

Participants were asked whether they agreed with the statement that 'it was occasionally necessary to give athletes a kick up the bum from time to time'.

One participant reported:

I think we all, coaches as well, could do with a kick up the bum from time to time and I have someone who does that for me, because some days I can be as grumpy as sin, but I have someone who will come to me and say 'What's up? What's the matter? But there will be days when I come in and I'll be grumpy as sin on purpose, because it's just to refresh them, to make the kids realise this is business. (Participant 4)

While another participant specified that they hadn't used enough coercive power when coaching. For example:

I've thought about this one quite a lot; this is an important question for me, because I think I haven't really used it enough. I think I should have used it, or should use, more coercive power in certain situations. (Participant 1)

Also some participants felt it was acceptable to shout at their athletes to gain coercion power. They stated:

Well sometimes you have to be assertive, very direct. (Participant 3)

Again I think, from time to time there's nothing wrong with raising your voice in a coaching environment. (Participant 4)

Whereas another participant stated it was necessary to shout but would rather punish athletes differently, creating a more serious but calm environment. For example:

I may just look at them and they know they did wrong, or if its actually very serious stuff I'll have to calm the conversation and explain that its not the way they should do it. (Participant 2)

Another form of punishment may be through the form of exercise. One of the participant's commented that this type of coercion is utilised but in a less serious manner. For example:

I might if someone does something stupid say something like "oh, go on then. Ten face-in-the-waters!" and there's a little bit of "oh, we know" But its done in jest, but they do realise that "oh, yes I've overstepped the line and taken what I've got to take on the chin" (participant 4)

Whereas the other participants felt punishing athletes with exercise was unacceptable, as it can cause problems in the future. For example:

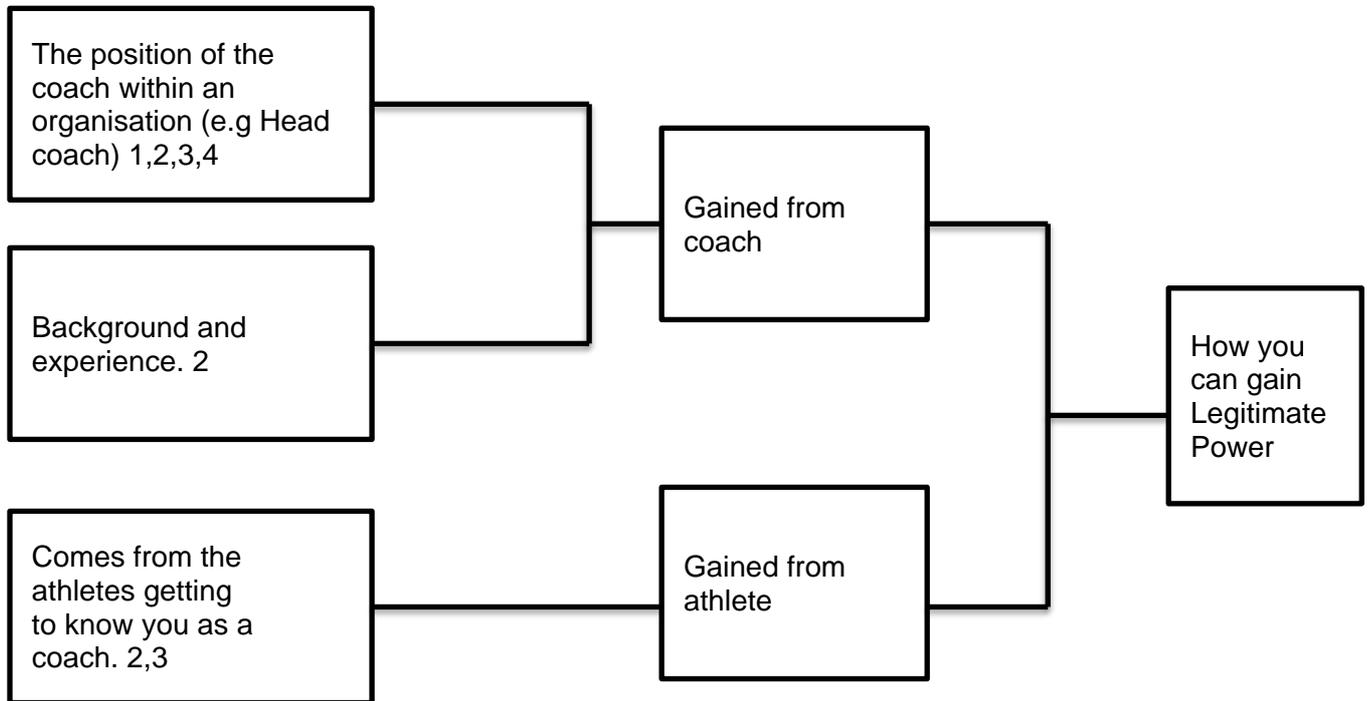
No. Actually I think I have a theory that if you punish someone with exercise, that means that exercise is something wrong. And it's not. (Participant 3)

During the interviews participants were also asked whether they believed coercive power was an effective power source and should always be used. All participants agreed that this type of power should not be overused as it can result in consequences, two of the participants stated:

I'm not a punishment coach. I'm not an overlord coach in any way shape or form, and I see overloading coaches out there and I see their athletes and not one of them has any respect for them. (Participant 4)

We talked about shouting and I don't think shouting's the right way. But I think that people need to understand there are boundaries, but then if you're only using punishment, then why would people want to come? (Participant 1)

4.4 Schematic model of legitimate power



Another power of interest during this study was 'Legitimate power'. All of the participants stated that they had this type of power over their athletes just because they were there coach. For example:

That's just generally how it is. Coaching is seen as a position of power in society, there's no other way of getting around that. (Participant 4)

To start off I think that's probably the first impression, I think that makes sense because when I'm coaching a new team they don't know me, I don't know them, they will probably respect me just because I'm the coach... (Participant 2)

One participant expressed how legitimate power doesn't only come from just being the coach but can come from the expectations athletes may have:

If they say, "It's just the guy who was coaching the beginner and he's coming to coach you guys" then their initial reaction can be different according to their expectations, and according to my background and my role. (Participant 2)

Participants were asked whether they thought their athletes would listen to them if they were a good coach or not. Whilst the majority felt their athletes'

wouldn't listen to them if they were a bad coach, one participant spoke differently. For example:

My coach really didn't know very much about trampolining at all, he wasn't a great coach in that traditional, expert-type sense. But what he was, he was an amazingly charismatic man and he was really motivating and he was inspiring to spend time with, and so people stayed involved because of those things; not because he was a great coach. (Participant 1)

All of the participants agreed that an over reliance on legitimate power can lead to consequences. For example participants stated:

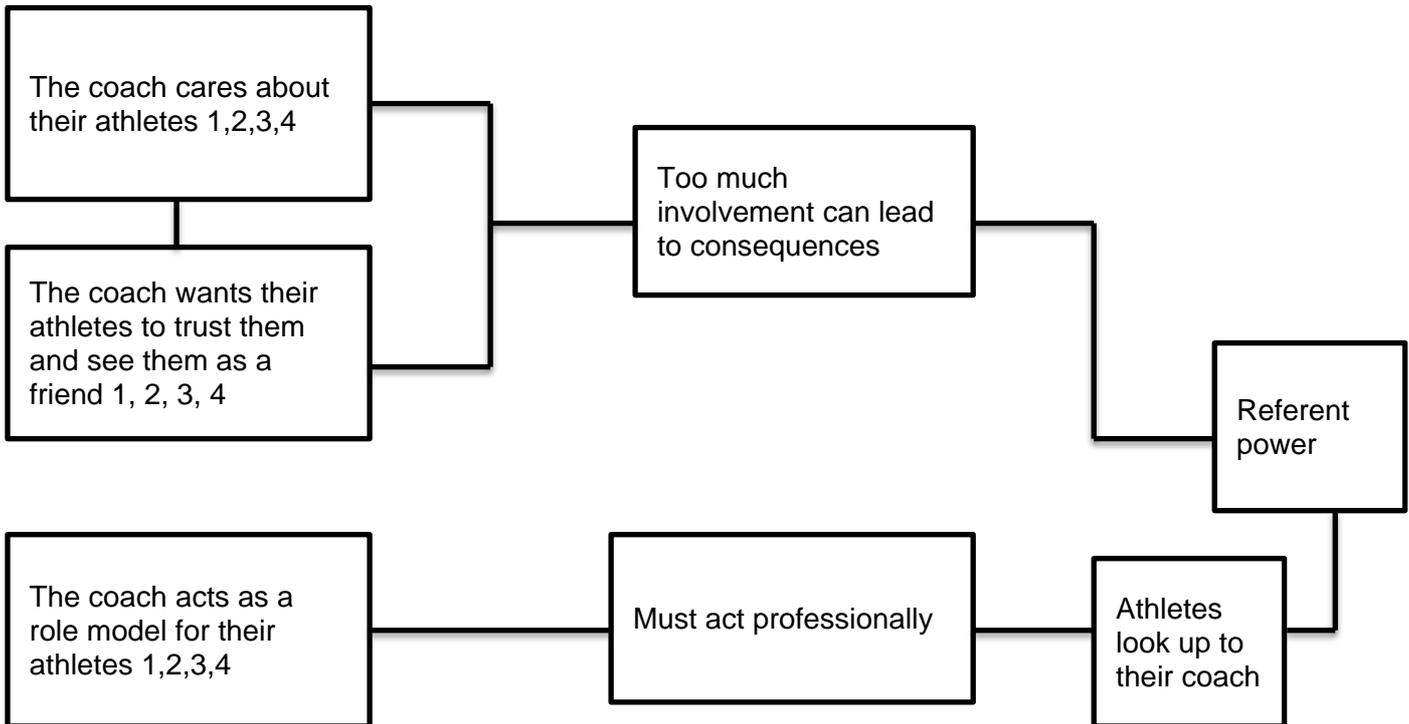
It's good to have the power, because in a way you feel that you are being recognised, but it's up to you what you do with the power. If you do it wrong it comes back in the other way. (Participant 3)

But I think the misuse of that power is a very deadly and very serious thing that can happen; and it has happened and does still happen, especially in a sport like swimming. So you have to be very, very careful with what you do, what you say when you say it and how it comes across. (Participant 4)

Whilst another participant felt that you don't actually use this power its something that you already have as a person. For example:

I don't think you would use this type of power. You just have it, or not. It's just something which is almost immanent; it's something which is there, or isn't there. (Participant 1)

4.5 Schematic model of referent power



The penultimate power investigated during the interviews was 'referent power'. One participant describes that if you want your athletes to respect you and behave in a certain way then you should act how you want them to act.

For example:

I think you have to be a role model. I think you have to be in that position, that if you're expecting your athletes to turn up on time, you're expecting them to be in the right kit and do a professional job, you have to do exactly the same yourself. (Participant 4)

Whilst another participant indicates how this type of power can put a lot of pressure on the coach, for example:

It's also difficult to think about athletes wanting to be like you. That's a lot of pressure as a coach, that's quite a lot of pressure, because I wouldn't want people to be like me, I'd want them to be like themselves. (Participant 1)

By demonstrating an ethic social care for athletes it has become apparent that this can help to maintain referent power (Cassidy, Potrac & Jones, 2004). One participant describes how care is shown by trying to create an open relationship between the coach and the athlete. For example:

So if we talk to each other with respect we can say anything and we should be able to say anything, and I want that kind of open environment in the teams I coach. (Participant 2)

In addition, participants highlight how this type of power has been gained by getting to know their athletes, creating a better relationship. For example:

I have to admit that when I started coaching her I was wary of her and thought she was “Just a moaning cow...” And now I’ve really, really grown to like her because I’ve got to know her and I think if I hadn’t done that - and I think she’s really grown in confidence so that now she’s in a position where she’ll come to me or message me. (Participant 4)

Participants also go onto talk about how they want their athletes to actually feel about them as their coach. For example:

I think it’s important that they see you as somebody who it’s worth spending time with, really, who they would want to spend time with, and not just because of the coaching, the expertise, but because they get something out of being around you or being around the environment. (Participant 1)

If someone has an issue they share it and we try to help each other through as best we can. It is an extended family. (Participant 4)

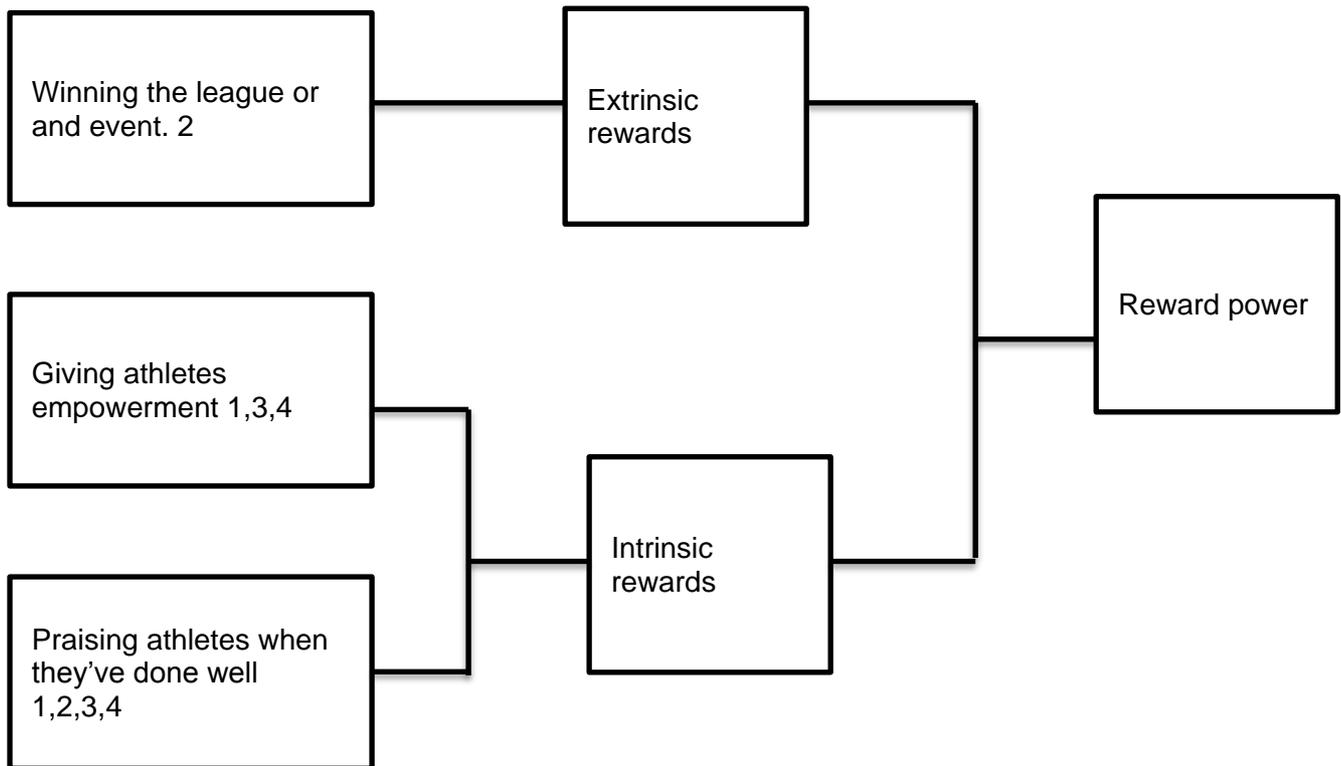
One participant reported that you have to be very careful when caring for your athletes as you can become too involved. For example:

You don’t want to get too involved, because obviously it’s not your business. But in a way it is, because it’s your athlete and sometimes they spend more time at school and with us in swimming and coaching sessions than they do at home. (Participant 3)

In addition another participant indicates how you need to be able to handle two aspects when dealing with this type of power. For example:

I think the interesting point you raise is that there are two aspects to this. One is being able to be aware and be sensitive to what’s happening to individuals and the group, and then your actions need to be such that they pay attention to that. (Participant 1)

4.6 Schematic model for reward power



The last power of interest throughout the interviews was 'reward power'. One participant explains how extrinsic rewards are utilised. For example:

The biggest things that are seen as rewards in sport are moving groups, giving people more time, those sorts of things, because those things really indicate that you have care or there is a commitment towards what they are actually doing. (Participant 1)

Other participants add how they like to give rewards intrinsically and praise athletes when they are doing well. For example:

We do give rewards when the athletes are doing well, through our actions and our facial expressions. (Participant 3)

They do get rewards; if they swim well, they get told they swam well; if they have great sets they get told they've had great sets. (Participant 4)

While one participant indicates how coaches can get into the habit of praising their athletes too much. For example:

So you almost get drawn into it; you almost get drawn into saying "Well done!" because it's just what you do, and I think we overly use it all the time and I think that's to the detriment of everybody. (Participant 1)

Results also showed that the participants also intrinsically reward their athletes through the use of empowerment. For example:

Yes, sometimes I'll get them to do something at the end like the Goggle Challenge! Every now and then, yes. You've got to break the mould and do something different and we used to do one with the boys when we had a new boy into the group, all the lane ropes would come out and it would be like "dive straight down the far end of the pool and go and get it"(Participant 4)

Another participant indicates how there is nothing wrong with rewarding your athletes. Allowing them to realise you understand and care about how they are feeling. For example:

There have been days when I've watched them in the warm-up and I've written a session, and I've gone "That ain't gonna work!" and it would be "Lane ropes out! Get the balls in, get the floats out! Get the inflatable in!" (Participant 4)

In addition participants also state that it is important to reward your athletes to keep them motivated. For example:

People like to be rewarded so if you can make people feel positive about what they've done I think that's OK; but trying to avoid those pitfalls we talked about earlier as well. Because you're right – if you just tell people they're good all the time, athletes really aren't fussed about that. (Participant 1)

All of the participants report that having power over their athletes through the use of rewards is a very useful strategy and can be the key element of keeping someone involved within that particular sport. For example:

Yes, that is what keeps them going, you know, because if they don't feel they have success, in everything with them we have to feel like some success otherwise we're going to quit. We have to keep them involved. (Participant 3)

Another participant explains how this type of power should most definitely be used, but along with the balance of coercion power. For example:

And the other thing is coercion and rewards are basically two sides of the same coin. What you're really trying to do with both is get people to behave in ways that you see as socially acceptable, so reward is a sort of coercion in some ways. (Participant 1)

In addition the other participants indicated how they used intrinsic rewards within their practice. Things such as a weekly diary or individual aims for the athletes are examples of this. For example:

So one thing I try to do is, in the beginning of the season and we do that as the season goes along, if we need to set up some individual aims for the team and see those aims as rewards. (Participant 2)

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This section of the study pursued to discuss the key findings of the research that were identified from the results. Each of French & Raven's (1959) power bases were discussed individually linking with the literature, looking at how each one was utilised and how it had an effect on the relationship between the athlete and the coach.

5.2 Expert power

This type of power has been described as the power that a person may gain through special knowledge or skills he or she may have (Slack, 1997). The key findings relating to this power were, that it could be gained through two methods, one being expert power 'gained from the coaches', through the ability to perform a skill, record of success and knowledge. And the other being expert power being 'gained from the athletes', through the quality in which your athletes perform and the amount of respect that they have for you as the coach (Cassidy, Jones & Potrac, 2004).

Another finding from the results was the importance of how athletes may percept the coach's examples of expert power. It was acknowledged that expert power of a coach is not only based upon his or hers knowledge or background, but of how perceptions of the athletes view that knowledge. So if the athlete perception is greater, then the greater the expert power will also be (Tauber, 1985).

The results showed, it was obvious that expert power was very important when coaches were seeking respect from their athletes. However, the over reliance on this type of power caused consequences and flaws within the coach athlete relationship. Even though it was stated that coaches needed to have the technical and tactical knowledge of their individual sport, it also came apparent from the results that if this was demonstrated incorrectly it would simply have no worth. The expert qualities of the coach needs to be demonstrated through interaction and communication with the athletes, through the use of feedback where the information provided by the coach must be perceived as clearly and continuously relating to improving

performance; otherwise athletes begin to question the coach's value and expertise (Jones, Armour & Potrac, 2004)

5.3 Coercive power

This type of power comes from the ability of one person to punish another (French & Raven, 1959). Coercive power has been typically perceived as a power that causes a greater amount of bad than good. This study has highlighted how coaches utilise this power within coaching practice and showed that coaches felt sometimes it was appropriate to punish their athletes. This ranged from punishment being carried out in a harsh way through ways such as shouting and exercise, or punishment being carried out in a more relaxed way through the use of body language, rules, boundaries and punishment put into a more comical concept.

But in particular it was argued that an overuse of this type of power resulted in a loss of respect for the coach and a decline in the responsiveness of the athletes listening to the coaches advice and instruction. As too much punishment can cause the athletes to think nothing of their coaches causing a breakdown in the relationship (Jones et al, 2004). Some coaches have also felt that not enough coercive power has been used within their coaching environment so it is important to know where the balance lies between how often you punish your athletes.

The results also indicated how the emphasis appears to be on the delivery of this power and athletes perception. Whilst some athletes might deal well with punishment others may not, so it's important to indicate there needs to be a balance depending on the individual. A key finding was that even though it is sometimes acceptable to punish athletes coaches need to sort problems in a more supportive framework, therefore athletes would be more respectful to their coach and willing to accept advice.

5.4 Legitimate power

This is the power that originates from a person's position within a particular social organisation (French & Raven, 1959). It was established from the study that this type of power could also be gained through the same methods as expert power, where it can be gained from the coach and the athlete. Initially the power was suggested as something that you don't actually use, but instead something that you already have. Something as simple as just occupying the role of a coach can give you a significant amount of legitimate power (Thompson, 1998).

This power can also be gained from the coach through the background and experience he or she may have within their individual sport. Which can coincide with expert power, where it has been identified that a greater amount of expert power can increase the effectiveness of legitimate power. A key finding was, that a coach going into a new role with more background experience is more likely to have greater legitimate power, resulting in the athletes having more respect for the coach. Therefore it has been noted that coaches are constantly involved in trying to maintain and enhance their legitimate power bases through the use and development of expert power (Shetty, 1978)

Results also showed that legitimate power could be gained from the athletes. Even though coaches may enjoy having a considerable amount of legitimate power it is down to the future actions of the coach that decide whether this type of power is effective or not. After all, if the athletes don't see the coach, as a good coach then after a while there will be a decrease in the amount of respect the athlete will have for the coach. One key finding of the study was that a good coach didn't have to be perceived as one who was completely knowledgeable in that sport, but if athletes perceived the coach as motivating and inspiring then no legitimate power or respect was lost.

5.6 Referent power

This is the type of power coaches may have, when their athletes desire to be like them (Tauber, 1985). Unlike legitimate power, which is specifically based on a person's position, referent power is more personal as it is the person who is respected not the position. The study highlighted how this can put a large amount of pressure on coaches, as athletes that look up to you and desire to be like you need to follow a good example, meaning the coach is constantly having to act as a role model.

A point was raised where some coaches may not even realise that their athletes are desiring to be like their coach. During the interviews a statement was made where the participant had spoken to a professional coach and he asked:

“Do you empower your athletes?” and I said “Yes, of course I do. I ask them questions and they talk back to me ...” and he said “Well, when they speak back to you, who do they sound like?” and what they do is they say back to you the sorts of things you've said to them.

This statement signified how it is important for coaches to try and be a good role model and to be a fair person that athletes want to spend time with, almost teaching them as well as coaching in how to act professionally within the sporting environment.

Findings also showed that referent power is something that coaches can develop and plan for, as it is not a power that you can have over your athletes straight away. An example of this was highlighted when coaches displayed an ethic social care for their athletes leading to respective referent power bases being maintained, by the coach actually showing athletes that they cared an increase in the respect athletes had for their coach occurred. Athletes felt they could go to their coach as a friend and talk about anything that may be bothering them and in some cases coaches referred the relationship to be like an extended family. When coaches showed athletes that they thought and cared about their well being, a great deal of success was gained in the

working of the relationship between the coach and the athlete (Jones et al, 2004).

However, it was indicated that this type of power should be used with great care. The coaches powerful position when demonstrating care for the athletes has caused the coach to tread carefully during the interactions they have had with their athletes, as sometimes even though it was unintended, coaches can become to involved within the athletes personal life, leading to consequences associated with the athletes physical and mental well being. So even though referent power should be used through caring, coaches need to be aware of the actions they have taken and what the consequences may be if the wrong actions are performed (Jones et al, 2005).

5.7 Reward power

This power can be understood as the power one person has over the other with the use of rewards (Slack, 1997). Two types of procedures were identified during the study, where rewards can be extrinsically or intrinsically gained. Extrinsic rewards have been described as 'tangible rewards', which are things that are external and visible to others. Where as intrinsic rewards are 'intangible rewards' such as recognition from another or a sense of achievement.

A key finding was that external rewards were gained through things such as winning the league, or an event. Coaches couldn't specifically reward athletes with these elements as it was mainly down to the athlete's performance that would determine these rewards being given. But intrinsic rewards were utilised in a big way to have power over the athletes and to keep them motivated within their sport. The study also showed that coaches liked to praise their athletes, as it was a valuable strategy in persuading athletes to believe their individual talents and abilities (Potrac et al, 2002).

This type of power can sometimes be successful and unsuccessful creating an impact on the coach athlete relationship. As findings indicated how and overuse of praise more often than not created problems, highlighting that coaches need to be knowledgeable in how much reward should be delivered and how frequently to each individual athlete works best (Tauber, 1985). Raising the point that some athletes may respond differently to high levels of praise than others (Cushion & Jones, 2001). Athlete's perception has once again been a main subject of concern, as different individuals can perceive praise differently. If the coach gives praise too often, athletes may think its being given cheaply by the coach resulting in it becoming worthless and meaningless to the athlete.

Another form of reward power was taken from the key findings of the study where coaches rewarded their athletes through the use of empowerment. This term comes from the sociological theory, as the process where individuals are given greater control over the decisions that affect their lives (Thompson, 1998). Coaches felt that by allowing the athletes to be active in the process, it gave athletes the opportunity to take leadership and feel respected. Helping create a better working relationship. Examples that were given within the study were things such as allowing athletes to choose an activity they would like to do at the end of the session or taking the lead role. When doing this coaches felt that athletes had higher levels of respect for the coach as they were given freedom to do what they wanted to do feeling valued by their coach.

A further key finding was that this type of power should be used along with a balanced amount of coercive power. As these two types of power have been described as opposites, with the same aim of trying to get your athletes to behave in a certain way. Too much reward can be just as bad as too much punishment so coaches need to know where the fine line is when using both of these types of power sources.

Finally, this discussion has specifically individualised each base of power in order to truly give a better understanding of how each power was used by the coaches involved within the study. It was then determined how the use of these powers may have changed the way in which athletes felt about their coach. It was clear to see from the findings that each power played an important role throughout the process of coaching and each one needed to be used carefully. The work highlighted how the coaches indicated that power could only be gained if athletes found it acceptable. Showing that the process was not simple and power doesn't just come from the positions coaches have within the social structured environment. Instead, they drew upon the fact that the trust and respect athletes showed towards their coaches is never a fixed quality. With the athlete's perceptions of the coach's decisions being the main critical factor of this area. (Jones et al., 2004; Cassidy et al., 2009)

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION

6.0 Conclusion

The study investigated how the five bases of power taken from French and Raven's (1959) five stage typology, was utilised within coaching practice. Ways in which the utilisation of these power bases may have affected the coach athlete relationship were identified. The results of the study were in keeping with the results founded by researchers such as Cassidy, Jones & Potrac (2004) Jones (2009) and Purdy, Cassidy & Jones (2009).

The study signified how coaches needed to be aware that if they were intending on being successful when earning the trust and respect from their athletes, the control they exerted over them through the use of power needed to be utilised effectively. The main key finding of the study was that power is a very important feature of everyday life decisions that an individual may need to take. Which can lead to individuals having to deal with the consequences of their actions if they happened to be the wrong ones, resulting in a break down within the coach athlete relationship.

Results obtained that power should not be a fixed quality that a coach uses when dealing with his or her athlete's, but is something that should be dependent on the choices he or she makes. Suggesting that all of French and Ravens (1959) bases of power should not be used separately by coaches. An over reliance on any of the powers, created a significant change in how the athletes felt about their coach, with a loss of respect being the main consequence. Findings were similar to that of Shetty (1978) who adds to this statement by suggesting that all the different types of power do not work individually and the possession of one type of power may have an affect on how effective another power type may be. For example if reward power and coercive power are used in conjunction effectively, then this can cause a persons legitimate power to increase as a result.

Overall, it is important to realise that coaches need to be sensitive when using any form of power. The control that they have over their athletes is always flexible and limited, highlighting the challenging complex nature of the coaching process. Therefore it is acceptable to believe that coaches need to always consider the ways in which they may be presenting themselves to their athletes through any type of interaction. It would appear that in order for any coach to maintain a respectable relationship with their athlete, power is a very important aspect when achieving this. If power is used accurately, then coaches can expect their relationship with the athlete to be an open and enjoyable one. Where the coach and the athlete both respect one another and the needs of the athlete are truly at the heart of the coach's decisions. If power is not used accurately then athletes become deflated and respect levels for their coach decreases. Causing a break down in the relationship, where the athletes are not willing to accept any advice or perceive their coach as someone worth listening to.

6.1 Limitations of the study

It would be careless to assume that this study has provided any definite findings within this subject area, but it is still important to identify any limitations that came apparent whilst the study was taking place. First of all, the population of the group that was interviewed was relatively small. Only four coaches were interviewed in total so the study should have involved a larger range of participants from different sports to gain better results. Also the study only consisted of looking at how the coach athlete relationship may be affected through the use of power from a coach's perspective. In order to develop a better understanding, the study could have involved looking at it from an athlete's perspective as well.

6.2 Recommendations for future research

Future studies should aim to include more participants within the process to ensure maximum information is achieved. Studies should also look into how power can affect the coach athlete relationship from both perspectives and not just focus on one. Another recommendation would be to not only base the study on one theory such as this one. Studies may want to further their

understanding of power by moving away from French and Ravens (1959)
typology and looking at work carried out by Bourdieu and Foucault.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Cardiff Metropolitan University
Informed Consent Form



CSS Reference No:
Title of Project:
Name of Researcher:

Participants need to fill out and complete this form before participating in the experiment.

- 1) I confirm that I read and understood the information sheet dated 1/5/12 for this evaluation study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactory.
- 2) I understand that my participation is voluntary and that it is possible to stop taking part at any time, without giving a reason.
- 3) I also understand that if this happens, the relationship with the Cardiff Metropolitan University will not be affected.
- 4) I understand that information from the study may be used for reporting purposes of the researcher, however I will not be identified and my information will not be given out to other parties.
- 5) I agree to take part on this study which will commence 3/10/12

Name of Participant:

Signature:

Date:

Name of person taking consent:

Signature of person taking consent:

Date:

* When completed, one copy for participant and one copy for researcher's files.

**APPENDIX B
PARTICIPANT INFORMATION
SHEET**

Participant Information Sheet

This document will provide the participant with the following information upon my investigation:

- 1) The background and aim of the research
- 2) My role as the researcher
- 3) Your role as the participant
- 4) Benefits of taking part during the experiment
- 5) How the data will be collected
- 6) How the data collected will be used by the researcher

Project Title: How coaches use the different types of power and how it can affect the coach athlete relationship.

Aim of the Research: The aim of the research is to interview 4 elite coaches from a range of different sports. By doing this it will come apparent what types of power are mostly used and how it makes the athlete feel about their coach when they are using them. Giving coaches a better understanding of how the different types of power should be used to gain the best possible relationship with their athlete in order to take them as far as possible.

Role as a researcher: My project involves myself as the researcher, and Christian Edwards as my supervisor. My role is to gather the amount of participants required for the study and have an interview made; I will then be present throughout the study and be carrying out the interviews myself. The main responsibilities are to be organised, and collect the data correctly.

Your role as the participant: As the participant, the main role is to turn up to the correct interview at the right time which will be negotiated with you at a further date. You will be asked to come to the interview ready to answer questions as truthfully and precisely as possible. Your information will be kept confidential and your name will remain anonymous.

Benefits of taking part in the experiment: A benefit of being included within this experiment is that you will be able to see how a human study dissertation can be carried out and be part of the research that can create a better understanding of coaching.

How data will be collected: Data will be collected from the answers given by the participants in the interviews.

How the data will be collected by the researcher: in agreeing to become a volunteer in this study, you will be giving me permission to use the answers taken from the interview that you took part in. Your answers will then be compared against other subjects' answers that have also participated in the study. Your personal data will be anonymous and will not be reported.

APPENDIX C INTERVIEW GUIDE

Name of Researcher: Chelsie Yeates

Q1. Could you please state your name and age?

Q2. What sport do you coach?

Q3. How long have you been coaching and to what level would this be?

Q1. With regards to the power sources that relate to French & Ravens (1959) 5 stage typology I am interested to see how these are exercised within your coaching. Firstly I would like to focus on 'expert power'. Slack (1997) has described this power as the power that a person may gain through special knowledge or skills that he or she may possess. Could you tell me how you think that you utilise this type of power within your coaching environment.

Q2. Potrac et al. (2002) states expert power can be gained or lost by a coaches, knowledge, demonstrations of techniques, qualifications, reputation and record of success. Do you as a coach use these types of expert power within your session and do you feel they are effective, please give specific examples?

Q3. Research carried out by Johns & Johns (2000) highlighted how coaches took measures to ensure they avoided situations in which they could dilute their expertise in the eyes of their athletes. For example, some coaches avoided doing demonstrations if they thought that poor execution would result in a loss of respect. Do you think demonstrations make your athletes respect you as their coach?

Q4. Do you class yourself as an expert?

Q5. Do you think this type of power is productive or results in consequences within the coaching environment?

Q6. The next type of power I would like to focus on is 'coercive power' This type of power comes from the ability of one person to punish another (Slack, 1997) Jones et al's (2004) and Potrac et al's (2002) studies identified it was occasionally necessary to give athletes 'a kick up the arse from time to time' (Potrac et al. 2002: 196) Do you agree with this statement? Could you state how you think you may use this specific type of power within your coaching session?

Q7. Do you ever use coercive punishment e.g laps, press-ups etc during coaching? How do you think this may affect your athletes and how they think about you?

Q8. Do you ever shout at your athletes when they do something wrong or when they are misbehaving? Do you think this is good or bad?

Q.9. Do you ever have disagreements with your athletes? If so how do you deal with these situations?

Q10. Jones et al's (2004) and Potrac et al's (2002) studies also argued that an over reliance on punishment more often than not resulted in a loss of respect for the coach and significantly and decrease in the athletes actually listening to the coaches instruction and advice. What is your overall feeling about this type of power? Do you think it is effective and should always be used?

Q.11 The third power taken from French and Ravens (1959) typology is 'Legitimate power'. According to French and Raven (1959) this power also known as positional power, originates from a persons position within a particular social organisation. Rather than relating to any special talents or qualities a person may have. Do you think you have any 'legitimate power' over your athletes?

Q.12 Do you feel like your athletes only listen to you just because you're there coach and do you think that if you were a good coach or not they would still listen to you?

Q.13. Jones et al. (2003 & 2004) stated that although a coach may initially enjoy considerable legitimate power over athletes, it is down to the coaches future actions that decide whether such power is eroded or enhanced. Do you agree with this statement and do you think this is an effective type of power to use?

Q14. Another power I would like to talk about is 'Referent power' Raven (2008) has defined this type of power as seeing the coach as a model that the target would like to emulate. For e.g. one person may say "I really admire my coach and wish to be like him/her. Doing things the way s/he believes they should be done gives me some special satisfaction." Do you think this type of power is important and what type of relationship do you try and create with your athletes, how do you want them to feel about you as their coach?

Q.15. Jones et al study suggested that referent power is something that coaches can develop and plan for. By demonstrating an ethic social care for athletes Jones stated that this can help to maintain respective referent power bases. Do you think your athletes trust you and find you approachable? Do you want them to feel like they can?

Q.16. This power has been known to play an important role within the coaching environment as you are actually showing your athletes that you care and this plays a big part in working a relationship with them. However a recent study by Jones et al (2005) highlighted how great care needs to be taken when utilising this power as careless actions can lead to far-reaching, which is often unintended, consequences that are related to the athletes social and mental well being. How do you as a coach utilise this power?

Q.17. The last type of power I would like discuss is 'Reward power' This can be understood as the power that results in one persons control over the other with rewards (Slack 1997) Do you ever praise your athletes? If so do you think this motivates your athletes and makes them want to work harder?

Q.18. Do you ever reward your athletes after they have performed well within a session and let them choose an activity they may find enjoyable to finish the session on a high?

Q.19. Do you think this may influence how your athlete may feel about you?

Q.20. Potrac et al (2002) believes that reward power is a valuable strategy for persuading athletes to believe their individual talents and abilities. Do you think it is a useful strategy and why?