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Comments	Section		
	Title and Abstract (5%) 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 (25%) 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).		
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	Discussion and Conclusions (30%) ¹ 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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**USING A FOUCAULDIAN LENS TO EXAMINE THE
DISIPLINARY STRATEGIES FOOTBALL COACHES USE
TO GAIN ATHLETE COMPLIANCE**

**(Dissertation submitted under the discipline of
Coaching Science)**

Tomos Birkhead

ST2005025

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STRATEGIES FOOTBALL COACHES USE TO GAIN ATHLETE
COMPLIANCE

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgments	i
Abstract	ii
Chapter one: Introduction	
1.1 Introduction	1
Chapter two: Literature review	
2.1 Purpose and structure	3
2.2 Our current understanding of coaching	3
2.3 Behavioural management and the importance of power	4
2.4 Foucault	7
2.5 Disciplinary power	8
2.6 Compliance gaining strategies	9
Chapter three: Methods	
3.1 Introduction	10
3.2 Qualitative research	10
3.3 Participants	11
3.4 Data collection	11
3.4.1 Participant observation	11
3.4.2 Interview	12
3.5 Data analysis	12
3.6 Trustworthiness	13
3.6.1 Credibility	13
3.6.2 Transferability	13
3.6.3 Dependability	14
3.6.4 Confirmability	14
3.7 Ethics	14

Chapter four: Results and discussion

4.1 Introduction	16
4.2 Overview of results	16
4.3 Building the strategies	17
4.4 Expected behaviour	18
4.5 Communication	18
4.5.1 Personal communication	18
4.5.2 Tone of voice	20
4.6 Normalisation	21
4.7 Surveillance	22
4.8 Session set up	24
4.8.1 Temporal elaboration of the act	24

Chapter five: Conclusion

5.1 Key points	26
5.2 Practical implications	27
5.3 Limitations	27
5.4 Future research	27

References

Reference list	28
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Appendices

Appendix 1	34
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Abstract

This study draws on Foucault's views of disciplinary strategies to examine the approaches football coaches use in an attempt to gain athlete compliance. More specifically, it looks at the effectiveness of the compliance gaining strategies adopted by the three participants involved in the research study. Data was collected first through participant observation, with each participant being observed in three separate episodes of coaching. Subsequently, each coach was interviewed, to provide the opportunity to understand the reasoning for using the strategies as well their opinion on their effectiveness. Ultimately, the study found that when the coaches employed these strategies: *personal communication, normalisation, surveillance* and *temporal elaboration of the act* they were able to gain their athletes' compliance. Coercively when the athletes realised that they were no longer under the *surveillance* of the coach or the tempo of the session had dropped it was evident that the athletes did not comply.

Keywords: *Foucault, compliance gaining strategy.*

CHAPTER 1

1.1 Introduction

The aim of this study is to use a Foucauldian lens to examine disciplinary strategies that football coaches use to gain athlete compliance. As Markula and Pringle (2006) explain, through specific power relations, coaches typically attempt to guide athletes conduct as well as performance. Of course, the power relations that exist are not set in stone and can quickly alter depending on changing alliances and the nature and dynamics of certain scenarios (Danaher *et al.* 2003). Consequently, the ability of coaches to gain athletes' compliance, to have them act and perform the way that they desire, is not a simple task and one that merits further research.

Compliance gaining strategies are said to be the choices that people make when trying to get others to behave in predetermined ways (Rubin, Palmgreen and Sypher, 1994). Coaches can see the task of gaining athlete compliance as daunting, laced with numerous challenges (Thompson and Gilchrist, 2011), this view could be linked to the suggestion that coaches, and even teachers, are not taught behavioural skills as they relate to gaining compliance from those in their charge (Haydn, 2007). So, whilst there may be a range of different strategies and interventions that can be used to gain athlete compliance, the question remains as to what coaches actually do in practice? Part of this study involves identifying the compliance gaining strategies that coaches use, and evaluating the effects these have on both athlete compliance and engagement.

As identified earlier, compliance is intimately related to notions of power. In this study, Foucault's (1979) work has been selected as the central theoretical framework and, in particular, his writings on disciplinary power. Disciplinary power relates to control and discipline of bodies. Whilst Foucault's (1979) study concentrates on the use of disciplinary power in prisons and quarantined areas, the link to sport and coaching seems obvious. This is exemplified through the volume of published works in sport and coaching that have used Foucault's (1979) work to theorise practice (e.g., Rail and Harvey, 1995, Johns and Johns, 2000, Denison, 2007). Shogun (1999) discusses how Foucault describes disciplinary techniques in a way that it comes across as a 'how to' guide for coaches. This suggests that by using Foucault's (1979) work as a framework whilst examining the compliance gaining strategies coaches use could provide better understanding and structure whilst gathering information as well as when discussing the data collected.

Thompson and Gilchrist (2011) explain that through coaches gaining the compliance of athletes it could result in better development and an increase in opportunities for the

athletes. This suggests that by having the athletes behave and perform the way that the coach expects it could improve the athlete's development. Babyak *et al.* (2000) explain the importance of the enforcer of compliance gaining strategies having clear behavioural expectations to be able to implement compliance gaining strategies effectively. Therefore by gaining an understanding of the behaviour coaches expect from their athletes could benefit the study, not only to understand the reasoning behind the use of compliance gaining strategies but also the changes in behaviour the strategies look to achieve. Through further examination and research into compliance gaining strategies as well as topics that surround the study it could improve the knowledge needed to conduct this research project effectively.

As suggested previously, gaining athlete compliance is not a task that coaches' find easy (Thompson and Gilchrist, 2011). Therefore, this study will aim to identify the most effective compliance gaining strategies that the participants use. Another aim is to gain a better understanding of the behaviours that the coaches' would like to see from their athletes. This relates to Babyak *et al.* (2000) work, as they suggest the importance of having clear behavioural expectations when implementing compliance gaining strategies.

CHAPTER 2

Literature review

2.1 Purpose and structure

The aim of this section is to explore and critique topics related to and underpinning an understanding of the disciplinary strategies used to gain athlete compliance. The purpose, then, of this literature review is to develop a better understanding of the subject of interest and to position the current research in relation to the extant literature. To organise the literature review and to help the reader navigate it effectively, it has been split into a number of sub-sections. Firstly, the current understanding of coaching will be examined as the way we understand coaching has important implications for the type of knowledge and research that is valued. There follows a section on behaviour management, drawing on both management and coaching literature, to develop an understanding of this central aspect of this study. Then the following section on moves to the principal theoretical lens used within this study that of power, with Foucault's work on disciplinary power being explored as it relates to this study.

2.2 Our current understanding of coaching

Coaching as a subject has been described in various ways throughout literature, the traditional view of coaching is said to be one that looks at the athlete as a machine (Cassidy et al. 2009), where coaching knowledge is unproblematic and coaches are simply technicians of the transfer of this knowledge (Macdonald et al. 1995). This view of coaching could suggest that it is a rationalistic process that is fairly simple to understand, also by viewing athletes as machines could imply that each athlete responds in the same manner when being coached.

Jones (2006) forwarded a different view of coaching, and explaining that the reality is that coaching is a complex process that involves many variable factors such as power relationships, multiple, often conflicting, goal orientations and athletes' non-linear learning processes. So, whilst Jones (2006) suggested coaching was an ill-defined and under theorised field, he further commented that through examination of the inherent uncertainty of the activity it might be possible to provide interesting outcomes. According to this view, coaching situations consistently carry some form of novelty as new challenges are introduced each time a coach is in action. Cushion (2007) mentions that by reducing coaching to rules and processes, things become hugely problematic as it does not prepare coaches' for these new challenges and the unpredictable nature of coaching. An example of the unpredictability within coaching in sport is the behaviour of the athlete. Traditional

views, as mentioned above, look at the athlete as a machine, but as Salmela (2000) explains, each athlete develops in their own way and participates as a result of different motives and carries different goals. This enforces the view that all athletes are different and provide an element of unpredictability to coaching, which is very similar to the unpredictability that teachers are faced with when dealing with individual students within a classroom (Cvetek, 2008).

There has been much debate over the connection between coaching and teaching, traditionally there has been a divide between the two (Jones et al 2013). However, recently more and more has been made of coaching being a form of teaching, Jones et al. (2004) capture how Graham Taylor, former England manager, considers coaching as a form of teaching where a combination of simple and concise communication and a positive coach-athlete relationship creates best learning. Gilbert and Trudel (2001) also express that the way coaches constantly reflect and care over those they are responsible for mirrors the way teachers act, suggesting that coaching has a real connection with teaching. Another similarity that has been highlighted in recent years is the position of behavioural management as one of the dominant aspects of teaching and coaching (Jones et al. 2013). It is suggested that through using behavioural management strategies effectively it could improve athlete learning, but as Jones et al. (2013) explain applying it effectively is not always straight forward.

2.3 Behaviour management and the importance of power

Teachers and coaches are said to often feel challenged by student or athlete behaviour and behaviour management issues, creating a possible problem as the choices made surrounding behaviour management have an effect on student behaviour and development (Shook, 2012). Difficulties dealing with student discipline is said to be one of the strongest contributors to 20% of new teachers leaving the profession within the first year (Voke, 2002), putting a huge emphasis on the need to understand behaviour management and how to implement it effectively. As a result, there is plenty written throughout literature around this subject.

Swainston (2007) mentions that getting the basics of the effective behaviour management right it provides teachers with the ability to make an even bigger difference in the lives of students. Through taking this view Swainston (2007, p.9) created a 'Golden Diamond of behaviour management effectiveness', which aims to provide teachers with a multi-faced framework to form a solid foundation to build on their effectiveness (Swainston 2007). The

diamond is split into two triangles. The first triangle is surrounded by three qualities that allegedly have a positive influence when being an effective behaviour manager:

- “bringing about order (from regular and unpredictable chaos)”
- “setting meaningful limits”
- “displaying firmness, fairness and kindness”

(Swainston, 2007,p.5).

By looking at this first triangle it is clear that these qualities could have great influence in becoming an effective behaviour manager. But as Swainston (2007) explains these outcomes cannot just happen by chance, they need to be constantly worked at and take plenty of planning and flexibility. It is clear that these qualities could be useful when managing behaviour, but there is no description or advice on how to implement these qualities. The second triangle suggests three qualities needed to become a “caring behaviour manager” (Swainston, 2007 p.7) and to create an environment where students are:

- “Valued as individuals”
- “Respected”
- “Motivated to learn”

(Swainston, 2007 p.6).

Through being able to build this form of environment it could create a strong relationship between the teacher and student. Which as explained by Swainston (2007) makes it easier for behaviour management to be effective. It could be suggested that the issue with this framework is that it does not go into detail of how to create this environment or gain these qualities. It only seems to outline the desired outcomes that teachers or coaches would like to achieve.

Another theory used to tackle behaviour management is the ‘behavioural approach’ (Lavay et al. 1997). This approach looks at the link of the behaviour being changed due to actions occurring before this behaviour, and the consequences that will occur after the behaviour (Lavay et al. 1997). To describe the theory Lavay et al. (1997) explains it with 4 sequential steps:

1. Select and define the behaviour
2. Observe and record the behaviour
3. Implement the behavioural intervention
4. Evaluate the behavioural intervention.

The first step is critical as it is the stage of identifying the behaviour and deciding whether it is a “behaviour you wish to develop, increase, maintain, or decrease” (Lavay et al. 1997, p.37). This is an important step as it has a huge effect on determining the interventions used. The second step involves observing and recording the information to create the best plan of action. This is done by looking for patterns in the behaviour as it occurs (Lavay et al. 1997). By viewing the first two steps it is apparent that the effectiveness of this strategy relies on accurate interpretation of behaviour, also the implementers perception of correct behaviour has a huge influence. Through collecting the information from the first two steps it leads to implementing the behavioural intervention. Levey et al. (1997) describe this as the heart of the behavioural plan, and if the desired outcome is to develop, maintain or increase behaviours the use of pleasant consequences or reinforces will do this. If the desired outcome is to decrease inappropriate behaviour, unpleasant consequences or punishments should do this (Lavay et al. 1997). The final stage is to evaluate the behavioural intervention and the effect it had on the athletes’ behaviour by doing this it could provide sufficient information on the usefulness of the intervention and to help understand if it is a strategy that should be used again or if further interventions are needed. This approach has the potential to be beneficial as it has the ability to build upon behaviours as well as the ability to adapt behaviours. On the other hand it is a difficult task to be able to develop and maintain a behavioural plan that will work effectively and change the behaviour or performance of athletes or students for the long term (Lavay et al. 1997).

The ability to implement or apply these behaviour management approaches are connected to the notion of power. Tauber (1985) explained that people must consent to power being used on them before that power can be effective, suggesting that behavioural management approaches are useless without the implementer having the power to do so. Jones (2010) explains that coaches do not consider that power is given to them. He states it is only as a result of their position in the social structure as the coach, but the ‘trust’ and ‘respect’ that athletes demonstrate to them is a result of their decision making and their actions. This relates to the behaviour management approaches above as both emphasise on making the correct decisions and actions to have best effect. Being able to identify the

most effective decisions and actions could have a great impact on behaviour management and the way that it is implemented. But as mentioned earlier each situation could provide a new challenge this creates difficulty when approaching this area.

2.4 Foucault

Using Foucault's (1979) work is relevant for this study as he suggests the notion of surveillance from a hierarchical body such as a prison guard, teacher or in this case a coach, as a way to create change in a person's behaviour. Johns et al. (2000) suggested that Foucault's (1979) view allows the examination of disciplinary power and the effect it has on coaches and athletes. Therefore, by using Foucault's (1979) framework it will be possible to investigate the use of disciplinary strategies by coaches and their effectiveness in gaining athlete compliance. This is possible even though Foucault (1979) makes no mention of sport when he discusses his theories of disciplinary power. Foucault (1979, p18) instead focuses on disciplinary power within the prison and the way disciplinary strategies have changed through time. He mentions that disciplining has become a strategy to neutralize the prisoners' state of mind and to alter their criminal tendencies. This concept could be seen as the goal for coaches, attempting to change athlete behaviour to gain their compliance and re-enforcing behaviour to their desired norm. Therefore, having an understanding of the coaches' desired norms is important for this study as it could give an indication on the effect of the compliance gaining strategies used.

Many have used Foucault's frameworks within their sport studies. Denison (2007) uses Foucault's views on disciplinary power to analyse the effects of discipline on one of his athletes who has underperformed. He used the framework to analyse his own performance as a coach and the effect it had on the athlete. Demonstrating the importance of not only to analysing the athletes performance and behaviours but also the coaches behaviours and strategies and the effect they have on the athlete. As well as this Denison (2007) used Foucault's work to outline the power-relationships within coaching context, relating to the notion of the coaches position of surveillance as a result of their experience and expertise. This links well with the suggested study as coaches will be analysed as the surveyors of the athletes and the power-based strategies they use.

Johns and Johns (2000) also use Foucault's framework to investigate the power-relationships within the coaching context in their research examining the dietary intake of athletes. Johns et al. (2000) explain that eating disorders are common within female sports (gymnastics, diving and figure skating), where body image and the subjectivication of the

body shapes the ethic of what it means to be an athlete. This leads to the investigation of Foucault's framework and concept of disciplinary power and its relationship to sport (Johns et al. 2000). They suggest that it is possible to examine the "connection as a discourse of expertise that legitimizes the preparation of athletes and uses power coercively to ensure a compliant and passive participant" (Johns et al. 2000, p220). This suggests that it is important to examine the connection between expertise and the power that comes with it to produce a compliant athlete. This is relevant to the suggested study as it demonstrates how being in a position of power can enhance a coach's ability to gain athlete compliance. On the other hand it does not look at the compliance gaining strategies.

2.5 Disciplinary power

Power is seen as the relationship where the actions some take help to guide 'the possible field of actions of others' (Foucault, 1983, p.221). Jones et al. (2010) explain that power is not something that is grasped, shared or something that can be lost or kept a hold of. This implies that power is always present 'even in our day-to-day interactions' (Jones et al. 2010, p.136), and it can be used as a way to gain the compliance of others. It is suggested that disciplinary power is realized by technologies of surveillance, rendering the employee (in this case the athlete) an object to be known and calculated, which enables management (in this case the coach) to distribute punishment and reward (Bergström et al. 2009). This gives an idea of how disciplinary power works, although, again the strategies that are used to apply disciplinary power are not explained.

Compliance gaining is "any interaction in which a message source attempts to induce a target individual to perform some desired behaviour that the target otherwise might not perform" (Wilson, 2002, p. 4). Petty et al. (2004) explain that compliance gaining is common in human interaction as individuals commonly enact resistance. This could be said about the situation football coaches find themselves in, as athlete behaviour can be un-desirable to the coach. Markula et al. (2006) explain that a coach and their athletes exist in a specific power relation, were the coach tries to guide the athlete's performance and behaviour the way that they desire, through developing different strategies. It is then suggested that even with the use of strategies the athlete is still relatively 'free' to decide on their own actions and whether or not they will continue to be coached. Through understanding that athletes' have the power to behave freely suggests the importance of the quality of the compliance gaining strategies. Thus by examining the different strategies used by coaches to gain the compliance of their athletes it could provide beneficial information.

2.6 Compliance gaining strategies

Previous papers examining the strategies used to gain compliance have looked at many different strategies. Marwell et al. (1967) analysed 16 different power-based compliant gaining strategies such as pre-giving (where the influencer rewards the target before requesting compliance) and aversive stimulation (which involves the influencer continuously punishing the target until they are compliant). Marwell et al. (1967) analysed these strategies from an educational view, and explained that the power-based compliance-gaining strategies are set within five dimensions. The dimensions consist of: a) rewarding activity in the form of pre-giving and promise making; b) punishing the activity; c) both positive and negative expertise, leading to punishment or reward depending on the situation; d) positive and negative activation of impersonal commitments by appealing to positive and negative esteem; e) activation of personal commitments. The study proposes that if a coach attempts to gain athlete compliance they select specific strategies from these five dimensions (Marwell et al. 1967). It also suggests that a compliance gaining technique used with one athlete may not have the same effectiveness with another athlete (Thompson et al. 2011). It could be suggested that if a coach were to gain an understanding of each of their athletes', they would be able to identify the strategy best suited for them.

Having the understanding that each athlete who resists compliance is unique (Watt et al. 2001) and that if athletes comply with their coach it could be advantageous for them (Thompson et al. 2011). It suggests that examining the different strategies used by coaches to gain athlete compliance could provide beneficial information. Also using a Foucauldian lens to examine these disciplinary strategies provides a reliable framework, as it applies to systems of power over individuals (Rail et al. 1995). Through reviewing literature around the subject it is clear that Foucault's framework allows the examination of the power-relationships within the coaching context (Denison 2007). Therefore by conducting the suggested study: Using a Foucauldian lens to examine disciplinary strategies football coaches use to gain athlete compliance, could provide beneficial information for coaches looking to gain athlete compliance, as well as bring a better understanding of the use of power within the coaching context.

CHAPTER 3

Methods

3.1 Introduction

The following chapter will look at the methods and precautions used to collect the data for this study. Areas such as the reasoning behind using a qualitative approach, data collection and data analysis process as well as examining ethical issues and trustworthiness of the process. Through discussing these areas this chapter should provide an understanding of the methods and the process surrounding this study.

3.2 Qualitative research

Through using a qualitative research approach for the study it provides a humanistic or idealistic approach to the research query (Pathak *et al.* 2013). This could be seen as being a beneficial approach as it provides the opportunity to understand participants' beliefs, attitudes and interactions in regards to the subject (Pathak *et al.* 2013). This suggests that it could be possible to gain a better understanding of the participants view and the way that they approach gaining the compliance of their athletes. Qualitative research methods can provide a better understanding by (for example) capturing unique quotes and observations which emulate the beliefs and feelings of the participants, when describing certain experiences (Martin, 2011). Therefore by observing coaches and having them be interviewed this study could provide unique data surrounding the strategies that coaches use to gain athlete compliance.

Qualitative research is said to ensure researchers with the ability to capture reality more accurately, as a result of quotes and capturing participant opinions and experiences (Martin, 2011). Therefore, using a qualitative approach for this study could be beneficial through providing increasingly insightful results. O'Toole (2010), mentions that qualitative research's aim is to build descriptions and explanations around a certain environment. It is also said that qualitative research focus is aimed at the complex, messy and unpredictable contributions to the outcomes of social interactions (Hastie and Hay, 2012). This complements the nature of this study as the coaching process is seen as being complex and unpredictable in nature (Jones, 2006).

3.3 Participants

The participants for this study were three football coaches that held at least a level 1 coaching qualification in this sport. They coach players that range from 5 to 12 years old and play at a foundation level of ability. All three coaches' were observed and interviewed during the research process.

3.4 Data collection

3.4.1 Participant observation

To collect sufficient data each coach was observed once a week for an hour across a period of 3 weeks. As the objective of the study is to examine the disciplinary strategies that these coaches use to gain athlete compliance using a Foucauldian lens, the participant observations were conducted deductively as well as inductively. Hyde (2000) describes deductive reasoning as a theory testing process, using an existing theory to discover if it applies to specific instances. Foucault's (1975) theory provided an initial guide to the strategies that would be looked for during the participant observation. During the observation process a list of strategies that derive from Foucault's (1975) work was present, which enabled the examination of the coaches' actions according to Foucault's (1975) theory. The list was comprised of these key words and phrases:

- *Enclosure*- confinement within areas, for example a prison.
- *Partitioning*- a more subtle use of space than enclosure, dividing subjects from each other to prevent solidarity.
- *Rank*- arrangement into classes, groups, hierarchies of subjects within a system.
- *Timetable*- the agenda of the session designed to establish rhythms.
- *The temporal elaboration of the act*- the rhythm and timespan of each activity within the timetable.
- *Exhaustive use*- the efficient employment of time, the elimination of laziness and a means of ensuring that subjects do not have the energy to pursue non-productive endeavours.
- *Normalisation*- social process in which ideas and actions are seen as 'normal'.
- *Surveillance*- gaining compliance by the means of observation from the coach.

(Foucault, 1975).

It is also important to understand that during the observations the strategies above were not the only strategies that were monitored and recorded, as this could have limited the observations and the results that arose from the observations.

3.4.2 Interview

Once the field notes were collected the next stage of data collection was the interview process. The interviews were semi structured with 3 main topics: 1. The coaches history and experience 2. desired athlete behaviour 3. the strategies they use to gain athlete compliance, as the interview was semi structured it allowed probing for more information and clarification on answers (Barriball and White, 1994). Each participant was interviewed separately and equipped with example questions two days before the interview, this gave them the opportunity to ask any questions surrounding the topics as well as giving them time to think about their relevant experiences. Before the interviews took place the participants were briefed with the aims of the interview as well as the interview protocol. They were also asked to answer questions honestly and to ask if they did not entirely understand a question, each participant was informed that their identity would be kept confidential and names of their athletes would not be used within the study. All interviews were recorded with a Dictaphone, making it possible to transcribe the interviews once they were recorded for analysis purposes.

3.5 Data analysis

It is said that data analysis is the most complex and mysterious of all the phases of qualitative research (Thorne, 2000). Therefore this stage of the study was closely monitored. Content analysis was used to analyse the data collected. This is a commonly used method for analysing written, visual or verbal information (Cole, 1988). Using a deductive content analysis approach to analyse the transcripts and field notes allowed the key experiences that related to Foucault's (1975) perspective to be highlighted. Once these were highlighted the data was analysed once again using an inductive approach. Silverman (2013) explains that it could be beneficial to use various methods of data analysis. Inductive analysis is the process of organizing the qualitative data through open coding, creating categories and headings (Elo and Kyngas, 2008). Combining deductive analysis and inductive analysis allowed the key findings related to Foucault's (1975) theory to be highlighted as well as any other important categories that were found within the transcripts and field notes.

The data analysis resulted in the development of five main themes; *communication, session set-up, rank, normalisation and surveillance*. Communication being, any form of communication the participants used or described to attempt to gain their athletes compliance. Session set-up highlighted the strategies that were used through the design of the sessions and the coaches' use of space. When the participants' attempted to gain athlete compliance by giving out responsibilities or dividing the group into classes this was coded as rank. Normalisation was registered when the coaches' used different processes to generate norms within their sessions. Lastly the data was coded as surveillance if the coaches attempted to gain their athletes compliance through monitoring their athletes'.

3.6 Trustworthiness

To generate sound research a systematic and rigorous approach to the design and implementation of the study, the collection of the data and how that data is interpreted, needed to be adopted (Fossey et al. 2002). Through considering Lincoln and Guba (1985) criteria for assessing trustworthiness (credibility, transferability dependability and conformability) during the design and implementation of this study, it shaped an increasingly trustworthy piece of research.

3.6.1 Credibility

Lincoln and Guba (1985) explain that credibility is the precautions that the researcher has made to establish confidence in the truth of the findings for the subjects and the context in which the study was undertaken. By taking this into consideration it was important to make sure that each participant had the opportunity to read the transcripts as well as the field notes that were collected, to be able to confirm that they adequately represented those experiences. The participants signed a slip that confirmed that they felt the information correctly represented those experiences.

3.6.2 Transferability

Transferability is described as the degree to which findings can be applied to other contexts (Krefting, 1991). It has been suggested that the ability to generalize within qualitative research is not relevant, as each qualitative research study has its own identity (Sandelowski, 1986). Lincoln and Guba (1985) mention that transferability is more the responsibility of the researcher that wants to transfer the information to a different field or population. Therefore by writing and presenting the information clearly in the results and

discussion sections, in a way that allows there to be comparison this addresses the issue of transferability.

3.6.3 Dependability

Lincoln and Guba (1985) stress that variability is expected within qualitative research, the concept of dependability implies to the variability that can be tracked. Through making sure that each participant was analysed using the same format and each interview used the same semi structured interview guide, provided a level of consistency whilst collecting the information. Therefore there was the opportunity to delve deeper into topics of interest, but each participant has still engaged with the same process.

3.6.4 Confirmability

This is the consideration that the findings derive solely from the participants and the conditions of the research and not from other biases, motivations or perspectives (Lincoln and Guba 1985). By taking each quote or description of an experience directly from the transcripts and the field notes this should represent the participants' views justly within the results and discussion sections. Of course these findings will be interpreted and viewed from the researcher's point of view but these findings are taken only from the transcripts and field notes that the participants have confirmed to be an appropriate representation of their experiences.

3.7 Ethics

"Ethical considerations are paramount in all research from its design to conclusion", (Fossey et al. 2002 p.723). This statement outlines the importance of ethics when designing and conducting research of any kind. During the process of designing and implementing this study two foundational ethical principles were considered, firstly to treat the participants in an appropriate acceptable manor and secondly the historically recent development of the notion of rights (Harrison and Rooney, 2012). This second principle enforces the fact that the participants have rights, they have the right to be appropriately informed about the nature, outcome and impact of the research as well as having the option to withdraw at any time (Harrison and Rooney, 2012). By taking this into consideration each participant was informed before the process began with information sheets, which outlined the aims and procedures of the study as well as what would be asked of them during the process. It was also made clear that they could ask questions regarding the process at any time and they were able to withdraw from the process at any

point. To confirm that they agreed with the process and were willing to take part they signed a confirmation sheet.

Another important ethical factor that needed to be considered during this study was the element of having the consent from other vulnerable populations, as the coaches were not the only population being observed. The other population being the players that were being coached, therefore getting the consent from themselves and their parent/guardian was crucial to uphold the ethical value of the study (Harrison and Rooney, 2012). Through providing the players and parents/guardians with similar information sheets they were able to see that their identities would not be compromised at any point during the process. Also giving them the opportunity to ask any questions and having the knowledge that they could withdraw at any stage of the process.

CHAPTER 4

Results and Discussion

4.1 Introduction

The first section of the chapter provides an overview of the results, outlining the key research findings. The next section focuses on the compliance gaining strategies used by the participants and explains the player behavioural norms expected by the participants. Following will be a further discussion of four of the five themes that occurred from the analysis; *communication, normalisation, surveillance and session set up*.

4.2 Overview of results

Deductive and inductive analysis of the data collected from the field notes and interviews conducted on the three participants resulted in 251 units. The units were then divided between five main themes, 14 categories and two subcategories. The five main themes were *communication, session set up, normalisation, rank and surveillance*. These themes represent the strategies the coaches used or described to gain their athletes' compliance.

The most common theme that was used or mentioned by the coaches was *communication*, which occurred 90 times. There were eight different categories of *communication* used or mentioned by the coaches; these were *body language, challenge, humour, incentive, personal communication, positive reinforcement, questioning* and *tone of voice*. *Personal communication* was the most frequently used code within the *communication* theme.

Session set up appeared as the second most common theme, and included five categories: *timetable, temporal elaboration of the act, partitioning, enclosure* and *exhaustive use*. *Temporal elaboration of the act* was often used by the coaches as a way to increase the tempo of the session and to give their player less time to get distracted from the task. An example of this comes from the observations made on participant A, "Participant A' begins the next drill and makes sure the players are constantly moving quickly, and have no chance to talk to each other". Similar instances throughout the observations and interviews occurred and will be further discussed later in this section.

Another common theme that occurred from the interviews and observations was *normalisation*. This strategy was registered 46 times and used by all three of the participants on a number of occasions. The results also show that *normalisation* techniques often had a positive impact in terms of securing compliance. For example, when participant B, "Uses the side line as a point to gather everyone. Once he asks

everyone to get there, they do and seem ready to listen". There were a few instances when it did not have the desired effect, but the majority resulted with a positive outcome. *Surveillance* was also a common theme throughout the results, again with mostly positive outcomes from its use. When *surveillance* resulted in a negative reaction from the athletes it was mostly down to a lack of *surveillance*, an example of this came from observing participant C:

As the groups are split up into 4 different stations spread across the playing area, 'participant C' is only able to concentrate on 1 group, the other 3 groups suffer as players play up and don't comply as 'participant C' is not watching them.

This is an example of a lack of *surveillance* contributing to the players not complying. Further discussion of these findings will be made later in this section.

Rank is the last main theme to come from the results, it was the theme that occurred least throughout the analysis. Although it was rarely mentioned or used, when it was applied the results were often positive. This suggests that through giving responsibility to athletes it can increase their awareness of their responsibilities and encourage them to comply (Crozier et al. 2013).

It is important to understand that the participants were not aware of Foucault (1975) theories of creating docile bodies, or the notion of surveillance and normalisation. Therefore the coaches did not intently use Foucauldian (1975) strategies within their sessions.

4.3 Building the strategies

Each participant was asked about how they learnt to use the compliance gaining strategies that they use. All three of the participants' answers were related to learning through experience. Participant A explained that through being the recipient of bad practice provided him with the knowledge to know what does not work when attempting to gain athlete compliance:

A: Maybe the bad coaches in a way. Along the way, sort of learning not to do that, not to scream and shout in someone's face, not to have that fear factor. Even at high standards there are a lot of coaches that have people doing sit-ups, press-ups as punishments. And then that compliance of behaviour will not come, that kid will just shy away.

Instead of learning from experience as a player, like participant A, participant B feels as though his experience as a coach and taking part in coaching courses is what has helped him develop his compliance gaining strategies:

B: I think as a player I never really noticed it (using a set area to gather everyone) but I'm sure my coaches used it. It's through kind of other coaches or learning about coaches, doing the level 1s and 2s and things like that. I think it's spending more time with coaches you pick up things like that.

Participant C has a similar view on how he develops these strategies, in the sense that he has learnt through his experience as a coach, "C: It's more trial and error really, you try things and if they don't work then you don't pursue them". This suggests that personal experience has had a large impact on the way the participants have come to use these compliance gaining strategies. As well as coaching courses, in the case of participant B's experience.

4.4 Expected behaviour

As a result of the interviews the way in which the participants expected their athletes to behave was evident. Each participant stated that they expected their athletes to listen during their sessions, "B: Obviously the listening factor is a big thing. Erm, it would be nice to know that when I talk to them they, definitely listen". As well as this participant C expressed that he would like to think that each athlete was there because they wanted to play and wanted to learn, "C: I'd expect players to ideally turn up wanting to play football, they're here to play football, they want to learn". These expectations and desired behaviours are important as they shape when and how the participants attempt to use different compliance gaining strategies (Lavay and Henderson, 1997).

4.5 Communication

4.5.1 Personal communication

Each participant used different types of communication throughout their sessions to attempt to gain their athletes compliance. As was mentioned earlier, personal communication appeared as the most popular category during the analysis. This refers to the coach communicating with an individual as opposed to more than one athlete. Participant A mentions that by getting to know each individual athlete they will be more likely to comply during his sessions:

A: It's just, get to know your players so much that you don't just scream and shout at them, or you don't talk to them in the wrong way. If you know their background then you can adapt the way you coach and the way you want them to comply in your training sessions.

Each participant successfully gained their athletes compliance through getting to know them, most often this was a strategy used at the start of the session as they waited to begin, "As soon as the players walk into the session participant B uses names and talks to each player, asking about school and other things that they had done throughout the week. The players seem to appreciate this".

Jowett (2005) explained that to create a positive coach-athlete relationship and gain the athletes' co-operation the coach must show the desire to understand the athletes' meaning and feelings. Foucault (1975) explains how individual criminals' internal nature is supervised in order to neutralise anti-social instincts. This suggests that getting to know their athletes on a personal level will help a coach gain an understanding of how to neutralise their athletes' inappropriate behaviour and gain their compliance. An example of this could be, knowing not to "scream and shout at them" to try and gain their compliance because they might not react to "shouting" in a positive way. On the other hand a coach might learn that the way to get a certain athlete to comply is to shout at them. That is why getting to know individual athletes and their personalities could be beneficial when attempting to gain their compliance. Also Jowett and Cockerill (2003) explain that by doing this it could have a significant effect on the athletes' performance, therefore by gaining a better understanding of their individual athletes it could improve their performance and in effect their learning.

It should be mentioned that as a coach of team sports, it could be difficult to get to know each individual athlete in a way that could prove beneficial. Also, as participant 'A' explains, the age of the athlete can become a barrier as they could find it difficult to interact with new people:

A: Some kids maybe delay that interaction straight away. Some of them don't want you to interact with them, they might have that fear of, "I don't want to talk to this guy, I'll just say yes or no". That's quite an obstacle to get around because some kids don't want to interact.

It could be argued that this tests the ability of the coach to be able to make the athlete comfortable enough to interact, and comply during a session. Bortoli et al. (1995)

support this by stating that a coaches' behaviour, attitude and the way they communicate strongly influence a young athletes' experience. They further explain that a coach that is able to interact with their young athletes well tend to be able to create more motivation for the athlete to perform, also their co-operation levels seem to increase. Suggesting that if an athlete is reluctant to interact with a coach, good personal communicational skills could break down such barriers and increase the athletes willingness to comply with the coach.

4.5.2 Tone of voice

The second most common category that derived from the communication theme was tone of voice. This refers to the coaches changing their tone of voice to attempt to gain their athletes' compliance. More often than not raising their voices to the athletes did not work effectively as a way to gain their compliance, for example "Participant B attempts to stop the drill by shouting. Some players stop but most carry on playing around. It takes participant B a minute or so of shouting to get them to listen as a group". This is one example of the players not complying after participant B raised his voice numerous times, similar instances occurred during participant A and C's sessions. It was clear that when the coaches took a calm approach with their athletes they were more likely to comply with them, "Participant A asks the players in a calm but firm tone to put one foot on the ball and to listen. This works well as they all have one foot on the ball and they seem ready to listen". Participant C explained how he used a whistle as a substitute for shouting, as he realised that shouting was not an effective compliance gaining strategy:

C: If they're not listening to you. Like I said when I've forgot my whistle, then if you just shout at them, you know for next time you have to bring your whistle. Otherwise just shouting isn't going to get you anywhere and you're going to be there for ages trying to get them to listen.

These results suggest that a coach that communicates in a calm and controlled manner has a better chance of gaining athlete compliance than a coach that raises his or her voice at their athletes. Cowley (2012) explains that if a coach raises their voice it prompts the athletes to continue to misbehave. Reasons being, when children see their coach becoming defensive through shouting, they are thought to see this as 'winning', which encourages them to continue misbehaving. Therefore a coach that refuses to get wound up and stays calm will be able to gain compliance much more effectively, also it encourages the athletes to remain calm (Cowley, 2012, Swainston 2007). Lavay and Henderson (1997) agree that it is important for a coach to keep calm to gain compliance,

but they state that it is also important for a coach to be firm. By being firm when dealing with inappropriate behaviour the athlete can understand that the coach disapproves of this behaviour. This combination of being calm but firm evidently works for participant A in the example above.

4.6 Normalisation

Normalisation was used by each participant to successfully gain their athletes' compliance almost every time it was used. Participant B's coaching sessions featured normalisation rather heavily. The most dominant and frequent way normalisation was used within his sessions was the use of the side line as a gathering point for the athletes:

B: The big thing is definitely to have a set place that the kids know that when they go there they know it's the time to listen. In the case of my coaching it's when you go to the side line you're there and after each kind of drill you say, "go for a drink and back to the side line." Like it's every time when they're on the side line they know to stand there or they sit there, and for any reason if they have anything with them for example if they have their water bottle with them, they put that on the floor and they know that that's the place that they stand to listen, listen to instruction.

This was clearly an effective strategy for participant B to gain his athletes compliance time after time, "Participant B uses the side line as a boundary and a point to gather everyone. Once he asks everyone to get there, they do and seem ready to listen", it was clear that this was a strategy that was used every session, "Uses the line again to get everyone in one place. Everyone immediately listens. Clearly works every time".

It is evident that once the athletes were asked to go to the side line, they would almost instantly every time. Once they had gathered there they would be quiet looking at their coach and ready to listen. This was the norm and it seems to work as a way to gain the athletes' compliance. By creating this norm it influenced the athletes through almost prohibiting them from talking or doing anything but listening and sitting still whilst on the side line (Foucault, 1975). This effectively creates docile bodies (Foucault, 1975). Jardine (2005) explains that these norms act as a way to produce the expectations of what each athlete must be. In this case the norm allows the coach to have the time to explain drills and provide information that could improve learning without being interrupted as the athletes comply and listen. Therefore the use of normalisation as a compliance gaining strategy works effectively. The data analysis also suggests that it was one of the most consistently successful compliance gaining strategies.

On the rare occasion the athletes would not comply with the expected norms when asked to gather on the side line, "Participant B shouts to get everyone on the line. Everyone runs and sits on the line. Some are talking and messing around. It takes longer than usual to get their attention". Jardine (2005) states that even in an environment where individuals are systematically trained to comply to norms, some individuals still differ in their willingness to comply with these norms. As a result of these individuals not complying with the norms Foucault (1975) suggests that they are categorised and classified by the person who is implementing the norms (the coach). When participant B registers that some individuals are not complying he categorises them as individuals that are not listening and will not be able to answer his questions:

B: The difference between those kids that are sitting listening on the line to those that are just standing in the space that you are giving instruction to, those that are just standing mucking about inevitably haven't listened and aren't able to answer the questions. Whereas those that are sitting down will have a better understanding of what you are asking of them.

Foucault (1975) names this normalizing judgment. This is explained as a small judgment and punishment method which seeks to shape normative behaviour. Sinden (2010) explains that coaches use physical punishments such as push ups, or in the case of participant B using minor humiliations to attempt to shape normative behaviour. Participant B could be seen to slightly humiliate those who, as he described were 'mucking about', by asking them questions even though he expects them to not be able to answer. This arguably could be a negative way to treat those athletes, as it could discourage them from answering questions in the future (Stratton, 2005). Therefore, although normalisation works as an effective strategy to gain athlete compliance, shaping that normative behaviour could be seen as damaging to the athletes personal development.

4.7 Surveillance

Surveillance was a very prominent strategy used by the participants within their coaching sessions, regularly providing successful outcomes. Here is an example from observations made on participant C, "When he spots some individuals acting up he looks at them and he has an immediate response, as they stop messing around and continue with the drill". This demonstrates the success surveillance can have as a compliance gaining strategy. Foucault (1975) explains that surveillance has the ability to make those who are being monitored to conform to the behaviours that are desired, in case they are punished. This

seemed to be the outcome as the participants used surveillance in their sessions, “Participant B starts to explain the drill to the players but he is stood quiet far away from the players, and they do not seem to be listening. Therefore he moves closer, they realise his presence and listen”. This demonstrates how surveillance has the ability to allow coaches to gain their athletes’ compliance, and change their initial behaviour.

As mentioned in the overview of results, lack of surveillance during each of the participants coaching sessions resulted with the athletes playing up, “Participant A sends half the players to one corner of the pitch and the other half to the opposite corner. He walks over to one group with his back turned to the other, they notice and play around”, another example came from observations made on participant B, “One player stands in the way of another player and begins to complain, participant B asks her to move, she does initially but when she realises his focus isn’t on her anymore she returns to stand in the way”. These examples show that lack of surveillance provoked individuals as well as groups to act un-accordingly.

Jardine (2005) suggests that occasionally when attempting to prevent misbehaviour by using surveillance, it instead leads to misbehaviour. Once the coaches turned their backs on the players and took that surveillance away, this triggered misbehaviour. Foucault (1975) describes the architectural design of the Panopticon prison as a circular building with a lit tower in the centre in which a supervisor could see into every cell, but those in the cells could not see into the tower. Therefore they never knew if they were being watched. In this case as the prisoners were constantly aware they might be being watched they developed, as Foucault recognised, an internal ‘gaze’ and regulated their behaviour to an acceptable standard (Lang, 2010). The obvious difference between the idea of surveillance within the Panopticon prison and the surveillance within the participants’ sessions is that the prisoners within the cells were under constant surveillance, constantly aware that they were being monitored. The athletes within the participants coaching sessions were not under such constant surveillance, consequently resulting in the athletes challenging the coaches’ desired behaviour once they saw his back turned:

Participant C mentions that players throwing the ball won't be played at the end. Some test this by throwing the ball when participant C's back is turned. He turns and gives a disappointed facial expression which has an immediate impact. As players stop throwing the ball and their smiles are not visible anymore.

Through analysing surveillance as a compliance gaining technique, it is clear that it has the ability to ensure a compliant athlete (Johns and Johns, 2000). Although the results suggest that once the athletes realise that they are no longer being watched they misbehave. Jardine (2005) explains that through teaching children to 'self-asses' and to 'self-monitor' their own behaviour it could lead to preventing them from misbehaving. This is done through continuous assessment, where any actions, any comments or any gestures might be used for or against them in future, creating a relentless gaze (Jardine, 2005).

4.8 Session set up

4.8.1 Temporal elaboration of the act

The results show that when each participant increased the rhythm and tempo of their sessions they seemed to gain their athletes' compliance. An example of this comes from observations made on participant C's coaching, "Gets the players to warm up by running across the pitch and back, he makes it into a race to get co-operation. They perform the drill at a much higher rate, giving them no opportunity to mess around". By increasing the pace of the warm up through competition, it made what would normally be seen as a dull activity into one that they all enjoyed. Also through increasing the rhythm of the activity the players had less time to 'mess around' with each other. This resulted with participant C gaining his athletes compliance. On the other hand when the rhythm of activities within the participants' sessions slowed down, the athletes' compliance did not come as easily, "Players begin to get restless after performing the drill for a while. Start to slow down and not complete the drill as effectively".

Foucault (1975) describes that soldiers marching provide a good example of how setting a rhythm to an activity can generate compliance. Through establishing rhythms and breaking down activities it can increase the effectiveness of time and the control of the bodies involved (Markula and Pringle, 2006). Conversely having athletes waiting in lines and not participating at a relatively high rate can lead to misbehaviour (Lavay and Henderson, 1997). This was evident in one of participant B's sessions, "When players aren't participating and are waiting in line they start to mess around with each other. Whilst only one player has the attention of the coach". Therefore by increasing the rhythm and work rate of each athlete the participants were able to gain the athletes compliance and reduce the amount of un-wanted behaviour (Shogan, 1999). Evidently this strategy improves the participants' ability to gain their athletes compliance.

Although this strategy, alongside normalisation and surveillance are effective compliance gaining strategies they could also be seen as strategies that are effectively turning an active body into an inert body (Denison, 2007). Therefore the question poses, is it the best way to get athletes to comply? Yes these strategies work in a way that gets athletes behaving in a way that coaches' think they would like during sessions. But do these strategies have a deeper, negative impact? By limiting these athletes and creating normalised, docile bodies (Foucault, 1975). Therefore it could be suggested that when using these strategies coaches should be aware of these possible impacts and try to manage the way that they apply the strategies.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusions

5.1 Key findings

Resulting from the observations and interviews it is clear that gaining athlete compliance is not a straight forward task (Swainston, 2007). Communication had a large impact on the coaches' ability to gain their athletes' compliance. By getting to know their athletes the coaches' were able to gain a better understanding of how to neutralise un-wanted behaviour (Foucault, 1975). Normalisation was one of the most consistently effective strategies used by the participants. Participant B's use of a side line as a gathering point for the athletes proved a very strong example of how creating norms can act as a way to produce the expectations of how each athlete must behave (Jardine, 2005). This worked well; when the athletes were asked to gather on the side line, they knew that this should be the place for them to sit down and to listen. Foucault's (1975) notion of surveillance was an effective compliance gaining strategy, until this surveillance was taken away. The participants use of surveillance did not have the same effect as Foucault's (1975) description of the panopticon prison, where the prisoners felt that they were being constantly monitored. Instead once the athletes realised that they were not being monitored they misbehaved. Finally, keeping a high tempo to their sessions worked very well as a compliance gaining strategy. Through establishing rhythms to activities it gave the participants the ability to control those athletes involved (Markula and Pringle, 2006). When activities became slow in tempo and required athletes to stand in line the athletes began to misbehave.

Using a Foucauldian lens proved very beneficial as it gave a scope on how these strategies gained the athletes compliance. Although through using Foucault's work to view these strategies it brought to light a suggestion that these strategies create inert, docile bodies that conform to the norms set by coaches (Denison, 2007). Somehow it seemed as though using these strategies could at times transform the athletes into machines. Taking away their ability to express themselves as individuals and having them conform to the expected behaviours of the coaches. Therefore it was suggested that, when using these strategies it is important for coaches' to find the right balance to be able to gain their athletes' compliance but not to transform those athletes into machines.

5.2 Practical implications

Foucault (1975) explains that these strategies are a way in which someone is able to guide another person's conduct or direct the possible field of action of others. This study suggests that coaches are able to use these strategies in this way. Considering the number of coaches and teachers that are unable to deal with the misbehaviour of children and do not have the ability to gain their compliance (Voke, 2002), it could be suggested that coaches and teachers should be taught these compliance gaining strategies within their training. By doing so it could equip new coaches with the skills necessary to gain their athletes compliance. This could provide them more time to deliver information to their athletes and less time attempting to gain their compliance (Swainston, 2007).

5.3 Limitations

During this study it was clear that the participants were not aware of Foucault's work. This did have a positive effect as it produced observations that represented a true representation of the participants coaching. However, especially during the interviewing process a basic knowledge of Foucault's (1975) views could have stimulated deeper conversation, which could have provided an increase in influential information. Although, by analysing the findings inductively as well as deductively, a broader amount of information was uncovered.

5.4 Future research

This research project concentrated on coaches that coached children aged from 5 to 12. Viewing how coaches attempted to gain the compliance of children of this age was beneficial as children in this age group can be seen to cause challenging behaviour for a coach to deal with (Adams, 2009). On the other hand, as Music et al. (2013) explain that secondary school children pose a different challenge for coaches. As their behaviour is completely different at this age and can be increasingly challenging (Karakus et al. 2012). Therefore a further study into the compliance gaining strategies used by coaches that work with athletes aged 12 and above could be very beneficial. Also, each participant involved in this study coached athletes at a foundation level of ability. It is considered that athletes are more likely to comply within an environment where the standard of ability is higher (Veldam and Sanford, 1984). Therefore a comparison of the compliance gaining strategies used by coaches working with athletes at a foundation level and the strategies used by coaches working with athletes with a higher level of ability could provide further understanding of this subject area.

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APPENDICIES



Cardiff
Metropolitan
University

Prifysgol
Metropolitan
Caerdydd

Date: 17.03.14

To: Tomos Birkhead

Project reference number: 13/11/01U

Your project was recommended for approval by myself as supervisor and formally approved at the Cardiff School of Sport Research Ethics Committee meeting of [include the one that applies 29th May 2013, 26th June 2013, 24th July 2013, 16th October 2013, 27th November 2013].

Yours sincerely

Jake Bailey

Supervisor