

Beliefs and Attitudes in Judo Coaching: Toward a New Model of Coaching

Malcolm D. Collins

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements
of the University of Wolverhampton for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Revision submitted August 3rd 2009

Original submission: October 30th 2008

This work or any part thereof has not previously been presented in any form to the University or to any other body whether for the purpose of assessment, publication or for any other purpose (unless previously indicated). Save for any express acknowledgement, references and / or bibliographies cited in the work, I confirm that the intellectual content of the work is the result of my own efforts and no other person.

The right of Malcolm Desmond Collins to be identified as the author of this work is asserted in accordance with ss77 and 78 of Copyright and Patents Act 1988. At this date copyright is owned by the author.

Signature.....

Date.....

University of Wolverhampton

**Beliefs and Attitudes in Judo Coaching:
Toward a New Model of Coaching**

Malcolm D. Collins

Revision submitted August 3rd 2009

Original submission: October 30th 2008

Acknowledgements

The following thesis is the most important research project that I have worked on to date, and I would never have completed this research without the support from the judo coaches and players from the British Judo Association and also the students who I have had the pleasure to work with in the School of Sport, Performing Arts and Leisure at the University of Wolverhampton.

I would like to extend my personal appreciation and thanks to my research supervisor, Professor Andrew Lane, who has helped me to set and plan my research and ensured that I stayed on track throughout my study. I would also like to thank Dr Tracey Devonport and Kevin Davies for their help in the revision.

I would also like to extend my gratitude and love to my wife Joan, for all the understanding and support that she has given me and my sincere thanks to other family and friends who have supported and motivated me throughout my academic and sporting life.

I would like to dedicate this thesis to the British Judo Association

Abstract

The purpose of this research programme was to propose a new structure for judo coaching. Judo coaching predominantly uses traditional methods emphasising progression through belts rather than success in competition as the measure of achievement. The research programme examined this issue in four stages involving seven studies. Stage 1 involved a qualitative examination of five elite coaches on what constitutes an effective coach, leading to the initial development of a 39-item judo coaching scale. Given the importance of demonstrating measures are valid, stage 2 investigated the validity of the scale among judo players and coaches. Factor analytic studies on data from 260 (130 coaches and 130 players) yielded a 7-factor solution; 1) Coaching is about winning, 2) Attitudes to coaching at different levels, 3) Attitudes to judo structure, 4) Relationships with players, 5) Presentational issues, 6) Technical knowledge link to coach level, and 7) Coach-player interactions. Multisample confirmatory factor analysis found support for the invariance of the model between coaches and players, thereby showing that relationships are consistent between different groups. Stage 3 used a multi-method approach, combining quantitative and qualitative methods. Responses to the judo coaching scale indicated perceptions of coach effectiveness vary as a function of being a player or a coach, and by level of participation (elite-v-non-elite). Qualitative results emphasise the importance of emotional control, an aspect not focused on in the interviews completed in stage 1. Stage 4 of the research investigated relationships between judo coaching scale scores and emotional intelligence. The study also investigated levels of emotional intelligence between elite and club coaches. High emotional intelligence is associated is proposed to be indicative of being able to manage the emotional states of other people and so should be a desirable quality in coaches. Results show significant relationship between judo coaching scale score and emotional intelligence factors, with further analysis showing that elite coaches reported higher emotional intelligence scores than club coaches. Based on the findings from the studies completed above, a revised judo coaching structure is presented. An elite structure should be based on players having specific performance targets including technical and tactical skills, psychological, and physiological, aligning judo more closely with the structure used in other Olympic sports. Coaches should also be given targets related to developing emotional control among players and instilling players with a self-belief to attain performance targets related to the above. Effective integration and usage of such personnel is required including developing and inculcating sport science knowledge into the practice of elite coaches, and then modifying this knowledge for use in the club system. It is hoped that findings from this research stimulates discussion, and action in the British Judo Association to revise the current system, which could lead to better judo coaching, better players, and ultimately enhanced Olympic success at London 2012.

Key words: Coaching, elite performance, measurement, relationships, confidence.

<i>Acknowledgements</i>	2
<i>Abstract</i>	3
<i>Definition of Terms</i>	7
<i>Chapter 1: Introduction</i>	9
<i>1.0 Introduction</i>	10
1.1 Aims of the research	19
1.2 Hypothesis	20
1.3 Statement of the issue under investigation: Nature of Judo	20
1.4 The role of the judo coach	23
1.5 What is effective coaching?	30
1.6. Player's auxiliary training	37
1.7 Conclusion	40
<i>Chapter 2: Literature Review</i>	41
2.0 Overview	42
2.1 Self-efficacy theory and research	43
2.2 Self-efficacy and performance relationships	43
2.3 Sources of self-efficacy	47
2.4 Developing self-efficacy	51
2.5 Self-efficacy and coaching	53
2.6 Conclusion to the literature review	64
<i>Chapter 3: Study 1: What is effective judo coaching? Development of the Judo Coaching Scale</i>	66
3.1 Aims of the investigation:	67
3.2 Method	67
3.3 Qualitative methods	68
3.4 Focus groups	70
3.5 Participants and procedure	71
3.6 Results of Focus Groups: Specific questions that were developed	73
3.7 Face-to-face interviews	76
3.8 Interviews	79
3.9 Analysis	81
3.10 Results and discussion	81
3.11 Development of a questionnaire	86
3.12 Conclusion	94
<i>Chapter 4: Study 2 – Factorial validity of the Judo Coaching Scale among coaches</i>	95
4.1 Introduction	96
4.2 Participants and procedure	96
4.3 Procedure	96
4.4 Data analysis	97
4.5 Results	99
4.6 Discussion	106
<i>Chapter 5: Study 3: Extended Qualitative Exploration of what Coaches think Creates an Effective Coach</i>	112
5.0 Introduction	113
5.1 Results	113

5.2 Theme 1. Relationships	114
5.3 Theme 2: knowledge	116
5.4 Theme 3: Personal qualities	118
5.5 Theme 4: experience	119
5.6 Theme 5: coach motivation	121
5.6 Conclusion	121
<i>Chapter 6: Study 4: Factorial validity of the Judo Coaching Scale among Judo Players</i>	<i>125</i>
6.0 Introduction	126
6.1 Participants and procedure	126
6.2 Factor analysis and comparisons between level of ability	126
6.3 Discussion	128
6.4 Discussion of results in relation to traditional structure	130
<i>Chapter 7: Study 5: Players perceptions of an effective judo coach</i>	<i>133</i>
7.0 Introduction	134
7.2 Comments from club judo players	134
7.3 Comments from elite judo players	136
7.4 Theme 1. Relationships between player and coach	136
7.5 Theme 2. Emotions	138
7.6 Theme 3. Knowledge	140
7.7 Theme 4. Experience	141
7.8 Theme 5. Relationships	142
7.9 Theme 6. Motivation	143
7.10 Conclusion	146
<i>Chapter 8: Study 6: Coach-Player Comparison</i>	<i>148</i>
8.1 Introduction	149
8.2 Elite club players and coaches	150
8.3 Attitudes to coaching levels	151
8.4 Attitudes to judo structure	151
8.5 Technical knowledge linked to coach level	152
8.6 Conclusion	152
<i>Chapter 9: Study 7: Emotional Intelligence and Beliefs on Judo Coaching</i>	<i>155</i>
9.1 Introduction	156
9.2 Emotional intelligence abilities	156
9.3 Why should judo coaches be interested in emotional intelligence?	157
4.3 Method: Emotional intelligence scale	160
9.4 Discussion	166
9.5 Conclusion	169
<i>Chapter 10 Development of a new structure of judo coaching (model)</i>	<i>171</i>
10.1 Proposed theoretical model and operational model for judo coaching	186
10.3 Important monitoring issues	203
<i>Chapter 11 Conclusion</i>	<i>205</i>
<i>Chapter 12. References</i>	<i>208</i>

List of Table and Figures

Tables

Table 1. Introduction to a judo lesson.....	25
Table 2. Information of initial five coaches.....	61
Table 3. Judo coaching questionnaire.....	70
Table 4. Descriptive statistics for judo coaching.....	85
Table 5. Rotated factor analysis of the judo coaching scale.....	87
Table 6. Relationship between judo coaching factors.....	90
Table 7. A Comparison of the judo coaching scores by level of ability.....	112
Table 8. Descriptive statistics between elite and club players and coaches.....	132
Table 9. Relationship between club coaching and emotional intelligence among coaches.....	142
Table 10. Relationship between judo coaching and emotional intelligence.....	146

Figures

Figure 1. Schematic representation of a research program.....	8
Figure 2. Outline of the BRITISH JUDO ASSOCIATION belt system.....	12
Figure 3. Coach questionnaire judo coaches perception of effective coaching.....	78
Figure 4. Significant interaction effects for the difference between elite and club players.....	134
Figure 5 Differences in emotional intelligence by level of coach.....	143
Figure 6 A Self-efficacy model.....	172
Figure 7. A structure of players development and talent identification.....	184

Definition of Terms

The public see judo as a martial art, comparable with the following:-

Aikido: a form of self defence, which uses the form of movement and levers to overcome an adversary.

Karate: translated means 'the empty hands'.

Judo: Mainly consists of throwing, holding, locking and choking techniques.

Ju-Jitsu: a form of martial art that encompassed Aikido, Karate and Judo

Dan Grade: is a master grade, black belt, called "Sensei" by students.

Kyu Grade: is a student grade, which applies to any judo grade under black belt.

Judoka: is a term used for a judo player or someone who practices judo

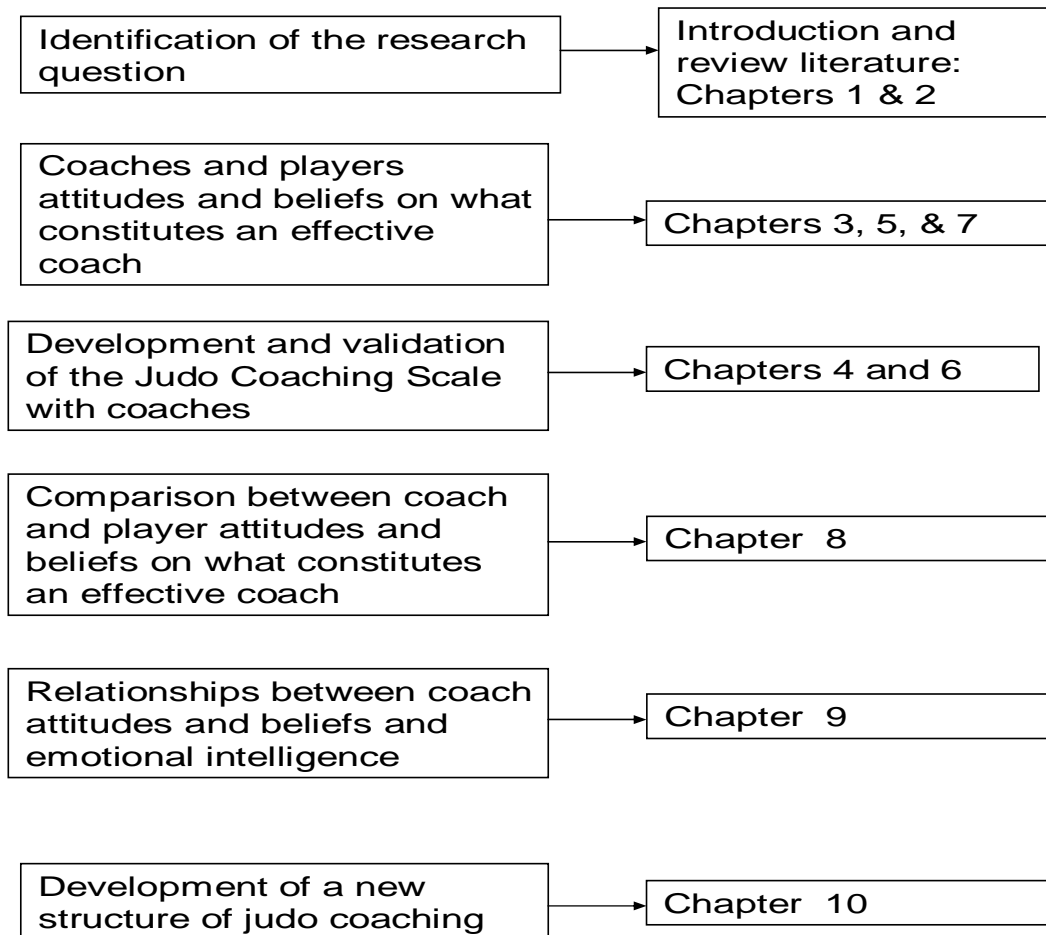
Judo Curriculum: all the courses of study offered by the British Judo Association.

Judo Syllabus: a course of study offered by the British Judo Association for a specific (judo belt) examination purpose.

Coach Education: a programme designed to enable coaches to improve their own performance level.

Athlete/s will be termed as judo player/s

Figure 1: Schematic representation of research programme



Chapter 1: Introduction

1.0 Introduction

The introduction begins by providing some background information and by looking at the aims of the research. This is followed by setting up the specific aspects of the research that warrant a detailed explanation. The first aspect is to explain the nature of judo and put forward a case why judo coaching should be treated independently to other sports. The second aspect looks at what research considers to be effective judo coaching. The introduction concludes by indicating that there is a case for exploring what coaches and players believe constitutes an effective coach. It goes onto propose developing a tool on which to assess these attitudes and belief to facilitate data collection on larger samples. Thirdly, the scale is developed and validated, to look at relationships and differences between coach and players and with concepts that should relate coach effectiveness, such as emotional intelligence. To date, no published studies have investigated relationships between effective coaching, psychological states of judo players, and judo performance. It is generally accepted that policy should be founded on theory and research.

Firstly, it is important to look at the term coaching. The term “coach” comes from the Middle English word *coache*, which meant “a wagon or carriage.” In fact, the word still carries this meaning today. A coach is literally a vehicle that carries a person or groups of people from some starting location to a desired location (Universal Dictionary 1987). Martens (2004) asked the question “is successful coaching about winning?”. He then postulates that in his opinion, the answer to this question is to some extent “yes”, in part, winning is an aspect of effective coaching. He goes onto state that coaching is much

more than winning contests. Coaching in judo is also about helping judoka to master new skills and techniques and enjoy competing with others.

With the definition of coaching in mind, it is important to begin to look at how this applies to judo. Judo has transformed from a Martial Art where combatants take part in self-defence to an 'Olympic and World' sport involving competitive combat. Judo became an Olympic Game sport in 1964 when judo was based on players relying on throwing and grappling techniques. Other sports are introducing extra supplementary aspects to their sports programs, such as tactical applications of skills, similar to set pieces in soccer. Interestingly, Sir Clive Woodward was appointed as the British Olympic Elite Performance Director (2007) to advise the British Judo Association in the training of elite players, although to date, he has not made substantive changes.

The judo coaching structure is steeped in tradition. Judo coaching tends to emphasise progression through the belt-grading system (see figure 2), whereby novices hold a white belt and proceed through obtaining six different belts before attaining a black belt. In the sport of judo there is very little one-to-one combat provided for judo below black belt. Therefore, the belt grading system might not prepare judo players for the demands placed on them during competition.

belt totally in charge of the judo mat. This instils and sets the format for judo that is required such as, discipline, safety and the philosophy of judo. Yamashita (2007) believes there are a few vital aspects in judo such as courtesy and respect towards an opponent, which is immediately implanted in everyone who practices judo. Brousse and Matusumoto (1999) propose “because judo has its own culture, it is not only an extremely popular international sport; it is also an educational and moral system to its rituals, etiquette, manners and ethics.

The judo coach follows a set coaching syllabus that is used to deliver a strategy at every belt level. It is essential for the British Judo Association to have a structure set in place that is generic for all coaches at club level. The British Judo Association has an effective recreational structure for providing students with the opportunity to pass through the belt grading system; however, given the traditional focus on achieving belts, less emphasis has been placed on developing judo players’ competitive skills. The reason for this statement is that over the years a holder of the coveted “Black Belt” has been considered an expert; a mindset that goes back to feudal days of the Japanese Samurai when they also believed a black belt had magical powers.

There are many stories of the prowess of old-time teachers of the martial arts, which like most stories, as many people tell the stories they get better, that is to say sometimes exaggerated. However, one of these stories, which has been passed on through the ages, nicely explains the basic principles of judo.

“That one day whilst looking out of the window in the winter as the snow was falling he chanced to notice the branches of a willow tree in the front of the temple did not retain the snow, even after a heavy fall and thanks to the suppleness of its branches, which gave way under the falling snow and thus threw the snow off as fast as it accumulated. The tree escaped the fate of the seemingly sturdier growths whose branches were everywhere ruthlessly crushed and broken under the burden”, Yoshitoki, 1960 (cited in Harrison, 1960, p.13).

The moral of this story similarly to judo, is not to match strength against strength, but to yield and go with the flow of the movement and to use their strength against themselves.

The myths and stories such as the one above are to some extent, still carried on in some judo clubs. The reader should accept that the black belt in itself is a benchmark of an individual's experience and competitive skills. These skills however, have been gained through the grading belt system and as such are not a qualification for coaching judo.

Each sport needs a method of assessment to indicate the participant's advancement and improvement. The grading system for judo has proven quite satisfactory over a long period, having been used in trial and error and reviewed from time to time. The other reason for this being that it has been set out at levels of advancement that are in accordance with the amount of experience and ability of each participant. By moving through the coloured belt system, this provides everyone with the opportunity to advance at a steady rate in both knowledge and ability and allows each person to take each step as and when feeling confident enough. Having achieved one belt level it is a matter of a little more time and practice to reach the requirements to obtain the next level. The amount of levels available are fairly well spread out, which are not too

demanding, however, as would be expected, a higher standard of knowledge and ability is necessary to obtain a higher-level judo belt. The club system therefore appears to provide sufficient training for the requirements of recreational players; nevertheless, the competitive side of the sport certainly needs to be reviewed. Provisions for elite judoka may need more research over a wider field, to provide the necessary requirements for those who wish to become elite judo elite performers.

At the time of writing this statement, the judo coaching system in the United Kingdom mainly provides training and qualifications for coaches who coach in judo clubs. This system provides people who wish to proceed through the belt system and gain the necessary experience, knowledge and technical skills. However, this system might not effectively provide the required type of training for those who wish to become National, International, World or Olympic competitors.

A recent method introduced to judo is the Long Term Athletic Development for players (LTAD). LTAD should be pursued at great length, as it appears to offer a great deal of benefit for all judoka no matter which area of judo they prefer. The coaching structure should encourage all coaches to accept the knowledge that is provided, as it is essential to have the full education and understanding in relation to their future needs at whatever level they wish to reach. It is most important for every coach to be prepared to aim for and enjoy whatever level of coaching qualification that he or she wishes to obtain and to be prepared to work in harmony with all other coaches in every department, irrespective of whatever level of coaching qualification they may hold themselves.

Consideration needs to be made with regards to the attitude and training of all our coaches, at all levels, as it is necessary for close cooperation between them, as these

are the people who are the role models for all the judoka who take part in our sport. There is a need for some specialisation in various areas, as it is expecting far too much, for what has been accepted over the past years. For instance once a black belt has been achieved, the holder has been expected to become a coach, referee, organiser, table official, and grading examiner. The coach is also a role model for students, thus leaving very little time for his or her own personal development as a coach. Admittedly, some advances have been made relating to this development, but now may be the time to consider conducting specialised courses to improve the standards of knowledge and ability for all different levels of qualifications. Coaches' at each level (elite and club) should be prepared to work closely together where necessary. Club coaches should be prepared to allow judo players with elite potential, to have access to an elite coach who has the technical expertise in respect to the type of training that their players may need. Club coaches sometimes cannot provide the type of training in the club situation for elite players. This may be when they do not have sufficient opposition at their own club to improve a player's competitive technical ability. Consideration should be given to setting up specialised seminars for club coaches in order for them to become fully aware of any changes that may be required between club and elite judo. Despite the judo associations wealth of well-trained club coaches, the elite judo coaching system is an area that is considered by many to be sadly neglected. There are only a few coaches who have the experience to produce elite competitors. Gould, Hodge, Peterson and Giannini (1989) noted that coaches' expertise and knowledge is often overlooked or neglected when sports psychologists attempt to apply psychological principles of techniques to actual sports competition. It is this particular area of coaching which requires a very different

approach to that of a club coach. Club coaches are situated in a different environment to the elite coach. Club coaches mainly coach in a group type of situation. Whereas an elite coach may be responsible for more than one competitor. Elite coaches usually work on a one-to-one situation therefore, individual programmes may be necessary and this is where different skills may be needed. The coach is more than capable of organising the physical mat-side of judo. However, the coach might need help and guidance in the organisational planning of the training sessions, and with the targeting of certain competition status, together with monitoring the competitor's progress. This is where administrative support might be essential for the elite judo coach together with other additional support such as:

- Medical support
- Dietician support
- Fitness support
- Psychological support
- Physiological support

There should also be another level of providers, which should be made available for both the players and coaches, such as: -

- Video Analysis
- Media Coaching support

Coaches that implement the coaching curriculum arguably underpin the development of the elite Olympic performers. Effective coaching should be associated with positive psychological states in judo players, and arguably, in judo, players need to be prepared for grading in one-to-one combat. The present judo-coaching curriculum seems more adept at the former than the latter. The psychological aspect of judo might not generally be understood by most coaches, who as a default of their training, are more

concerned with the physical application of judo, such as the technical skills. This is where most competitors are let down by their coaches, as they are usually well prepared technically and tactically, but are unable to cope with the mental constraints which are also needed in a judo contest. Confidence is therefore an essential element in any sphere, not least in the area of sports performance (Morris and Summers, 1995). Although it is obvious that many judoka experience times of poor performance, and if we look at other sports such as football, rugby, cricket, tennis and golf, they contain examples of the players experiencing slumps in their performance at varying times. Bandura (1991) proposed that such slumps in performance may be attributed to fragile self-efficacy toward performance. This also may have an affect on the emotional side of individual players' behaviour, which in turn might have an adverse effect on their performance. This may also affect the physical aspects of the player's vascular system, which might affect the timing and co-ordination of the execution of techniques that are required during a judo contest. This would bring about the slump in the player's performance.

As described above, the approach to coaching judo is steeped in traditions that are centuries old. A key question that an aspiring judo coach and player might ask themselves "is whether this method of coaching will bring about their goal achievement". For example, if the player or coach had the ambition of winning Olympic medals, then they might question whether a coaching system that pre-dates the modern Olympics is still suitable. By contrast, if achieving their aims through the belt-system is their sole goal, then the traditional coaching system is acceptable. Most likely, many players have dual goals, as they progress through the belt system, and they start seeing Olympic

success as a possible goal. Both coaches and players might also ask themselves a similar question on the suitability of the coaching system.

Therefore, to assist in the development of any model of effective coaching, it will be necessary for the research to identify the strengths and limitations of the current British Judo Association coaching system by investigating attitudes and beliefs of judo coaches and players. The present PhD programme seeks to explore the effectiveness of the Judo Association coaching system through an exploration of the coaches and players attitudes and beliefs.

1.1 Aims of the research

The overarching aims of this research programme are to explore both coaches and players perceptions of the effectiveness of the British Judo Association system and to identify what constitutes an effective judo coach.

These aims will be achieved by addressing the following issues:

1. Development of a judo coaching scale based on the experiences on elite coaches and players using qualitative techniques.
2. Validation of the judo coaching scale on coaches and players using advanced statistical techniques such as confirmatory factor analysis.
3. Investigation of differences on the judo coaching scale between coaches and players by level of ability (elite versus non-elite), combined with open-ended questions to ensure a comprehensive assessment of attitudes and beliefs is recorded.
4. Investigation of differences in emotional intelligence between coaches and players by level of ability (elite versus non-elite).

A likely outcome of this research programme is the development of a judo coaching measure that is sensitive to a range of coaching procedures and attitudes, in which the items are grounded in coaches own experiences and perceptions. A second outcome is the identification of attitudes associated with effective coaching. A third outcome is the proposal of the new model for effective judo coaching that will be offered to the British Judo Association.

1.2 Hypothesis

As this is an exploratory study, there are no specific hypotheses rather a number of proposed outcomes:-

- Coaches and players notions of what is an effective judo coach.
- Performance issues, such as goal setting
- Coaches and players attitude towards coaching
- Coach and players relationships
- Difference between club and elite judo
- The effects of emotional intelligence

1.3 Statement of the issue under investigation: Nature of Judo

To become familiar and understand the nature of judo, it is important to be aware of the ideologies of the sport in more depth than described previously. Most people see judo as a Martial Art, rather than an Olympic sport. The writer therefore deems it necessary to give a brief historical overview of the origins of judo. The absence of a body of scientific research that has focused specifically on examining judo coaching and its influence on performance represents a limitation. The present PhD programme seeks to develop such a body of research. The introduction begins with a description of judo and

critical comments, which the author acknowledges are subjective in nature, but nonetheless represents a critical analysis of the issue in hand.

The common perception of people seeing any of the Martial Arts, Karate, Kung-fu, Kickboxing, Aikido and Ju-jitsu will probably see them as all being the same thing, people in white (pyjama) suits performing self-defence movements. Arguably, it is proposed that the majority of people who take up judo are not really sure about what it involves, and therefore it would enlighten the reader of this study to understand the origins of judo.

The origins of jujitsu like many other martial arts can be traced back to the mythological age of the Ming dynasty of China. Jujitsu was later initiated in Japan in the feudal days of the “Samurai Warriors” (Harrison, 1960; Webber and Collins, 2005). Jigoro Kano (1887), the founder of judo, modified the face of jujitsu, which at the time was considered the art of self-defence into an educational discipline, which he named judo, with an underpinning form of courtesy, etiquette and respect for one’s adversaries. He also based the form of judo on specific outcomes in the form of a coloured belt system, with the black belt being the master grade. The Judo belt system was probably the first sport to set a system of target attainment goals (coloured belts) (Webber and Collins, 2005).

The word judo consists of two Japanese characters, “**ju**”, which means “gentle”, and “**do**”, which means “the way”. Judo therefore, literally means the way of gentleness, this however may not be immediately apparent to newcomers who see that people are being thrown into the air or being pinned down on the ground. Judo is much more than the mere learning and application of combat techniques; it is a system of

physical, intellectual and moral education. Judo has its own culture systems, heritage, customs and traditions. Moreover, the principles of gentleness are carried from the practice mats and into most students' lives, in their interactions with their friends, family, work, and colleagues and even strangers. Judo provides its students with a code of ethics, a way of living, and a way of being (Brousse and Matsumoto, 1999). Judo is a combat sport that demands both physical prowess and mental discipline (Webber and Collins, 2005). From a standing position, it involves various techniques that allow you to throw your opponent with the objective being to land him or her on to their back. In ground play, it includes techniques that allow you to pin your opponents down to the ground, control them and apply various chokeholds or joint locks until submission (see Brousse and Matsumoto, 1999; Webber and Collins, 2005).

Judo was first introduced into Europe in the nineteenth century as a form of self-defence and then to Britain in a form of music hall entertainment by a small Japanese master exponent of jujitsu, Yuki O'tani (Harrison, 1960). This was where he would encourage much bigger people from the audience to challenge him in a form of unarmed combat on the music hall stage. He provided the audience with what was described as a magical mystique of showing how someone who is much smaller would be able overcome and win against a much larger and stronger opponent with the use of skilful movements and controlled balance. This was followed by a steady two-way traffic of judoka between Great Britain and Japan. Men had gone to Japan to round off their training and on returning, have done much to improve the standard of judo in Britain. Some highly skilled Japanese performers have also been brought to England to act as living examples for the lower grades to imitate. This exchange had excellent results, and

some from the high grades have been able to learn much from the examples thus provided. Because the high graded judoka had already acquired experience and knowledge, they were able to watch constructively, seeing the movements and tactics used; and during personal practice with the Japanese were able to feel the build up for various attacks.

The turning point for judo came about in 1964 at the Tokyo Olympic Games, when judo was first introduced as an “Olympic Sport” for men. Judo was later introduced for women’s participation in 1984. From 1964 to 1984, British judo was successful and achieved several medals at the Olympic Games. The success established judo as an Olympic sport, but at the same time judo has to become more accountable for the preparation of performers. Preparation for elite players has to be an ongoing process, if judo is to compete and still hold its ranking in world sport.

1.4 The role of the judo coach

In 1968, Gleeson became the first “National Judo Coach” for the British Judo Association. He was the first person to produce a judo coaching structure and at the same time introduced judo coaching qualifications. Gleeson made a significant contribution to developing a club coaching system, ensuring that instructors (as they were then termed at the time) had the opportunity to gain judo coaching qualifications. A coaching structure was therefore implemented for all British Judo Association’s judo clubs; unfortunately, this clashed with some instructors who considered themselves experts. Some instructors who were already teaching judo in their clubs still looked upon judo as a mystic secret society. The attitudes of coaches who failed to adopt the modern structure created a political situation and led to the formation of several breakaway judo associations.

Indeed this is an important point, which indicates the extent that some judo coaches believed in the traditional methods of judo, and hints at difficulties that would be faced in introducing change. The concept arguably, still exists in judo today. It is an unfortunate situation that may still have an adverse on effect on the coaching system; and it is the writer's personal belief that it might be easier to avoid upsetting the coaching fraternity, which in turn are responsible for running and organising clubs in the UK. Since the death of Gleeson, the coaching system has not been up-dated over a period of the last three decades. The author believes that this has contributed to producing a two-tier system for coaching judo. First there are the club coaching system (the syllabus for obtaining judo belts) that was introduced by Gleeson and which is still in existence today, with slight modifications. Second there is coaching for competitive judo, which is unstructured and conducted in an informal manner. Furthermore, there are at present no qualifications for the elite judo coach.

Judo coaches are traditionally black belts who have progressed through the judo belt system and gained experience through their own experiences as judo fighters. It might be however, that some coaches have sufficient technical and tactical knowledge, but lack the experience of how best to pass on this knowledge. There is an assumption by some, that successful champions have the ability to transfer skills and instil confidence in their students. For example, Lord (2001) from the game of cricket, is of the opinion that players can be inspired by other players who are extremely confident in their own ability and transmit that confidence to others. However, Gleeson (1967) argued that skilled performers often make poor coaches as they seldom recognise the important ingredients of their own particular skills. Cuban (1993) suggests that it is not only the technical and

tactical knowledge that lies at the heart of the instructional process in top-level sport, but also the personal relationship between coach and student which develops over matters of content' (p.184). Initially, it would be when competitive players look for a role model in their coach (whether or not their coach is a champion), and later on, when they look at their contemporary successful champions.

The system of coaching judo has not been reviewed in any depth since 1982 and therefore arguably, a thorough evaluation is needed. Gleeson (1980) wrote, "what measures are being taken to produce a second generation of top coaches" (p.15). It is the researcher's opinion that 'there was a first and second generation of judo coaches; otherwise there would be no present day judo'. It appears that perhaps judo has been slow at improving coach education, which is necessary for taking judo into the twenty-first century. Some coaches still tend to be teaching with the early Japanese philosophy, which was first introduced to Britain in the 1948, where everyone who obtained a black belt was classed as a judo expert. McIver (2005) believes that it is not an easy task to move forward, as there is a need to overcome the many traditional (as some might say old fashioned) views and practices that have become an accepted part of the sport. Judo is a sport where coaches transmit the etiquette, discipline and respect for their opponent and the sport. This is the foundation on which the sport is based worldwide.

Traditionally, the black belt was the goal for most students, therefore, coaches' placed the emphasis on teaching Japanese terminology and demonstrating techniques. Although demonstrating techniques from the belt system is necessary for students to progress through the belt syllabus, this appears to be a seemingly outdated approach for modern day competitive judo coaching as it is not preparing judo participants effectively

for high-level judo competition. Judo is now an extremely competitive World and Olympic Sport. To compete at this level it is vital that coaching methods are up dated.

In order for the reader to have an awareness of the complexity and nature of the issue, it is worth describing a typical judo club session (see Table 1). The traditional approach to coaching a typical practice session in judo, would commence with a warm up, followed by the teaching of a basic or advanced technical skill and then the repeated practice of this technical skill through one or more drills. This may be repeated for a variety of technical skills and perhaps some instruction on tactical skills, which are also practiced through a series of drills.

Table 1.0 Example of a judo lesson

INTRODUCTION TO THE JUDO LESSON	
Coaching plan	Player behaviour
<i>Coach or selected player suggest warm-up for entire class</i>	<i>Warm-up using a variety of methods using a range of passive and active stretching</i>
<i>Demonstration of selected techniques by coach or selected player</i>	<i>Techniques depend on level and experience of player</i>
<i>Practice of selected technical skills</i>	<i>Player to practice, using different partners</i>
<i>Re-cap demonstration linking other techniques</i>	<i>Coach to identify coaching hooks</i>
<i>Feedback provided to players</i>	<i>Players to demonstrate selected techniques</i>
<i>Simulated practice (Randori)</i>	<i>Players practice (like sparing in boxing)</i>
<i>Cool-down follow by analysis on coaching highlights from the session. Pass on general information that is appropriate for the students.</i>	

Collins (1995) found many variations between coaches as to what constitutes a good judo practice. These ranged from well structured and organised lessons to classes where only *randori* was practised ('randori' being similar to sparring in boxing), lacking any formal teaching. In this type of lesson the coach usually directs players when to change partners and to work harder. This type of instruction appears to be the standard structure for the delivery of judo, which is taught in most clubs. Barraclough (1981) was also of the opinion that there are too many randori sessions taking place. He suggested there is no point in practising two hours of randori, when the players are under very little pressure. By this, Barraclough (1981) suggests that players would be practising judo with the minimal mental pressure on them. This might have important implications, as some of these coaches are teaching judo in schools and colleges, with no concept of organising or structuring a judo class. Seligman (1991) has noted that peoples perceptions and subsequent explanatory patterns are acquired based on what was learned in childhood from parents and teachers. Schinke and Peterson (2002) recognised that formative interactions with earlier coaches also influence the athletic expectations of sports performers.

Coaches expend a great deal of effort in helping players' to develop their physical potential; however, there is not the same effort placed on the players' psychological development. The question being, what are the processes of elite judo coaching and what effect does it have on both the coach and the player? In the main, it is suggested that the judo coach relies solely on coaching the motor skills side of judo, which most coaches believe gives them credibility for their knowledge and expertises. Whereas, the majority of students would be more likely to consider the colour of the belt as the level of expertise of the judo coach and anything less than a black belt would not be given credibility. It is unfortunate that some black belts knowing this may be reluctant to pass over some of their responsibilities to others who may be of a lower grade. This is the authority that beliefs on the knowledge gaining with acquiring a black belt has on other people in judo, however, in modern day competitive judo, there is a particular need for other dimensions to be taken into consideration, such as sport psychologists, sport physiologists and nutritionists. However, the use of a sport scientists may be conceived as a threat, for the coach who might perceive he/she would lose the control over his or her player. Chase, Felts, and Lirgg (1997) suggested that most coaches tend to focus on the athlete's physical skills, as this is where they believe they have more control. However, other researchers conclude that focus on controllable skills is contrary to the methods that have been shown to be effective for improving physical skills (Amorose and Horn, 2000).

It is important that coaches should be experienced, trained, assessed and accredited to a level at which those with responsibility may reasonably express confidence of a successful outcome in the planning and delivery of the activities being undertaken. Collins (1995) conducted a survey asking Leisure Centre Managers to assess

if they were aware of the status of a judo coach. The majority of managers were uncertain of the qualification needed to teach judo in their centre(s). Leisure centre managers carry some responsibility to ensure that the coaches have the appropriate qualifications.

Gleeson (1980) was concerned about coaching over the last two decades and asked “where are the articles, the dissertations that define and describe what judo skills are and what is needed to improve the judoka’s performances” (p.16). It is generally accepted that policy should be founded on bedrock of theory and research, therefore the present program of research seeks to explore the effectiveness of the elite coaching system using the sport of judo with a view to proposing a new elite coaching policy based on evidence. It is argued that such research is important to obtain a holistic understanding of the elite coaching environment and develop a conceptual model of effective coaching practices. Many players of today, whether recreational or elite, run and swim faster, throw farther and jump higher than previously. These improvements have been attributed to several factors related to smarter nutrition; greater understanding of biomechanics of sports movement, improved training techniques, advances in psychological support and improvements in coaching education (Mayers, 2006). Therefore, to assist in the development of any model of effective coaching in judo, it will be necessary for the research to identify the limitations of the current British Judo Association’s coaching structure. The system of teaching judo may have proved to be satisfactory in the past; however, there is a need to review and assess the effectiveness of the present coaching and teaching methods, which are essential for the modern day’s judo learning process.

1.5 What is effective coaching?

Consensus differs on what constitutes effective coaching (Webber and Collins, 2005). However, most people should recognise that coaches differ in their approaches and what works for one athlete might not necessarily work for another. Rowell (2001) asked questions such as: Why do coaches do what they do? Is it to help others to have fun? Is it because the coach enjoys the challenge? Whatever the answers may be, somewhere there is likely to be reference to improvement; helping your players become better at their sport and helping them, tactically, mentally, physically and technically. Successful coaches are not only well versed in the technical and tactical skills of their sport, but they also know how to teach these skills to people of all ages. Such coaches not only teach players their sport skills, but also teach and model skills that players need to live successfully in our society (Martens, 2004). Successful coaches should be highly motivated, reflective and develop a coaching style that is consistent with personality. Terry (1992) compared Brian Clough with Graham Taylor, both of whom were successful soccer coaches and who performed a similar list of coaching functions. Terry (1992) found that because of their different personalities and relationships with their players, they had different styles of coaching. In essence, reflecting on who you are (and your personality) and your perceived role as a coach leads to the development of a genuine coaching style that takes advantage of your personal strengths (Gilbert and Jackson, 2004). Gilbert and Jackson (2004) also stated their belief that there is no general theory of coaching effectiveness, and given a wide variance of players needs between different levels of participation within sport, this would be justified. As such, many coaches are knowledgeable about coaching methods and have opinions about which

methods are successful and which are not. What is clear is that a successful judo coach should be a motivator with a positive attitude and enthusiasm with the ability to motivate and inspire players, which is part of the method for delivering success. Coaching is about encouraging players to believe in themselves, some coaches find it easier than others do. Most judo coaches have an in-depth understanding of judo from the fundamental skills to advanced tactics and strategy. Qualified judo coaches should know the progressive nature of training adaptation; they should also know the rules for judo. Coaches should be able to provide a structured environment for judoka to succeed as well as continuing to learn and develop new technical, tactical and training skills. The goal for coaching should be to guide, inspire and empower the judoka to develop his or her highest potential. Despite the variety of coaching methods that coaches could demonstrate, subjective evidence suggests that the majority of the methods adopted by judo coaches could be classified as authoritarian. What is meant by authoritarian, is that many coaches still position themselves, and are positioned by others, as the experts of coaching, (Cassidy, Jones and Potrac, 2004). The wearer of the black belt in judo is classed as a master grade (the authority on the judo mat). All judo sessions commence with students bowing to the master grade, this is traditional throughout the world of judo.

If coaches wish to enhance their coaching skills and enhance the performance of their players, then they should consider why people wish to take part in this particular sport. Do people in the first instance wish to become involved from the perspective of the self-defence issue? This being so, they might be motivated by the coloured belt system and perhaps some will excel and gain confidence to progress into the competitive arena. At this present time, judo appears to have a dual participation system in the United

Kingdom. Firstly, there are those who wish to proceed through the belt system, and secondly, those who wish to continue through the elite competitive system.

There are, however, a number of different models in other sports on coaching behaviours and their impact on player's performance. The majority of research in coaching has been directed towards identifying particular coaching styles that are most effective for successful performance and/or positive psychological responses from players (Horn, 2002). Two of the most prominent models of coaching effectiveness in sport are the multidimensional model of coaching (Chelladurai, 1993) and the mediational model of coaching (Smoll and Smith, 1989). These models have served as the frameworks for much of the related research in coaching efficacy. Recently, elements of both models have been combined to form a third model, the working model of coaching effectiveness (Horn, 2002).

Chelladurai's (1993) Multidimensional Model of Leadership in Sport considers the antecedents and consequences of a leader's intervention in addition to the behaviours developed by him. It has been the most productive model regarding international research. The behavioural approach has investigated the coach's concrete behaviours in training and / or competition by means of observational methodologies (Smoll and Smith, 1989), whilst the Mediational Model has classified the coach's behaviours in interaction categories. Using this model the coach is able to evaluate his effect upon the athlete and introduce a varied approach to his/her coaching methods.

Smoll and Smith (1989) proposed that it is the situation-specified behaviours of the coach, which are important. Research testing Smoll and Smith's (1989) model has typically used the Coaching Behaviour Assessment System (CBAS) (Smith, Smoll and

Hunt, 1977) or the Arizona State University Observation System (ASUS) (Lacy and Darst, 1984). Brewer and Jones (2000) argue that within each individual coaching environment there exist unique situations (many of which are sport specific) which impinge upon the pedagogical process. Brewer and Jones (2000) developed a process-learning instrument, for assessing coaching behaviours of elite rugby union coaches. A key part of Brewer and Jones' (2000) work was that it was important to develop a methodology that was grounded in the experience of those personnel in the sport, and that findings from one sport might not necessarily transfer to another.

There has been a steady increase in research to examine the coach-athlete interaction in sport (Brewer and Jones, 2000; Potrac, Brewer, Jones, Armour and Hoff, 1999). Woodman (1993) and Jones, Armour, and Potrac (2004) suggested in their finding that an investigation into surveying coaches' views' in order to generate an understanding of their educational needs was required. This exercise may provide valuable information for those involved in the design and implementation of coach education schemes.

Brewer and Jones (2000) suggest that a limitation of previous research, which examined coach behaviours, is the validity of method used to analyse the coach. They proposed that coaching behaviours vary from sport to sport and that the inconsistency of findings between studies can be explained by the inaccuracies of various coaching behaviour instruments (CBAS and ASUOI). Brewer and Jones (2000) argued that within each individual coaching environment, there exist many constraints that are sports specific, which may impinge upon the pedagogical process. Given that the goal of any observation is for the resulting data to reflect accurately the events that occurred, systematic observation instruments developed without specific contextual considerations

in mind are arguably open to criticism in terms of their validity and reliability. A key point stemming from Brewer and Jones' work is the need for a situation-specific approach for assessing coach effectiveness. They identify limitations with all models used in previous research, arguing that methodological issues prevent researchers being able to emphasise the results with any confidence. Researchers should develop sport-specific instruments for assessing coach effectiveness to facilitate investigating the unique demands of each sport. Whilst there are commonalities between sports, if findings are to be applied to practice, specific coaching instruments are needed for each particular sport. The flexibility of the instruments needs to be taken into consideration when providing a new judo model.

From a judo perspective, Gleeson (1967) suggested that we first have to look at the ingredients of the coach to find out what is good coaching. Schinke and Tabakman (2005) however, believe that a healthy coach-athlete relationship is where both people learn to co-ordinate their respective skills by appreciating each other's technical and disposition attributes. In the coaching literature, Haslam (1988), Martens (1990) and Bloom, Durand-Bush, Schinke and Salmela (1998), have noted that the relationship between coach and athlete is complex and therefore, coaching is not easy to define. Jones, Armour, and Potrac (2004) argue, that coaches' stories from their point of view are complex, messy, fragmented and endlessly fascinating, and that they demonstrate a need to understand the inter connections between coaches' lives and their professional practice. Furthermore, McQuade (2001) argued that the coach-athlete relationship is central to the coaching process. A coach should aim to foster a positive working relationship with the performer, with the goal being to promote and maximise

performance. Jones et al. (2004) in their review suggested one of the most important coaching issues is the belief in working with players and to get the best out of them. This relates to the need to know players as individuals and to view the world from their perspective if their capabilities are to be realised.

It is not essential to reach top line championship competitor status to become an effective coach. However, without reasonable experience and knowledge of competition this qualification would be very difficult to achieve (Webber, 1997). Without such experience, it would be very difficult to know and understand the feelings of the competitors and to be able to accept some of the incidents, which occur during a contest between individuals or in team game situations (Webber, 1997). This kind of experience cannot be replaced and is of the greatest value to anyone wishing to qualify and officiate in these particular areas of any sport. Interestingly, Lane (2006) believed that having experience as a boxer, contributed in building a solid relationship with coaches and boxers. He argued that whilst this experience was important, its greatest value was to allow the consultant to have an in-depth understanding of the sport culture. Arguably, given the culture in judo, it would seem necessary that coaches and sport scientists working in the sport have an in-depth knowledge, something best gained from personal experience as a competitor.

In top-flight judo, elite players should be aware that if they perform well and reach their performance targets, they could obtain funding from their national governing body. Most sports are either professional or semi professional; therefore, players and coaches are demanding the best facilities, and the best equipment. There are now some excellent judo facilities and equipment such as the National Centres at the University of

Wolverhampton, English Institute of Sport, Sheffield, and Bath University. It is therefore important for coaches to ensure that their knowledge and competences match the appropriate level and demands of the performer. It is also important to understand that players also have a vital part to play in their preparation. Athletics coach Peter Stanley (cited in Jones, Armour, and Potrac, 2004, p.42) emphasised his experiences when he first became an athletic coach, where he quoted the following:-

“I called athletes, my athletes, it was only as I grew older that I realised that they are not my athletes. I am their coach, and they actually own me. I need them to take control, and I am just there as a guide really. They have to look after themselves on the track and while they are away anyway, so I need them to take control”.

Coaches who provide unnecessary support, and who coerce their players into obeying their instructions are sometimes perceived to be controlling. This could jeopardise their players' motivation by restricting their opportunities to take initiative and to be creative (Mageau and Vallerand, 2003). Research in the educational domain has documented the importance of allowing people the opportunity for initiative taking within a supportive relationship (Boggiano, 1998). There is added pressure not only for the athlete but also for the coach when the coaches own interests are tied to their athlete's performance. More often than not, coaches' jobs are directly dependent on the team or individual's performance and achievements. In some circumstances, people become ego-involved in their work and, in turn, produce controlling behaviour (Deci, Spiegerei, Ryan, Koestner, and Kauffman, 1982).

1.6. Player's auxiliary training

As judo coaches tend to emphasise judo training in structured sessions as the primary method of enhancing performance, some judo players might not see the value in engaging in auxiliary training. It is therefore important to provide some discussion on issues that surround this concept. Sheldon and Elliot (1999), in their judgement believe that experiencing self-determined extrinsic motivation is when that person decides to engage in the activity because the activity is important and concordant with their values. For example, weight training might not be exciting for some players, but they use weights as a strength enhancement for improving their performance. Most of today's modern players take part in auxiliary training other than concentrating on their individual techniques from their own particular discipline. Sheldon and Elliot's (1999) are of the opinion that non-self-determined types of motivation refer to behaviours that are imposed on them by others, such as situations or by one's sense of obligation. When non-self determined, one feels pressured to engage in the activity because the underlying reasons for participation have not been integrated into one's values system and sense of self. Although perhaps the player might conform to what the coach has prescribed, he or she might not see why the extra auxiliary training is necessary.

Bentley (1991) believes that the key factor in crossing the fine dividing line between success and failure is the coach-athlete relationship. Like any other relationship, it will not work unless fundamental ingredients are there such as mutual trust and understanding. It is also extremely important for both the player and the coach to have equal respect for each other. Judo players will usually conform to the instructions at the elite level, as they would possibly try to avoid any confrontation with the coach as the

coach has the influence on the player's selection for prestigious events. Reeve, Bolt and Cai (1999) highlight that controlling styles is usually defined as using control and valuing respect of authority. This is where a coach can be in the position to influence how a player thinks and behaves. It is also a means of introducing incentive rewards for progress towards the player's goal. Club coaches favour a coach-centred approach for judo players training as they control what happens on the judo mat.

The coach is essential for beginners with arguably complete control of what players do on the judo mat. As students progress the percentage of balance changes until the students reach the grade of brown or black belt that is when balance between the coach and the students will be approximately 50/50 with the student probably needing less technical and tactical input from the coach. The coach might be viewed as a mentor, rather than just a coach. It is the writer's personal belief that the competitor (judoka) who reaches the standard of elite competitor status would have experience in technical preparation and would therefore have a good concept of what is needed in his or her own preparation to win an important event. However, the social support for elite players from the coach should not be under-estimated.

The coach and support team need to be aware and prepared to deal with all aspects of success and failure at competitions. Competitors may fail to achieve success for a number of reasons, including lack of quality mental preparation for performance under pressure; physical weaknesses; performing without a warm up; ineffective coach; ineffective back up team and other constraints on the day such as the referee, corners judges, pressure and support from spectators and the atmosphere of the event. Strategies such as mental training, developed during training teach players how to deal with the

exposure to the stressors of competition. At present most sessions are conducted in demonstration and randori situations where a judoka could train for two hours without any mental pressure being placed upon the judoka. However, once a judoka has a score recorded against him/her in an actual contest, it becomes a vital need to regain the score. At this point, there is an increase in pressure, which affects the heart rate due to the emotional effects of anticipating either, winning or losing the contest. This in turn usually saps the energy within the judoka. It might be argued that mental preparation is somewhat neglected in the judo coaching structure.

In a case study that investigated mood state changes in a judo player during competition, Stevens, Lane, and Terry (2006) found that tension increased before competition. Importantly, when the player realised he was matched against an elite player, he reported feeling depressed. This finding indicates that judo players experience intense emotions at the contest area of the competition and that coaches should consider how to develop emotional control techniques in players (Lane, 2007).

It may also be assumed that some coaches believe that learning physical skills takes place without the context of an interpersonal relationship with the coach. The significant question is how will this interaction effects the development of the motor skills of the elite judo player. Self-efficacy is likely to be an important factor, and it might be argued by others that the development of efficacy skills may lead to increased self-efficacy demonstrated by elite players and their coach. Although this process occurs, it is not sufficient for explaining the role of developing self-efficacy and its impact on the learning of motor skills. To explain the role of self-efficacy, we must evaluate the effective context of the coach's behaviours, which may affect the performance of the

player and how self-efficacy enhances each other's performance. Unfortunately, studies that directly examine this relationship between the coach and the player in judo are sparse and therefore, the inference needs to be made based on research examining the relationship, self-efficacy and motor skills relationship for the coaching in elite judo.

1.7 Conclusion

Clearly, the changes to the sport since introduction at the Olympic Games and the increased emphasis of the competitive element have challenged the traditional approach to judo. Whilst sports science has engaged in research into effective coaching in other sports, it has not focused attention on judo. It is also evident that the judo coaching structure and what judo coaches believe they need to do to produce successful judo players is likely to be heavily linked to traditional approaches to teaching and coaching judo. It is questionable whether these practices are suitable to producing Olympic champions, and moreover, they might be questionable whether the traditional approach prepares judo players for competition. The review of literature looks at theoretical frameworks on how attitudes and beliefs regarding effectiveness coaching are developed.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.0 Overview

At a practical level, it is questionable whether club coaches are preparing judo players effectively for the demands of competition. It was proposed that limitations are most clearly observable at the elite level, particularly given the low medal haul from performance at recent Olympics. Whilst judo has grown as a sport, there seems to be little progress in developing a structure for coaching elite players. An aim of this study is propose a structure for coaching elite judo players and to achieve this aim it will be necessary to investigate both coaches and players attitudes and beliefs of the present structure. In the development of a revised structure, it is important to consult relevant literature. In terms of adding literature that is relevant to evaluating the current judo system and developing a new model, it is possible to select a number of theoretical models. A limitation of such an approach is that the possible number of constructs to consider is exponential, and beyond the scope of a PhD programme, or even a series of PhD programmes. When making such a decision, the researcher is faced with a difficult decision of where to start. A criteria influencing which constructs to explore is their relationship with performance. If the goal of a revised judo coaching system is to increase the medal haul at 2012, then a selection criteria should be performance prediction. A guiding question that was considered was “what variables in the literature related to performance?”, and given that there is an absence of judo-specific data, what variables, or a better term might be, what theoretical constructs relate with performance. One such variable is self-efficacy theory. Bandura’s (1977) self-efficacy theory could be used to explain relationships between coaching behaviours, and performance in judo. The literature review focuses on evaluating self-efficacy theory as a framework for explaining

beliefs and attitudes on what constitutes effective judo coaching. It also reviews some of the methods used to assess coach effectiveness.

2.1 Self-efficacy theory and research

Bandura (1977) first introduced the concept of self-efficacy well over three decades ago, with his seminal publication “Self-efficacy: Towards a Unifying Theory of Behavioural Change”. This was followed with Bandura’s (1986) self-efficacy vision of a social cognitive theory of human behaviour that diverged from the prevalent cognitivism of the day and embedded cognitive development within a socio-structural network of influences. This was followed up with his more recent book (Bandura 1997) “The Exercise of Control”, in which he further situated self-efficacy within a theory of personal and collective agency that operates in concert with other socio-cognitive factors in regulating human well being and attainment. Pajares (2005) highlighted that Bandura, had also addressed the major facets of agency – the nature and structure of self-efficacy beliefs, their origins and effects, the processes through which such self-beliefs operate. In addition, Bandura reviewed a vast body of research on each of these aspects of agency in diverse applications of theory.

2.2 Self-efficacy and performance relationships

Self-efficacy is defined as ‘people’s judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action to attain designated types of performance’ (Bandura, 1986, p.391). Bandura (1977) proposed that the greater the perceived self-efficacy, the greater the effort made in performance. Given sufficient skills, high self-efficacy should be associated with successful performance. Meta-analysis results show support for a positive relationship between self-efficacy and performance in sport

(Moritz, Feltz, Fahrbach, and Mack, 2000). It has been researched and tested and has received support from a growing body of findings from diverse fields, such as social skills (Moe and Zeiss, 1982);, athlete performance (Barling and Abel,1983; Lee, 1982); social skills (Davis and Yates,1982); phobias (Bandura, 1983); smoking behaviour (Garcia, Schmitz and Doerfler, 1990); assertiveness (Lee, 1983); health (O’Leary, 1983); addiction (Marlatt, Baer and Quigley, 1995); student learning (Devonport and Lane, 2006; Lane and Lane, 2002; Thelwell, Lane, and Weston, 2007); and nursing performance (McConville and Lane, 2006). Self-efficacy is also receiving increased attention in educational research, primary in studies of academic motivation and self-regulation (Devonport and Lane, 2006; Pintrich and Schunk, 1995).

Self-efficacy beliefs provide the foundation for human motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment. This is because unless people believe that their actions can produce the outcomes they desire, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties. Much empirical evidence now supports Bandura's contention that self-efficacy beliefs touch virtually every aspect of people's lives. Individuals tend to select tasks and activities in which they feel competent and confident and avoid those in which they do not. Unless people believe that their actions will have the desired consequences, they have little incentive to engage in those actions. What Bandura (1977; 1986) and studies (e.g.,) have proposed, however, is that as well as being an indicator of self-confidence, self-efficacy is also closely related to motivation (Devonport and Lane, 2006; Feltz, Short, and Sullivan: 2007; Schunk, 1995).

In terms of decision-making in everyday life, Bandura (1977) proposed that self-efficacy estimates would be important. People acquire confidence through performance

accomplishments, and the success or failure that people experience will be influential to subsequent decision-making choices. Tasks that people perform successfully should increase perceptions of self-efficacy to do these tasks and increase the likelihood of it being repeated. The knowledge and skills they possess will certainly play critical roles in what they choose to do and not do. Individuals interpret the results of their attainments, just as they may make judgments about the quality of the knowledge and skills they possess. Imagine, for example, a Judoka who has just received a grade of white belt at the first attempt at a judo grading. What can we predict about how receiving such a grade will affect a student? A Judoka who has worked hard on the judo belt syllabus may view obtaining a white belt in ways quite dissimilar from that of the Judoka who worked equally hard and has obtained a yellow belt. For the former, a Judoka who obtained a white belt may be disappointed whereas the other student who obtained the yellow belt is likely to receive the belt with elation. The judoka, who is accustomed to usually performing well, is likely to have his confidence bruised; the judoka who was awarded a yellow belt is sure to have his confidence boosted.

Individuals have self-regulatory mechanisms that provide the potential for self-directed changes in their behaviour (Bandura, 1986). The manner and degree to which people self-regulate their own actions and behaviour involve the accuracy and consistency of their self-observation and self-monitoring, the judgments they make regarding their actions, choices, and attributions, and, finally, the evaluative and tangible reactions they make to their own behaviour through the self-regulatory process. This last sub-function includes evaluations of one's own self, their self-concept, self-esteem and tangible self-motivators that act as personal incentives to behave in self-directed ways.

For Bandura (1986) the capability that is most distinctly human, is that of self-reflection, hence it is a prominent feature of social cognitive theory. Through self-reflection, people make sense of their experiences, explore their own cognitions and self-beliefs, engage in self-evaluation, and alter their thinking and behaviour accordingly.

Bandura's (1997) key contentions as regards the role of self-efficacy beliefs in human functioning is that *"people's level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than on what is objectively true"*(p,2). For this reason, how people behave can often be better predicted by the beliefs they hold about their capabilities than by what they are actually capable of accomplishing. Self-efficacy perceptions help determine what individuals do with the knowledge and skills they have. This helps to explain why people's behaviours are sometimes dissociated from their actual capabilities and why their behaviour may differ widely even when they have similar knowledge and skills. For example, many talented people suffer frequent and sometimes debilitating bouts of self-doubt about capabilities they clearly possess, just as many individuals are confident about what they can accomplish, despite possessing only a modest repertoire of skills. Belief and reality is seldom perfectly matched, individuals are usually guided by their own beliefs when they engage the world, and consequently, people's accomplishments are generally predicted by their self-efficacy beliefs rather than their previous attainments, knowledge, or skills. Of course, no amount of confidence or self-appreciation can produce success when requisite skills and knowledge are absent.

People's self-efficacy beliefs should not be confused with their judgments of the consequences that their behaviour will produce. Typically, of course, self-efficacy beliefs help determine the outcomes one expects. Confident individuals anticipate successful

outcomes and the opposite is true of those who lack confidence. For example, individuals who doubt their social skills often envision rejection or ridicule even before they establish social contact.

Because the outcomes we expect are themselves the result of the judgments of what we can accomplish, our outcome expectations are unlikely to contribute to predictions of behaviour. Moreover, efficacy and outcome judgments are sometimes inconsistent. A high sense of efficacy may not result in behaviour consistent with that belief, if the individual believes that the outcome of engaging in that behaviour will have undesired effects. Because individuals operate collectively as well as individually, self-efficacy is both a personal and a social construct. Collective systems develop a sense of collective efficacy—a group's shared belief in its capability to attain goals and accomplish desired tasks.

2.3 Sources of self-efficacy

Self-efficacy beliefs according to Bandura, (1977) may be influenced by the cognitive processing of information from four main sources; (1) performance accomplishments, (2) vicarious experiences, (3) verbal persuasion, and (4) emotional and physiological arousal (Bandura, 1997). Self-efficacy is malleable however, efficacy perceptions can be altered through guided training. Individuals engage in tasks and activities, interpret the results of their actions, use the interpretations to develop beliefs about their capability to engage in subsequent tasks or activities, and act in concert with the beliefs created. Typically, outcomes interpreted as successful raise self-efficacy; those interpreted as failures lower it. Of course, people who possess a low sense of efficacy

often discount their successes rather than change their self-belief. Even after individuals achieve success through dogged effort, some continue to doubt their efficacy.

Lane, Jones, and Stevens (2002) found that players who are low in self-esteem tend to have poor coping skills and as such, the effect of defeat leads to significantly greater reductions in self-efficacy. Players who are high in self-esteem tend to develop a robust sense of self-efficacy. Previous performance experiences are the most significant source of information that influences self-efficacy. For example, a judo player wins his last three contests by clear throwing techniques, with maximum scores; his belief is that he can win the next contests would be increased. However, if he struggled and only won his contests by a refereeing decision or by obtaining minor score. The belief in the ability to win the next contest would be to some extent decreased. This example would be the same as a soccer player taking a penalty kick, where pressure would be on the individual player to score the goal. The player will be sub-consciously reflecting on how he/she performed in previous similar circumstance. A player will feel either confident or cautious and this will affect the mood on how the player performs in their given domain.

Vicarious experiences form the second source of self-efficacy. People form self-efficacy beliefs through observing others perform tasks. This source of information is weaker than mastery experience in helping create self-efficacy beliefs, but when people are uncertain about their own abilities or when they have limited prior experience, they become more sensitive to it. The effects of modelling are particularly relevant in this context, especially when the individual has little prior experience with the task. Even experienced and self-efficacious individuals will raise their self-efficacy even higher if models teach them better ways of doing things. Vicarious experience is particularly

powerful when observers see similarities in some attribute and then assume that the role model's performance is diagnostic of their own capability. For example, a girl will raise her perceived physical efficacy on seeing a woman model exhibit physical strength but self-efficacy will not be influenced to the same degree after seeing a male model do so. In this case gender is the attribute for assumed similarity. Observing the successes of such models contributes to the observers' beliefs about their own capabilities ("If they can do it, so can I!"). Conversely, watching models with perceived similar attributes fail can undermine the observers' beliefs about their own capability to succeed. When people perceive the model's attributes as highly divergent from their own, the influence of vicarious experience is greatly minimised. It bears noting that people seek out models that possess qualities they admire and capabilities to which they aspire. A significant model in one's life can help instil self-beliefs that will influence the course and direction that life will take.

If players observe someone successfully perform a specific behaviour that appears to be within the athlete's skill range, the athlete's self-efficacy regarding that behaviour may increase (Bandura, 1997). This could also be equated to judo players who observe players of their own weight, grade and similar ability performing certain skilful techniques and therefore base their range of techniques on this vicarious scenario (Bandura 1977). This source of efficacy information is seen as weaker than the interpreted result of mastery experience, but when people are uncertain about their own abilities or have prior experiences they become more sensitive to it (Pajares, 2000). The effects produced by models are particularly relevant in this context (Schunk 1981; 1983; and 1987). Part of one's vicarious experiences also involve the social comparisons made

with other individuals as Schunk, (1983) states these comparisons, along with peer modelling, can be powerful influences on developing self-perceptions of competence.

The third source of self-efficacy is verbal persuasion. Individuals also create and develop self-efficacy beliefs as a result of the social persuasions they receive from others. These persuasions can involve exposure to the verbal judgments that others provide. Persuaders play an important part in the development of an individual's self-beliefs. However, social persuasions should not be confused with unthinking praise or empty inspirational homilies. Effective persuaders must cultivate people's beliefs in their capabilities while at the same time ensuring that the envisioned success is attainable. Further, just as positive persuasions may work to encourage and empower, negative persuasions can work to defeat and weaken self-efficacy beliefs. In fact, it is usually easier to weaken self-efficacy beliefs through negative appraisals than to strengthen such beliefs through positive encouragement (Bandura, 1977).

The fourth source of self-efficacy is the control of emotional arousal. Emotional states such as anxiety, stress, arousal, and mood states also provide information about efficacy beliefs. People can gauge their degree of confidence by the emotional state they experience as they contemplate an action. Strong emotional reactions to a task provide cues about the anticipated success or failure of the outcome. When they experience negative thoughts and fears about their capabilities, those affective reactions can themselves lower self-efficacy perceptions and trigger additional stress and agitation that help ensure the inadequate performance they fear. Of course, judgments of self-efficacy from somatic and emotional states are not necessarily linked to task cues. Individuals in a depressed mood lower their efficacy independent of task cues. One way to raise self-

efficacy beliefs is to improve physical and emotional well-being and reduce negative emotional states. Because individuals have the capability to alter their own thinking and feeling, enhanced self-efficacy beliefs can in turn influence the physiological states themselves.

Lane (2007) emphasises the effects of emotional states on self-efficacy. He noted that emotions could influence the availability of information that can be drawn from memory. Individuals in a depressed mood tend to recall poor performances. In a study of emotional states and self-efficacy in distance running, Lane (2001) found that self-efficacy expectations in depressed athletes related to seeing the course as daunting. Lane argued that a tendency of depression is to attribute self-efficacy, a psychological state associated with achieving success to external factors. An athlete who is depressed but likely to succeed, for example, if a black belt fought a yellow belt and both were equally depressed, the black belt should be confident of winning and explain these feelings in terms of competing against a much weaker opponent. It is therefore worth noting that judo coaches need to be sensitive to the emotional states of their players. An athlete in a depressed mood might interpret praise from the coach differently to an excited athlete. A depressed athlete might explain praise as something the coach “always says” or “has to say” rather than linking praise with a specific skill or quality. If an athlete processes praise externally, it is not always likely to raise self-efficacy expectations.

2.4 Developing self-efficacy

Given what we know about the components of self-efficacy and the sources of information that change it, we are all capable of developing strategies to increase our self-efficacy. For example, Bandura (1977) states that previous performance is the

strongest factor affecting self-efficacy; therefore, a judo coach may want to set up situations that provide successful experiences for the player. An effective method would be to breakdown complex skills into smaller more specific components that challenge the player but are within his or her current ability level (Gleeson 1967). Judo is a fine example of a systematic approach, for each student has to improve his or her judo performance to achieve judo belts. To begin judo, certain skills are taught starting with basic ones, they then build upon these skills until the more complicated skills are learned which bring students to progress to higher levels (Webber, 1997).

Tzetzis, Kioumourtzoglou and Mavromatis (1997) are of the opinion that goal setting and feedback are among the most important factors for enhancing physical skills and raising self-efficacy. However, they suggest that when feedback is separated from goals, feedback does not improve athletic performance. It should be noted that Tzetzis et al. conducted a laboratory-type investigation in which they manipulated goal-setting and feedback. Whilst this design allows for the investigation of such relationships, in real world setting coaches rarely separate goal-setting from feedback.

The question is what is the process between the type of feedback used and the development of coaching judo? Does greater use of intrinsic feedback create a higher level of self-efficacy, which in turn enhances the learning of judo? One experimental study that examined all these components was by Escarti and Guzman (1999). They manipulated the type of feedback given after an initial task. Participants were asked to estimate their self-efficacy for a second task. The results indicated that performance feedback was related to increased self-efficacy, a higher level of performance, and the tendency to choose tasks that are more difficult. They concluded that self-efficacy is a

mediating cognitive variable between feedback and performance and that the type of feedback affects the level of self-efficacy. This research most closely examines the question asked in this study. However, it does not specifically address the issue of using methods of intrinsic feedback and how that relates to self-efficacy.

2.5 Self-efficacy and coaching

Recent research has suggested that self-efficacy is not only an important factor for sport performers (Moritz, Feltz, Fahrbach and Mack, 2000), but also for coaches (Horn, 2002). Horn (2002) believes that coaching efficacy is an important variable within a constellation of personal characteristics (i.e. gender, motivational style, etc.) that influence coaching behaviour. Coaching efficacy is a sport-specific construct that has been defined as the extent to which coaches believe they have the capacity to affect the learning and performance of their players (Feltz, Chase, Moritz, and Sullivan, 1999; Myers, Vargas-Tonsing, and Feltz, 2005).

Feltz, Case, Moritz, and Sullivan (1999) believed that coaching behaviours and tasks could be grouped into four dimensions: motivating players, strategy use, coaching technique, and character-building skills. In recognition of the complexity of coaching tasks, they developed a multidimensional scale; the Coaching Efficacy Scale (CES). Subsequent psychometric analysis supported the hypothesized four-factor structure. Fung (in press) re-examined the psychometric properties of the CES while assessing the efficacy status of coaches with varying level of experience. She also found the internal consistency of the scale meeting the requirements suggested by Nunnally and Berstein (1994).

It is assumed that some coaches believe learning physical skills takes place without the context of an interpersonal relationship with the coach. The significant question is how will this interpersonal relationship affect the development of the motor skills of the elite judo player? Research (Escarri and Guzman, 1999) suggests that it might be the mediating factor between the presentation of the instruction by the coach and the performance of the skills by the player, which may be the cognitive process of self-efficacy. It might also be argued by others that the development of efficacy skills may lead to increased self-efficacy demonstrated by elite judo players and their coach's. Although this process occurs, it is not sufficient for explaining the role of developing self-efficacy and its impact on learning motor skills. To explain the role of self-efficacy, we must evaluate the effective context of the coach's behaviours, which may affect the performance of the player and how self-efficacy enhances each other's performance. Unfortunately, studies that directly examine this relationship between the coach and the player in judo are sparse and therefore, the inference needs to be made based on other sports research exploring the relationship and self-efficacy and motor skills relationship coaching in elite judo.

Coaches expend a great deal of effort helping players to develop their physical potential, however being coached in this particular method may effect the players psychological development. It is important to identify what the processes of judo coaching is and to find out what affect it can have on both the coach and the player. It is generally found that coaches tend to focus on the player's skills over which they perceive they have more control (Gleeson, 1976). However, Amorose and Horn, (2000) conclude that focus on controllable skills is contrary to the methods which have shown to be

effective for improving physical skills. Conversely, Nelson (1991) suggests that a coach can influence the psychological development of the player both intentionally and unintentionally. The judo coach can intentionally influence the psychological development of a player by providing positive advice that may influence the player performance whilst she or he is taking part in a judo contest. However, in the same situation, the coach could unintentionally influence the player's psychological development through his or her body language causing the player to lose composure during the contest. Therefore, it is important that coaches' are aware of both the positive and negatives of the psychological development for the players and themselves.

With coaching, now becoming a profession for most sports including judo, elite coaches are under constant pressure for their elite players to produce European, World and Olympic medals. This suggests more often than not, that the elite judo coach's jobs are dependant on the results of the judo player's performances at these prestigious events. The judo Olympic Games results from the Atlanta, Sydney, Athens and Beijing were disappointing with only one medal achieved. Due to the meagre results, the British Judo Association terminated all 'national coaches' contracts in 2005 in order to restructure their national coaching structure. Unfortunately, this had serious consequences for all British National Sports Agencies as they rely mainly on Government grant funding; however, their motto seems to be "no medals equal no funding." In some circumstances, coaches become ego-involved in their work and look for quick-fix solutions to ease the pressure for themselves which may also affect some coaches' behaviours. Horn (1984) suggested that coach's behaviours, have not been tested specifically in the sports setting. He also believed the expectations and beliefs about players' behaviours have not been

investigated. Coaching efficacy is an important variable in coaching effectiveness, athletic performance and players' satisfaction with their experience.

It is important for the judo coach to be aware of the implications of self-efficacy and the affects it may have on the player's choice of activity. While a player might have a high self-efficacy for obtaining a judo belt, the same player may have a low self-efficacy for the highly competitive part of judo, although Bandura (1996) argues that it would be rare for every player to have an equally high level of confidence across every skill domain. Consequently, the judo coach should consider a players self-efficacy when asking them to perform a particular task. Tasks that are perceived by the player as beyond their ability may ultimately be detrimental to their personal development.

As coaches engage in coaching they may be affected by such personal influences as goal setting, information processing, as well as situational factors that may include being given the opportunity to coach in situations outside of their judo club, whether or not it may be at squad or county level and may be even at national or international level. Schunk, (1995) believes that indicators of judo coaching progression through the levels sometimes provides feedback on how one is performing as a coach. Motivation and self-efficacy are enhanced when coaches perceive they are performing skilfully or becoming more confident. Lack of success or continuing to coach the same player/s week in and week out will not necessarily lower self-efficacy and motivation if the coach believes he or she can perform much better by adjusting their approach (Schunk, 1989). This approach could be used in judo where coaches could attend British Judo Association's coach-to-coach educational courses with one aim to help the coach to become more motivated.

2.6 Goal strategies

Firstly it is necessary to ask the question, what are goal strategies and what part do they play in coaching judo? Goal strategies are proposed to direct an individual's attention to relevant activities, which can increase the motivation to achieve certain results (Bandura, 1986). Goal setting also allows an individual to decide what he/she wants to accomplish, it also allows the individual to set guidelines in their planning to achieve these objectives.

It is important to look at the valuable role goal-setting strategies have for judo coaches and players. It is necessary at this stage to mention the link of goal setting, emotional intelligence and self-efficacy, as these are all important issues that need researching in judo. In all sports, there are many types of goals, both for training and competition. Therefore, it is important for both judo coaches' and players to be aware of the differences when they are processing their training strategies. Bandura (1986; 1997) was of the opinion that coaches must do more than convey positive appraisals to build the athletes self-efficacy. Self-efficacy can help athletes at all levels of participation by providing markers for gauging skill development. There will be different goals required at varying stages of the athletes' progress, for example in judo; novices are only required to perform simple basic techniques. Some judo players will also follow the competitive route and therefore will require different goals to that of the players progressing through the belt system. The judo belt syllabus in judo is a system that is structured on goal strategies; such as the use of process goals and performance goal also incorporating short and long-term goals.

2.7 Specific goals athletes set

Those investigating goal setting in sport have typically studied the nature of the goals set by athletes and the influence of these goals on enhancing performance. Much of the early research investigated goal difficulty (e.g., difficult versus easy goals), goal specificity (e.g., specific performance goals versus vague "do your best" goals), and the temporal nature of the goals (e.g., short-term versus long-term goals) (see Kyllö and Landers (1995) for a summary of this research). Researchers have made also distinctions between outcome and performance goals (Burton, Naylor and Holiday, 2001; Kingston and Hardy, 1994; 1997). Outcome goals are conceptualized as more product oriented, focusing on social comparison and object outcome such as winning or losing in competition. Performance goals are usually defined in terms of their process focus, emphasizing execution, improvement and achieving specific performance standards; for example, swimming a certain distance in a given time and "watching the ball" in a game (Hardy, Jones, and Gould, 1996). More recently, Kingston and Hardy (1994; 1997) have broadened this goal focus into performance and process goals. Process goals involve improving form, technique, and strategy (e.g., keeping the elbow high in front crawl) while performance goals involve improving overall performance (e.g., swimming faster split times). For years, practicing sport psychologists have encouraged the use of process and performance goals rather than outcome goals because of the perceived control and increased self-confidence derived from those goals (Burton, 1992; Filby, Maynard, and Graydon, 1999). However, more recently, researchers examining these three goal focuses have supported the benefits of maintaining a balance in the use of all three (Burton et al., 2001; Filby et al., 1999). Process, performance and outcome goals are all examples of

objective goals while general statements of intent are considered subjective goals (Hardy et al., 1996).

Burton, Naylor and Holliday (2001) proposed that goals are likely to serve different functions in training and competition, thus suggesting the type of goals set in these situations must be different. Judo players for instance who take part in competitive judo, will use different goals to those players progressing through the judo belt system. Goal setting strategies within the judo belt system have always been a prime motivating force to judo players, with the ultimate goal of achieving the coveted “Black belt”. Devonport (2006) explored the views of another martial art discipline (kickboxing), who also considered goal settings as extremely important part of their training, especially in the area of elite training. The results taken from the study, identified seven mental skills that they believed to be linked to success in kickboxing; 1) effective use of self-talk, 2) relaxation, 3) heightened concentration, 4) self-regulation of arousal, 5) goal setting, 6) coping with being hit, and 7) imagery. These kickboxing results would also apply to judo with very slight alterations.

As stated previously, athletes set goals for both training and competition, although Burton, Weinberg, Yukelson, and Weigand (1998) and Weinberg, Burton, Yukelson, and Weigand, (2000) suggest collegiate and Olympic athletes set more competition goals than practice goals. It was proposed that this could be in part due to the fact that athletes consider competition more important than training and therefore place more emphasis on setting competition goals. However, Burton, Naylor and Holliday (2001) did report that their sample of college athletes rated both practice and competition goals as equally

effective. Burton and colleagues further propose that the function of these goals may differ considerably (2001). Enhanced learning is often times the focus in practice situations, while performing optimally, or outperforming one's opponent is the focus in competitive situations. Because practices generally foster minimal evaluation and social comparison, as compared to competition, the function of practice goals may be on skill development as opposed to arousal goals and mental toughness goals, which are more prominent in competition. Although Burton and colleagues contend that the types of goals athletes set in training and competition probably differ, little research exists comparing the goals athletes set in these two situations. Therefore, this comparison was undertaken by Burton et al. (2001) and given the proposals that were made it was hypothesized that athletes would set primarily learning oriented goals in practice and execution oriented goals in competition. Lock and Latham (1990) suggest that evaluation is the most critical step in the goal setting process because only when athletes evaluate goals do the motivational and self-efficacy benefits of goal setting become evident.

Zimmerman (1989) proposed a development sequence of skills mastery in which process goals precede product or outcome goals. He stated that process goals are more effective as learners begin to practice on their own, whereas product goals assist learners later when they are adapting their routine performance skills to dynamic naturalistic conditions. It was also Zimmerman's belief, that types of goals used by participants influence their self-efficacy beliefs. Thus, his studies show support for assigned goals as a source of self-efficacy. In addition, the results highlight the differential effectiveness of the types of goals during the various stages of the learning progress.

2.8 Emotional Intelligence

It is not the researcher's intention to review in detail emotional intelligence here, but to emphasize a few key points that are deemed relevant to the links to self-efficacy and goal setting. There is evidence of self-efficacy relating to emotional intelligence, which is proposed to be the ability to perceive, monitor, employ, and manage emotions within one's self and in others (Salovey and Mayers, 1990; Bandura, 1997; Salovey, Mayers, and Caruso, 2002). Unfortunately, to date much of the research examining emotional intelligence has taken place outside of the sporting domain and instead has focused on the business (e.g., Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts, 2004), health (e.g., Pau and Crocker, 2003), and academic environments (e.g., Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan and Majeski, 2004; Parker, Hogan, Eastbrook, Oak, and Wood 2006). What little emotional intelligence research has taken place in the sporting domain has resulted in equivocal findings (Meyers and Zizzi, 2007). Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee (2002) assert that the effective use of emotion is basic to the function of successful leadership. They postulated further that leaders are emotional guides influencing not only follower emotions but also follower action through that emotional influence.

Emotional intelligence is a broad concept, which involves the ability to identify emotion in oneself and others, to be able to manage those emotions, and to use them to promote personal growth (Goleman et al., 2002). The term emotional intelligence was coined by Salovey and Mayer in 1990 to describe the differences observed in individuals as they worked to achieve "success" in life. Mayers and Salovey (1993) described emotional intelligence as a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's and other's emotions, to discriminate among them and to use the information to

guide one's thinking and actions, In other words, emotional intelligence is concerned with understanding of oneself and others.

Coaching people skills should involve using skills that could be part of the emotional intelligence concept. In order to purposefully move through the goal-focused coaching cycle, individuals have to be able to regulate their thoughts, feelings and behaviours so they can best achieve their goals (David, 2005; Singer, Hausenblas, and Janelle, 2001; Crust, 2005).

Emotional intelligence can also be understood as being related to personality traits. Traits are underlying and enduring personal characteristics, and are therefore more difficult to change than specific observable behaviours. From this perspective, coaching behaviours are, in part, a manifestation of an individual's emotional intelligence. Therefore developing an individual's coaching skills may well also enhance their emotional intelligence. However, little is known about how coaching skills training impacts on emotional intelligence, and the relationship between personality, emotional intelligence, and goal-focused coaching skills is not clearly understood (Bryant, 2005). It should be noted that if coaches are unable to appraise themselves, then it is unlikely that they would be able to reflect on how best to relate or communicate with their athletes (Thelwell, Lane, Weston and Greenlees, 2007).

If a player's performance levels fall below those expected, coaches will be required to appraise their own emotions and regulate them to ensure that they are not displaying inappropriate emotions to their performers, which ultimately may affect any subsequent interactions and ensuing performance. This could be equally applicable to motivation efficacy, where an inability to appraise and regulate one's own emotions

could lead to a reduced ability to affect the psychological states of the performers and in some cases, it could lead to inappropriate psychological states of the coaches themselves.

It is not the researcher's intention to explore the different traits in emotion intelligence, however, it was necessary to identify the links between self-efficacy and emotion intelligence as they are both inter-related. According to Bandura (1997), whatever effects emotional arousal might have on performance are likely to depend more on how much attention is paid to the arousal and whether it is interpreted as being positive or negative capability.

Based on Bar-On's (2005) model, to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express oneself, to understand and relate well with others, and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. At the intrapersonal level, it involves the ability to be aware of one self, to understand one's strengths and weaknesses and to express one's feelings and thoughts non-destructively. On the interpersonal level, being emotionally and socially intelligent encompasses the ability to be aware of other's emotions, feelings and needs and to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships. Thus, to be emotionally and socially intelligent implies the ability to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems, and making decisions.

In judo coaching, it is not enough for the coach to have the technical knowledge, for it is also necessary for the coach to establish good relationships between the player and him/herself. Martens (2004) suggests, "to be a successful coach", is to help the player to win contests. As this would be the ultimate goal of the judo player. Martens was also

of the opinion that it is much more than winning contests, it is about helping the player to learn new skills, enjoying competing with others and achieving their potential. Therefore, the player needs to feel confident in the skills he or she has achieved in the sport. The player will also sometimes look towards the coach when in combat, for guidance and support. A player will quickly react to the body language or from the feedback from the coach, which the player is receiving. This in-turn may affect the player's emotional intelligence, either to a positive or to a negative disadvantage. It is therefore necessary for both the player and coach to be aware of the affects that emotional intelligence can have on both their performances especially in competition judo.

2.6 Conclusion to the literature review

The literature review has attempted to outline some existing research, it has also highlighted the need to explore effective judo coaching and how future research could be conducted. Brewer and Jones (2002) argue that a sport-specific methodology should be used to identify issues that influence the coaching structure, an argument supported in the present thesis. Self-efficacy theory, emotional intelligence and goal setting, provided an embracing theoretical framework in which to study coaching effectiveness. The history and tradition of judo is likely to have a strong influence on attitudes and beliefs on what constitutes effective coaching. Previous experiences of what constitutes an effective judo coach may be clouded heavily by this tradition. With this in mind, the first step of the study is to explore the attitudes and beliefs of coaches and players to develop and validate a tool for use in judo. Once this measure is validated, it will be possible to investigate differences in attitudes and beliefs of coaches at different levels, and to draw comparison with players. The final stage of this research is to

investigate how attitudes and beliefs to effective coaching, relate to variables associated with successful leadership through relationships with emotional intelligence.

**Chapter 3: Study 1: What is effective judo
coaching? Development of the Judo Coaching
Scale**

3.1 Aims of the investigation:

1. To explore factors that judo coaches perceive constitutes effective coaching behaviours.
2. Develop a tool that assesses judo coaches' perceptions of self-efficacy to coach effectively and judo players' self-efficacy toward achieving success.

3.2 Method

Stage one of the thesis is to provide a method to establish what both coaches and players think constitutes an effective judo coach, which also takes into consideration what effective coaching is. Alreck and Settle (1985) and Oppenheim (1992), among others, provide a detailed account of how to tackle the construction of questionnaires and interviews. The researcher used qualitative techniques such as open ended and semi-structured interviews to explore perceptions of the coaching process. The decision to use qualitative techniques, were driven from proposals by Bandura (1997) who suggested that researchers should develop situational-specific scales. Brewer and Jones (2000) believe that each sport has unique characteristics that need to be explored from a grounded perspective. The decision to use an inductive methodology is further justified by looking at how measures of self-efficacy are developed. Self-efficacy scales developed specifically for one domain have been found to show stronger relationships with performance of self-efficacy measures (Moritz et al., 2000), a finding evidenced in sport (see Lane, Jones, and Stevens, 2002) and academic settings (see Lane, Hall, and Lane, 2002). Therefore, a grounded approach was used to explore the attitudes of coaches.

Chapters 1 and 2 concluded with the suggestion that a specific scale for judo coaches should be developed. The aim of this section is to use qualitative methods to

establish and clarify constructs pertaining to effective coaching behaviours from judo coaches' and players'. Data will be used to construct a new measure of effective judo coaching ensuring that the new inventory measures the most relevant aspects of judo coaching behaviours. Qualitative methods offer insight into attributions for coaching behaviours and maintenance of these behaviours. Initial themes and questions are explored using focus groups before further exploration using individual interviews. Data from the interviews were analysed following both focus group and one-to-one interviews. One purpose of the focus groups was to develop some specific questions, or more pointed questions for the one-to-one interviews. These questions are presented at the end of the first section, and data from the focus groups on the main question is presented with the one-to-one interview data in the main results section.

3.3 Qualitative methods

The following section outlines the process undertaken when collecting, analysing and presenting qualitative data. The steps taken to assure the trustworthiness and validity of data are also described. Whilst the form of qualitative data collated within study one, three and five differs, the procedures for collecting and analysing data are similar.

When recruiting participants, the researcher was cognisant that the strengths of qualitative inquiry rest upon trust and rapport between the researcher and those being researched (Fontana and Frey, 2000). In order to develop trust and rapport, all participants were provided with detailed information regarding the nature and purposes of the interview (study one) or open-ended questions (study three and five). This information described the study rationale, the use of data, issues of confidentiality and the

topics to be explored. All participants were assured that their responses would remain confidential and there were no right or wrong answers. As the researcher occupied a position of responsibility within the British Judo Association, no incentives were offered for participation. Participants confidentiality was assured and data would not contribute in any way to the selection or training of players.

When utilising qualitative methods, a concern is the potential bias resulting from a researcher's history, gender, socio-economic class and ethnicity (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). Such bias could undermine the validity and reliability of qualitative data. Qualitative validity can be attained by employing procedures to check the accuracy of findings (Creswell, 2009) whilst qualitative reliability indicates that the approach used is consistent across different researchers and projects (Gibbs, 2007). Silverman (2000) suggests that threats to validity and reliability can be minimised by the way in which data are interpreted. Consequently, a number of measures advocated by Gibbs (2007) were taken to ensure a reliable, valid and objective representation of data. Firstly, in order to check the interview transcripts for accuracy of representation and content, all participants were provided with a copy of their interview transcripts to check for accuracy and add/omit comments as necessary. Once content was approved, data analysis began.

In an attempt to enhance the validity and reliability of coding, the researcher sought an alternative perception of the data (Patton, 1990; Stake, 2000). With the consent of each participant, transcribed interviews and/or written data were independently coded by an experienced qualitative researcher. Experience was established by numerous published qualitative articles in peer reviewed journals. Once coding was complete, a meeting took

place between the researcher and the qualitative researcher. The purpose of this meeting was to compare and explore those themes identified following qualitative data analysis. Discussions between the author and second qualitative researcher resulted in either a consensus with regard to a raw theme or changes until consensus was attained. This process challenged the author to justify the coding of raw data and the labelling of specific themes (Dale, 1996). Whilst coding progressed raw data themes were grouped into categories that represented a common theme. Coding notes were maintained to ensure that the definition of codes remained consistent and agreed.

3.4 Focus groups

Focus groups were considered the most appropriate method for the initial study for a number of reasons. Firstly, one of the main advantages of qualitative research is that it allows researchers to gain an in-depth understanding of the participants and their experiences (Woodman & Hardy, 2001). Little is known about judo coaches and players perceptions of each other's attitudes and behaviours. Most research on judo coaches has focused on physical skills; however, it has been shown there is a large variation in results using psychological measures; therefore focus groups offer insight where questionnaires cannot. Secondly, focus groups are useful for understanding abstract topics, they allow the researcher to explore unanticipated relevant issues and concerns that may arise from coach and player discussions (Creswell, 2009). This allows the exploration of important areas that may occur, other than those listed in a questionnaire (Byers and Wilcox, 1991). Thirdly, focus groups offer flexibility and can be used to inform the development of subsequent interview questions (Morgan, 1988). In this instance, focus groups were used to frame questions for one-to-one interviews. Fourth, multiple views of reality can exist

and individuals are invited to participate in a forum where their diverse opinions are essential (Brotherson, 1994). Focus groups allow participants to react, agree or disagree, build on and provide further insight into the comments made by other participants (Krueger, 1994). Fifth, the researcher can elicit substantive information about participants' thoughts and feelings on the topic of interest in relatively little time (Vaughn et al., 1996). Sixth, unlike questionnaires, focus groups have the potential to bring the investigator closer to the research topic through a direct, intensive encounter with key individuals. Focus groups encourage interaction between participants and greater openness in their responses as well as encouraging the participants to form their own opinions about the topic (Beck, Trombetta, and Share, 1986). Seventh, the relatively informal atmosphere of a focus group interview encourages participants to speak freely about the behaviours, attitudes and opinions they possess (Berg, 2001). Finally, in a review of research methods in sport and exercise, Biddle et al. (2001) indicated that focus groups offer the potential to explore a wider range of responses and encourage those conducting the analysis to consider the responses from a less focused agenda.

3.5 Participants and procedure

The initial research was to formulate questions, which were suitable for the following stage of the research, the face-to-face interviews. It was considered necessary to devise a questionnaire for both coaches and players to establish their views on what they believe constitutes "an effective judo coach". The researcher made the decision, to use six judo coaches (N=6) as one focus group; and six players (N=6) as the other focus group. Indeed the focus groups were all experienced judo coaches' and players' and were all members of the British Judo Association and the 3ks judo club. Each focus group was

conducted on two separate nights, the first being with the coaches, followed by the players on a different occasion. Both focus groups were conducted at the above judo club, with each group following the same format. The question being discussed was “What constitutes an effective judo coach?.” The coaches were chosen due to their experiences in club and elite judo coaching. The players were selected based on their experience as judo competitors, either at an international or national level. Some researchers disagree about the appropriate number of participant for a successful focus group. Many seasoned moderators prefer a group ranging from 8-12 (Lindlof, 1995), 6-8 (Krueger, 1998b), or 5-6 (Green and Heart, 1999). Whereas, Brown (1999), indicates that the group should consist of 4-12, if the group is homogeneous and 6-12 if heterogeneous. The researcher decided to use Brown’s (1999) homogeneous model, as they were all experienced judoka, which reflected the target population. An audio recorder was used to record the individual discussion groups together with the use of a white board for taking notes, plus an independent moderator. The researcher gave a brief explanation as to the procedure of the focus group and highlighted that the purpose was not to establish any right or wrong answers, but to explore what the participants considered to be an effective judo coach. The researcher explained to each of the focus groups that if any individual wished to withdraw from the group at anytime, they would be free to do so without any negative pressure or consequences. It was also reiterated, that no names would be connected to the study and all comments would remain confidential. The objective of these two focus groups was to identify questions for the face-to-face interviews, which will be presented, to five random selected high graded elite judo coaches and judo players. The players

selected for the face-to-face interviews, were not from the 3ks judo club who provided the recipients for the original focus groups.

In an attempt to overcome the limited theory in the area of judo coaching attitudes, an inductive approach will be used in the initial stages of the development of a new measure. Qualitative techniques, (i.e., focus groups, interview and surveys) along with existing literature were used to define the constructs, the domain of content and to develop a theoretical basis. After developing this theoretical base, an inductive approach would be used where inter-relationships and models are proposed and tested. To examine item selection and the constructs (factorial validity), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) would be used.

3.6 Results of Focus Groups: Specific questions that were developed

The 25 questions which arose from the focus group and subsequently presented to the five judo coaches and players were as follows:-

(1) Question

How effective is the national bodies coaching structure at developing judo players?

(2) Question

What are your thoughts on the present elite coaching system, for producing champions?

(3) Question

Do you think there is a need for coach specialisation at the various weight categories?

Example: coaches becoming specialist in certain weight training categories?

(4) Question

Please describe the main skills that you think a coach would need to operate at the elite level?

(5) Question

How much responsibility do you think the coach should have in the training of elite players?

(6) Question

Describe the personal skills that you think are needed for a coach who is involved with training elite judo players?

(7) Question

As an elite judo coach, what do you think you can you learn from other sports, apart from judo?

(8) Question

Do you see coaching at elite level, any different to coaching at a club level?

(9) Question

Are there any changes you would like to see in the training procedures for elite players?

(10) Question

How would you sum-up the back-up-support for elite judo players?

(11) Question

Explain how you see the provisions for coach education, at the elite level?

(12) Question

In elite training, what are your thoughts on players being fully involved in their own planning preparation programmes?

(13) Question

What type of training do you think is needed to become an elite judo coach?

(14) Question

Club coaches have a formal qualification, what is your opinion on having a formal qualification for an elite coach?

(15) Question

If you could improve one thing for elite coaches, what would it be?

(16) Question

What do you see as the main attributes that make a good elite coach?

(17) Question

As a personal issue, what do you need to improve your own elite coaching ability?

(18) Question

How do you prepare the training schedules for your elite players?

(19) Question

Can you identify what you think players look for in an elite judo coach?

(20) Question

What attribute would you be looking for in an elite judo player?

(21) Question

Would there be a benefit for the players, if coaches specialised in certain techniques?

(22) Question

Please describe what you think of the British Judo Association coaching structure at this present time?

(23) Question

Are judo coaches capable at coaching at all levels of judo, what are your thoughts on this issue?

(24) Question

What is your judo dream for elite coaches?

(25) Question

Finally, could you please describe your thoughts on the present elite coaching structure and the chances of winning Olympic and world-class medals?

3.7 Face-to-face interviews

The in-depth interviews were conducted individually with five coaches and five judo players. Interviews were taped and transcribed verbatim with the main purpose of the interviews to examine, coaches' and players' beliefs on what they consider constitutes effective judo coaching. The confidentiality procedures were explained to the participants, and it was pointed out that they could withdraw from participating at anytime they wished, with no pressure or consequences.

Open-ended questions were used to explore the respondent coaches and players' observations of the British Judo Association's coaching structure. An inductive analysis of interview data ensured an accurate representation of the contribution of psychology to success discussed by participants. Deductive procedures were utilised in that prior knowledge concerning the contribution of psychology to success helped interpret the data. Reliability criteria were met through continued discussions between the author and participants to ensure continued accuracy of representation. Results are presented in the form of direct quotations in an attempt to accurately reflect the views and experiences of participants.

The interviews were conducted in the participant's judo club. All participants were asked to nominate how and where they would like to be interviewed. Following

institutional ethical approval, open-ended and semi-structured interviews were used to explore the perceptions of elite British Judo Association coaches on what constitutes an effective judo coach. Coaches (N=5) players (N=5) and a player-coach, a former masters champion and a professional judo coach (an educationalist) who agreed to overviewed the questionnaires.

The same interview guide was used for the coaches' and players. The questions were designed to allow respondents to highlight their comments on their concepts of what constitutes an effective judo coach. Thematic lines of inquiry focused on the perceived effectiveness of the national body's coaching certification structure. What skills they think are required to be an effective judo coach, and to how these skills could be acquired and implemented.

Below is a table outlining the experiences of the five judo coaches completing an individual interview. Each coach has been involved in judo at the highest level for a minimum of 25 years. Name and identifying characteristics are not presented in Table 2 and consent for the presentation of this information was attained.

Table 2: Coach accomplishments

<p>Coach 1. Judo Grade 6th Dan Qualified Senior Coach British Judo Association</p> <p>A former player at national and international level. Coached Olympic and a World Judo player and a coach who has been actively involved in all levels of judo for 25 years.</p> <p>-----</p>
<p>Coach 2. Judo Grade 6th Dan Qualified Senior Coach British Judo Association</p> <p>Has coached players to world and Olympic standards, including players from the last Athens Olympic Games 2004. The coach has also been involved at the highest level of judo at the executive level, which has included the International Judo Federation (IJF) and the European Judo Union (EJU) and has attended all World and Olympic Games over the last 25 years</p> <p>-----</p>
<p>Coach 3. Judo Grade 6th Dan Qualified Senior Coach British Judo Association</p> <p>Represented and captained the British Universities at International events and a highly rated and respected judo competitor and coach. He was coach of the year 2005, for the British Schools Judo Association. He has coached judo at all levels from Junior to senior international</p>

standard. He was head coach for the Midland Area National Senior Men's Team, who were silver medallist in 2007 National Team Championship.

Coach 4. Judo Grade 6th Dan Qualified Senior Coach British Judo Association

Is a Director of the British Judo Association, who is the Technical Director for British Schools Judo Association and a member of the Education Commission of the National Governing Body? He is very actively involved in all coaching aspects of judo at all levels.

Coach 5. Judo Grade 6th Dan Qualified Senior Coach British Judo Association

A former Olympic Judo Coach at the 1984, 1988 and 1992 Olympic Games with many medal successes to his credit. Still very actively involved in coaching and has conducted many coaching seminars at all levels of judo.

Table 3, *presents the details of those players completing individual interviews.*

Table 3: Player accomplishments

Player 1. Judo Grade 2nd Dan Elite British Judo Association A player who was a former schoolboy judo champion who has performed at national and international level. The has been actively involved in judo from the age of 8years. He has taken part at many national events as an adult player and is a rated performer at his weight category.
Player 2. Judo Grade 2nd Dan British Judo Association A player who is a member of the Great Britain masters squad and a player who has taken part in many national competitive events.
Player 3. Judo Grade 2nd Dan British Judo Association Player number three is an active judo player who participates in competitions at regional and national level.
Player 4. Judo Grade 2nd Dan British Judo Association A judo masters champion at his weight category. The player has performed at national and international level and is still very actively involved in the competitive side of judo.
Player 5. Judo Grade 4th Dan British Judo Association Player number three is an active judo player who participates in events at regional and national level.

3.8 Interviews

Individual interviews lasted approximately 40-minutes. Participants were all members of the national governing body. All participants participated in regular judo activities at the highest level; therefore, they were familiar with judo at all levels.

The rationale for using coaches and players was twofold, first, to ensure that the input of a coaching and playing perspective was attained. By only asking the coaches, this might provide a biased perspective. Therefore including the players, enhances the chance for rich data to be provided.

As recommended by Berg (2001), a standardised interview guide was read to the coaches and players outlining how the session would proceed. The main emphasis was that there were no right or wrong answers, but rather differing points of views from each participant. Before the interview began, the interviewer introduced himself, and

gave a description of the procedure and explained that the discussion will be audio taped. The participants were explained the procedures as follows: “I am going to ask you some questions about your thoughts on judo coaching within the UK. What you say during this interview will remain confidential, and your name will not be used in any way following this interview. The only reason I am using a tape recorder is so that I can accurately recall what you say.”

The questions were determined in advance. They were very general questions allowing the dynamics of the group to steer the course of discussions. The same interview guide was used for the coaches and players with slight modifications. The questions were designed to allow respondents to highlight their thoughts and understanding of effective judo coaching. No direct questions were asked of the participants about how they conduct their own coaching or to the players how the coaches may affect their performances. Non-direction was achieved by asking several forms of questions. The interviewer listened and did not comment except to ensure that the topic was covered, everyone’s views were heard, and participants did not change or get off topics.

A demographic questionnaire was then administered. The reasons for handing out the questionnaire were:

- It was used to confirm that all individuals in the group were qualified judo coaches.
- It explained in a written format that they were free to stop at anytime.
- It explained to the participants what was going to be discussed.

Demographic questions included:

- What is your judo qualification?
- What is your judo grade?

- What is your gender?
- How old are you?

3.9 Analysis

Responses from the participants were taped and transcribed directly onto a word-processing package. The file was read and re-read while listening to the tape to check for errors. After each transcript, themes emerged, which were placed in appropriate categories. The analysis continues to develop until further common threads created a higher-level theme. The themes were then labelled with an appropriate name reflecting the content of each theme. After the comment had been read, those with comments on similarities, differences, associations and connections between texts could be made. Themes were developed following the procedure as recommended by Patton (1990) where raw data was interpreted into meaningful themes and categories from the quotations. The process began with clustering quotes around common threads, which become the developing themes.

An attempt to control the researchers' individual biases was conducted through regular discussions with an experienced qualitative researcher to evaluate the interpretive process and assess the trustworthiness of the study, based on the researcher's interpretations (Dale, 1996).

3.10 Results and discussion

The aim of this study was to explore judo coaches' and player's perceptions of effective coaching behaviours and the structure in which effective coaching can take place. The objective was to develop a measure of judo coaching self-efficacy. The primary research was carried out by sampling coaches and players from the British Judo

Association. The research was conducted by using qualitative techniques, such as open-ended semi-structured interviews to explore the current judo structure and their perceptions of an effective judo coach. The interview data were used to form a measure that assesses aspects of judo coaching relevant to participants. The results were discussed with a selected group of elite judo coaches.

In terms of the structure of judo, interview data from coaches indicates that there appears to be a consensus for a need to improve the British Judo Association's national coaching structure at the elite level. Results also indicated that the coaching structure had not been sufficiently up-dated in line with the requirements for the current judo at World and Olympic levels. McGeechan (cited in Jones, Armour and Potrac, 2004) proposed: "If you haven't got structure, then I don't think that you can do anything as it all becomes too airy-fairy (p.55). Players (Judoka) like to follow a structure, as this has been their progression through the judo belt system, which is well organised and well structured" (p.35). The coaches also believed that it was important to ensure that more resources are needed at the grass-root level. Comments from the coaches suggested that perhaps judo club coaches who initially train the players, should be able to be involved with the players as they move to elite judo.

Results show five common themes emerged from the focus groups including: 1) Coaches' perceptions; 2) Specialisation; 3) Technical; 4) Personal qualities, and 5) Coach dedication. Coaches thought that it was important to contextualise how judo coaches develop their skills; and demonstrate these skills in training sessions. Comments noted that it was worth exploring reasons for the possible stagnancy in the structure of judo coaching, particularly at the elite level. In order to achieve this task, it is worth

discussing models of leadership with reference to how judo lessons are typically organised at different levels.

Coaches' in many sports use different styles of coaching methods and judo is no different. Martens (2004) proposed three styles of coaching, which could be applied to a typical judo lesson. The first style is the Command Style (1), which Martens labelled "The Dictator". In the command style of coaching, the coach makes all of the decisions. Interview results from both coaches and players highlighted that the command style was suitable for novices; coaches also indicated this is the style mainly practiced in most judo clubs (see example of a typical lesson in Chapter 1). Kirt (1996) suggests that a coach adopting a direct method is a very common sight, possibly more so with juniors or less experienced players, where the coach is positioned and positions her or himself as the "knowledgeable one". Most coaches would not term this as a dictator style; however, it would be classified as an autocratic type of teaching. It is argued that many students positively respond to the autocratic coaching style based on a belief that it is the best way of moving through the coloured belts in judo. In order to achieve these belts the students have to follow a strict judo syllabus, which does not permit individual interpretation. Students pass belt grading by following correct procedures and demonstrating techniques, which tends to produce a (1) rote learning style. The second coaching style is the submissive style, which Martens (2004) described as (2) 'The Baby-Sitter'. This is where the coach who adopts the submissive style makes as few decisions as possible. It is classified as the baby sitter style, which may be the case in coaches teaching junior judoka, however, this also provides a system for retaining judoka in the sport, as not everyone wishes to be a competitive player. Most children are introduced to judo by their

parents, and therefore it may not be what the child really wants to do. It is up to the judo coach to make judo as interesting and enjoyable as possible, and then perhaps that child will want to come to judo again. This can also be an effective part of judo, if the correct training is given to coaches. The third style of coaching is the cooperative Style which Martens (2004) described as (3) “The Teacher”. This style is characterised by coaches who select the cooperative style, share decision making with their players. The cooperative approach is essential for the competitive players who have achieved the standard of brown belt and have identified that the competitive route is for them (This will not be the same for all brown belts.) It is significant for the coach and the player to have set training schedules and targeted competitions, however both must feel comfortable and agree the training will be in the best interest for the player. There will be exceptions, as some coaches are paid, and their jobs may depend on the results of the player’s in International, World and Olympic Games tournaments.

Martens (2004) dismissed the submissive style as not a useful approach to coaching. He believes it is not coaching but an abdication of your duties as a coach. The command style has been mainly adopted by professional college staff. Sometimes inexperienced coaches adopt the command styles because it is the only one they have seen modelled by their own coach or others. He stated, however, that the command style can be effective if winning is the coach’s primary objective, providing the authoritarian nature does not stifle athlete’s motivation. Martens favour the third option, which is the cooperative style that involves sharing decision with the athlete. Crisfield, Cabral and Carpenter (1996) believe that coaches tend to develop their own natural style, which reflect their personality, knowledge and experience. Typically, coaches use a

combination of *tells* (giving information) *Show* (using demonstrations) and *Ask* (questioning) when coaching performers. This last method is used for teaching in judo clubs.

On the initial introduction to judo, the relationship between the judo coach and the student/s would be a co-operative style that would give both the student and the coach an opportunity to gain each other's confidence. The first few weeks would be the introduction into the rules and regulations of the sport and its procedures. Students would then follow procedures on how to land safely from a throwing technique. From here onwards, judo then becomes very traditional and very autocratic in the teaching procedure. This style of teaching normally will progress right through the judo belt system up to the standard of brown belt. By the time a student reaches the brown belt stage they will have decided whether or not they wish to progress through the competitive judo system. This again is where the relationship between the coach and the student will change again from being an autocratic approach to teaching to a co-operative style, which will enable both the coach and the student to work together in plan competitions and setting realistic targets of events.

It is important when a person decides to participate in judo for the first time; that the coach needs to build up a good relationship with the beginner. Most people would probably be nervous about being thrown for the first time. After the coach has gently introduced the athlete to the safety factors and the philosophy of judo, then instruction becomes very autocratic. The coach will control the lessons and follow the belt grading procedure in an autocratic way, as each belt promotion has a set of formal demonstrations

that the judoka has to follow. The reputation of the coach would also be under scrutiny, when his or her students are being examined. It is therefore important for the coach to ensure that their participants perform the set techniques to the standards required, as this would reflect on their credibility. The judoka accept this form of teaching, as they know that they cannot achieve a judo grade without following the strict judo syllabus. When the judoka reaches the grade of brown belt and they have followed the format of rote learning, they will then have a general experience and knowledge of judo. This is when relationship changes once more. It is usually this grade when the judoka will decide if they intend to become a judo coach or to pursue the competitor's route in judo.

3.11 Development of a questionnaire

With themes identified in mind along with discussion on approaches to coaching judo, the next stage of the research was to develop a tool for assessing attitudes and beliefs to coaching judo. The content of the questionnaire is grounded in the experience of judo coaches and players, and therefore, it will show a high degree of face validity and content validity, which should mean that participants from the judo population should be able to understand the questions being asked, and see the relevance of them within judo.

Table 3: Judo coaching questionnaire: Statements to be included on the questionnaire

Rationale for inclusion based on coach and athlete interview data	
1	<p>Effective coaching is about winning medals at the Olympic Games.</p> <p>This statement was made clearly by elite coaches. It is important to assess coaches' attitude to winning medals, as this is likely to assess the degree to which competition is emphasised in training. It is expected that junior coaches or recreational coaches would be more than likely to disagree with this statement. Elite coaches, often in employment based on medal achievement, should logically agree.</p>
2	<p>I need to be in full control of my player's coaching sessions.</p> <p>Coaches emphasised the importance of needing to feel in control, a sentiment echoed in interview data with players. Arguably, inclination of an autocratic learning and performing environment within the beliefs of coaches and players is linked to the traditional approach to teaching the sport. High scores on this scale could be reflective of preferring to coach using traditional methods.</p>
3	<p>It is important to have good working relationship with your players.</p> <p>Both coaches and players emphasised the importance of coach-athlete relationships. The term good could mean different things to different people. By using the term 'good', this allows respondents to interpret the item in line with their beliefs on what constitutes good. It is expected that most coaches and players would agree with this statement. Emotionally intelligent coaches, who emphasise developing personal relationships, should report higher scores of agreement.</p>
4	<p>I am happy with the British Judo Coaching structure.</p> <p>It thought it necessary and important for both coaches and players to assess coaches' and players on their perception of the current national coaching judo structure. If both the coaches and players have different opinions on their concepts of what constitutes an effective coaching structure, then it may create a situation which could provide the British Judo Association with an opportunity to take this into consideration when devising a new coaching conception.</p>
5	<p>My judo training has given me confidence to teach judo at an elite level.</p> <p>The initial coaches were interested to see if the "coach education programmes", provided by the National Governing body, were sufficiently structured to give coaches confidence to teach at any judo level. Both players and coaches also suggested that some coaches do not have the confidence to coach at elite level. It was suggested that judo coaches might only have the confidence to teach junior players only whereas others may only have the confidence to converse and teach adult players. This might advocate that there may be a need to have different levels of judo coaches.</p>
6	<p>I regularly plan my lesson and training sessions.</p> <p>Most coaches explained that they regularly organise and plan their coaching sessions, they also believed that are they are well prepared. It was thought to be interesting to see if the players agree with their concepts?</p>

7	There should be specialist technical coaches, who would specialise with individual techniques, such as, standing and groundwork skills?	Coaches and players have over a period of time spoken about the benefits of having specialist judo training for players at different weight categories, with specialised coaches. This they believe would help players from different weight categories that would require diverse skills from each other in executing ranges of technique. Timing and pace would also be different. i.e., Lightweight would perform their skills at quicker tempo than that of a heavyweight who would performer at a much slower pace.
8	Sport psychology should be a part of the coaches' educational training.	Coaches answers were of interest as Darst et al., (1989) suggested the psychology of coaching is inextricably linked with the coach's ability to influence the behaviour of performers more effectively, it would seem important to continue the utilisation of systematic observation to further generate answers regarding good coaching practices and the development of associated language. Although judo is quite a competitive sport, where elite judoka are mainly using physical technical and tactical skills. The area of weakness that elite judo players and coaches may experience could possibly be in their mental training skills.
9	The elite training system now in place, is well structured.	The initial group of coaches were not sure if the training and structure was sufficient to prepare elite players, especially after the results from the last two Olympic Games. It was believed that it was necessary to assess coaches and players perceptions of the present training structure. Most coaches and players were of the opinion that the elite training structure was not in place at this present time.
10	Effective coaching is about how many students attend your class each week.	The majority of judo clubs are mainly junior orientated and therefore there will always be many children sampling judo. The important issue for the coach would be retaining these youngsters. The coaches and players believed this would be down to the personality of the coach and the different styles within the coaching structure.
11	I frequently discuss with players, their training schedules.	The coaches explained that they did discuss with player their training schedules. This was to seek if judo coaches at elite level change their style of coaching, as the player's progress through the belt system. It was also to find out if, the coaches teaching changes from autocratic to democratic teaching as player's progress to higher graded judo belts. It would be interesting to assess whether-or not this actually takes place
12	It is important to have performed judo at a high competition level, to become an elite coach.	Players and coaches were of the opinion that it may not be necessary for the coach to have been a high-class judo competitor, but they both agreed the coach should have an in-depth knowledge of the sport and have experience in the competitive side of judo.
13	Club level provides judoka with an excellent opportunity for moving on to the elite competition level.	It was suggested that perhaps club judo might not be producing the calibre of players that are required for elite judo. Although judo was a very successful Olympic sport, the last two decades British judo has slipped from the medal ranking. It was thought that perhaps the present system coaching structure might need to be reviewed.

<p>14 I am fully conversant with the International Refereeing Rules and Regulations.</p>	<p>Both coaches and players expressed the importance of having knowledge for the rules, regulations and refereeing terms within the judo coaching structure. It was agreed by both coaches and players that their confidence it improves when one is familiar with the rules of their sport. It was agreed that it was important to assess how much emphasis they placed on the learning of these regulations.</p>
<p>15 It is not necessarily an advantage to have qualifications to be a regional or elite coach.</p>	<p>This question was deemed necessary to assess how much emphasis players and coaches placed on coaching qualifications. It was suggested that regional and even elite international coaches are mainly chosen on their former competitive experiences; rather than their qualifications.</p>
<p>16 The current education training structure is sufficient to provide coaches with the appropriate skills to coach at the highest level.</p>	<p>This question was introduced to find out if the coaches and players were confident in the current coaching education system. Also whether-or-not, it provides the appropriate skills need for elite coaches to perform to their maximum efficiency at the highest level? It was thought there might be an opportunity to revamp the elite section of the British Judo Association.</p>
<p>17 There is no difference between club judo and elite judo.</p>	<p>If judo is to progress, it is necessary to explore if both coaches and players think there is any difference between club and elite judo. There was not a difference in the eyes of all coaches and players, however further exploration is needed to find out if the coaches perceive there is a difference, what is difference and will it have on the effect the development of elite judo?</p>
<p>18 I need more personal development, in my coaching skills.</p>	<p>Some coaches felt that once they have achieved their coaching award they are formally qualified. There were coaches who would welcome more personal development, although they have the knowledge, but perhaps they may not have the necessary experience. Possibly the way forward would be to have on-going coach education training structure. Whitmore, (1992) suggests that coaching is about facilitating learning and change, rather than merely dispensing information, and focuses on enhancing self-understanding and insight in relation to the task in hand.</p>
<p>19 Effective coaching is based on how many medals a club wins at competitions.</p>	<p>Coaches acknowledged that effective coaching is not just based on how many medals a club wins. <i>Martens (2004)</i> asked the question is successful coaching about winning contest. He believes yes, in part, winning is an aspect of successful coaching. However, successful coaching is much more than just winning contests. Successful coaches help players master new skills, enjoy competing with others, and develop self-esteem. Successful coaches are not only well versed in the technical and tactical skills of their sport, but they also know how to teach these skills to young people. Successful coaches not only teach players sport skills; they also teach and model the skills players will need to live successfully in our society.</p>

20	Judo needs to change from the traditional philosophy, to modern day competitive judo.	There was concern that perhaps coaches and players were of the opinion, that it is time for a re-format of the judo structure. Are coaches and player happy to makes changes? Is there an opportunity to blend the modern competitive philosophies and still keep the ethos of the sport of judo?
21	Effective judo coaching is based on how many medals an individual player wins at competitions.	This question is similar to Q1, where the emphasis was on Olympic, World and International Judo; this question was aimed at mainly club coaches to assess their perception of competitive judo.
22	I am confident with using video analysis.	Coaches and players accepted the importance of using video analysis for feedback purposes; however, it is not widely use by coaches at elite level. At club level, it would be negligible used as most clubs are focused on taking the players through the judo belt system.
23	I have sufficient knowledge and skills to coach at any level of judo.	Some judo coaches felt they have enough knowledge to teach at any level of judo. Coaches believed they obtained most of their own experiences through the belt system. Unfortunately, for some coaches, they may not have the ability to transfer their knowledge and skills to the players.
24	It is important for the coach to mentally prepare his/her player/s	Most often coaches use their time preparing players in their physical activities with very little input into the players' mental preparation. It was thought however, that not many coaches have the skills to mentally prepare elite players'.
25	It is important for the coach to have total commitment for his/her players.	Coaches are viewed by themselves and players as experts in judo. Judo tradition has a ritual where players form a line and bow to the master grade. This tradition is the same throughout the judo world. Many coaches still position themselves, and are positioned by others, as the experts in judo. The coaches and players were of the opinion, that elite judo coaches should be a more democratic with their form of coaching.
26	There is a vast difference between club judo and elite judo.	This question could prove controversial between both club and elite players and coaches. The elite coaches' and players' may assume that their level of judo is of a higher standard, and therefore more important than that of club judo.
27	Club coaches can teach at any level.	It was the opinion that some coaches may be able to teach at different levels. However, players would prefer coaches who already had proven ability, at the elite level. Cialdini (2001) states that a person could harness power by touting experience, expertise, and credentials. People value the expertise of authority, because it helps them to choose both quickly and well. Expertise refers to the extent to which a person is perceived to be a source of valid assertions especially with regard to the task that is being performed.

28	I am very confident being part of this coach–player relationship.	Most coaches feel they are confident when dealing with their players. Jowett, (2002) stressed the importance of building an effective coach-athlete relationship, as the quality of the relationship is a crucial determinant of players satisfaction, motivation and improved performance. It was deemed important, to assess if this relationship exists between coaches and players.
29	It is important to me that others are not aware of any negative thoughts I may have about my player.	Both coaches and players believed that it was important to have a united relationship especially in the competitive environment. When players compete they have to be single minded and concentrate on the positive. Any negative thoughts from either player or coach would be detrimental to the outcome result.
30	I do not always know the reasons why I stay in this coach – player relationship.	The relationship between the coach and the player should be central to the coaching process. The coaches’ aims should be to foster a positive working relationship with the player/s. Ideally; the coach should be able to pinpoint the ultimate goal of this relationship.
31	I make it a point, never to disagree with my player in the presence of others.	The coaches agreed with this statement. This question was vital to both coaches and players as it is essential to present the image of the sport of judo, which breeds etiquette and respect to each other.
32	I never regret my decision to be in this sporting relationship with my player/s.	Coaches and players all agreed it is important to foster a sporting environment and a good working relationship with each other. For this relationship to work both the coach and the player would have to be fully committed to the task in hand at whatever the level of requirement.
33	It is very important to me that others do not see my player and I argue.	Both coaches and players were concerned that some may find themselves arguing with each other in the public domain that would not be viewed on as appropriate in the sport of judo. Arguments between player and coach may require a great deal of emotional control in certain circumstances. The situation may only occur on the spur of the moment. It may be a wrong decision by the referee or the player losing by lack of concentration.
34	Compared to other’s relationships, my coach – player/s relationship does not lack anything.	Jowett, 2002, stressed the importance of building an effective coach-athlete relationship, as the quality of this relationship is a crucial determinant of players’ satisfaction, motivation and improved performance. Research in the coaching effectiveness area has been conducted under the general assumption that the coach exerts a rather large influence not only on the performance and behaviour of their players but also on players’ psychological and emotional well being Horn (2002).
35	I feel very confident about my relationship with my player/s when we are in the presence of others.	The coach was aware of the importance of maintaining a high-quality relationship with the player. Does this skill come from general experience of life skills or would it be an advantage to become part of judo coach education. The initial coaches believed that training was essential for coaches in this particular area of judo.

<p>36 I am responsible for my player's behaviour both on and of the judo mat.</p>	<p>Coaches explained that their Judo players were used to asking permission to move on or off the judo mat. It was thought that it would be interesting to assess how far coaches and players would see their authority of the coach being taken.</p>
<p>37 My behaviour at times might affect the players concentration</p>	<p>Both coaches and player were of the opinion that they believed their behaviour could affect the judo performance. Mallet and Cote, (2006) are of the opinion that excellence in coaching is more than win loss records, more than achievement of an individual players trophies and person records, and more than the degree of mastery observed in players training sessions.</p>
<p>38 My players listen to me when I am on mat-side at competitions</p>	<p>It would be interesting to know if players listen to their coaches and follow their instructions when they are competing in a judo competition. Coaches were of the opinion that it was necessary to follow advice; such information given by the coach that they think will enhance the player's chances of success in the judo contest.</p>
<p>39 It is important to me that others only see the good side of my relationship with my Player.</p>	<p>Coaches generally agreed with this statement. A definition of coaching excellence should be multifaceted in order to reflect the highly variable roles that a sport coach assumes; it should reflect the constant personal exchanges and interaction between coaches and their players in training and competitive environments Cote, Young, North and Duffy (2007).</p>

Figure 3: Coach questionnaire judo coaches perceptions of effective coaching behaviours.

This questionnaire contains questions pertaining to your concept of effective coaching. Carefully read the statements below and complete the questionnaire having coaching in mind and the effect that it could have on players'. Indicate by circling your response, to the degree to which each statement you agree or disagree, in regards to your coach concept of an effective coach. Please respond to the statements as honestly as you can. There are no right or wrong answers.

About coaching

Note that responses range from “disagree” (1) to “agree” (7).

		Disagree							Agree
1	Effective coaching is about winning medals at the Olympic Games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2	I need to be in full control of my player's coaching sessions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3	It is important to have good working relationship with your players.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4	I am happy with the British Judo Coaching structure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5	My judo training has given me confidence to teach judo at an elite level.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6	I regularly plan my lesson and training sessions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7	There should be specialist technical coaches, who would specialise with individual techniques, such as, standing and groundwork skills?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8	Sport psychology should be apart of the coaches' educational training?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
9	The elite training system now in place, is well structured?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
10	Effective coaching is about is about how many students attend your class each week.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
11	I frequently discuss with players, their training schedules.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
12	It is important to have performed judo at high competition level, to become an elite coach.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
13	Club level provides judoka with an excellent opportunity for moving on to the elite competition level.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
14	I am fully conversant with the International Refereeing Rules and Regulations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
15	It is not necessarily an advantage to have qualifications to be a regional or elite coach.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
16	The current education training structure is sufficient to provide coaches with the appropriate skills to coach at the highest level.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
17	There is no difference between club judo and elite judo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
18	I need more personal development in my coaching skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
19	Effective coaching is based on how many medals a club win at competitions?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

20	Judo needs to change from the traditional philosophy, to modern day competitive judo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Effective coaching is based on how many medals a club win at competitions?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	I am confident with using video analysis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	I have sufficient knowledge and skills to coach at any level of judo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	It is important for the coach to mentally prepare his/her player/s	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	It is important for the coach to have total commitment for his/her players.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	There is a vast difference between club judo and elite judo?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Club coaches can teach at any level.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	I am very confident about being part of this coach – Player relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	It is important to me that others are not aware of any negative thoughts I may have about my player.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	I don't always know the reasons why I stay in this coach – player relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	I make it a point never to disagree with my player in the presence of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	I never regret my decision to be in this sporting relationship with my player/s.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	It is very important to me that others do not see my player and I argue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	Compared to other's relationships, my coach – player/s relationship doesn't lack anything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	I feel very confident about my relationship with my player/s when we are in the presence of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	I am responsible for my player's behaviour both on and of the judo mat.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	My behaviour at times might affect the players concentration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	My players listen to me when I am on mat-side at competitions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	It is important to me that others only see the good side of my relationship with my Player.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The reason for using the response of 1-to-7 was to provide the recipients with an opportunity to be a little more flexible with their replies, especially as most judoka would not have been familiar with completing questionnaires.

3.12 Conclusion

Interviews with coaches led to the production of a 39-item questionnaire that can be used to assess attitudes and beliefs, on what constitutes an effective judo coaching structure. The next stage in the research programme is to validate this measure on a much larger sample of judo coaches. It would be worthwhile also to validate the measure for use with judo players to facilitate comparisons between coaches and players. The next stage in research programme tackles these issues.

Chapter 4: Study 2 – Factorial validity of the Judo

Coaching Scale among coaches

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to investigate the structure of perceptions of coaching effectiveness among judo coaches. This aim was addressed by administering the questionnaire developed in stage 1 using qualitative techniques to a large sample of judo coaches. Factor analysis was used to analyse the coaches' data. Factor analysis is a statistical technique designed for use with large data sets (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001).

4.2 Participants and procedure

Volunteer participants were 130 British Judo Association qualified coaches. Coaches were recruited at a coach-to-coach re-certification course. Completing this course is a mandatory requirement for all qualified judo coaches who are members of the National Governing Body for judo in the United Kingdom (Age: Mean = 41.62 years, $s = 12.91$; Male $n = 107$, Female $n = 19$, 6 participants did not indicate gender). Participants were mainly from the Midlands ($N = 115$) with 4 participants from the Home Counties and one from the North West Area. Participants completed two instruments: The first questionnaire was the 39-item Judo Coaching Scale developed in Study one.

4.3 Procedure

Participants were attending a British Judo Association Midland Area coach-to-coach revalidation course which is mandatory for coaches to ensure that they are qualified for the next twelve months. The venue for the judo coach revalidation was situated at the University of Wolverhampton, Walsall, West Midlands, UK. Both questionnaires were administered at the same time using identical procedures.

4.4 Data analysis

Factorial validity refers to the structure of an inventory, where the items are consistent with the construct it purports to measure, and is determined by factor analysis. The purpose of factor analysis is to identify each item as the total number of common unique parts that are explained by common factors. The factors are ideally uncorrelated with each other and linear combinations of the common parts of the variables. Factor analysis identifies items that correlate more closely with each other than with other items. Factor analysis describes components of the common-factor variance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996).

There are two types of factor analysis, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Exploratory factor analysis identifies factors from correlated responses to items on a measure. The interpretation depends on the size of the factor loadings for the items. EFA identifies factors from the correlations among items and the factors typically influence all of the variables. Unfortunately, there is no direct test of the accuracy of the final factor solution or the relationships of items to a specific factor (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996).

Trail and James (2001) used EFA to develop and examine the structure for the motivational scale for sport competition. Items were chosen based on their psychometric properties whereby the process of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) resulted in a statistical solution to explain the inter-correlations between item scores and the retention of inventory items that were statistically derived. A weakness of these empirical scales is that due to the lack of theoretical base problems of interpretation and explaining responses can result (Murphy and Davidshofer, 1998). However, on the basis that all

theory is essentially the result of repeated observation, use of an empirical scale may lead to the development of theory, in that analysis of responses may expose relationships between variables that may otherwise have remained concealed.

An issue when conducting factor analysis is the number of participants in the sample. In general, the rule of principle is that the larger the sample size, the better. Opinion is divided on how best to determine what constitutes a sufficient size. Some authors argue that a sample size of around 200 is adequate (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) whilst others argue that it is the participant-item ratio that is important (Kline, 2001). Opinion is further divided on what constitutes an adequate ratio (Kline, 1994). Most authors agree that the larger the ratio, the better (Gorsuch, 1983; Kline, 1994; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). A ratio of around 10:1 is proposed as preferable with a minimum of 5:1 also being acceptable (Gorsuch, 1983). Exceptions to the principle occur when data are collected on specific samples, where the overall population is present a major obstacle (Kline, 1994). Kline proposed that the participant-item ratio can be as low as 2:1. He urged caution when interpreting such results and suggested that in such cases, researchers look to verify the resultant factor structure in a different sample.

Research in sport, particularly among elite samples, or sports that do not attract mass participation has suffered from the imitation of using relatively small sample sizes in their research. For example, as Lane et al. (1999) identify, one of the most frequently used measures of anxiety, the CSAI-2 (Martens et al., 1990) used a participant to item ratio of 2:1. As Mellalieu (2009, in Mellalieu & Lane, 2009) suggests, the CSAI-2 represents a valid measure of anxiety and has with stood criticism from the literature (see Lane et al., 1999; Lane & Mellalieu, 2009).

Given suggestions by Kline (1994) and the fact that the total population for qualified judo coaches is relatively small, a sample size of 130 qualified participants represents a meaningful proportion. However, the small ratio is an acknowledged limitation to the trustworthiness of the factor structure. With this in mind, further data is gathered on a sample of players with a view to verify results.

4.5 Results

Descriptive statistics for each item are contained in Table 4. The extracts from the results of the judo coaching scale were selected to highlight the main findings. Arguably, descriptive statistics suggest that most coaches believe an effective judo coach needs to create a good working relationship between coach and player. Coaches also perceived that it is important for the coach to give total commitment to the players. Coaches also indicated that they believed it is important for the judo coach to prepare the players mentally for competition. It should be noted; the coaches indicated that judo players did not engage in formal psychological preparation. But rather, psychological preparation was assumed to be something that occurs experientially (see Thelwell, 2008).

Most coaches reported high mean scores for feeling confidence in their relationship with players in the presence of others. If the coach is not confident in his or her own ability, this could then have an effect on the players losing confidence in the coach, which in turn could reflect in their relationship. The coaches were of the opinion that it was important for players to listen to their instructions when in combat. It will be interesting to see if the players agree and think the same. The coaches mostly agree that they need to be responsible for their players' behaviours both on and off the judo

mat. This could be seen by the players as the judo coach being too autocratic. The majority of coaches agree that there is a vast difference between club judo and elite judo.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for the Judo Coaching Scale

	M	SD	M/SD ratio
1 Effective coaching is about winning medals at the Olympic Games.	4.52	1.72	1.47
2 I need to be in full control of my player's coaching sessions.	5.45	1.65	3.30
3 It is important to have good working relationship with your players.	6.60	0.65	10.15
4 I am happy with the British Judo Coaching structure.	4.29	1.52	2.82
5 My judo training has given me confidence to teach judo at an elite level.	4.18	1.85	2.26
6 I regularly plan my lesson and training sessions.	4.92	1.78	2.76
7 There should be specialist technical coaches, who would specialise with individual techniques, such as, standing and groundwork skills?	4.92	1.85	2.66
8 Sport psychology should be apart of the coaches' educational training?	4.97	1.80	2.76
9 The elite training system now in place, is well structured?	4.23	1.49	2.84
10 Effective coaching is about is about how many students attend your class each week.	2.88	1.79	1.61
11 I frequently discuss with players, their training schedules.	4.07	1.65	2.47
12 It is important to have performed judo at high competition level, to become an elite coach.	3.71	1.94	1.91
13 Club level provides judoka with an excellent opportunity for moving on to the elite competition level.	5.04	1.52	3.32
14 I am fully conversant with the International Refereeing Rules and Regulations.	4.07	1.82	2.24
15 It is not necessarily an advantage to have qualifications to be a regional or elite coach.	3.56	1.96	1.82
16 The current education training structure is sufficient to provide coaches with the appropriate skills to coach at the highest level.	4.05	1.67	2.43
17 There is no difference between club judo and elite judo.	2.33	1.61	1.45
18 I need more personal development in my coaching skills.	4.71	1.89	2.49
19 Effective coaching is based on how many medals a club wins at competitions?	2.48	1.75	1.42
20 Judo needs to change from the traditional philosophy, to modern day competitive judo.	3.61	1.91	1.89
21 Effective coaching is based on how many medals you win at competitions?	2.42	1.75	1.38
22 I am confident with using video analysis.	4.58	1.81	2.53
23 I have sufficient knowledge and skills to coach at any level of judo.	3.78	1.84	2.05
24 It is important for the coach to mentally prepare his/her player/s	5.82	1.05	5.54
25 It is important for the coach to have total commitment for his/her players.	5.96	1.07	5.57
26 There is a vast difference between club judo and elite judo?	5.34	1.60	3.34
27 Club coaches can teach at any level.	3.31	1.67	1.98
28 I am very confident about being part of this coach - Player relationship.	5.51	1.34	4.11
29 It is important to me that others are not aware of any negative thoughts I may have about my player.	5.01	1.89	2.65
30 I don't always know the reasons why I stay in this coach - player relationship.	3.15	1.79	1.76
31 I make it a point never to disagree with my player in the presence of others.	4.62	1.88	2.46
32 I never regret my decision to be in this sporting relationship with my player/s.	5.33	1.41	3.78
33 It is very important to me that others do not see my player and I argue.	5.38	1.82	2.96
34 Compared to other's relationships, my coach - player/s relationship doesn't lack anything.	4.29	1.65	2.60
35 I feel very confident about my relationship with my player/s when we are in the presence of others.	5.62	1.38	4.07
36 I am responsible for my player's behaviour both on and of the judo mat.	5.48	1.81	3.03
37 My behaviour at times might affect the players concentration	5.02	1.95	2.57
38 My players listen to me when I am on mat-side at competitions	5.46	1.34	4.07
39 It is important to me that others only see the good side of my relationship with my Player.	4.55	1.70	2.68

As Table 4 indicates, coaches reported heterogeneous responses for a number of items. A heterogeneous response is inferred from the mean-standard deviation ratio. The following items are considered heterogeneous: Q21 Effective coaching is based on how many medals you win at competitions? Q19 Effective coaching is based on how many medals a club wins at competitions? Q17 There is no difference between club judo and elite judo. Q1 Effective coaching is about winning medals at the Olympic Games. Q10 Effective coaching is about is about how many students attend your class each week. Q30

I don't always know the reasons why I stay in this coach - player relationship. Q15 It is not necessarily an advantage to have qualifications to be a regional or elite coach. Q20 Judo needs to change from the traditional philosophy, to modern day competitive judo. Q12 It is important to have performed judo at a high competition level, to become an elite coach and Q27 Club coaches can teach at any level.

Participants reported homogeneous responses to the following six items: Q35 I feel very confident about my relationship with my player/s when we are in the presence of others. Q38 My players listen to me when I am on mat-side at competitions. Q28 I am very confident about being part of this coach - Player relationship. Q24 It is important for the coach to mentally prepare his/her player/s. Q25 It is important for the coach to have total commitment for his/her players. Q3 It is important to have good working relationship with your players.

Exploratory factor analysis of the judo coaching scale yielded a seven-factor solution that accounted for 55% of the variance (see Table 5). Factors were labelled **‘Coaching is about winning’**; **‘Attitudes to coaching at different levels’**; **‘Attitudes to judo structure’**; **‘Relationships with players’**; **‘Presentational issues’**; **‘Technical knowledge link to coach level’**; and **‘Coach-player interaction’**.

Table 5 Rotated Factor Analysis of the Judo-Coaching Scale

	Factor						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Coaching is about winning							
21. Effective coaching is based on how many medals a club wins at competitions?	.92						
10 Effective coaching is about is about how many students attend your class each week.	.49						
20 Judo needs to change from the traditional philosophy, to modern day competitive judo.	.47						
2. Attitudes to coaching at different levels'							
5 My judo training has given me confidence to teach judo at an elite level.		.72					
27 Club coaches can teach at any level.		.70					
23 I have sufficient knowledge and skills to coach at any level of judo.		.64		.45			
17 There is no difference between club judo and elite judo.		.43					
34 Compared to other's relationships, my coach - player/s relationship doesn't lack anything.		.40					
3. Attitudes to judo structure'							
9 The elite training system now in place, is well structured?			.81				
16 The current education training structure is sufficient to provide coaches with the appropriate skills to coach at the highest level.			.77				
4 I am happy with the British Judo Coaching structure.			.70				
4. Relationships with players';							
14 I am fully conversant with the International Refereeing Rules and Regulations.				.70			
38 My players listen to me when I am on mat-side at competitions				.59			
2 I need to be in full control of my player's coaching sessions.				.55			
5. Coach-player interaction'							
25 It is important for the coach to have total commitment for his/her players.					.66		
24 It is important for the coach to mentally prepare his/her player/s					.62		
13 Club level provides judoka with an excellent opportunity for moving on to the elite competition level.			.42		.56		
28 I am very confident about being part of this coach - Player relationship.					.52		
3 It is important to have good working relationship with your players.					.46		
6. Presentational issues							
33 It is very important to me that others do not see my player and I argue.						.73	
39 It is important to me that others only see the good side of my relationship with my Player.						.60	
31 I make it a point never to disagree with my player in the presence of others.						.53	
29 It is important to me that others are not aware of any negative thoughts I may have about my player.						.52	-.45
7. Technical knowledge link to coach level							
26 There is a vast difference between club judo and elite judo?							.78
7 There should be specialist technical coaches, who would specialise with individual techniques, such as, standing and groundwork skills?							.47
22 I am confident with using video analysis.							.43

The first factor is described as “**Coaching is about winning**”. It contains 3-items (see Table 5). It is interesting to note that perceptions of winning associated with both attendance at class and a perceived need to change the approach to teaching judo. Factor 2 was labelled “**Attitudes to coaching at different levels**’. It contains five items that describe confidence to teach judo at elite level; the perceptions were that club judo coaches are able to teach judo at any level. The coaches’ perceptions are that there is not a huge difference between coaching at club or elite levels. It is noted that coaches

reported being happy with the present day coaching structure; however, the majority of coaches completing the questionnaire are club coaches. This might be a self-serving bias as most club coaches', something that is an accepted limitation.

Factor 3 is labelled "**Attitudes to judo structure**" contains three similar worded on perceptions that the present coaching system is effective. Factor 4 is labelled "**Relationships with players**" and contains two items that relate to specific judo coaching situations and one item that is linked to knowledge of rules. It is intriguing that perceptions of relationships are associated with knowledge of rules. However, finding might be ascribed to judo coaches adopting traditional approaches, and knowledge of the rules is critical to their perceptions of judo.

Factor 5 is labelled "**Coach-player interaction**" and contains four items related to the preparation of players. It was highlighted that coaches have to adapt to situations, be flexible and have a positive influence by not being overpowering for the player. Whilst others think that it is important to have the qualities such as good communication, technical, motivational skills, enthusiasm, commitment, innovation and positive thinking. It was also thought that it is important to enjoy what you are teaching together with good values and ethics. It is these personal qualities of the coach player interaction that can keep the students training and coming back week after week and by identifying the potential in all students.

Factor 6 is labelled "**Presentational issues**" and contains four items. Judo has always been taught by demonstrational methods. By the time a coach has obtained a black belt, he or she would have sufficient judo knowledge to coach the British Judo Association's belt syllabus that incorporates wide ranges knowledge and technical skills.

The presentation skill may be sufficient for the belt system; however, it may not provide the necessary type of demonstration to be applied in competitive judo

Factor 7 is labelled '**Technical knowledge link to coach level**'. All coaches perceived that appropriate knowledge and technical skills of the coach are of vital importance at both club and elite level judo. Consequently, coaches should take into consideration all players standards and needs at whatever level they are participating. It is important to know about judo to be able to pass on skills to the maximum of the individual's potential.

A repeated measures ANOVA of mean score revealed significant differences in Judo Coaching Scores (Pillai $_{6,119} = .86$, $P < .001$). Results indicate that coaches reported the highest scores for '**Relationships with players**' followed by '**Technical knowledge link to coach level**', '**Presentational issues**', '**Coach-player interaction**', '**Attitudes to judo structure**', '**Attitudes to coaching at different levels**', and '**Coaching is about winning**'.

Table 6 contains relationships between Judo coaching scale factors. As Table 6 indicates only three significant relationships emerged. Further, each relationship was relatively weak ($r < .3$). '**Presentational issues**' correlated significantly with '**Attitudes to Coaching at different levels**' and '**Relationships with players**'. '**Attitudes to coaching at different levels**' correlated significantly to '**Coaching are about winning**'. It is suggested that the scale assesses seven relatively independent factors.

Table 6. Relationships between Judo coaching Scale factors

	<i>Coaching is About Winning</i>	<i>Attitudes To Coaching At Different Levels</i>	<i>Attitudes To Judo Structure</i>	<i>Relationships With Players</i>	<i>Presentational Issues</i>	<i>Technical Knowledge Link To Coach Level</i>
Coaching Is About Winning	1.00					
Attitudes To Coaching At Different Levels	0.23*	1.00				
Attitudes To Judo Structure	0.05	0.16	1.00			
Relationships With Players	-0.03	0.16	0.10	1.00		
Presentational Issues	0.06	0.26*	0.15	0.25*	1.00	
Technical Knowledge Link To Coach Level	0.17	0.10	0.03	0.28	0.09	1.00
Coach-Player Interaction	-0.08	-0.19	-0.09	-0.13	0.07	-0.03

*p< 0.01

4.6 Discussion

The aim of this study was to develop and validate a scale for assessing perceptions of judo coaching. A questionnaire was developed over two stages. The first stage involved qualitative techniques identifying detailed comments on the structure of judo coaching. The second stage tested ideas developed in stage 1 by sampling a much larger group of judo coaches. Coaches reported high mean scores for the importance of feeling confident in their relationship with the players. It was highlighted that if the coach is not confidence in his or own ability, this could then have an effect on the players losing confidence in the coach, which in turn may well reflect on their relationship. This was the belief of most coaches, which were also the views of the initial coaches. Most coaches are involved in the training of player from the moment that they step on to the judo mat until they achieve a senior judo grade. It is consequently the club coach who is the instructor that the player has built up the working relationship with and it is therefore in the player's best interest for the coach to remain involved even when another elite coach is coaching the player.

In contrast, factor analysis and descriptive statistics from the 130-coaches indicate some support for the present system. Indeed, the factor attitudes to the coaching structure which contains items such as “The elite training system now in place, is well structured?” and “I am happy with the British Judo Coaching structure.” As indicated previously, club coaches might have a self-serving bias. It is possible that club coaches made their estimation on the efficiency of the elite system based on faulty or insufficient knowledge. It is possible that some of the club coaches had limited knowledge of the practices of elite coaches. Participants in the five face-to-face samples were all elite coaches and so could offer more insight.

Discrepancies between face-to-face data and participants from the 130 coaches were further evidenced when coach-education is considered. Elite coaches felt that there was a need for further coach education at the elite level, although they thought that at club level it was sufficient to progress students through the belt grading system. The elite judo coaches further suggested that there was a vast difference between coaching at club level to that elite level.

Coaching skills for club player would be primarily to help players to pass all the way through the judo belt system. This usually involves students being tutored in a group system method, whereas the competitive player would be training on a one-to one method or in much smaller group. There was evidence from both the face-to-face interview study and the present factor analytic study that it is essential for coaches to know about judo. This essential for coaches to be able to pass on skills to the utmost of the individual’s potential. Webber (1997) also outlined that it is essential for the coach to have had practical participation in their chosen sport, otherwise how can the coach transfer the

sports experiences. Martens (2004) also support the belief that successful coaches should have the knowledge of their sport, plus to be able to pass this information to their players. It is therefore important for coaches to up-grade their knowledge, as some judo coaches have been coaching for many years and may be only interested in the belt system coaching. However, coaches must also gain knowledge to promote judoka who wish to become competitive players.

It was also evident from both the interviewees and from the questionnaire that the coach must have the technical knowledge, and be a good communicator who is able to develop players to the best of their ability. Jowett and Cockerill (2003) also agreed that communication is an important unifying relational component for the sports coach. The coach must have the ability to pass on skills to the maximum of the individual's potential. It was agreed that an effective coach is one who plans each session and analyses at the end of the lesson. Morrel and Schichidan (2006) believe that one of the greatest injustices is for the coach to come to a class unprepared, since judo can be equated to teaching in general therefore class material must be prepared in advance.

Indeed it was worthy of note, that coaches recognised former players do not necessarily make good coaches. This comment was articulated by the preliminary five coaches and was shared by most judo coaches in the survey. Turner (2003) was also of the opinion that high performance players do not make good coaches, tend to be over rated in terms of their potential, and provided with disproportionate opportunities to access high profile coaching positions. Abrahams and Collins (1998) were also of the opinion that performers do not necessarily become expert coaches, as the role of knowledge in expertise is extremely area specific, and does not usually transfer well.

Coaches also believed in the significance of having coach education training, especially for elite judo coaches. However, it was mentioned that some coaches were of the opinion that they are self-trained, and they had gained their knowledge by trial and error. Turner (2003) also suggested that some National Governing organisations often see fit to implement a fast track system for former elite competitors. Cote and Fraser-Thomas (2007) suggest that knowledge and competencies are restricted to the context in which coaches have amassed a wealth of experience and/or in which they have formal preparation (e.g., coach education, mentorship) and intentionally trained themselves. Evidence shows the excellence in coaching is not immediate, but is developed over-long the term, and the specific contexts in which coaches develop, determines their domain of excellence (Erickson, Cote, and Fraser-Thomas, 2006; Werthner and Trudel, 2006).

There was evidence to suggest that both the initial interviewed judo coaches and the surveyed judo coaches, shared the belief that it was necessary to have coaches with specialist skills. Most judo coaches agreed that specialist skills were required to meet the desires of elite performers, which are replicated by the majority of coaches in the questionnaire. In other sports, they have specialist technical coaches such as rugby has offensive and defensive kicking coaches, soccer has a goalkeeper and defence and specialist striker coaches, also their technical set play coaches. It was indicated herein that the judo coaches would like to see specialist technical coaches. These coaches would need to have specialised skills in selected throwing techniques, grappling skills, arm choke and locking applications.

The coaches were of the belief that it is important for player to listen to their guidance instructions when in combat. There was evidence to suggest that quality

matside coaching at major tournaments is vital to the player's success in the need to deliver medals. It was also one of the concerns, that it was reiterated how important it was for players' to have an input into their own programme and share the responsibility. The coaches believed this builds the relationship between coach and players to have confidence in each other. The coaches were of the opinion that it was important to reveal good behaviour off the mat as well as when players are in combat.

It was suggested that judo coaches must be highly committed and motivated together with judo knowledge at the highest level to be an efficient judo coach. It was emphasised however, that coaches did not engage in formal psychological preparation for their players. Coaches believed an elite player is a rare combination of talent, hard work and the right psychological profile. Often the difference between the club player and the elite players is the mental qualities of the judoka. Mental toughness is fundamental to the creation of an elite judo player Webb (2008).

All five initial coaches believed that the British Judo Association coaching structure needed to be reviewed especially the elite section of judo coaching and this proved to be the views of most coaches. There was also evidence that initial coaches were correct in their assumption, that there are differences between club and elite judo coaches in terms of their attitudes towards coaching different levels, and coach-player interaction.. The structure of training and presentational issues is of prime importance to the judoka, for different students may have different reasons for taking part in judo. Therefore, it is of vital importance that the structure is in place in order to retain student's interest and maintain their commitment to the sport.

4.7 Conclusions

The aim of the study was to develop and validate a measure the coaches perceptions of effective judo coaching, including the structure of the judo coaching system. A two-stage approach was used. The resultant measure was a 26-item and seven-factor scale. Measurement is considered the bedrock of science (Anastasi and Urbina, 1997; Kline, 1994). It is argued that each sport places unique demands on players and coaches, and therefore, assessment of processes designed to enhance performance should be sport-specific (British Judo Association, World Class Performance Strategy 2008). There has been an absence of specific research into effective coaching in judo (Gleeson 1980). Although there has been an increase in scales to assess coaching effectiveness (Jones, 1997; Millard,1996; Trudel, Cote, and Bernard,1996), this work is generic to all sports rather than specific to judo. Findings from the present study emphasise the relationship between the structure of the coaching system and how coaches deliver sessions. In judo, coaches have the dual challenge of working with players through the grading system and preparing players for competition. Following a syllabus for the grading system is the traditional approach to judo coaching. The traditional approach to coaching goes beyond demonstrating and working with techniques, but also into interpersonal relationships with players (McQuade, 2001). The present seven-factor scale permits analysis of how judo coaches at different levels perceive the importance of these factors. The scale also allows future research to investigate relationships between perceptions of judo coaches and variables that could be influential to effective coaching. The scale developed in the present study has been planned to fit the purpose for the research questions identified above.

Chapter 5: Study 3: Extended Qualitative
Exploration of what Coaches think Creates an
Effective Coach

5.0 Introduction

This study examined the qualitative responses from 130 coaches studied in Chapter 3. Each coach was asked to complete the Judo Coaching questionnaire, which was based on “what is an effective judo coach”. The questionnaire was deliberately constructed to provide an extra ‘optional’ provision for the coaches to comment and express their views. Participants were encouraged to provide additional qualitative data. Ninety-five coaches responded providing 4095 written words in their comments. The resultant data were grouped into five separate themes using procedures similar to those adopted in Chapter 3 (see 3.3 Qualitative methods).

5.1 Results

The comments from the coaches were segregated and constructed into five themes as follows:-

1. Relationships
2. Knowledge
3. Personal qualities
4. Experience
5. Coach motivation

According to Jowett and Cockeril, 2002: Lyle, 1999, the coach athlete relationship is not an add-on to, nor is it based on the athletes performance, age or gender-instead it is the foundation of coaching. They believe that the coach and the athlete intentionally develop a relationship, which is characterised by a growing appreciation and respect for each other as individuals. Jowett and Cockeril, 2002: Jowett and Meek, 2000, suggest that effective coaching relationships include basic ingredients,

such as empathic understanding, honesty and support, linking acceptance, responsiveness, friendliness, cooperation, caring, respect and positive regard for the athletes.

5.2 Theme 1. Relationships

- *“Being able to communicate with players.”*
- *“By identifying the potential in all students.”*
- *“Understanding the needs of all players as not all players are the same.”*
- *“An effective coach is some one who is able to teach judo and listens to their players.”*
- *“The coach who has the ability to understand players needs and react to them in relation to their performance and aspirations.”*
- *“Treat players as customers and speak to them with respect.”*
- *“Have good relationships with students and understand their personal goals.”*

It is important to look at the coaches’ number one on the coaches list, which was “relationships”. It was not hard to understand why the coaches had chosen relationships, for they are an important part of life in all aspects, such as physical, verbal, and understanding other people’s emotions, it is also about sharing ideas and knowledge. Bloom, Durant-Bush, Schinke, and Salmela (1998) suggested that often coaches’ relationships with players are reciprocal, trusting, genuine, and helping in nature and go beyond merely teaching and instructing skills, techniques and tactics. Similarly, Poczwardowski, Barott, and Henschen (2000) found that the athlete–coach relationship was underlined by respect, belief in, knowledge of, and contribution to the other’s goals, needs, and wants.

Cassidy, Jones and Potrac (2004) explained that “unless people are willing to listen to you, unless you are prepared to listen to them and understand them as people, the

best coaching book in the world isn't going to help you". It all comes back to the relationships that you have with your players and the trust that exists between you. In effective judo coaching, good relationships is about understanding the needs of players and recognising that not all players are the same. An effective coach is someone who is able to teach judo and listens to players views. Verbal communication was also expressed as an important part of effective coaching.

Relationships set the scene for emotional understanding between the coach and the player, which is very important for setting self-efficacy goals. Self-efficacy is the perception that one can achieve desired goals through one's own action. Bandura (e.g. 1989) stated that self-efficacy beliefs function as an important set of proximal determinants of human motivation, affect, and action. They operate on action through motivational, cognitive, and affective intervening processes. (p. 1175).

Strategies associated with self-efficacy beliefs include personal goal setting, which is influenced by self-appraisal of one's capabilities (Bandura, 1993, 1986). This should be a mutual respect and a shared aim and objective of the player and the coach.

It is perhaps surprising then that, historically, coaching has been preoccupied with merely enhancing players' physical, technical and strategic skills (Miller and Kerr, 2002). Now that the coach-athlete relationship is recognised as the foundation of coaching and a major force in promoting the development of players' physical and psychosocial skills, coaches' ability to create perfect working partnerships with their players becomes paramount. The question is 'What makes the ideal coach-athlete relationship?'

Rogers (1967), quoted by Jowett (2005) explained that a helping relationship involves an ability or desire to understand the other person's meaning and feelings, an

interest without being overly emotionally involved, and a strong and growing mutual liking, trust and respect between the two people. This was also confirmed from the 130 judo coaches' results, where they considered the coach player relationship as an important issue to be nurtured in effective judo coaching.

5.3 Theme 2: knowledge

What is knowledge? Shulman (1986) described knowledge as comprising of three sub-sets: which comprise as (1) subject matter content knowledge, (2) pedagogical content knowledge, and (3) curriculum content knowledge. It is important also for the judo coach to have knowledge of the sport in order that he or she can pass that knowledge on to the judoka. Martens (2004), believes there is no substitution for knowing the rules, technical and tactical skills of the sport you coach. Judo coaches like many other sports coaches have many roles to play.

Indicative quotes from coaches include:

- *“A person who is technically knowledgeable and is a good communicator to develop players to the best of their ability.”*
- *“It is important to know about judo.”*
- *“Ability to pass on skills to maximum of the individual's potential.”*
- *“The coach who is able to recognises student's ability.”*
- *“A learning coach.”*
- *“The coach plans each session and analyses at the end of the lesson.”*
- *“The ability to pass on skills to maximum of the individual's potential.”*
- *“The ability to plan and effectively deliver a judo session so that students learn consistence with their development of good judo ability-teaching by example.”*

Content knowledge is the knowledge of the coach, which he or she uses for the activity being taught to the players, such as techniques, skills and tactics. Pedagogical content knowledge is considered to be the knowledge the coach needs to be able to teach. The curriculum content knowledge is viewed as the knowledge of available resources that the coach needs (Cassidy, Jones and Potrac, 2004).

In the sport of judo, there is a syllabus for coaches to work within the club constraint, which provides the coaches with a 'judo belt curriculum'. This provision makes available an ad-hoc lesson plan for club coaches to teach students to pass through the judo grading system. The syllabus subsequently would provide the coaches with the knowledge and a form of coaching belt level for them to follow. However, the use of such a system would not be sufficient to improve a player, for high level combat judo.

Kidman and Smith (2001) believe "the key thing is the openness to learning". They believe that coaches need to look on things on merit and understand that just because they have played the game, they don't know everything about it" (p.43).

Having a passion to improve their knowledge from a coach's perspective is important. Knowing that you are part of the problem means that you can also be part of the solution. Therefore, it is necessary for some coaches to be aware of this need in order to allow all players the chance to reach their individual potential. Shulman (1986), Metzler (2000), and Cassidy et al (2004) suggest this might give too much freedom for some coaches who mainly select the contents they use in their practice sessions and this may be part of the reason why discussions on content have not a high profile with sports scientists.

The respondents' questionnaire comments are about the individual judo coaches' attitudes towards effective judo coaching and their personal thoughts on the main issues that they think are important for effective coaching. It is imperative to know about judo, to be able to pass on skills to the limitations of the individual's potential. In most comments from the judo coaches, it was highlighted that coaches need to have an experience and an understanding of judo before they can coach the sport; this was supported by Webber (1999).

5.4 Theme 3: Personal qualities

Personal qualities are characteristics related to the judo coach skills. They are what make up the coaches personality. The judo coaches must be enthusiastic for the sport and the players that they are training. Coaches must be able to draw up good training plans. They should understand how to motivate and encourage judo players in order to get the best performance from them. The judo coach should be good at inspiring confidence and must be a good communicator. Sensitivity and patience are required at all times. The coach needs to be observant in order to give useful feedback on performance.

Coaches should be able to help judoka to progress in new situations. For example, dependability and patience are qualities that judo players would like coaches to have. Other qualities players value are: honesty, assertiveness, flexibility, problem solving, friendliness, intelligence, leadership, enthusiasm, and a good sense of humour.

Indicative quotes from coaches include:

- *“To understand what a player wants and try to make them the best that they can be.”*

- *“Have a good personality with good teaching strategies, consideration for their players, carefully preparing lessons with good judo experience, and being thoughtful with individual players.”*
- *“The coach who has the knowledge and ability to put his or her ideas across and motivate the players.”*
- *“The coach needs to have confidence, knowledge and experience*
- *Being able to communicate and listen to what is being said, by the players.*
- *“To have the ability to communicate technical information, encourage everyone at all levels and to have patience and perseverance.”*
- *“The coach who has a good attitude well organised and has a good relationship with the players and is able to use technology effectively.”*
- *“Have good technical skills and knowledge with the ability to understand the needs of the players.”*

Personal qualities are about getting along with people, it is being cheerful and how you communicate with students or elite judo players. Judo players will make a judgement if you are knowledgeable, for they will be relying on the coaches ability to transfer technical and tactical data in order for players to progress in the sport. Players’ are likely to compare their progress and other the progress of other students within their judo club, as a template for their own progress (Bandura, 1997).

5.5 Theme 4: experience

There are many definitions of experience; the Web-site (Wikipedia-encyclopaedia) definition is the accumulation of knowledge or skill that results from direct participation in events or activities. Therefore, one can assume that the experience a judo coach might have, will depend on how he or she will use this knowledge and how it is transferred to the judoka.

Indicative quotes from coaches include:

- *“The coach that has the judo experience, ability, knowledge and is also able to pass on information to the players.”*
- *“Someone who has the technical experience and knowledge of the sport and is able to pass it on in an interesting way, but also cares about other players well being.”*
- *“A coach who has the ability to listen and look for new coaching ideas.” Deliver plans and actions.” Lead by example; rise above adversity, show consideration, belief in what they are doing.” Show a winning ability, been a top performer, have the ability to recognise my weaknesses and turn them into strengths.”*
- *“Confidence, knowledge and experience”.*
- *“Understanding the needs of the players and keeping up to date with modern developments and personal coaching skills.”*
- *“Good people skills and years of judo coaching experience.”*

It is one thing having experience as a black belt competitor; however, for that black belt to be a coach, it is also necessary for him or her to be able to pass on the skills and training information relating to judo. Although the coach might have the experience as a high-class competitor, it may need a different set of experiences to train a world or an Olympic champion. However, the modern demands for reaching the international level, means that to be a coach it is no longer sufficient just to have been an elite competitor. Smith and Kidman (2001) are of the opinion that the key thing is the openness to learning. Coaches need to look on things on merit and understand that just because they have played the game, does not mean to say that they know everything about it.

The theme experience also falls into the categories of the coaches' and their personal qualities, which not only involve the' abilities to teach technique and pass on

technical instruction to players, but to have an all round experience, both on and of the judo mat.

5.6 Theme 5: coach motivation

There are two types of motivation; one is intrinsic, which Bull (1991) Frederick and Morrison (1999) and Horn (2002) describe as what comes from within a person. The second is extrinsic motivation, which refers to motivation that comes from outside the individual. It could include information, such as the environment, the coach, spectators at a competition. Both, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have a positive and negative side of motivation(Bull, 1991), however there are far too many to mention in this particular research.

Indicative quotes from coaches include:

- *“A coach who is a good listener, also someone who has patience with young children who might lose their concentration fast.”*
- *“A coach who motivates and guides others.”*
- *“Being aware of your judoka’s ability goals and frame of mind, and then tailoring your approach.”*
- *“The coach needs to be a good communicator and motivator.”*
- *“Someone who can motivate the players and get the best out of them.”*
- *“The coach has to be respectful and good motivator well organised, positive, helpful and enthusiastic.”*

5.6 Conclusion

An effective coach is someone who is able to teach judo, and one who listens to the players. It appears that although coaches answered the questionnaire, they did not mention in their comments about the national governing bodies coaching structure. This was probably because individual coaches do not have any control on the coaching

structure of the British Judo Association. The coaching structure of the national body is a set structure. Coaches when completing the questionnaire seemed to have focused on their individual thoughts, from their own experiences. It is not often that judo coaches have the opportunity to express comments on their own particular concepts of judo coaching.

The coaches obviously believe that an effective judo coach is one who plans the lesson and completes an analysis at the end of the lesson. Coaches believe that it is important to understand players' needs, and to be aware that not all players are the same. Coaches' believed that flexibility is an important tool to have in their repertoire. They also believed that it is imperative to be skilled in handling people of all abilities and recognising their potential. A coach who quoted, "I treat my players as customers and speak to them with respect" reiterated this. The coach believed by having good relationships and understanding each players personal goals and the reason why they are taking part in judo.

It was also suggested that being an effective judo coach is about having the qualities that goes with it, which involves communication skills; which was stated by the majority of coaches, as an important factor for effective judo coaching. This comment was followed by knowledge and technical ability together with being a good motivator with a wide range of experience, with ability to transfer judo skills.

Coaches' stated that "the coach needed to have a good caring attitude" and they also thought it was imperative to have a sensitive approach towards coaching. It was suggested that coaches must be committed, honest, reliable, and they needed to be excellent organisers who are able to use modern technology effectively. It was also

believed that it was necessary for the coach to be flexible and be able to adapt to different judo situations. The coaches should have a positive influence without being too overpowering for the players. Coaches were of the opinion that If you enjoy what you do, then people around you will enjoy what they do and people will keep coming back, week after week to practice judo. The coaches suggested that if you make learning fun for juniors and seniors alike; it will help them to feel good about their achievements, rather than just concentrating on winning medals. This suggestion is likely to have come from the majority of the club coaches as the elite judo coaches' aims would be to win medals. For McIver (2005), the Director of Performance for the British Judo Association believes it is important to win medals. McIver also stated "that United Kingdom (UK) Sport, the funding body for sport in the UK, made it clear that it demanded results at these major events, especially for the large amounts of public money being poured into elite judo. Therefore, no judo medals at recent prestigious events, has put an enormous pressure on elite coaches to win medals. This may be added pressure to most elite coaches, who are on the payroll of the National Governing Body.

The coaches in the survey believed it was necessary to be totally dedicated in their support for their players. Whether the coach teaches elite players individually or in a club situation, then it needs to be a coach who will listen to the players and accepts their level of achievement and can contribute in helping players reach their full potential. It is vital for the coach to have the ability to communicate technical and tactical information to their players' to the required levels. It is also important to be able to encourage players' at all levels to be patient and to show perseverance. This will mean being a positive coach,

with good leadership skills, and a coach who is sensitive to the player's needs, by having a caring attitude with moral standards and good organisational ability.

It is the ability of the coach to understand the player has needs and react in relationship to their performance and aspirations. Technical skills and knowledge are essential with the ability to understand the needs of the players. Most coaches were interested in coach education, keen on improving their standards, and indicated they would like to improve their standards as judo coaches.

Chapter 6: Study 4: Factorial validity of the Judo

Coaching Scale among Judo Players

6.0 Introduction

Judo players are usually not in the habit of completing surveys, or for that matter, anyone asking for their opinions on what they regard as an effective judo coach. This is especially applicable in the judo club situation where the position of the coach is very authoritarian, with the black belt being the master grade. The judoka would be happy to follow the coaches' instructions, as he or she would be helping them to progress through the judo belt system. In judo clubs, players acquire the rules, etiquette and requirements of judo. They learn to control their feelings, emotions and impulses (Brouse and Matsumoto, 1999). Whereas in the elite judo circumstances, the coach player relationship, could be either authoritarian or democratic, this would depend on the situation being a competitive competition or training session. Therefore, this research provides a unique opportunity to look at what players think is an effective judo coach.

6.1 Participants and procedure

Participants were 130 judo players (Age range: 16-60 years). They completed the 26-item Judo Coaching Scale. It replicated the methods used in chapters 3 and 4.

6.2 Factor analysis and comparisons between level of ability

Confirmatory factor analysis using EQS V6 (Bentler and Wu, 1995) was used to test the hypothesized models. As there was evidence of multivariate non-normality in the data, models were tested using the Robust Maximum Likelihood method. This method has been found to effectively control for overestimation of X^2 , under-estimation of adjunct fit indexes, and under-identification of errors (see Hu and Bentler, 1995). The measurement model specified that each item related to its hypothesized factor with the variance of the factor fixed at 1. Factors were allowed to freely inter-correlate. In terms

of assessing model fit, long standing debate continues on which are the best fit indices to use. It is generally agreed (Hu and Bentler, 1995) that incremental fit indices should be greater than .90 with the standardized root mean error of approximation below .08. Hu and Bentler (1999) indicated that incremental fit indices such as the CFI should be greater than .90, which is the criterion used in the present study.

Confirmatory factor analysis of the judo coaching questionnaire among players indicated support (NFI = .93; CFI = .94, RMSEA = .04) for the hypothesised model. This result indicates that the validity of the judo-coaching questionnaire is equally valid for players as it is for coaches. Researchers go to great lengths to establish the validity of their measures (Schutz, 1994). A typical approach when initiating a new line of research is to pay scant attention to validity and reliability (Schutz, 1994). The present study sought to identify this as a possible limitation, and develop, and validate a scale for use in judo over a number of different stages. It is therefore, suggested that the judo coaching scale is a valid tool for assessing attitudes of coaches and players alike. This is an important point to consider when examining differences between players' and coaches, attitudes. It is suggested that differences can be ascribed to systematic and real differences in opinion, rather than ascribed to measurement error (Birley and Moreland, 1998). However, it should be noted that validity is an ongoing concern and the strategy used in the present research programme was to use qualitative methods to develop ideas, and use quantitative methods to test these ideas. This study culminated with open-ended questions to all 130 coaches and players, meaning that the research culminated by proposing questions that future researchers' should use to test via quantitative methods.

With this in mind, a comparison of players' attitudes toward coaching structure was conducted. MANOVA results revealed an overall significant difference ($F_{7,124} = 4.91, P < .001, \text{Eta}^2 = .22$) between elite (including regional players) and club players. Specifically, elite players reported high scores for the value of the coaching developing positive relationships with players and higher scores for the importance of technical knowledge. Club players reported that the coaches' attitudes to the structure of judo was more important.

Table 7 A comparison of judo coaching scale scores by level of ability

	Elite		Club		<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>Eta</i> ²
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Coaching is about winning	3.25	1.32	2.94	1.58	1.34	0.25	0.01
Attitudes to coaching at different levels	4.25	0.99	3.99	1.11	1.95	0.16	0.01
Attitudes to judo structure	3.88	1.26	4.65	1.29	11.59*	0.00*	0.08
Relationships with players	6.25	0.59	5.96	0.89	4.48*	0.04*	0.03
Presentational issues	4.73	1.37	4.84	1.51	0.17	0.69	0.00
Technical knowledge link to coach level	5.01	1.04	4.37	1.24	9.58*	0.00*	0.07
Coach-player interaction	4.04	1.18	4.02	1.24	0.00	0.95	0.00

* $P < .01$

6.3 Discussion

Results indicate that there was a significant difference between elite and club judo players. This result was to be expected. Elite coaches and players will have different goals than their club counterparts. In terms of club players and coaches, most clubs will have judoka who are mainly concerned with moving up through the belt system. Usually the players who perform well at judo grading contests, will probably be the ones who are

more likely to move on to competitive judo. Law (2007) argued that most competitors are nervous and openly admit they dread the occasion, a finding supported by Stevens et al. (2006). It is therefore essential for coaches to be aware of the physiological requirements that the players need, as well as the physical and technical structuring towards the players' individual requirements at both club and elite levels.

The elite training structure has a different method from the club structure, which is based on the judo coach following the British Judo Association's judo belt syllabus. Whereas the elite structure requires special individual coaching, which provides the elite players with a greater focus on their individual needs, which is required for their particular competitive weight category. This will be an entirely different programme for each individual competitive elite player. A possible reason for differences in attitudes to coach effective could stem from players' beliefs on what type of coaching should be taking place. Arguably, there should be a different type of training for individual elite competitors and this is probably not happening in judo clubs; therefore, this may be restricting elite judoka's progress.

The present coaching structure, which emphasises the belt system, makes it difficult to provide individual training and tuition for individual players in judo clubs. The reason for the two levels of responses from players is that all players will have progressed through the club system. It would most likely be students who showed promise in the competitive field of judo, who would normally move to the elite competitive elements of judo. It could therefore, possibly be assumed that some players would have mixed feelings in their personal assessment, due to their previous mastery association with moving through their judo grades.

6.4 Discussion of results in relation to traditional structure

The traditional structure for teaching judo is based on an autocratic relationship between coach and player (Gleeson 1967). This was highlighted by Law (2007) who quoted “The Japanese insist that the dojo (practice hall) must be treated with great respect, while the sensei (black belt) exerts the same authority that he had when he was training warriors”. Law (2007) also states that the sensei continues to command the dojo (practice hall) with a degree of status and obedience among the students. This rigorous practice is still acknowledged in the majority of judo clubs as normal practice.

Communication between coach and the judo player tends to be one-way; the coach provides instruction to the player. Information provided by the coach derives from the syllabus for proceeding through the grading system. As such, judo players tend not to have the opportunity to express their opinions or to express their concepts on coaching issues. Judo players are used to the black belt being the master grade and they the students. On one level, participating in this research has provided an opportunity for the players surveyed to express their thoughts on what they think makes an effective judo coach. The questionnaire together with the player’s comments were not restricted to a particular level of qualified judo coaches. It was therefore essential that players were divided into two level’s (1) elite players and (2) club players. The elite category consisted of Olympic, World, National and Area players. Most players would belong to a judo club; therefore, there may be dual thinking in what they may perceive individually. Player’s thoughts might be “to become a champion judoka”, or to progress as far as they can as an elite national player, then become a judo coach them self.

6.5 Conclusion

From the judo players' comments, it might be considered by the National Governing body for judo in the United Kingdom, to periodically to survey judo players to ask for their comments and views on the coaching structure. It is important to review situations especially if those in judo are experiencing poor results at international levels. It is important in retrospect from the research; that perhaps an individual survey for club players and one for elite players would be more appropriate to suite the purpose. A dual survey such as this would provide individual assessment of players views at both levels.

There seems to be at club level a situation were judo judoka on obtaining their black belt cease to continue with their judo. This could be that their main goal was a black belt and they concentrated all the efforts on the accomplishment of the converted black belt. The grade of black belt cannot be achieved through organised judo competition events; it is awarded through a structured national grading judo syllabus. There is however an element that requires the judoka to take part in contests after they have completed the knowledge examination. Some judo may find the competitive part of judo, as being very stressful (Law 2007). It does become demanding, once you put the black belt around your waist, you are then perceived as an expert in judo. Students will ask you questions and you would be expected to know the answers. Judoka will want to test their skills and technique against the black belt's ability. In a way, the black belt could be seen as a "top gun" to be challenged. Another reason that judoka may give up the sport is that they have obtained their set goal and they have satisfied their desirers and want to move on to other things in life.

A suggestive way of encouraging players to stay in the sport would be to provide within the existing belt system, an element of coach training from the grade of blue belt.

This may entice judoka to continue as judo coaches and take an interest in the coaching elements of judo. In the present system, a player can obtain a grade of black belt without being a judo coach. The players who decide to peruse the competitive element of judo would have already achieved the rudiments of judo coaching; and therefore, may wish to continue as a judo coach after they are no longer competing. Judo would then not lose experienced highly competitive judo players, as they have done in the past.

**Chapter 7: Study 5: Players perceptions of an
effective judo coach**

7.0 Introduction

This part of the study examines the qualitative responses from 130 judo players studied in Chapter 5. The format of the questionnaire was explained to the players' by the researcher. Players were given absolute assurance that confidentiality would be adhered at all times and that it would be in line with the code of conduct of the British Association of Sport and Exercise. Players were also informed that the questionnaire was purely voluntary and they were free to withdraw at any time without any pressures or consequences. The researcher also informed the players that no-one's name would be linked to the questionnaires or the results.

7.1 The players' procedures

Data responded to the same item regarding judo coaches asked to coaches data analysis followed the same procedures (see Chapter 5). Players (n = 101) responded providing 1,970 words in their comments. The resultant data were grouped into six separate themes using procedures similar to those adopted in Chapter 3 (see 3.3 Qualitative methods).

7.2 Comments from club judo players

Players suggested that the coach should have dedication, love of the sport, and ability to pass that desire on to others. This is evidenced by the following indicative comments:

- "As students in judo classes are normally participating at different levels (different graded belts), it is important to understand everyone is different and everyone has something to offer the sport".
- "Being able to recognize individual and collective needs and apply their own skills"

- “An effective coach is someone who can help guide players to become the best judo players they can be, but whilst doing this, the coach should understand that the player’s aims may actually be different to that of the coach”.
- “To bring out the best ability in an individual whilst at the same time knowing the limits of the player and if they have any restrictions, but also bringing out the best in the individual”.
- “A good coach is someone who is fair and distributes their time and efforts evenly to all players and can adapt their skills to develop individual styles for his or her pupils”.
- “The ability to be a friend and a coach and tailoring lessons to suit the individual’s ability”.
- “A coach should always present a professional image with lessons being well prepared”.
- “The coach should have good personal experience, knowledge and the ability to pass this knowledge on to the players”.
- “The coach should be well prepared and should have all lessons well planned”.

It is clear that the majority of players, who completed the survey and made comments, may be biased towards club judo. The reason being, that their only concern would be in their own personal progress through belt grading syllabus. These players would be only interested in learning the technical applications, which are required for each grade of judo belt.

From the above comments, the players believe that it important for the coach to show a professional image and present a well-prepared judo lesson. In the club situation, the players would like to see the lessons tailored to their judo (belt) related grade. The players believed it was necessary for the coach to have good communication skills and a range of judo technical knowledge. This is why the club players would be more interested in the everyday club structure since it would to their advantaged as they would only be

concerned with obtaining judo grades. The judo structure and teaching in the clubs are based on technical knowledge and randori (practice), which will help players to progress from one level to another.

7.3 Comments from elite judo players

The criteria set for a Judo player to be classed in the ‘elite level’ category was; a player who has competed at World and/or Olympic Championships and/or National Championships and/or represented their particular Judo Area.

The elite player would be more competitive minded and is likely to be more motivated than the club player, with the win and medal factor overriding the belt achievements. This may be since the club players would be motivated by just progressing through the judo belt system and the elite player is motivated winning medals and judo titles.

7.4 Theme 1. Relationships between player and coach

Players believe it is important to have a strong relationship between player and coach, trust and friendship. Without friendship and trust, there is no respect. The following comments are indicative of this reciprocal relationship.

- *“Listen to what player’s wants and provide good matside coaching/good relationship with players/moulding a player to the best they can be physically/new ideas/ eye for improvement “.*
- *“The communication between coach and player needs to be good and clear on both sides. There needs to be commitment, honesty, and determination from both player and judo coach”.*
- *“I think to make a good coach you must be able to motivate your players and get them to perform at their highest level and to give them support they need to let them see the positive side of their performance”.*

- *“The ability to get new ideas across knowledge and the ability to motivate player’s, have good up to date technical knowledge, be inspirational and motivational”.*
- *“Show winning ability, be a top performer, ability to recognise my weaknesses and turn them into strengths”.*
- *“An effective coach is someone who can help guide players to become the best judo players they can be, but whilst doing this, understand that the player’s aims may actually be different to that of the coach”.*
- *“To recognise when a student’s talent is greater than coaches coaching ability and let go”.*
- *“The coaches should have compassion and motivation with lots of experience, not to lay back-congratulate you when you have done something well doesn’t take sides and doesn’t show favouritism”.*
- *“The coach has to be someone who has judo experience and has earned their belt by combat”. “In my opinion experience cannot be given with a belt, it has to be earned”.*
- *“The coaches must have had experience at competition level themselves”.*
- *“It is important to have good relations on and off the judo mat and knowing when your player is down and needs motivating”.*

Club players are taught in groups where the relationship with the judo coach may have built up over the years; it would have taken a minimum of three years for the player to obtain a black belt at judo. This three-year period would have helped the player to build up confidence in the coach. Players are aware that the relationship between them and the judo coach is important part of their progress. Players know that if they have progressed to the black belt that it is decision time, whether to move on to another judo coach or they are happy to stay with their original coach. At the elite level, players are always searching for ways of improving their judo skills.

Player's at elite level are very focused on where they want to be and require guidance with their set goals. Player's desire their coaches to be committed, dedicated very technical orientated, and have good communication skills. Elite player expect the coach to motivate them at important events and give them mat-side guidance during competitions.

7.5 Theme 2. Emotions

It was worthy to note the judo players had very similar answers to the coaches, however it was a little surprising the coaches did not incorporate emotions into their comments and yet it was one of the main issues in the player's comments. Coaches did however mention that the relationship with their players were of prime importance, which is closely related to emotions.

Emotion is one of the most important parts of a player's make up. However, there are far too many issues concerning different domains of players' emotions to include them all in this research. Emotional states are probably one of the most complicated issues in coaching for coaches to incorporate into their coaching, especially in judo where the coaches concentrate and focus on the physical aspects of the sport.

Inductive Quotes from Players.

- *“I find a coach who is able to empathise with players and helps them to solve issues they may come across”.*
- *“The coach who has a sound understanding of their sport and someone who can cater for different people and help to sort out some of their judo problems, as well as empathising with them” and will give praise and make their lesson enjoyable”*
- *“Some players believe the coach has to have dedication and a love for the sport together with the ability to pass on that desire to others”.*

- *“It is important for the coach to have dedication, love of the sport, together with the passions to pass the knowledge on and also have the understanding that everyone is different and everyone has something to offer the sport”.*
- *“Coaches should be able to recognise individual and collective needs of players and help them to achieve their potential”.*
- *“The coach has to be someone dedicated to the sport and understands the player’s feelings when helping them to develop their skills”.*
- *“Coaches need to be aware that everyone is different and they all have something to offer the sport”.*
- *“An effective judo coach is someone who can fully empathise with students”.*
- *“The coach needs to be friendly, patient and someone who has time for you”.*
- *“In no particular order: Honesty, reliability, consistency, ability to communicate, open minded positive mental attitude out of all students”.*
- *“The coach should always be approachable and friendly, someone to push and encourage you but also consoles you”.*

The players were of the opinion that coaches should have knowledge but expressed the importance of being able to transfer the knowledge in a way, which helps to motivate them. They also thought it was the priority of the judo coaches to take into consideration the emotional development into their judo coaching.

Most coaches are more concerned with the physical side of judo and therefore, it is understandable from the survey outcome, players’ think that coaches should take into consideration the mental aspects of judo. The effects that emotions can have on judo player’s performances can influence the player’s outcomes. Coaches are more than able to pass on information on the skills and technical side of judo, but they may not have sufficient understanding of how the aspects of self-efficacy is linked to coaching.

7.6 Theme 3. Knowledge

Judo coaches need to know more than just knowing the belt syllabus and rules of the sport. Judo coaching knowledge encompasses a broad range of information, for example, which techniques are best suited for different judo players' developmental level and most likely to improve their judo skills. Coaches must know how to run a productive practice and how to make adjustments to provide for all levels and situations. Without mastering communication and motivational skills, coaches will not get their points across to the judo players. The list of things a coach must have knowledge of is endless. But knowledge alone does not guarantee success. It is important that a coach understands when, where, and how to use information effectively.

Cote, Young, North and Duffy (2007) proposed that coaching efficiency should be judged by how coaches employ their knowledge, and demonstrate their behaviour and social competencies during their interactions with players in various sport contexts. In judo, etiquette and respect is the foundation upon which all knowledge and practice is built (Bruce and Matsumoto, 1999). Without the formal structure and discipline, the teaching of the fundamental techniques of judo would be dangerous and not acceptable in a contemporary society. Most people look on any martial art as a form of self-defence; therefore, it is important to portray judo as a credible sport and not simply a means of an unarmed combat type of self-defence. Fortunately, the majority of participants are happy to conform to the necessary structures within the "dojo". Standards of behaviour from both coaches and players on and away from the judo mat are expected to reflect a positive image of Judo.

Indicative quotes from players include:

- *“The coaches should have the ability and experience to be able to get their ideas across to their players and motivate them”.*
- *“To recognise when students talent is greater than you are coaching, and have the ability to let the players move on to other coaches”.*
- *“A coach who has the patience but also has personal experienced in competitions”.*
- *“The coach has to be total honesty with good time keeping, reliable, totally open-minded to all aspects of life and to be totally positive”.*
- *“In my opinion experience cannot be given with a judo belt, it has to be earned, it has to be earned by the wearer”.*
- *“Respect and knowledge of the sport”.*
- *“The coach needs to be a good all-rounder”.*
- *“Someone who can adopt techniques to suit the body shape of the player”.*
- *“An effective judo coach is one who is highly experienced, good natured, interesting, charismatic, trustworthy, patient and great at explaining, happy and encouraging”.*
- *“It was as well commented that a judo coach was someone who has a sound understanding of their sport and can cater for problems and differences of people, as well as empathizing with them”.*

7.7 Theme 4. Experience

Players will know how much experience coaches possess by their individual personal record and by the results from students that they have coached over the years.

There are many indicators that will identify coaches' abilities within the sport.

- *“The coach has high technical knowledge and is able to pass it on to the players”.*
- *“A coach who will go that extra mile”.*
- *“The coach should be qualified, active and with the ongoing respect for their students”.*

- *“A coach who has a vast amount of judo experience”.*
- *“It is important for the coach to had experience at the highest level of the sport”.*
- *“The judo coach is someone who has experience and also earned their judo belt by combat”.*
- *“An experienced coach is one who has studied under several judo coaches, and is well organised”.*
- *“If they have not gone through the system and experienced it themselves, they will not know how you feel”.*
- *“I would expect the coach to recognise my strengths and weaknesses”.*

7.8 Theme 5. Relationships

Judo is no different from any other sport where there is interaction between the coach and the player. There has to be desired goals and dedication from both parties. It may be the player’s wish to become an Olympic or World Champion and the coach would also gain recognition from the player’s success. It is therefore in the both interest of coach and player to ensure that they good relationships with each other. There will probably be times when the relationship becomes somewhat strained, as in any other relationship. The following quotes are indicative of players’ beliefs:

- *“Listening to what players want, good matside coaching, good relationships with players and moulding a player to the best they can be physically”.*
- *“I think effective coaches needs to have good relationships with all their players and be able to listen to them, if they have a problem with judo or anything which would affect their judo”.*
- *“A strong relationship between player and coach is trust and friendship, for with out friendship and trust, there is no respect”.*
- *“Judo coaches need to want to help others in reaching their goals and helping them to overcome any obstacles they might encounter”.*

- *“Another coach’s comment highlighted the need for such qualities as empathy, charisma, enthusiasm, knowledge, reliability, patience and having a caring attitude”.*
- *“It is vital that coaches have the ability to be a friend as well as the coach”.*
- *“Coaches should have a belief in what they are doing and a belief in me”.*
- *“Having a good relationship with their players and listening to their problems”.*
- *“To empathise with players and them to solve issues they might come across”.*
- *“I think a good coach needs to have a good relationship with all his/her players”.*
- *“There should always be a good coach-relationship with players”.*

The players’ believe an effective coach should be a confident and focused person who is interested in his or her players equally. This answer probably arose from may be a club player might have observed an elite player receiving preferential treatment from the coach. The players believed that it was necessary to have a high-class elite coaching structure and be aware that every judoka has different individual needs that have to be worked on in order to make the player more efficient”.

7.9 Theme 6. Motivation

Players believed that their mental preparation was as important as the physical applications of judo. Therefore, some players believed it was necessary to apply a combination of motivational strategies, such as praise, positive reinforcement, and confidence. Players expected coaches to know when they were having a bad day and they needed motivating.

- *“I think to make a good coach you must be able to motivate players and get them to perform at their highest level and to give them support they need, and to let them see the positive side of their performance”*

- *“The coach must show the ability to get ideas across knowledge and the ability to motivate the players”.*
- *“Commitment to sport and player, good knowledge with up to date technically, inspirational and be motivational”.*
- *“An effective coach to me is someone who is willing to give you their all in terms of time and effort in training sessions. Working with you through tough times and high times, they are there for you all the time through wins and losses”.*
- *“One who will use understanding and positive motivation in their coaching sessions to help the players to achieve their goals”.*
- *“The coach should have compassion and motivation with lots of experience, not too laid-back, congratulate you when you have done something well”.*
- *“A coach needs to be a good motivator, manager with people skills, commitment, and with a sense of humour” motivated, lots of things to-do, new ideas, programme schedules”*
- *“The coach should be a good motivator and one who recognises player inabilities and has to correct them”.*
- *“Good motivator with good knowledge of the sport”.*
- *“A good motivator knows how to treat players and knows how to get the best out of them”.*
- *“The coach must be a good motivator and have good knowledge of the sport and have good relations on and off the mat”.*
- *“It is important to know when your player is down and needs motivating also to know how to treat your player’s and know how to get the best out of them”.*
- *“One who understands and uses positive motivations in their methods”.*
- *“A coach who has enormous amount of knowledge, patience and motivation”.*
- *“The coach who has the ability to get ideas across, knowledge and the ability to motivate players”.*
- *“The coach needs to have a good knowledge of the sport and to be inspirational and motivational”.*
- *“One who takes time to motivate the students”.*

The key findings of this study relate to the players' perception of their coach. As expected, the majority of players perceived their coach to have a positive influence on their preparations, and someone who will give them confidence and motivate them when they need it. A number of players, however, did not always agree with their coach's decisions and style of coaching. It is sometimes difficult for coaches teaching in clubs, especially with a mixture of both club and elite players. Some players, particularly club players, are only interested in achieving judo belts, although others in the club may have aspirations of winning medals. Evidently, the coach needs to take into consideration the motivational needs of his or her students. If the judo players were only interested in the belt system, then the coach would concentrate on long-term goals. However, if the players were interested in the competitive elements of judo, then the coach would focus more on the short-term goals. An example would be in selecting the appropriate competitions for individual judo players in a progressive competitive judo program.

Motivation is the essence of judo especially for the players as well as the judo coach. Every person who steps on to the judo mat and becomes engrossed into the sport will be primarily motivated by the judo belt system. The belt system provides the feedback for the judoka to be able to focus on achieving one belt at a time, and this evidence of gaining competence is motivational. The colour of the belt shows the individual player's personal progress and at the same time, it provides that player with information on other players' abilities.

At face value, the belt system will provide feedback on performance accomplishments that could motivate the player. Cox (1990) proposed that the sources of motivation should be considered in terms of primary and secondary sources. Factors

related to primary motivation include performance feedback for players. Secondary feedback is how the coach interacts with the player. The judo coach would therefore, be classed as a secondary source of motivation, as would the judo belt system, being a champion, winning medals also it would include peers and parents. If a player was selected for a judo team event, that would be classed as a secondary motivation through the attention and influence of others. Judo is mainly practiced as a secondary motivation as you predominantly need a partner to practise with or to compete against.

7.10 Conclusion

The extensive qualitative data on players' and coaches' attitudes and beliefs on what constitutes effective coaching has produced a rich data set. There appears agreement between coach and player on the themes required effective coaching, including emotional control, knowledge of skills, experience, relationship between coach and player, and the importance of being highly motivated. There are however, differences in the emphasis placed on these themes. Players place greater importance on emotional control and knowledge of skills, whereas coaches emphasise the importance of relationships.

A key question that is worth asking is the extent to which the scale developed in study one, would have been reproduced, if the researcher had used a larger sample of players and coaches. The likely answer is that the scale would share some similarities, but would also show considerable differences. The reason being that there are more club coaches than elite coaches, therefore they would heavily out weight the elite coaches' responses. However, it is important to bear in mind that both coaches and players conceptualise the factors in a similar way, and within an acceptable degree of

measurement error as deemed from the confirmatory factor analysis results. It is commonly agreed, that theory development and measurement of that theory are ongoing processes. Therefore, it would be reasonable to suggest that future researchers could develop a revised attitudes and beliefs to the coaching scales based on the findings from this extensive qualitative analysis. The next stage in this research programme, however, is to compare attitudes and beliefs on the judo coaching scale between the players and coaches.

Chapter 8: Study 6: Coach-Player Comparison

8.1 Introduction

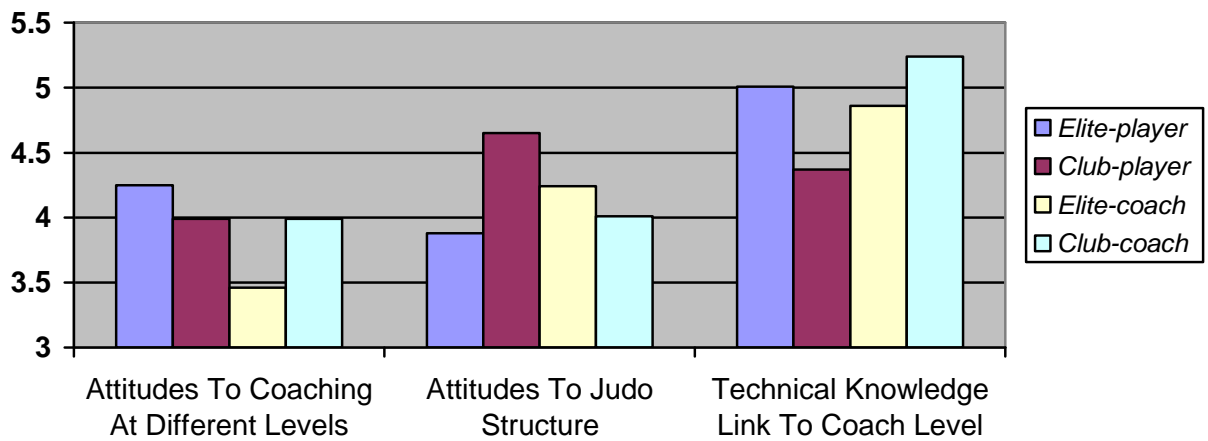
The method used in this chapter was to take data from players and coaches from previous chapters and conduct further analysis. Data were pooled to compare differences in attitudes of the coach and players by level. The comparison explored a possible interaction effect between level of performer (elite vs. non-elite) and differences between coaches and players. MANOVA results indicated a significant interaction effect (Wilks Lambda $\lambda_{7,246} = .89$, $P < .001$, $\eta^2 = .11$) by coach-player and by elite and club. Significant interaction effects were found for attitudes towards coaching different levels, attitudes to judo structure, and the technical knowledge to coach levels. Interaction result indicates that perceptions of coach effectiveness vary as a function of being a player or a coach, and by level of participation (elite-v-non-elite).

Table 8. Descriptive statistics between elite and club players and coaches

	Elite-player		Club-player		Elite-coach		Club-coach		Coach player	Elite club	Coach-level n
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>F ratio</i>	<i>F ratio</i>
Coaching is about winning	3.25	1.32	2.94	1.58	2.39	1.68	2.85	1.85	4.36	0.11	2.83
Attitudes to coaching at different levels	4.25	0.99	3.99	1.11	3.46	1.17	3.99	0.97	6.44*	0.76	6.67*
Attitudes to judo structure	3.88	1.26	4.65	1.29	4.24	1.22	4.01	1.32	0.59	2.36	7.92*
Relationships with players	6.25	0.59	5.96	0.89	6.00	0.72	5.93	0.65	1.76	2.92	1.21
Presentational issues	4.73	1.37	4.84	1.51	4.88	1.23	4.90	1.18	0.32	0.12	0.05
Technical knowledge link to Coach level	5.01	1.04	4.37	1.24	4.86	1.16	5.24	1.48	4.52*	0.60	9.12*
Coach-player interaction	4.04	1.18	4.02	1.24	4.43	1.22	3.92	1.37	0.67	2.20	1.96

* $p < 0.01$

Figure 4. Significant interaction effects for differences between elite and club players and coaches



8.2 Elite club players and coaches

The results in graphical form (see Figure 4) show significant differences between coaching attitudes to ‘technical knowledge’ and ‘club level’ coaching among the four levels. The explanation for this is that club coaches and club players both share the same attitudes towards coaching at different levels, whereas elite coaches hold different attitudes. Arguably, the club coach would be focused on planning the judo lessons to comply with the judo belt syllabus. Equally, the club player would also be motivated by the belt syllabus as it his or her ambition to progress through the belt stages. This result shows that club coaches and the club players’ expectations would have the same aims, whereas the elite players had a higher expectancy of the coach and therefore would prefer an elite coach who does not follow the judo club-grading syllabus regarding belt completion. The elite coach should have good communicational skills, above average technical and tactical ability, also be able to work in a one to one situation.

8.3 Attitudes to coaching levels

Results can be seen in (see Figure 4) the elite players scored higher than club players and club coaches. Coaching at varying levels requires the coach to have a flexible approach towards coaching at club level because there would be a mixture of students and grade levels. The elite coach would probably have moved on to one-to-one coaching and therefore might now find it difficult to go back to group teaching situations.

8.4 Attitudes to judo structure

Clearly, there would be more players interested in club judo and the belt system, than the 'elite' players would be, as most judoka are motivated by the colour of the belt that is worn around a judoka's waist. The colour of the belt gives an indication of the ability of the wearer and colour also helps judoka to match and measure their own progress in judo. The bar chart for this section records a high score for club players whereas the elite players show a much lower score because elite players would not be concerned with the grade structure having already progressed to black belt and beyond.

Elite players would be motivated by the competitive element of judo, thus their attitude to the judo structure differs from the club player and shows that they no longer have need of the judo structure. Coaches however, show a different picture. The elite coach scored higher than the club coaches in recognition of the part played by 'judo structure' because the structure and expectancy of the elite coaches would be higher than the elite player. These findings stem from the elite coaches' attitudes to training. Elite coaches tend to expect total commitment from the elite players, whereas club coaches would not need the same level of commitment and are more accepting of others life commitments. It was interesting to note that club coaches scored similarly to elite

coaching in terms of attitudes to coaching levels at different levels” and “judo structure”. This result suggests that they have similar attitudes towards both constructs. In other words the club coaches are content with the structure and levels of coaching in general.

The elite judo coach apparently has higher aspirations for the judo structure at the elite level, as the coaches aims would be to produce a World or Olympic medallists. However, as stated previously, elite players’ attitudes toward achieving improvement through the belt-system was not as high as the club players. Elite players are more interested in the technical knowledge linked to the level of the coach and this arguably is more important for competitive judo.

8.5 Technical knowledge linked to coach level

It would perhaps have been expected that the elite coaches would have scored highest in terms of knowledge linked to the level of the coach simply because they are the elite. The club players returned a score for this factor lower than expected. It is a requirement that club coaches follow the strict procedure of the British Judo Association’s grading syllabus. This requires coaches to obtain ‘further knowledge’ and to progress through the masters “Dan Grade Syllabus”. To progress through the ranks of judo’s ‘Dan Grades’ the club coaches themselves would also have to obtain a vast amount of knowledge necessary to move through the higher graded system.

8.6 Conclusion

Overall ‘technical knowledge linked to coach level’ recorded the highest score by club coaches. This was followed by elite players who also considered that they require the coach to have a high technical knowledge. They (presumably) expect an elite coach to have a wider range of coaching skill than the club coach. The elite coach would also

expect technical knowledge to be a high priority within the levels of the judo coaching structure.

The significant difference between attitudes to coaching at different levels and technical knowledge is for the reason that coaches and players, both elite and club, all need technical knowledge to develop their judo skills, but with differing levels of dependence on the 'technical' elements.

Club coaches are likely to feel the need to gain as much technical experience as possible and have the ability to pass on this knowledge to their students. The club coaches will have some judoka with a thirst for knowledge and may ask questions and need advice on certain judo techniques. It would be for this reason that club coaches would have the desire and need for gaining technical knowledge. Club coaches and players share the same attitudes as elite players for the different levels of coaching, with a similar attitude towards the judo structure. The club players do however; have a different attitude towards the technical aspects where they follow a set pattern of coaching. Whereas the elite players would have an entirely different set training routines that might include tactical awareness; grip and set moves; tempo and other auxiliary methods that may be implemented under the auspices of elite judo.

Elite coaches and players have significant differences to club coaches and players. Firstly, the elite coaches need not be focused on the grading system, as their interest would be in the competitive side of judo. The attitudes to different levels of coaching would not enter into their domain, as they would only have one level to concentrate on the competitive component. In their attitudes to judo structure, elite coaches would have

more status than club coaches and the rewards would be greater, especially if the elite coaches produced an Olympic or World Champion.

Elite players would expect elite coaches to have far greater knowledge and technical ability at the elite level than the club coaches. The elite coaches therefore would be expected to have a greater understanding of technical knowledge that would be linked to their coaching.

**Chapter 9: Study 7: Emotional Intelligence and
Beliefs on Judo Coaching**

9.1 Introduction

There are many areas of emotional intelligence (EI) that touch on the boundaries of sport, far too many to discuss in this research. Emotional intelligence is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions. (Mayer and Salovey, 1993), emotional intelligence subsumes Gardner's interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences, which involves abilities, which are categorised into five domains below (p433).

9.2 Emotional intelligence abilities

The five statements of emotional intelligence portray areas of competence or skills that collectively describe to the judo coach areas of emotional intelligence, which involve the abilities to recognise.

1. Self-awareness: Observing yourself and recognising a feeling as it happens.
2. Managing emotions: Regulating feelings so that they are appropriate; realising what is behind a feeling; finding ways to handle fears and anxieties, anger, and sadness.
3. Motivation: Motivating oneself: Channelling emotions in the service of a goal; emotional self-control; delaying gratification and stifling impulses.
4. Empathy: Sensitivity to others' feelings and concerns and taking their perspective; appreciating the differences in how people feel about things.
5. Handling relationships: Managing emotions in others; social competence and social skills.

9.3 Why should judo coaches be interested in emotional intelligence?

Why is emotional intelligence important for judo coaches and their performers? In the first instance, we have to look back to the constructs of emotional intelligence that can be traced back to Thorndike in the 1920's, which was reviewed as predictive power of intelligence. This continued until the 1970's during which research in intelligence and emotions were treated as separate entities (Mayers, 2001). These separate concepts were pursued by different researchers who were attempting to examine how emotions interacted with thought. Although researchers varied in what they considered as emotional intelligence (e.g. Epstein 1998; Golemen 1998; and Sternberg, 1997.), Mayer (2001) identified two definitions of emotional intelligence the first involving emotions and the second mixing approaches that blend emotional intelligence with other skills. Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to recognise the meaning of emotions and their relationships and to reason with the problem and solve on the basis of them. Emotional intelligence is therefore involved in the capacity to perceive feelings, understand the information of those emotions, and manage them.

Judo is a combat sport where emotions are prominent especially as it is based on winning or losing a contest (Law, 2007). Flight or fight is in the forefront of each contestant in a competitive situation, and the player's emotions will click in before the contest starts, and probably change as the contest progresses. The player will probably be nervous before the contests commences, especially if the other contestant's previous contest, was won with a top score. However, the longer the contest continues both players will experience different emotions. The one who had previous wins may be less confident

as the contest progresses. Whereas the other competitor may become more confident, realising there may be a chance of winning the contest. Even after the contest has ended, there will still be emotions, like jubilation for the player who won the contest or there may be anger and frustration for the player who has lost the contest.

Emotional intelligence and interpersonal relationships are closely related. Coaching concerns working with players, it is about the relationships between the coach and the performer, which is central to the coaching process. If there is conflict between the coach and player relationship, this may then create an emotional feeling between the two judoka, which will then have a probability of affecting their judo performances. There may be coaches who may not even consider the emotional effects on players in which this may limit the progress of the player in the long-term. It is therefore important for judo coaches to use all available resources to improve the standard of their players both physically and mentally. Resources for monitoring players may be achieved in many ways: such as the use of video cameras, videocassette recorders and the use of the computer. Some elite coaches use these resources to scrutinise tactical movements and improve judoka's technical skills. Other methods involve auxiliary testing, which are used in relation to body composition assessment, range of motion testing, pulmonary evaluation and nutritional analysis. However, there seems to be very little psychological in-put in the coaching of judo in the U.K. The mind-set is a vital component within the competitive elements of judo, it can also be as important to the competitor as the physical and technical side of judo (Law, 2007).

What psychological qualities are needed for both the coach and the player? Firstly, the coach needs to understand why emotional intelligence is important for the

relationship between the coach and the player, which is vital for progress in the player's development. Secondary, the player needs to be aware of how emotion intelligence can affect his or her performance.

If we look at the different construct of emotional intelligence Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) draw a distinction between models of emotional intelligence that focus on mental abilities and those that mix mental abilities with personality attributes.

For instance, Lane (2007) proposed that most players have experienced intense emotions, which are relevant to (EI) before important events. Some players can channel these feeling to enhance performance; some players are able to regulate these feeling and reduce anxiety, whilst other players become deliberated by anxiety. Most competitors will use self-talk to over come or control their emotions. Judoka before a contest will look at their opponent and usually tell themselves, they can win the contest and they will be self-talking and working things out in their mind as the contest progresses. For some judoka, the anxiety and stress may prove too much for them to cope with, even though they may have the necessary physical attribute to win the contest. The emotional state of a competitive judo player may alter the co-ordination and timing for executing a particular technique. The player may not be able to concentrate and then could become negative and thus unable to control his or her behaviour, which sometimes happens in a judo contest. Therefore, it is important for the judo coach and the judo player to be aware of emotional intelligence and to use it in a positive context.

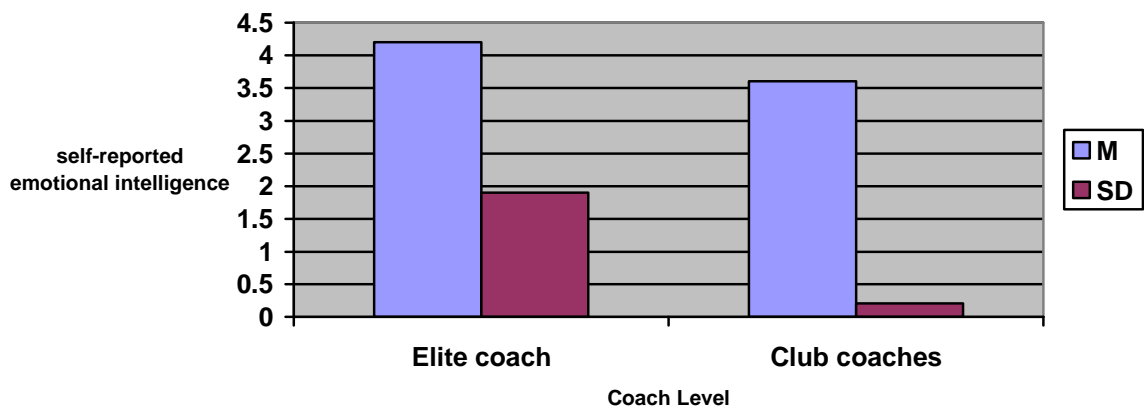
4.3 Method: Emotional intelligence scale

Participants (coaches and players) in the previous chapters also completed the Emotional Intelligence Scale (Schutte et al., 1998) along with the judo coaching scale.

The Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS; Schutte et al., 1998) was employed in the present study. The EIS has 33-items (where items are rated on a 5-point scale anchored by 1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree) is made up from six factors (see Lane, Thelwell, Gill, & Weston, 2007). Appraisal of one's own emotions (**1**) has 5-items (e.g., I am aware of my emotions as I experience them), appraisal of others' emotions (**2**) has 7-items (e.g., I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them), optimism (**3**) has 5-items (e.g., emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living), regulation (**4**) has 4-items (e.g., I have control over my emotions), social skills (**5**) has 5-items (e.g., I compliment others when they have done something well), and utilization of emotions (**6**) has 7-items (e.g., When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last). Prior to the six-factor model of the EIS, internal reliability and 2-week test-retest reliability had been reported at .87 and above, and .78 respectively (Schutte et al., 1998), whilst Lane, Thelwell, Gill and Weston (2007) have reported the six-factor model to have alpha coefficients of .70 and above. It is acknowledged that recent research has questioned the use of correlation as a tool to assess test-retest reliability (Lane, Nevill, Bowers, & Fox, 2005; Nevill, Lane, Kilgour, Bowes, & Whyte, 2001). However, research to date has not calculated test-retest agreements and whilst this limitation could question the stability of the scale, it is worth noting that few psychometric measures have been tested using this method. If it became a requirement for all psychometric measures to need testing by calculating test-retest agreements, there would be few measures

available to use. This limitation of the PhD programme of study is acknowledged. In the present study, the alpha values for the six scales were .68 for appraisal of others, .66 for the appraisal of own emotions, .68 for optimism, .61 for regulation, .62 for social skills, and .73 for utilization.

Figure 5. Differences in emotional intelligence by level of coach



Differences in emotional intelligence between elite and club coaches are contained in Figure 5. As Figure 5 shows, elite coaches reported significantly higher ($T = 1.99, P < .05$) scores of emotional intelligence than club coaches. Although differences were significant, there was greater dispersion in scores for elite coaches, suggesting that some elite coaches are high in emotional intelligence, whereas others much lower, which is indicated in the standard deviation.

Table 9. Relationships between judo coaching inventory and emotional intelligence among coaches

	Emotional intelligence	Appraisal of other's emotions	Appraisal of own emotions	Optimism	Regulation	Social skills	Utilization of emotions
Coaching is about winning	.19	0.15	.41*	.12	.14	.17	.34*
Attitudes to coaching at different levels	.18	0.04	0.10	0.42*	0.13	0.13	.12
Attitudes to judo structure	.17	0.23*	0.14	0.17	0.02	0.17	.14
Relationships with players	.25*	0.41*	0.17	0.26*	0.10	0.18	.17
Presentational issues	.26*	0.24*	0.44*	0.15	0.02	0.46*	.16
Technical knowledge link to coach level	.31*	0.47*	0.25*	0.28*	0.02	0.40*	.41*
Coach-player interaction	.24*	0.29*	0.04	0.14	0.02	0.42*	.04

*p<0.05

Correlation results for relationships between judo coaching and emotional intelligence are contained in Table 9.

Results indicate the **‘Coaching is about winning’** did not significantly relate to **‘Global Emotional Intelligence’**. When **‘Emotional Intelligence’** was investigated using discrete subcomponents, results indicated that **‘Appraisal of own emotions’** and **‘Utilisation of emotions’** positively correlated to **‘Coaching is about winning’**. It is possible that coaches who appraise their own emotions positively and believe they can use their emotions to facilitate performance develop attitudes that coaching should be about winning.

Results for **‘Attitude to coaching at different levels’**, is a factor on which positive scores indicate beliefs that club coaches are capable of coaching elite players, indicates no significant relationship with **‘Emotional Intelligence’**. An analysis of the **‘Emotional Intelligence’** subcomponents indicates it relates to **‘Optimism’** only. It appears that coaches believing that they can work with players from all levels is associated with an optimistic personality.

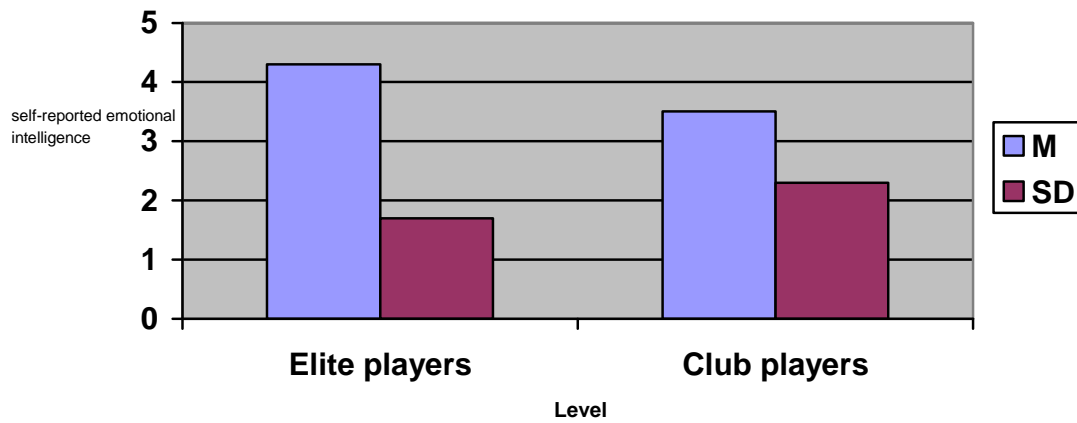
The factor **'Attitudes to the judo coaching structure'** showed no significant correlation with **'Emotional intelligence'**. For relationships between subcomponents of **'Emotional intelligence'**, only **'Appraisal of others emotions'** was significant. The factor **'Relationships with players'** correlated significantly with **'Emotional intelligence'** with **'Appraisal of others emotions'** and **'Optimism'** being the most influential subcomponents. Coaches who believe in structuring sessions also believe that it positively influences the emotions of the players. However, as evidence shows that this correlates with optimism, it is possible that an optimistic view of the coaching environment clouds the direction of relationships.

Results for **'Presentational issues'** shows it correlated significantly with **'Emotional intelligence'**, **'Appraisal of others emotions'**, **'Appraisal of own emotions'**, and **'Social skills'** emerging as significant associations. Coaches who believe in setting a good impression of training tend to pay close attention to their own and the emotions of others, possibly using social skills such as encouragement to raise emotions in others.

'Technical knowledge' link to coach level describes that elite coaches organise specific sessions to enhance competitive related skills in players. Results show that it correlated significantly with **'Emotional Intelligence'**, with **'Appraisal of others emotions'**, **'Appraisal of own emotions'**, **'Optimism'**, **'Social skills'** and **'Utilisation of emotions'** being salient factors. **'Coach-player interaction'** correlates significantly with **'Emotional Intelligence'** with **'Appraisal of other's emotions'** and **'Social skills'**

being important.

Figure 2 Differences in emotional intelligence between players



Differences in ‘Emotional Intelligence’ between elite and club players in show significant differences ($T = 2.01, P < .01$). As Figure 5 indicates, elite players reported high emotional intelligence scores; however, as standard deviation scores show, club players were heterogeneous. Some club players reported high scores of emotional intelligence and some club players reported much lower scores.

Table 10. Relationships between the judo coaching scale, and emotional intelligence among players

	Emotional Intelligence	Appraisal of other's emotions	Appraisal of own emotions	Optimism	Regulation	Social Skills	Utilization of emotions
Coaching is about winning	.15	0.12	.31*	.12	.14	.17	.31*
Attitudes to coaching at different levels	.16	0.02	0.10	0.41*	0.13	0.13	.12
Attitudes to judo structure	.18	0.28*	0.09	0.17	0.02	0.17	.14
Relationships with players	.22*	0.31*	0.16	0.29*	0.10	0.18	.17
Presentational issues	.23*	0.28*	0.39*	0.15	0.02	0.35*	.16
Technical knowledge link to coach level	.29*	0.48*	0.29*	0.29*	0.02	0.30*	.30*
Coach-player interaction	.22*	0.28*	0.09	0.19	0.02	0.32*	.04

* $p < 0.01$

Results for the factor **‘Coaching is about winning’** for the players are consistent with results for the coaches. For players, the factor did not significantly relate to global **‘Emotional Intelligence’**, but relate significantly to the **‘Appraisal of own emotions’** and **‘Utilisation of emotions’**. Players, who are aware of their emotions and believe that they can use these to enhance performance, tend to believe that coaches should encourage winning. It is possible that success in competition, and management and utilisation of emotions have engendered this attitude. Players who lose during competition and attribute failure to poor emotional control, and do not develop emotional control skills, tend to believe coaching should be about factors other than winning.

Results for the factor attitude to coaching at different levels among players indicate no significant relationship with **‘Emotional Intelligence’**. Consistent with findings of coaching, **‘Optimism’** was the only subcomponent that was significant.

The factor **‘Attitudes to the judo coaching structure’** showed no significant correlation with **‘Emotional Intelligence’** among players. The factor relationships with players correlated significantly with **‘Emotional Intelligence’** with **‘Appraisal of others emotions’** and **‘Optimism’** being influential subcomponents. Players report a similar pattern to coaches in that sessions that are structured relate to emotional intelligence.

Results for **‘Presentational issues’** show it correlated significantly **‘Emotional intelligence’**, with **‘Appraisal of others emotions’**, **‘Appraisal of own emotions’**, and **‘Social skills’** emerging as significant associations. **‘Technical knowledge link to coach level’** correlated significantly with **‘Emotional Intelligence’**. Significant subcomponents of **‘Emotional Intelligence’** that correlated include **‘Appraisal of others emotions’**, **‘Appraisal of own emotions’**, **‘Optimism’**, **‘Social skills’** and **‘Utilisation of**

emotions’. **‘Coach-player interaction’** correlates significantly with **‘Emotional Intelligence’** with **‘Appraisal of other’s emotions’** and **‘Social skills’** being important.

9.4 Discussion

Elite coaches reported significantly higher scores of emotional intelligence than club coaches; however, there was greater dispersion in the scores for elite coaches, thus suggesting that some elite coaches are high in emotional intelligence, whereas club coaches are much lower. Correlation results show consistent patterns between emotional intelligence and coaching scale scores. For both players and coaches, emotional intelligence related significantly to aspects of coaching involving person-to-person interaction. This may involve the relationship with players, presentational issues, and knowledge, similar to coach level, and coach-player interaction. Emotional intelligence did not relate to beliefs about the coaching structure and attitudes to results. These results are consistent with emotional intelligence theory (Petrides, Furnham, and Mavroveli, 2007). Emotional intelligence is proposed to be the ability to perceive, monitor, employ, and manage emotions within oneself and in others (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Salovey, Mayer, and Caruso, 2002). It should be noted that emotional intelligence has been found to predict performance across a range of different settings. However, a great deal of the research examining emotional intelligence has taken place outside of the sporting domain, focusing on business (e.g., Matthews, and Roberts, Zeidner, 2004), health (e.g., Pau and Croucher, 2003) and academic environments (e.g., Parker, Hogan, Eastabrook, Oke, and Wood, 2006). Emotional intelligence research has taken place in the sporting domain has resulted in equivocal findings (Meyer and Zizzi, 2007). For example, in their study of the relationships between emotional intelligence and baseball performance,

Zizzi, Deaner, and Hirshhorn, (2003) provided at best, only moderate support for the links between emotional skills and athletic performance. Contrary to this, preliminary findings by Lane and colleagues (Lane, Soos, Leibinger, Karsai, and Hamar, 2005; Lane, Thelwell, Weston, and Devonport, 2005) have suggested that emotional intelligence is associated with mood-performance relationships, although the exact relationships and impacts on performance are yet to be established.

Recent research has demonstrated links between emotional intelligence and coaching. Thelwell, Lane, Weston, and Greenlees (2008) investigated emotional intelligence beliefs of 90 coaches, correlating emotional intelligence with coaching self-efficacy. Feltz, Short and Sullivan (2008) also found that emotional intelligence related to motivation efficacy, which they defined by Feltz, Chase, Moritz and Sullivan (1999) as the confidence that coaches have to influence the psychological states and skills of their players (p225). Technical efficacy reflects the belief that coaches have in their teaching and diagnostic skills, and character-building efficacy. Feltz, Chase, Moritz and Sullivan (1999) believe this referred to the coaches' perception that they are capable of influencing the personal development and attitude toward sport in the judo players. Thelwell et al (2008) found that emotional intelligence showed no significant relationship with game strategy efficacy, which refers to the confidence that coaches have in their ability to coach during competition, and lead their performers to success. It is proposed that findings of the present study are consistent with those reported by Thelwell et al in that emotional intelligence related to factors concerning person-to-person interactions.

The present study concurs with the proposal by Thelwell et al that coaches should be considered performers in their own right, and as such, the study attempted to provide

researchers and practitioners with more information how they can work with coaches to impact coaching performance. Despite an increased volume in research investigating coach performance (see Greenleaf, Gould, and Dieffenbach, 2001), studies typically explore factors that have affected the performance of successful and less successful teams (Gould, Greenleaf, Medbery, and Peterson, 1999) and coach development following Olympic experiences (Gould et al., 2001). Thelwell et al, hint at the notion that coach-effectiveness is not best judged by examination of the win-loss ratio of performers, a sentiment echoed in the present research. More importantly, researchers should look at what coaches do and their beliefs surrounding that behaviour.

Results of the present study indicate the importance of high emotional intelligence among elite coaches. Logically, coaches at all levels should be able to appraise their own emotions and those of others, and use strategies to regulate the players and themselves accordingly. Coaches should be aware of how they feel and this can affect the emotions of their players. At the elite level, coaches fail to accurately implement strategies, to help regulate their own emotions and those of their players, which are likely to not only damage the coach-player relationship, but also, increase the likelihood of poor performance of both. Poor performance of the player is evidenced in a public arena and judged through win-loss outcomes. The coach's performance is more covert as he or she is not performing in the glare of an audience. These results are not only consistent with those reported by Thelwell et al, (2008) but are also consistent with research in business. George (2000); Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey, (2002); and Goleman (2008) suggest that leaders lacking in emotional intelligence have significantly reduced leadership effectiveness. With the above in mind, recent literature relating both business and sport

(e.g., Jones, 2002; Weinberg and McDermott, 2002) has indicated successful individuals in each environment to possess similar forms of attributes (e.g., communication, leadership styles).

9.5 Conclusion

The importance and the effects of emotional intelligence has been well publicised, which has been taken into consideration, and it was decided there are far too many traits for this research to cover. Nevertheless, it is necessary to include some of the emotional traits that affect the competitive aspects of judo. It is also imperative that both coaches and players are aware of the significance of emotional intelligence, and look to develop emotional control. Emotional intelligence is just as important as the physical side of judo, however, it would appear from the interview data of coaches and players, that those strategies to develop emotional control are not emphasised sufficiently in training. Coaches should emphasise both the psychological as well the physical aspects, in any competitive element of sport. Arguably, it is the balance of both facets, which could create an effective combination for successful coaching, helping to improve the player's performance.

The relationship with players at all levels is important, for the coach must be aware of why the judoka are participating judo in the first instance. If the coaches do not take into consideration why the judoka are taking part in judo and therefore places the judoka in a position where they feel uncomfortable, it may affect their emotional balance and this may stop the judoka participating in judo. Consequently, it is the responsibility of the judo coach to be aware of their students' emotional states. It is necessary for the

coach to take into account the judoka's emotional state when planning lessons or training schedules.

The management of judo is just taken for granted as there is a set syllabus that has been used by all judoka over the years, with slight modification from time to time. Most club coaches were satisfied with the present club structure, although elite coaches were not quite satisfied and perhaps they would like the opportunity to express their thoughts on elite judo.

There is a significant difference between club players and elite players, although it was reported that some players had high scores and some had lower, this is because players are usually all training together and there would be a difference in the individual player's ability, especially in the club situation. There would be players at different belt grades; also, each individual participant could possibly have different motivations for taking part in judo.

The players shared the concept that there was a difference between judo coaches. The club coaches were more orientated towards group teaching methods, with the concentration being mainly on the technical part of the belt syllabus, whereas the elite coaches were more interested in the individual judo players together with technical and tactical applications of judo.

Chapter 10 Development of a new structure of judo coaching (model)

The aims of this research programme were threefold. First to explore the effectiveness of the judo coaching system in the UK, second to develop and validate a scale for assessing attitudes and beliefs of coaches and players, and thirdly, to combine results from these studies to propose a revised national judo coaching structure (see Chapter 1, Figure 1 for schematic diagram of the process). There are theoretical and practical drivers for conducting this research. Theoretically, recent research has focused on coach effectiveness. Martens (2004) asked the question: ‘is successful coaching about winning’? He then postulated that although winning is an important aspect of effective coaching, coaching is much more than winning contests. Practical reasons for conducting this study is grounded in issues relating to judo’s relatively recent introduction as an Olympic sport against a considerable history of it being a martial art. Traditionally, coaching in judo is also about helping judoka to master new skills and techniques and enjoying competing with others. However, for elite judo coaches, success is arguably more about winning, for winning creates publicity, prestige and finance for your particular sport. The latter point is particularly relevant to coaches employed by the National Governing Body. Coaching is the structure, which the coach should use to deliver the strategy at each level. It is therefore essential that a sound structure is set in place for the sport of judo. It was in the context of this dual purpose and mindset that the present research programme began.

Initially the researcher looked at questions for the face-to-face interviews with the aim of firstly to provide a contextual basis for developing a judo coaching scale, and to evaluate if the judo coaching scale was efficient to produce elite judo players. It was acknowledged that the data were from a small group of participants who were highly experienced judo coaches and players, and therefore this data is used for comparative purposes with data gleaned from a large sample (study 2). At this point in the research programme, the coaches suggested their beliefs on how coaching could be improved.

Following study two, the research programme validated the scale for use with the coaches and players. Sophisticated methods were used to allow invariance between coach and player data. As Study 3 shows, the scale is valid for use with coaches and players within acceptable degrees of error. With this in mind, the researcher continued to investigate differences in attitudes and beliefs between elite and non-elite players of judo coaching. Results were largely supportive of the initial data from the small sample, suggesting consistent beliefs that a revised coaching structure was needed.

It is important to recognise at the outset that the aim of the present research is not to recommend uniformity in coach style. Effective coaches should develop a coaching style consistent with their personality. To illustrate this point, Terry (1992) compared Brian Clough with Graham Taylor, both of whom were successful soccer coaches. Terry (1992) pointed out that because of their different personalities; relationships with their players were different. The key point is that by reflecting on who you are (and your personality) and your perceived role as a coach leads to the development of a genuine coaching style that takes advantage of your personal strengths (Gilbert and Jackson, 2004). Gilbert and Jackson, also stated their belief that there is no general theory of

coaching effectiveness, and given a wide variance of players needs between different levels of participation, within sport would be justified. As such, many coaches are knowledgeable about coaching methods and have opinions about which methods are successful and which are not. Reflection on the methods is important if coaches are to develop personal beliefs that they can enhance the confidence of their players, attributing success to internal factors such as the coaches past experience (see Bandura, 1997).

When this logic is applied to judo, a successful coach should be a motivator with a positive attitude and enthusiasm regardless of the level of player. Coaching should be about raising self-efficacy beliefs in players so that they look to develop their skills and ability. This point is relevant to whether the aim is to enhance competitive judo skills or progress through the belt system. There is evidence from the present study, which suggests most judo coaches have an in-depth understanding of judo from the fundamental skills to advanced tactics and strategies. Qualified judo coaches should know the progressive nature of training adaptation, and provide a simple, structured environment for judoka to succeed as well as continuing to learn and develop new technical, tactical and training skills.

If judo coaches wish to enhance their coaching skills and enhance the performance of their players, then they should consider why people wish to take part in this particular sport. Do people in the first instance wish to become involved from the perspective of the self-defence issue? This being so, they might be motivated by the coloured belt system. By contrast, others will be motivated by inter-personal competition and winning contests rather than progressing through the belt system. At this present time, judo appears to have greater focus on the belt system. As an indicator to a relative

lack of progress in Olympic Games competitive judo, since 1964, Britain achieved only 19 Olympic medals. Judo has only won one medal at the Sydney Olympic Games; there were no medals won at Atlanta, Athens or the Beijing Olympic Games. Judging from the evidence of the last four Olympic Games, it is now time to readdress and analyse the possibility of reviewing the present judo coaching structure. “The research however, has not taken into consideration, judoka who have achieved judo medals at the “Paraplegic Olympic Games”.

At the time of writing this statement, the judo coaching structure in the United Kingdom, only provides training and qualifications for coaches who coach in judo clubs. This system provides for people who wish to proceed through the belt system and gain the necessary experience, knowledge and technical skills. This system might not effectively provide the required type of training for those judo players who may wish to become National, International, World or Olympic competitors. Therefore, it is suggested that the British Judo Association provide a coach education program for coaches who wish to become elite judo coaches.

Each sport needs a method of assessment to indicate the participant’s advancement and improvement. The grading system for judo has proven quite satisfactory over a long period, having been used in trial and error and reviewed from time to time by the British Judo Association. The other reason for this being that it has been set out at levels of advancement that are in accordance with the amount of experience and ability of each participant. By moving through the coloured belt system this provides everyone with the opportunity to advance at a steady rate both in knowledge and ability, which allows for each person to take each step as and when they feel

confident enough to do so. Having achieved one belt level it is a matter of a little more time and practice to reach the requirements to obtain the next level. The levels available are adequately spread out, and not too demanding. However, as would be expected, a higher standard of knowledge and ability is necessary to obtain a higher-level judo belt. The club system therefore appears to provide sufficient training for the requirements of the club judo players; nevertheless, the competitive side of the sport certainly needs to be reviewed. It also may need more training over a wider field, which should be considered necessary for those who wish to become top line elite competitors. An example of a recent method that has been introduced to judo is the Long Term Athletic Development for players (LTAD). This LTAD should be pursued at great length, as it appears to offer a great deal of benefit for all judoka, no matter which area of judo they prefer.

The British Judo Association should provide coach education for judo coaches at whatever level they wish to participate. There is already a coach education programme for club coaches', however; there is no coach education programme for coaches wishing to further their coaching at the elite level. Consideration needs to be made with regards to the outlook and training of all our coaches, at all levels, as it is necessary for close cooperation between them, for these are the people who are the role models for all the judoka who take part in our sport. There is a need for some specialisation in various areas, as it is expecting far too much, for what has been accepted over the past years. For instance once a black belt has been achieved, the holder has been expected in the past to become a coach, referee, organiser, table official, grading examiner. The coaches are also role models for all their students, leaving very little time for their own personal development as a coach. Admittedly, some advances have been made relating to this, but

now may be the time to consider conducting specialised courses to improve the standards of knowledge and ability for all different levels of qualifications. Coaches at levels should be prepared to work closely together and where necessary be prepared to pass on their players to other coaches. The elite judo coaching system is an area that is considered by some coaches to be sadly neglected, although the judo association has a wealth of well-trained coaches. This is substantiated, by the fact that the British Judo Association, do not have a system for providing for coaches' who may wish to coach elite judo players. There are only a few coaches, who have the technical experience to produce elite competitors. At this present time, elite players are achieving their success through the club coaching system. The elite judo coach is a particular area of judo coaching, which requires a very different approach to that of a club judo coach. Club coaches are situated in a different environment to the elite coach. Club coaches mainly coach in a group type of situation. Whereas an elite coach may not be responsible for more than one competitor. The coach is more than capable of organising the physical mat-side of judo. However, the coach might need help and guidance in the organisational planning of the training sessions, and with the targeting of certain competition status, together with monitoring the competitor's progress. This is where administration support might be essential for the elite judo coach together with other additional support such as:

- Medical support
- Psychological support
- Fitness coach support
- Dietician support
- Video analysis support
- Media coaching support
- Sports Science

Other sports use sport science support to supplement their sports programmes, such as tactical applications of skills, similar to set pieces in soccer. Judo is now looking at other examples of coaching from a wider range of other sports. This will involve analysing different sports organisations and their procedures from the management perspective, together with how they apply their psychological aspects to their elite performers that are vital at elite level sport.

It must be noted as in any other sport, it is more difficult for an elite judo player to succeed at the highest level without a team of sports science specialists, of whom the personal coach is one, perhaps the key member. These specialists (strength, conditioning and tempo expert also nutritionist, physiotherapist, masseur, doctor, psychologist, etc) all work together for the benefit of the player. It is hoped that the NGB will make these specialists available through one channel or another, whether through the English Institute of Sport, UK Sport, or by paying for their services. The best personal judo coaches should have an in-put with the elite judo coaching structure. They should be provided with the opportunity to become part of the planner team for each individual player's team of appointed specialists.

Players at the elite level believe they should be permitted to have matside coaching from a coach, chosen by them. It was also suggested that there was a greater need for improved planning and communication from coach to player and it was thought the system completely needs reviewing urgently. Some judo players admitted that they do not like the current training procedures.

It is evident that numerous changes need to be made, if judo is to succeed at the world level. The best elite judo players are mostly coached voluntarily by a few dedicated

coaches, who may term themselves as elite coaches seem to receive little support from the National Governing Body. The British Judo Association does not pay club coaches to coach judo players up to elite standards; they are produced through the judo club system.

In some cases, these coaches do not want help because they perceive themselves as offering a better service than the NGB to the players. These are club coaches who have been producing elite players for a number of years, before the existence of the professional coaches.

In terms of developing competitive judo, arguably, the psychological aspect of judo is under-researched as most coaches are more concerned with the physical application of judo, such as the technical and tactical skills. This is arguably where most competitors need help from coaches, and where coaches have the least experience and qualifications. Consequently, it is feasible to suggest that the current coaching structure, in terms of how coaches are trained, is not suited to develop elite players. In judo there are only coaching qualifications for club coaches and elite coaches are appointed. There is at the time of writing this research any formal qualifications for elite coaches.

The coaching structure requires restructuring. The size of this change will require full-time coaches receiving adequate financial support and incentives. Coaches will need to have been re-trained in order to provide adequate training for elite judo players. Using Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy model as a theoretical model to develop confidence in their ability to develop Olympic champions, the relationship between an elite coach and an aspiring coach is akin to something like an apprenticeship. An elite coach needs to have a good knowledge of a very wide range of subjects and be an absolute specialist in a few. This requires a considerable time in initial training and regular topping up courses in

new developments. Initially a trainee elite coach could work with an existing elite coach, as their assistant, learning the trade over a minimum 2-year period. At the outset, each coach should set personal goals for development and attend numerous courses in areas in which they feel weak and wish to improve. A two-year apprenticeship is suggested so that they can travel with senior coaches as assistants to the big tournaments over a two-year period, attending at least two European Championships and one World or Olympic event, before they can be placed in charge of any elite level players.

Evidence from judo coaches and players alike suggests that provision for coach education at the elite judo level is not currently available. The British Judo Association at the time of writing, only have formal qualifications for club judo coaches and there are no qualifications available for elite judo coaches. Coaches are consequently, put into the position of taking elite training sessions with no real elite training experience or guidance. It is believed that coach education at elite level could be better. Coaches were fully aware of the availability of a number of appropriate degree courses for coaches, but it was still felt that long standing coaches should be given help. However, it must be noted that most coaches are volunteers and have no intention of making judo a sole career. Clearly, professionalising judo by having full-time funded coaches provides a career pathway for aspiring coaches, something not available at present.

Some coaches stated they had virtually no coach education of any “value”. For example, one coach explained that he became an elite coach with virtually no assistance from the NGB., he said “I have learned the job the hard way – through experience.” Only recently with the introduction of the level 4 foundation course degree at Bath University, have I seen any move to educate coaches, and this has not been as a result of an NGB

initiative! However, this is a major move, which could start to change this unfortunate situation”.

In terms of developing a judo coaching structure, it is important to identify the qualities of an effective coach. Firstly, the effective judo coach needs to possess an attitude that he/she should be seeking to enhance performance and learn new knowledge. Thelwell et al. (2008) emphasised the point that coaches can be seen as performers, and as such, coaches should be encouraged to engage in critical self-reflections on performance. By reflecting on performance and attending to aspects that bring about success, this can raise self-efficacy beliefs in being able to coach successfully. Coaches believe when they are applying the emotional intelligence theory and players are able to read the emotions of their coaches, then coaches who display confidence and manage anxiety, these thoughts and emotions can be transferred to players.

With this in mind, coaches involved with elite players will need to transmit a sense of honesty, integrity and the ability to build trust to players. These skills need to be portrayed in a club situation, also at the matside whilst players are competing. The coach must have the ability to hold authority and respect and at the same time to build on the players inner confidence.

There is an entirely different range of skills required to coach elite players. The elite coach is focussed on elite individual competitors, who would be much lesser in numbers, which will be varied and enormously time consuming. Whereas, the club coach is dealing with larger numbers of participants, more regularly. The club coach is principally an instructor on the mat, and effectively the manager of a small (judo) business. The elite coach is a mentor and a key figure in the team that each individual

elite player needs surrounding them in order to succeed. The club coach operates almost entirely from their home club and mainly travels to local competitions. The elite coach spends a large part of their coaching time abroad at international tournaments and training camps. The club coach operates principally in the evenings. The elite coach operates in the mornings and every other hour of the day and night. The club coach can leave his work behind him. The elite coach's work travels with him. In Britain club coaches are largely amateur; whilst elite only has a small number of coaches that are class professional and are usually employed on a session by session basis.

In terms of the issue of specialisation (P82), results of the present study suggest that most coaches favoured specialisation in training judo competitive players at different weight categories. Specialisation has other implications, which may be an advantage to judo coaches such as involving other experts and professional people in the coaching programmes. Comments were not exclusively negative. Judo coaching facilities are modern and there is an increase in the number of funded players. However, some coaches commented, "there only seems to be proper back up support for elite players once they have qualified for such as the Olympic Games or World Championship events"(p38). Only then can they get the attention that they need, which is often too late for Olympic success. Before that they are largely self-supportive although continue to have support from their club coach.

An issue for both coach and player alike is how to progress. A common practice in judo is for each player to be categorised based on likely potential for the year. Tournaments should be selected, first in terms of "must do" and "could do". Most coaches discuss with players their training programme and discuss how the programme is

being operated. At the elite level, coaches believe they do discuss with players the goals they wish to achieve. Following this discussion, a schedule is developed accordingly between the coach and player. Coaches are of the opinion that training schedules are all target based, and work backwards from milestone events such as (Olympics, Worlds, Europeans Competitions), aiming to bring the player to a peak for each of those events. One quote “I sit down with the player; numbering the days to go before the events, I then agree with player how much time they have available in the build up to the event”. We then plan the nature of the work they have to do in each session.

Within the context of specialist skills, it was suggested that coaches should look at developing the mental skills of players. This could be achieved, by acquiring the service of a sports psychologist, who could assist the coach in providing this service to the elite players. Thelwell (2008) identified the paradoxical situation in which players do not accept the effectiveness of the use of psychological skills despite being presented with overwhelming evidence of their utility. Results of the present research programme, indicating the importance of raising emotional intelligence suggest intervention work should be focused on enhancing such beliefs. One method of raising emotional intelligence is through a programme of setting goals focused on emotional control. Goal setting is an intervention strategy associated with enhanced self-efficacy and performance (see Bandura, 1997).

Goals are a specific standard of proficiency achieved in a specific area of performance within a specific time. For example, a player could set a goal to improve his/her throwing actions by performing a certain amount of uchi-komi techniques within a specific time. Alternatively by completing a prearranged number of completed throwing

techniques, within a given time. It is worth emphasising that goal setting is already embedded in the culture of judo. Judo has always had goal setting through the judo belt grading system; which in fact the belt is the goal; however, the coaches and players were probably unaware that they were called goal-setting targets. Players have looked on the belt grading system as a form of a ladder that needed to be climbed step-by-step.

Goal setting is one of the most generally misrepresented psychological skill techniques used in the sport of judo. If performed effectively, goal setting can enhance a player's performance by focusing attention, increasing motivation and facilitating perseverance, but unfortunately, so many players and coaches do not completely understand the concept of goal setting. Most judo coaches plan their training sessions on the British Judo Association's, national belt grading syllabus (Gokyo). Therefore, coaches should be in a position to be convinced that goal setting is a vital skill for both themselves and their players. It also needs to be part the judo coach education coaching system. However many coaches and players do not fully understand the goal setting procedure. Judo coaches will however, need to be convinced that goal setting is a part of their judo training sessions, even though subconsciously they may not be aware that they are already following goal setting through the judo belt system. Merely having a goal is not sufficient for it to make a difference in performance. Making sure that the goal is affected and designing a detail plan for goal achievement and evaluation are the keys to successful goal setting. Goal setting is a part of coping skills, it is just as important for the judo coach and the players to be aware of the psychological skills as it is for the technical and tactical skills that are part of judo the training. In order to be a competent, coach and player, both must be aware and develop their psychological skills. This brings the

question what type of outcomes will they both need? Both player and coach will have their own goals to achieve. The player will be focussed on attaining a judo belt and even National, World, Olympic medals. These are important issues for the coach to consider, for unrealistic goals can have serious effects on the perseverance of the player and even the coach. The coach will also have goals setting achievements, it might be that the coach might see his or her goal on seeing how many students can achieve high judo grades or win medals at judo competitions, which may be perceived as kudos for the coach.

Outcome goals are focused on the outcome of a competition, such as winning a judo contest or earning a judo grade (belt). Outcome goals can help to increase short term motivation during practice, but they cannot stand alone. Setting only outcome goals can set some player up for disappointment and actually lead to decreases in motivation, because outcomes are not completely under our control. This would have to be assessed by asking the question how will the exercise be monitored to find out if it has been successful or not. For example, throws could be assessed by counting how many throws would be completed in a given time.

Performance goals are goals in which participants focus on process-oriented standards relative to one's own best performance capabilities. Usually the performer has much more control on the achievement potential successful outcome of these types of goals. An example of process goals are increasing the number of throwing techniques in the same previous time scheduled over a period of four training sessions. Alternatively, it may be monitoring how many throws on the move that could be completed within the contest time of five minutes. The aim would then be to set a further goal to see if the target could be extended

If player are under-confident, they will avoid taking risks and stretching themselves and therefore may not try at all (see Bandura, 1997). This means that players will fail to reach their potential. However, if the players are over confident they may take to many risks, stretch themselves beyond their capabilities, and fail miserably. It is therefore important for player's confidence to be founded on reality with realistic expectations together with the player's technical skills, experience, preparation and effort that is necessary to achieve selective goals.

Performance goals are self-referenced. Think of them as a 'personal best'. Performance is specific to the individual's previous mark and is much more controllable. A player can achieve performance goals independently of other judo players. Such as an individual performance might be executing a throwing technique which score a value of 10 points' whereas normally he/she has only been scoring 5 and 7 points, which would be perceived as an increase in the scoring ability for that player and therefore enhance motivation and confidence. Attaining performance goals can increase the likelihood of accomplishing outcome goals, but cannot guarantee it due to the uncontrollable nature of outcome goals.

Process goals are those technical and tactical applications that the player must do in the competition in order to perform well. Examples of process goals are keeping well sustained technical attacks in the judo contest or being able to follow up from standing techniques into a grappling situation with confidence. This being able to execute judo skills under undue pressure and to train the body to react proactively to the feeling of anxiety and to empower the mind to stay focussed and at the same time trust the body's ability to execute the skills the has been taught in the judo training session.

Although these goals are set out individually, in fact they should all be incorporated together. For it is important for (1) outcomes goals (2) performance goals, and (3) process goals to be seen as a complete goal setting process. An example from a judo perspective would be; (1) for the coach in consultation with the player, select target competitions that they both think are achievable in the terms of success. Baring in mind standards of each of the events together with the ability of the player (2), to work on the players techniques that he/she has been have the most success over the last few successful competitions. However again this will depend on the person they are competing against and (3) the training sessions must be as realistic as possible to an actual judo contest.

A second psychological strategy for enhancing judo confidence and emotional intelligence is an attribute called self-talk. It has been established, by psychologists that every person carries on an ongoing dialog or self-talk, of between 150 and 300 words a minute. This works out to between 45,000 and 51,000 words a day. It is important to be aware of negative thoughts especially in the sport of judo were two people are engage in combat with there only being one winner. It must be the contestants belief that he or she will be the winner otherwise they will have lost before they have stepped foot on the judo mat. If the contestants have negative thoughts before they begin the judo contest then they will start at a disadvantage.

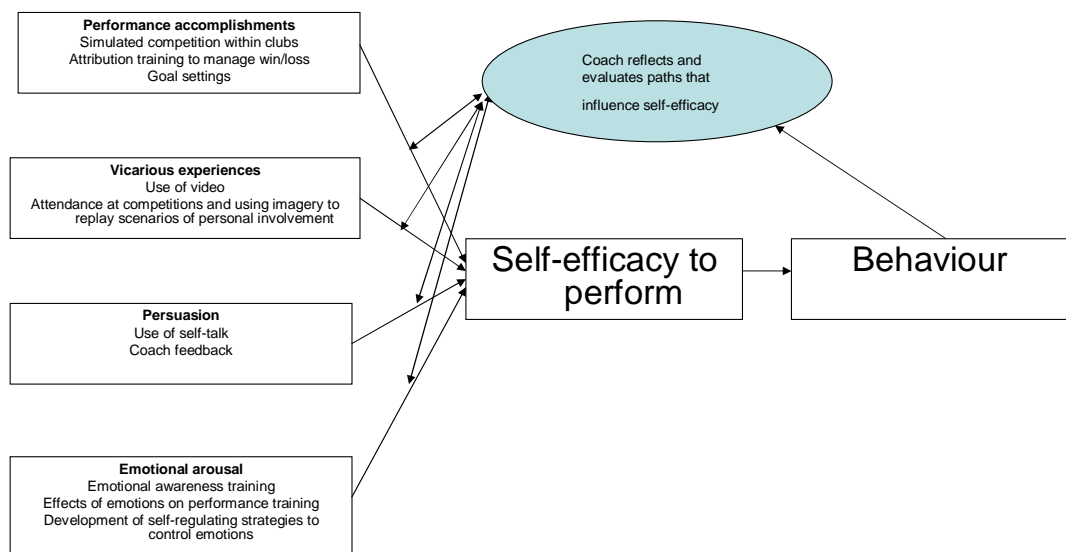
10.1 Proposed theoretical model and operational model for judo coaching

The present study has suggested that a considerable number of changes need to be applied to the judo coaching structure. Whilst theoretically the thesis has not followed a structure aligned to one theoretical framework, it is argued that the changes can be grouped under the heading of self-efficacy as suggested by Bandura (1997). Changes are

possible by making coaches aware of the principles of self-efficacy, which may be applied to the development of emotional intelligence, a trait that is malleable to training and proposed to be associated with effective leadership (i.e., good coaches) and performance (in both players and coaches). Coaches should be aware of the importance of combining self-efficacy and emotional intelligence to their repertoire. Coaches should be aware of own emotional states and be able to manage them. For example if coaches are unable to appraise themselves, then it is unlikely that they would be able to reflect on how best to relate and/communicate with their judo players. Thelwell, Lane, Weston and Greenlees (2008) are of the opinion that if athletes performance levels fall below those expected, coaches will be required to appraise their own emotions and regulate them to ensure that they are not displaying inappropriate emotion to the performers, which may effect any subsequent interactions and ensuing performance. It is necessary for judo coaches to be conscious of how self-efficacy together with emotional intelligence can help the coaches to monitor their own awareness. If judo coaches are able to improve their emotional intelligence constructs, which will relate to self-efficacy, such as; performance accomplishment, vicarious experiences, persuasion and emotional arousal.

Central to an enhanced judo coaching structure is the judo coach, who needs to hold an attitude that he/she reflects on aspects on how to improve performance. The coach being a reflective practitioner is the key to the heart of these suggested changes. Enhancing each player's confidence to deal with competition is not addressed adequately in the present judo coaching structure. Throughout the thesis, suggestions have been made on how to enhance self-efficacy, and this is depicted graphically in Figure 6.

Figure 6 A Self-efficacy Model



In terms of developing emotional intelligence, the proposed structure seeks to embed training methods into some of the current training methods where it is possible. Given the importance of developing psychological preparation for competition and associated emotional control, it is worth examining aspects of judo coaching that develop self-efficacy and emotional intelligence.

A key part of a training session is to overload players, both physically and psychologically. One aspect of performance that is difficult to develop is the notion that intense physical exertion is tolerable. Karageorghis (2002) believes that to enjoy reputed bouts of hard exercise during competition you need to have experienced repeated bouts of fatigue that follow long-duration exercise in training. In the same way you train your body to cope with the demands of training, you also train your mind to think positively about the experience. Some judo coaches have probably followed the line-up format

without realising the mental benefits that are gained from the line up process. The 'line up' is a training method that simulates a competitive contest in that the competitor will fight all the judoka in the 'line up' one after the other. The difference between this and the competitive grading system is that the judoka will be fighting the 'line up' continuously, i.e. one player after another and they will not have the three normal single bouts. In the sport of judo the term 'line up' in some clubs, is a remark that creates stress, tension and anxiety for some players, most likely because players associate it with competition and intense fatigue. This remark or terminology is used in judo clubs throughout the United Kingdom as a way of preparing judoka for taking the contest for their various belt grades. The 'line up' usually occurs at the end of a judo practice session.

The 'line-up' shares some aspects with competition. In their mind, players preparing to compete could be identifying the judoka in the line up and attempting to plan a strategy needed to defeat their opponents. From this session they will experience the concern and consideration that all competitors experience when they are placed in a competitive situation. Gleeson (1967) argued that nerves are tied up in the reaction of "flight or fight" and the person who has them, has to try to learn how to steer them into the right channel of attack or defence. As Lane (2006) points out, some emotionally intelligent people can get themselves into an appropriate emotional state to cope with the situation. Jones (1992) believes that it is important to remind performers that mental skills are like physical skills; they require regular, committed and dedicated practice sometimes over a long period of time although these skills will vary greatly between individuals. Emotional testing may be organised by the coach without the coach

necessarily realising the benefits that this type of training imparts to the players. The method could then be used to help the players to self-talk themselves through the coming 'line up' in such a way that they will cope with certain players, especially if they had contested with them before. They could reflect on previous encounters with various players to help calm the nerves. It is only when you have had a variety of judo contest experiences that you can reflect, thus the longer one has been competing, the better should they be able to cope and relate the emotions that you experienced in similar situations. Before you entered the highly competitive arena of judo, this would be an excellent way to help to control your nervousness, tension and anxiety.

A further method players could employ to control emotions would be for the coach to organise a 'simulation contest' in the club environment. Using this type of simulation would create a contest situation, which would mirror as near to possible a judo contest. Both competitors would be in a situation where they would be experiencing nervousness and anxiety, which players would normally experience in a judo contest. The players needs to be placed in contests situations where they experience coping with the different factors that take place, such as trying to execute a throw when the arms feel dead or the legs have gone. By using this experience will tell you that your fitness needs to be improved. It may be that you have lost a little confidence; this could be your inner voice being negative.

It might be signalling that you are feeling tired, there are times when most players would have experienced the loss of energy in a contest, which may give players the feeling of being negative. This is where some player's will give up and concede defeat, whilst others will be more positive and talk themselves into believing that their opponent

must also be experiencing the same tiredness. Therefore, they will tend to switch off in the mind and concentrate on regenerating their physical and mental energies. An example would be for the coach to select sets of three players, two of whom will be the contestants and the third player becomes the referee. The coach must time the contest with each set of two players and the referee, all contests commencing at the same time. When the prearranged time ends and 'time' is called, the players will rotate their role with the least successful contestant becoming the referee. By using simulation will cause the two competitors to experience the 'stopping and starting', which frequently occurs in the course of a real judo contest. The interruptions may occur at such times as a belt becoming loose or a judo jacket slipping out of the judo belt, they are common and add a significant stress level. Contests may also be stopped for an infringement of the rules. Every time the contest is stopped, the players have to control their emotions, as it is like the contest starting all over again. Stopping and starting a contest will have an effect on player emotions, whether admitted or not. The coach might see a 'break' in the contest, and take time to give the player tactical advice, it maybe negative or positive, either advice may also contribute to affecting the players emotions. The greater a player experience of a variety of emotional situations the more he or she will hopefully reflect on how they acted in that particular performance and go on to benefit from the experience and the coach's feedback.

Judo coaches are also prone to experiencing emotional states similar to the players. However, some coaches may not be aware that they are effected by such emotions. For instance Gould, Greenleaf, Guinan and Chung, (2002) proposed that coaches are clearly responsible for the development for their performers. However, they

highlight “what less is well known is the degree in that coaches themselves can be considered ‘performers’ in their own right”. As performers, they will also experience emotions, such as being anxious when taking a judo session, which might have elite judo players present and they may feel threatened by these players presence (see Thelwell et al., 2008).

The body actions of the coach could also have an effect on a player’s performance when that player is taking part in a judo contest. Therefore, emotional intelligence can affect both the players and the coaches’ behaviour and therefore it is important for them both to be aware of their own body language. The coach clearly has an important role to play in assisting the players to control their emotions; however, it is necessary for the coach to be aware that his or her own emotions can transmit to the players. Horn (2002) specifies that there are certain behaviours, which a coach exhibits in practices that will have a direct effect on his or her player’s performance and, thus on the ability to master the skills in competition situations. The ‘base line’ of coach/player interaction is about the relationships between the coach and the player being coached, it can mirror the ‘marriage’ or ‘partnership’ relationship where two people have to consider their partner’s emotions and have to be aware of the pressures that they put each other under. The coach needs to be sympathetic and understand each player’s circumstances and thoughts, as the opponent may be above their skills level. For any miss-match of players in a competition could be very stressful for each of the players in this type of situation. It is therefore importance that the coach is aware of each of the player’s emotions. The coach must be able to determine that some players will need persuasion whereas others may need a more

authoritarian approach. It is imperative that the coach can identify which method to use and act accordingly.

It was interesting to note that Gleeson over two decades ago (1983), expressed his belief that coach's attitudes should change, as the player matures because the player will usually want technical expertise in his or her early development and occasionally counselling. However, later when that player has competitive success and experience he or she may want more counselling than technical expertise. When this crucial point is reached, the coach needs to be aware of the psychological affects and changes that the competitive aspects of judo might have on a player's performance and adjust the input. With this in mind, the coach can alter how he/she presents himself.

Leadership style can also have a profound effect on the player's emotions, for instance in a club situation where the training is mainly autocratic in the early stages. It is therefore, important that the coach be in control of his/her own emotions and is therefore more tolerant of, and aware that lower graded judoka, newer recruits etc, (perhaps less able than some developed players) have a particular 'need' and therefore coaches should treat them with respect. It is natural that junior graded judoka will be emotionally concerned/stressed when they are matched above their own grade level. This will generate stress and anxiety within the player's forum. It is therefore of great importance that the coach considers the player's emotions throughout all stages of their development, failing this they may put judoka off taking part in judo again. The situation can also arise, where a coach uses his or her authority to encourage a player to enter a competition that may well be above their performance capabilities. This practice creates undue stress, tension and anxiety for the player, as he or she maybe emotionally place under excessive

pressure from the coach to enter competitions, which are above the individual's perceived standard of participation. The coach should consider these personal implications when choosing the level of competitive events for the individual judoka. This is sometimes difficult for the coach in a club situation because the coach has to take into consideration groups of players. However, some 'elite' coaches may take a more democratic approach, rather than selecting the competitions for individual players; they may take the democratic procedure and select the most appropriate competitions to be entered, often by club/mutual agreements. This type of situation would only arise from long-term coach-player relationship. Should the type of event be an Olympic or World Class competition this might well create a different situation. The stakes would be higher, for both the coach and the player, where results are essential for both parties' reputations. This would create emotional stress at the highest level, as the potential funding for future generations could be riding on 'positive' results; therefore, the control of emotions at this level is crucial and more emphasises and research should be placed on the emotional intelligence of elite judoka.

When players engage in judo competition, it is normal for them to experience intense emotions, as many players will feel nervous and a little anxious. For someone experiencing his or her very first contest bout, outside his or her own judo club environment will probably find it extremely traumatic. They may have had judo bouts in their own club, which would be against their own peers in a normal club practice situation. The outcome from these bouts would not reflect on the individual's performance, as they would only see this as a practice session. However, when players are representing their club or contesting for a higher belt, medals or for the prestige of

their club or country, then pressure of the occasion may present a tremendous burden on players mentally and thus affect their performance.

Coaches usually have the experience to fulfil the physical side of judo, such demonstrating various throwing and grappling techniques and pass on tactical skills; and most club coaches are quite happy and experienced enough to fulfil this role in a normal judo nights practice. Most coaches would have the psychological in-put passed onto them from their own and other judo coaches, when they were players, however this would probably be in the form of an add-hoc structure of learning. There is no formal training in judo for the psychological application, as players are usually prepared and feel that they have the technique and tactical skills to win judo contests. It is only by trial and error after many judo contests that players gain the mental toughness and experience needed to pursue their goals. Many judoka enjoy practicing judo just in their club environment, but do not take pleasure in the mental pressure of the competitive judo arena. This may be down to the lack of preparation by some judo coaches in preparing players mentally for the tasks in hand.

Judo coach education has an enormous part to play in introducing the importance of emotional control for both coaches and players in order for them to cope with the stress of competition. Lane (2000) states that players can improve their emotional control, however, he points out that while it can not transform the proverbial cart-horse into a race horse, it can make the race horse (and the cart-horse) go quicker. Literature has many examples of how emotional control should be introduced into different domains, such as; business, medical, and sport. Equally, authors who espouse the benefits of emotional intelligence (Bar-on; 1997; Boyatzis, and Mckee, 2002; Gardener 1999;

Goleman's 1995a; Mayer and Salovey, 1997) assert that the effective use of emotion is basic to the function of successful leadership. They postulated further that leaders are emotional guides influencing not only follower emotions but also follower action through that emotional influence. Leaders exercise this influence through relationship management, motivational appeal, and goal setting, and the leader's emotional intelligence is necessary, to effectively perform these efforts. Judo coaches are potential leaders and therefore they must be aware of both their own and that of their players emotions, which are sometimes sadly lacking in judo. The coaches should be providing mental models of how things work in a specific coaching context, which allows players to understand situations more rapidly and deal effectively with various issues they are facing. It is important for the coach to take into consideration the different levels of players' development and competitive levels. In order to understand the different effects that occur in the judo learning stages. This in the long-term will help the coach to recognise and understand the player's emotions, as they are taking place and therefore may be able to give the appropriate advice that may be needed for the particular situation.

10.2 Operational issues

To start there needs to be a plan, but first there is a need to identify certain key areas of importance.

- **Question: What levels are we trying to achieve?**
- *Answer: Preparing potential International medallists.*
- **Question: where will players train?**
- *Answer: At selected venues.*
- **Question: Where do we find the player?**
- *Answer: At selected competitions*

- **Question: Where do we find the Coaches?**
- *Answer: Coaches who have produced successful competitive players*
- **Who has the experience to train the coaches?**
- *Answer: Examine other successful sports models.*

It is suggested that the sport of judo and its coaches, can learn from other sports. Sometimes you can identify good codes of practice, such as coaching plans and a training programme that meets judo conditions. Working more together within the various areas i.e., closer liaison between school, club, Area (regional) and National. In athletics, Dave Collins (BBC web-site 2006) stated that he has re-structured the funding of players and developed stricter, but transparent criteria for obtaining support. Players are therefore given a benchmark against which to compare their performance and thereby can see the link to funding through performance accomplishments. He goes on to reiterate “that players risk losing their lottery funding, if they fail to meet expectations”.

With the above in mind, it is worth emphasising that change in judo coaching needs to occur at the competitive end. Results of the present study indicate that judo coaching focused on helping players achieve belts is perceived as satisfactory by players and coaches alike. The club system helps players to progress through the belt syllabus and many players are able to reach the grade of black belt. Some coaches are lucky enough to have players who enjoy the competitive element of judo and progress their judo by participating in judo competitions. However, findings from the present study show a gap in identifying and developing players with potential for world-class performance. The gap between the method used to guide players through the belt system

and the requirements of preparing for competitive sport is vast, and warrants attempts to bridge it.

It needs to be acknowledged that judo has a two level system; (1) where students follow the Judo belt system and (2) which involves players who wish to follow the competitive route. The number one system is well structured, however there was evidence, which pointed to the fact that may be the competitive section of judo needs re-structuring. This is not to say that this research has all the answers; however, “hopefully” it will highlight weaknesses in the judo coaching structure at elite level.

Whilst the majority of judo coaches were satisfied with judo at club level, evidence from the research indicated room for improvement at elite level judo. Judo coaches at all levels are capable of passing on technical and tactical information to players, however a very important part is missing from the coaching structure, which is vital to success of potential competitive judo players. Arguably, an element missing in the coaching structure is the psychological in-put into coaching. Competitors can have the technical and tactical ability; they can also have the fitness factor, however without the psychological factor input the coaching is not complete. A limitation with judo coaches is that they are not trained to deliver and integrate psychological skills training and thus raise emotional intelligence in judo players (Thelwell, 2008).

A key factor that warrants considering is how to develop a performance focus in the attitude of coaches with aspirations to work with elite players. It is important to note that at the moment the club system is the only way in which a player can progress as an elite judo player. The club coach is unable to give the time that is needed to provide the best resources for a potential elite player. This is not because the coach is not capable; it

is just that the amount of time and dedication that is required by the player and the coach needs to be 100%. The club coach who is often coaching on a voluntary basis, plus the commitment to other club members, will find it difficult to deal with. Therefore the club or the elite player will not have the attention that will be required for success. Therefore, from a practical perspective, judo coaches should reflect on their aspirations. Coaches that wish to work with elite players and develop competitive judo players require additional training. It is assumed that the current system serves the belt system adequately. However, coaches need to adopt an attitude that additional training is required if judo coaching is to develop from its current position. Judo may need a fundamental change in how the coaching system operates. Perhaps there needs to be a greater input of psychological training by sports psychologists with elite players at an earlier age. This could be introduced to squad players' from the age of 16, then hopefully by the time they become senior elite players' they will be familiar with the psychological aspects of their training. It is a necessary part of judo for elite players to cope successfully with the demands of world-class competitive judo. This aspect of preparation seems neglected with performances at the Beijing Olympic Games showing underperformance, hence suggesting that psychological input was missing for some players.

The following bullet points are suggestions for consideration in coach education.

- A national elite coach education programme should be developed for aspiring coaches, who wish to work with elite competitive judo players.
- Some elite judo coaches should be specific to weight categories. The demands of competing as a heavyweight will be different to those of a lightweight.
- There should be specialist tactical coaches in addition to specialist mat-side coaches.

- There should be a peripatetic elite coach system, where the elite coaches visit judo clubs and passes on information, with regard to the type of training that is required to assist players to become elite performers.

Coaches should identify the following performance targets:

- Identify potential world class players at an earlier stage
- Increase the number of elite younger players in national squads
- Potential world class judo players and coaches to be funded.
- Maintain and develop specific training facilities for different sets of weight categories.

Whilst the majority of changes being proposed focus on the elite level, support is needed at the base level. Elite players develop from club players and key to supporting this transition is a structure that allows players to develop. Arguably the club system is adequate, but if judo has aspirations for considerable improvement, then change should occur at all levels. Figure 7 below proposes four levels of coaching and suggests what the focus of each level should be geared.

Figure 7: A structure of player development and talent identification

Schools level	Area level	National level
Fun and enjoyment basic skills	Talent identified	Elite potential
Flexibility knowledge	Competition experience	Individual experience
Basic skills belt system	Inter area competitions	National trials

Club level	Area level	National level
Pupil subject learning	Contest preparation	National preparation
Judo-key stages belt syllabus	Contest simulations	Competitive training
Retention of pupils'	Technical skills	Competitions individual tuition

At the **School level**, Judo should be classed as a subject and therefore judo should be linked into the key stages for the appropriate age groups. Judo needs to follow the educational curriculum taught in schools and therefore, coaches need to consider how current practices can be adapted to meet the demands of the UK National Curriculum. Alternatively school clubs could be set up.

At the **Club Level**, attendees range from children, students and adults who pay to be taught the skills of judo and therefore the rewards would be the judo belt. Coaches would teach from the national judo syllabus.

At the **Area Level**, players would form a squad and should be focused on competitive judo. Players should be trained by selected coaches, which have been appointed by the Area Committee of the nominated British Judo's National recognised Area. These would be academies established for players with ability and desire to progress through the competitive judo route. Like in any field of education, as students progress they should be able to graduate into specialist academies for elite competitive

players. It was suggested that perhaps the academies could be selected, where players could train in their weight categories. This could be achieved by selecting the first 10 competitors in each weight category, from selected competitions. At such academies, there should be coaches who have special judo skills in teaching selected throwing, grappling and locking techniques. It must also be realised that one elite judo coach, cannot provide all the resources that players need to participate at the highest level of judo.

At the *National Judo Level*, players and coaches who have succeeded in winning national level events in their weight categories or from a coach's perspective have coached player up to and beyond National level. The national level elite system should share many features with coaches from the club sector. Coach education is paramount, for club and elite judo coaches, with a two-way information system where coaching information can be transferred to each other.

To facilitate this change, the sport of judo needs to become professional like the majority of other sports, where they have amateur and professional players and coaches. Coaches need to be educated into sharing the responsibility of elite players. If we look at other professional sports they have managers, assistant managers, trainers for different aspects of the sport, physiotherapist, sports psychologist, video analysis, dieticians, just to name a few. Even if judo is not a professional sport, there is no reason they cannot act and perform like professionals. Judo coaches and players need to change their attitudes towards the coaching structure and the need for changes in their beliefs to how judo should be presented in the twenty-first century.

Coaches that implement the coaching curriculum arguably underpin the development of the elite Olympic performers. Effective coaching should be associated with positive psychological states in judo players, and arguably in judo, players need to be prepared for grading in and one-to-one combat. The present judo-coaching curriculum seems more adept at the former than the latter.

Evidently, to implement the suggestions above need considerable funding. With London 2012 providing a political platform for leveraging government finance, such plans become possible. All sports are reliant on finance. Funding needs to be considered, other than National Lottery funding, in order to fund elite players to ensure that they are able to train full time. To raise funds, media coverage will escalate judo faster than any other form of promotion exposure. Sponsorship is there if you address the above issues (this is the way forward for funding judo purposes). If judo wishes to become a professional sport, then we only have to look at other successful Olympic sports who were the medal winner in Beijing 2008.

10.3 Important monitoring issues

The British Judo Association should have a monitoring system that will ensure what is supposed to be taking place, actually will be taking place. Elite player should also have a full timetable with a monitoring system in place.

An elite coach-mentoring scheme will help the coaches know what is expected from them and the scheme will inform the players of the conditions and rules they are expected to follow. It would be a normal procedure for there to be slight flexibility in the system, however there must be a full monitoring system to ensure quality control.

Perhaps a type of monitoring system could be used where there is a three monthly programme review for both players' and coaches'.

Chapter 11 Conclusion

The research explored the concept of judo coaching from the perspective of both coaches and the players on their assumptions of how they view the perceived methods of modern judo coaching, together with how they believe that it may be improved. Judo, like many martial arts has been stereotyped over the years, with the main focus on myths of the self-defence and a belt system. If UK judo is to progress in terms of competitive status as evidenced improving the medals won at the 2012 Olympics from a position of winning no medals in 2008, and winning only one medal in the last four Games, then clearly, the present judo system at elite level is in need of an overhaul.

The research programme examined this issue in four stages involving 7 studies. The first stage involved interviewing five elite coaches on what constitutes an effective coach. Coaches expressed clear views on what constituted an effective judo coach and to investigate the extent of the views that are held in the wider judo fraternity. Finally, a questionnaire was developed to assess judo attitudes. The Questionnaire, comprising 39-item was administered to a large sample of judo players and judo coaches. Further analysis of the questionnaire showed it described seven factors of coaching namely: 1) Coaching is about winning, 2) Attitudes to coaching at different levels, 3) Attitudes to judo structure, 4) Relationships with players, 5) Presentational issues, 6) Technical knowledge link to coach level, and 7) Coach-player interaction. Further analysis revealed that elite coaches indicated winning to be more important, and importantly suggested aspects of judo coaching that warranted changing. Club coaches were more accepting on the effectiveness of the current judo belt system, Results indicated that the majority of coaches and players felt that judo coaching at the club base level was satisfactory in

terms of its capability of ensuring players passed successfully through the belt-system. This result might be expected as the majority of judoka practice the sport at this level. The traditional practice of coaching judo is held by a majority of coaches, and this attitude will make it difficult to alter coaching practices in the future.

The results from the elite players and elite coaches indicated that an improvement in the elite section of coaching was necessary to ensure that standards improve, particularly if UK has medal winning aspirations for the Olympics in 2012. Both coaches and players argued that implementation of the proposed structure for elite judo appears haphazard. Although a formal structure for the elite training situation is in place theoretically, results of the present study question the extent to which this operates successfully. The evidence from the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games in which British judo did not win any medals and with only (1) medal being achieved from the previous last four Olympic Games. (Excluding medals won at the paraplegic Olympic Games.) The evidence thus indicates that judo is not showing sufficient signs of improvement.

An intriguing part of the results, were found by looking at the open-ended questions. Players, in particular, emphasised the importance of emotional control skills in competition, which interestingly was not mentioned by the coaches' in their survey. Importantly, emotional control has typically not been an area of attention in traditional judo coaching, which might contribute to it not being identified by the coaches.

Given the importance of emotional control, the study looked at relationships between scores on the judo coaching scale and an emotional intelligence. Correlation results showed significant relationships between individuals' abilities to appraise their own emotions and the ability to appraise others emotions. It is suggested that emotional

intelligence is a concept worth developing in both coaches and players alike, particularly in the light of results showing elite coaches reporting higher emotional intelligence scores than club coaches.

It is argued that judo coaching should emphasise teaching players how to manage the demands of competition at club level. Coach education should involve how to develop self-efficacy and emotional intelligence in self and others. Self-efficacy and emotional intelligence are important concepts that a coach should have an understanding of and be capable of changing their practise to raise the self-efficacy and emotional intelligence of their athletes. Although coaches are aware of the nature of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence in experiential terms, few coaches would be aware of these concepts in the academic context. These theories provide a structure on how the concept can be enhanced, and therefore, having a detailed knowledge of these theories would aid develop practice. At present, many coaches would be aware of factors that influence emotions and self-efficacy on performance. Such knowledge may have been acquired by trial and error or by their general enthusiasm. There is also a possibility the knowledge may also have been passed on by former coaches, or it might be by pure chance. All coaches need to be aware of the affects of emotional intelligence, for emotions are a vital issue to do with any sport. Self-efficacy is an excellent tool for analysing coaches and players and therefore, coach education should involve the teaching of self-efficacy and emotional intelligence theory and assess the extent to which coaches could develop practice sessions designed to enhance both concepts.

Chapter 12. References

- Abraham, A., & Collins, D. (1998). Examining and extending research in coach development. *Quest, 50*, 59-79.
- Alreck, P. L., & Settle, R. B. (1985). *The Survey Research Handbook*. Illinois: Irwin.
- Amorose, A. J., & Horn, T. S. (2000). Intrinsic motivation: Relationships with collegiate players' gender, scholarship status, and perceptions of their coaches' behavior. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 22*, 63-84.
- Anastasi, A., & Urbina, S. (1997). *Psychological Testing*. Prentice-Hall International.
- Ashton, P. T., & Webb, R. B. (1986). *Making a Difference: Teachers' Sense of Efficacy and Student Achievement*. New York: Longman.
- Baker, J., Yardley, J., & Cote, J. (2003). Coach behaviours and player satisfaction in team and individual sports. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 34*, 226-239.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change. *Psychological Review, 84*, 191-215.
- Bandura, A., & Cervone, D. (1983). Self-evaluation and self-efficacy mechanisms governing motivational effects of goal systems. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45*, 1017-1028.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist, 44*, 1175-1184.

- Bandura, A. (1990). *Perceived Self-Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*. New York: W. H. Freeman.
- Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 248-287.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28, 117-148.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopaedia of Human Behaviour* (pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press.
- Bandura, A. (1996). Failures in self-regulation: Energy depletion or selective disengagement? *Psychological Inquiry*, 7, 20-24.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- Bandura, A. (1997). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 1-26.
- Bandura, A. (2000). Cultivate self-efficacy for personal and organizational effectiveness. In E. A. Locke (Ed.). *Handbook of Principles of Organization Behaviour* (pp. 120-136). Oxford U. K: Blackwell.
- Barling, J., & Abel, M. (1983). Self-efficacy beliefs and tennis performance. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 7, 265-272.
- Bar-On, R. (1997). *The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): A Test of Emotional Intelligence*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. (2001). Emotional intelligence and self-actualization. In J. Ciarrochi, J. P. Forgas, & J. D. Mayer (Eds.). *Emotional Intelligence in Everyday Life: A Scientific Inquiry* (pp. 82-97). New York: Psychology Press.

- Barraclough, R. (1981). Judo (Barraclough, Interview). *British Judo Association Magazine*.
- Beck, L. C., Trombetta, W. L., & Share, S. (1986). Using focus group sessions before decisions are made. *Medical Journal*, *47*, 73-74.
- Bentley, S. (1991). The coach-player relationship. *Coaching Focus*, *1*, Spring addition. ISSN 0267-4416.
- Berg, B. L. (2001). *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences* (4th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bentler, P.M. and Wu, E.J.C. (1995). *EQS/Windows user's guide*. Encino, CA: Multivariate Software.
- Biddle, S., Markland, D., Gilbourne, D., Chatzisarantis, N., & Sparkes, A. (2001). Research methods in sport and exercise science: Quantitative and qualitative issues. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, *19*, 777-809.
- Bloom, G. A., Durand-Bush, N., Schinke, R. J., & Salmela, J. H. (1998). The importance of mentoring in the development of coaches and players. *International Journal of Sports Psychology*, *29*, 267-281.
- Boggiano, A. K., (1998). Maladaptive achievement patterns: a test of a diathesis-stress analysis of helplessness. *Journal of personality and social Psychology*, *74*, 1681-1695.
- Brewer, C. J., & Jones, R. L. (2002). A five-stage process for establishing contextually valid systematic observation instruments: the case of rugby union. *The Sport Psychologist*, *16*, 138-159.

- Briley, G., & Moreland, N. (1998). *A Practical Guide to Academic Research*. London: Kogan Page.
- British Association for Advisers and Lecturers in Physical Education. (2004). *Yearly Publication*.
- British Judo Association. (2008). World class performance strategy: British Judo Performance Institute and Network-up dated 14th Feb 2008.
- Brotherson, M. J. (1994). Interactive focus group interviewing: A qualitative research method in early intervention topic's in early childhood. *Special Education, 14* (1), 101-118.
- Brouce, M., & Matsumoto, D. (1999). *Judo: A Sport and a Way of Life*. International Judo Federation.
- Brown, J. B. (1999). The use of focus groups in clinical research. In (Eds.) B. F. Crabtree, B., & W. L. Miller. *Doing Qualitative Research* (2nd ed.) (pp. 109-124). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Brown, I., & Inouye, D. K. (1978). Learned helplessness through modelling: The role of perceived similarity in competence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36*, 900-908.
- Boyatzis, R., McKee, A., & Goleman, D. (2002). Reawakening your passion for Work. *Harvard Business Review, 80*(4), 86-94.
- Bryant, D. (2005). The components of emotional intelligence and the relationship to sales performance, doctoral dissertation, George Washington University, Washington, DC.

- Bull, S. J. (1992). *Sport Psychology: A Self- Help- Guide*. London: The Crowood Press Ltd.
- Burton, D. (1992). *In advances in sport psychology: Jekyll and Hyde nature of goals: Re-conceptualising goal setting in sport*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Burton, D., Weinberg, R., Yukelson, D., & Weigand, D. (1998). The goal effectiveness dilemma in sport: Surveying collegiate athletes to identify their most effective goal setting practices. *The Sport Psychologist*, 12, 404-418.
- Burton, D., Naylor, S., & Holliday, B. (2001). Goal setting in sport: Investigating the goal effectiveness paradox. In: R. Singer., H. A. Hausenblas., & C. M. Janelle (Eds.). *Handbook of Research on Sport Psychology* (pp. 497-528). New York: Wiley.
- Byers, B. Y., & Wilcox, J. R. (1991). Focus groups: A qualitative opportunity for researchers. *Communication research, evaluation methods, organisational communication research design, research methodology. Journal of Business Communication*, 63-78.
- Cassidy, T., Jones, R., & Potrac, P. (2004). Understanding sports coaching: Education monitoring project and New Zealand curriculum reference group School of Physical Education, University of Otago, New Zealand.
- Chase, M. A., Lirgg, C. D., & Feltz, D. L. (1997). Coaches' behaviours conflict with those that evoke the best responses from players. *The Sport Psychologist*, 11, 8-22.
- Chelladurai, P. (1993). Leadership. In R. N. Singer., M. Murphy., & L. K. Tennant (Eds.). *Handbook on Research on Sports Psychology* (pp 647-671). New York: Macmillan.

- Christina, R., & Corcos, D. (1988). *Coaches guide to teaching sport skills*. Champaign, IL, Human Kinetics.
- Cialdini, R. B (2001). The Science of Persuasion. *Scientific American*, 284, 76-81.
- Collins, M. D. (1995). Midland Area British Judo Association's Development Plan.
- Collins, D. (2006). British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC). *Sport, web-site, home page*;
htt://www. bbc. co. uk. news. bbc. co. uk/sport1/hi/athletics.
- Cooke, G. (1991). Who needs them? The coach-athletic relationship. *Coaching Focus. International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 29(3), 287-298.
- Côté, J., & Fraser-Thomas, J. (2007). UK Action Plan for Coaching. South West coaching summit. *Sports Coach UK. The National Coaching Foundation*.
- Côté, J., Young, B., North, J., & Duffy, P. (2007). Towards a definition of excellence in sport coaching. *International Journal of Coaching Science*. 1(1).
- Cox, R. H. (1990). *Sport Psychology: Concepts and Applications* (2nd ed.) Dubuque: William Brown.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*. London: Sage.
- Crisfield, P., Cabral, P., & Carpenter, F. (1996). *The successful coach: Guidelines for coaching practice*. Leeds: The National Coaching Foundation UK.
- Crisfield, P. (1996). *Analyzing your coaching, start of your journey towards coaching excellence*. Leeds: National Coaching Foundation UK.
- Crust, L. (2005). Sports psychology the will to win. Goal setting: One step at a time-how to raise your game by setting smarter goals. *A Special report from Peak Performance Publishing*.

- Cuban, L. (1993). The lure of the curriculum reform and its pitiful history. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 75, 182-185.
- Dale, N. (1996). *Working with families of children with special needs*. London: Routledge.
- Davies, J. S., & Yates, P. O. (1982). A longitudinal study of a teacher burnout and perceived self-efficacy in classroom management. *Research in Education*, 69.
- David, S. (2005). Integrating an emotional intelligence framework into evidence-based coaching, In M. Cavanagh., A. M. Grant., & T. Kemp. (Eds), *Evidence-Based Coaching (Vol. 1): Theory, Research and Practice from the Behavioural Sciences* (pp.57-68). Bowen Hills: Australian Academic Press.
- Deci, E. L., Spiegelei, N. H., Ryan, R. M., Koestner, R., & Kauffman, M. (1982). Effects of performance standards on teaching styles: Behaviour of controlling teachers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74, 852-859.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Devonport, T. J. (2006). Perceptions of the contribution of psychology to success in elite kickboxing. *Journal of Sports Science and Medicine*. 5, 99-107.
- Devonport, T. J., & Lane, A. M. (2006). Relationships between self-efficacy, coping and student retention. *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality*, 34, 127-138.
- Dowling, D., Potrac, P., & Jones, R. L. (1997). Women and leisure: A qualitative analysis of constraints and opportunities. Working papers in sport and leisure of commerce, no. 2 [On line]. [Available]: efficacy in intercollegiate coaches: sources, coaching behaviour, and team variables.

- Epstein, S. (1998). *Constructive Thinking: The Key to Emotional Intelligence*. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Erickson, K., Rickson, K., Côté, J., & Fraser-Thomas, J. (2006). A quantitative analysis of the development of high-performance sport coaches. *Manuscript submitted for publication*.
- Escarti, A., & Guzman, J. F. (1999). Effects of feedback on self-efficacy, performance, and choice in an athletic task. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 83-96.
- Feltz, D. L., Chase, M. A., Moritz, S. E., & Sullivan, P. J. (1999). A conceptual model of coaching efficacy: Preliminary investigation and instrument development. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 675-776.
- Feltz, D. L., Short, S. E., & Sullivan, P. J. (2008). *Self-Efficacy in Sport. Research Strategies for Working with Athletes, Teams and Coaches*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Filby, W. C. D., Maynard, I. W., & Graydon, J. K. (1999). The effect of multiple-goal strategies on performance outcomes in training and competition. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 11, 230-246.
- Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (2000). The Interview: From structured questions to negotiated text. In N. K. Denzin., & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Frederick, C. M., and Morrison. C. S. (1998). Collegiate coaches: An examination of motivational style and its relationship to decision-making and personality. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 22(7), 221-223.
- Fung, L. (In press). Task-familiarity and task efficacy: Study with sports coaches.

Perceptual and Motor Skills.

- Garcia, M. E., Schmitz, J. M., & Doerfler, L. A. (1990). A fine-grained analysis of the role of self-efficacy in self-initiated attempts to quit smoking. *Journal of Paediatric Psychology, 58*, 317-322.
- Gardner, H. (1999). *The Disciplined Mind: Beyond Facts and Standardized Tests, The K-12 Education that Every Child Deserves*. New York: Penguin Putnam).
- Gecas, V. (1989). The social psychology of self-efficacy. *Annual Review of Sociology, 15*, 291-316
- George, J. M. (2000). Emotions and leadership: The role of emotional intelligence. *Human Relations, 53*(8), 1027-1055.
- Gibbs, G. R. (2007). Analysing qualitative data. In U. Flick (Ed.), *The Sage Qualitative Research Kit*. London: Sage.
- Gilbert, W. D., & Jackson, C. (2004). In search of an effective coaching style. USOC Olympic Coach E-Magazine, Winter.
- Gleeson, G. (1967). *Judo for the West*. Cranbury: A. S. Barns and Co. Inc.
- Gleeson, G. (1970). *How to Play Judo*. London: Kay and Ward.
- Gleeson, G. (1980). British Judo Magazine. *The United Kingdom's British Judo Association's Magazine*.
- Gleeson, G. (1981). British Judo Magazine. *The United Kingdom's, British Judo Association's Magazine*.
- Gleeson, G. (1983). *Judo Inside Out*. Sterling Pub, Co. Inc.
- Gleeson, G. (1989). *Judo Games*. A and C, Black (Publishers Ltd).

- Gleeson, G. (1996). *The World of Judo. The Official Magazine of the British Judo Association*. 8.
- Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4), 597-607.
- Goleman, D. (1985). *Emotional Intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ for Character, Health and Lifelong Achievement*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1998). Working with Emotional Intelligence. *Issue Harvard business review*.
- Goleman, D., McKee, A., & Boyatzis, R. E. (2002). Primal leadership: Realising the power of emotional intelligence: Copyright 2002 Daniel Goleman. U. S. A. Harvard business School publishing. Library cataloguing—in publication data.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. E., & McKee, A. (2002). Primal leadership: Realizing the power of emotional intelligence. *Harvard Business School Publishing (United States)*, 2002.
- Gorsuch, R. L. (1983). *Factor analysis (2nd Edition)*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gould, D., Hodge, K., Peterson, K., & Giannini, J. (1989). An exploratory examination of strategies used by elite coaches to enhance self-efficacy in players. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 11, 128-140.
- Gould, D., Eklund, R. C., & Jackson, S. (1992). Coping strategies used by more versus less successful Olympic wrestlers. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 64, 83-93.

- Gould, D., Guinan, D., Greenleaf, C., Medbery, R., & Peterson, K. (1999). Factors affecting Olympic performance: Perceptions of players and coaches from more and less successful teams. *The Sport Psychologist, 13*, 371-394.
- Gould, D., Greenleaf, C., Guinan, J., & Chung, Y. (2002). A survey of U. S. Olympic coaches: Variables perceived to have influence players performance and coach effectiveness. *The Sport Psychologist, 16*, 229-250.
- Green, J., & Hart, L. (1999). The impact of context on data. In Barbour, R. S., & Kitzinger, J. (Eds.), *Developing focus group research: Politics, theory and practice* (21-35).
- Greenleaf, C., Gould, D., & Dieffenbach, K. (2001). Factors influencing Olympic performance: Interviews with Atlanta and Nagano US Olympians. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 13*, 154-184.
- Guba, E. G. (1981). Criteria for assessing the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiries, *Educational Communication and Technology Journal, 29*(2), 75-91.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1982). Epistemological and methodological bases of naturalistic inquiry. *Educational Communication and Technology Journal 30*(4), 233-252.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Sage. London.
- Hardy, L., Jones, G., & Gould, D. (1996). *Understanding Psychological Preparation for Sport: Theory and Practice for Elite Performers*. Chichester, England: Wiley.
- Harrison, E. J. (1960). *Judo "The Art of Jujutsu"*. London: W. Foulsham and Co. Ltd.

- Haslam, I. (1988). *Communication Skills for Coaches. Fundamentals of Coaching and Understanding Sport*. Ottawa, ON: The Coaching Association of Canada.
- Horn, T. S. (1992). Leadership effectiveness in the sport domain. In T. S. (Ed.). *Advances in Psychology* (pp.181-200), Champaign: Human Kinematics.
- Horn, T. S. (2000). Expectancy effects in the interscholastic athletic setting: methodological considerations. *Journal of Sport Psychology*. 6, 60-76.
- Horn, T. S. (2000). *Coaching Effectiveness in the Sport Domain. Advances in Sport Psychology* (2nded). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Horn, T. S. (2002). *Advances in Sport Psychology* (2nd Ed). Champaign, IL: Kinetics.
- Hu, L. and Bentler, P. M. (1995). Evaluating model fit. In *Structural Equation Modeling: Concepts, issues, and applications* (edited by R. H. Hoyle), pp. 76-99. London: Sage.
- Hu, L. and Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling* 6, 1-55.
- James, W. (1981). *The Principles of Psychology*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Jerusalem, M., & Mittag, W. (1995). Self-efficacy in Stressful Life Transitions. In A. Bandura (Ed.), *Self-efficacy in Changing Societies* (pp. 177-201). New York: Cambridge University Press
- Jones, G. (1992). *Stress and Anxiety in Sport Psychology*. Crowood Press Ltd.
- Jones, R. L. (1997). Effective instructional coaching behaviour: A review of literature. *International Journal of Physical Education*, 24(1), 27-32.

- Jones, R. L., & Armour, K. M. (1998). The complexities of 'caring' in physical education: Rhetoric and reality in teachers' stories. *Paper presented at the AIESEP World Sport Science Congress, July 13-17th, Adelphi University, New York.*
- Jones, G. (2002). Performance excellence: A personal perspective on the link between sport and business. *Journal of Applied Sports Psychology, 14*, 268-281.
- Jones, R., Armour, K., & Potrac, P. (2004). *Sports Coaching Cultures: From Practice to Theory*. London: Routledge.
- Jones, R. L., Armour, K. M., & Potrac, P. (2004). Understanding the coaching process: A framework for social analysis. *Quest, 54*, 34-48.
- Jowett, S., & Meek, G. A. (2000). The coach–athlete relationship in married couples: An exploratory content analysis. *The Sport Psychologist, 14*, 157–175.
- Jowett, S. (2005). The coach-athletic partnership. In contribution to the society's year of relationships: Archives 2005, 412-415.
- Kaplan, R. M., & Saccuzzo, D. P. (2001). *Psychological Testing: Principles, Applications, and Issues* (5th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomas Learning.
- Karageorghis, C. I. (1999). Music in sport and exercise: *Theory and practice*. *The Sport Journal, (2)*. Retrived2007, from <http://www.thesportjournal.org/1999/Vol12-No/Music.asp>.
- Karageorghis, C. I., & Deeth, I. P. (2002). Effects of motivational and outdeterous asynchronous music on perceptions of flow [Abstract]. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 20*, 66–67.
- Kano. J. (1882). The Contribution of Judo to Education. *granted by kind permission of Yukimitsu Kano (2001)*.

- Kingston, K. M., & Hardy, L. (1994). Factors affecting the salience of outcome, performance and progress goals in golf. In A. Cochran., & M. Farally (Eds.), *Science and Golf 2* (pp. 144-149), London: Chapman-Hill.
- Kingston, K. M., & Hardy, L. (1997). Effects of different types of goals on process that support performance. *The Sport Psychologist, 11*, 277-293.
- Kirt, D. (2000). A task-based approach to critical pedagogy in sport and physical education. In R. L. Jones., & K. M Armour (Eds.), *Sociology of Sport: Theory and practice. London: Addison Wesley Longman.*
- Kline, P. (1994). *An Easy Guide to Factor Analysis*, London: Routledge.
- Kitsanta, A., & Zimmerman, B. J. (1998). Self-regulation of motor learning: A strategic cycle view. *Journal of Applied Sports Psychology, 10*, 220-239.
- Kreuger, R. A. (1994). *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research.* London: Sage Publications.
- Kreuger, R. A. (1998). *Analyzing and reporting focus group results.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kyllo, L. B., & Landers, D. M. (1995). Goal setting in sport and exercise: A research controversy. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 17*, 117-137.
- Lacy, A. C., & Darst, P. W. (1984). Evolution of a systematic observation instrument: The A.S.U. Observation Instrument. *Journal of Teaching: In Physical Education*, 59-88.
- Lane, A. M., & Terry, P. C. (1996). Predictors of self-efficacy in amateur boxing. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 14*, 93-94.

- Lane, A. M. (2000). Mood and emotion in sport: A response to Jones, Mace, and Williams (2000). *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 91*, 649-652.
- Lane, A. M. (2001). Relationships between perceptions of performance expectations and mood among distance runners; the moderating effect of depressed mood. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport, 4*, 235-249.
- Lane, A. M., Jones, L., & Stevens, M. (2002). Coping with failure: The effects of self-esteem and coping on changes in self-efficacy. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 225*, 331-345.
- Lane, A. M. & Mellalieu, S.D. (2009). Studying anxiety interpretations is useful for sport and exercise psychologists (debate). *Sport and Exercise Psychology Review, 5*, (1), 48-55.
- Lane, A. M., Sewell, D. F., Terry, P. C., Bartram, D., & Nesti, M. S. (1999). Confirmatory factor analysis of the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 17*, 505-512.
- Lane, A. M. (2002). Relationships between performance toward accomplishment and self-efficacy in amateur boxing. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 94*, 1056.
- Lane, A. M., Hall, R., & Lane, J. (2002). Self-efficacy and statistics performance among sport studies students. Development of a measure of self-efficacy to statistics courses in sport. *Journal of Hospitality Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education (2)*, 47-56.
- Lane, J., & Lane, A. M. (2002). Predictive validity of variables used to select students onto post-graduate courses. *Psychological Reports, 90*, 1239-1247.

- Lane, A., Nevill, A. M., Bowes, N., & Fox., K. R. (2005). Test-retest stability of the task and ego orientation questionnaire. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 3, 339-348.
- Lane, A. M., Soos, I., Leibinger, E., Karsai, I., & Hamar, P. (2005). Emotional intelligence, mood states and successful and unsuccessful performance. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 23, 1254.
- Lane, A. M., Thelwell, R., Weston, N., & Devonport, T. (2005). Emotional intelligence, mood states and performance. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 23, 1254-1255.
- Lane, A. M. (2006). Reflections of professional boxing consultancy. *Athletic insight, Online Journal of Sport Psychology*, 8.
- Lane, A. M. (2007). Emotional Intelligence: Why your head should rule your heart. *'Sports and Exercise Science', Peak Performance*, 23, 7-8.
- Lane, A. M., Thelwell, R. C., Gill, G., & Weston, N. J. V. (2007). The nature of emotional intelligence in sport. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 25, 118-119.
- Law, M. (2007). *The Pajama Game. A Journey into Judo*. London: Aurum Press.
- Lee, C. (1982). Self-efficacy as a predictor of performance in competitive gymnastics. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 4, 405-409.
- Lee, C. (1983). Self-efficacy and behaviour as predictors of subsequent behaviour in an assertiveness training programme. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 21, 225-232.
- Lent, R. W., & Hackett, G. (1987). Career self-efficacy: Empirical status and future directions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 30, 347-382.
- Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. New York: Sage.
- Lindlof, T. R. (1995). *Qualitative Communication Research Methods*. Thousand

Oaks: Sage.

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A Theory of Goal-Setting and Task Performance*.

Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Lord, G. (2001). Life and times of Gordon Lord. Faster, Higher and Stronger, *The UK's*

Quarterly Coaching Magazine, 13.

Lyle, J. W. B. (1999). Coaching philosophy and coaching behaviour. In N. Cross., &

J. Lyle (Eds.), *The Coaching Process: Principles and Practice for Sport* (pp. 25-

46), Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Mageau, G., & Vallerand, R. J. (2003). The coach player relationship: A motivational

model. *Journal of Sports and Science*. 21,883-904.

Martens, R., Vealey, R. S., Burton, D., Bump, L., & Smith, D. E. (1990). Development

and validation of the Competitive Sports Anxiety Inventory-2. In R.

Martens, R. S. Vealey, & D. Burton (Eds.), *Competitive anxiety in sport*.

(pp. 117-178). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

Manning, M. M., & Wright, T. L. (1983). Self-efficacy expectancies, outcome

expectancies and the persistence of pain control in childbirth. *Journal of*

Personality and Social Psychology, 30, 347-382.

Mariampolski, H. (1984). The resurgence of qualitative research. *Public Relations*

Journal, 40(7), 21-23.

Marlatt, A. A., Baer, J. S., & Quigley, A. A. (1995). Self-efficacy and addictive

behaviour. In A. Bandura (Ed.), *Self-efficacy in changing societies* (pp. 289-316).

New York: Cambridge University Press.

- Martens, R. (1987). Science, knowledge and sport psychology. *The Sport Psychologist, 1*, 29-55.
- Martens, R. (2004). *Successful Coaching*. Champaign, Illinois: Human Kinetics.
- Matthews, G., Roberts, R. D., & Zeidner, M. (2004). Seven myths about emotional intelligence. *Physical Inquiry, 15*(3), 179-196.
- Matsumoto, D. (1996). *An Introduction to Kodokan Judo (History and Philosophy)*.
Published by Hon-No-Tomoshu.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1993). The intelligence of emotional intelligence. *Intelligence, 17*, 433-442.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey., & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence: Implications for Educators* (pp.3-33). New York: Basic Books.
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence 27*, 267-298.
- Mayer, J. D. (2001). A field guide to emotional intelligence. In J. Ciarrochi., J. P. Forgas., & J. D. Mayer (Eds.), *Emotional intelligence and everyday life* (pp. 3-24). New York: Psychology Press.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (2005). Emotional intelligence and the construction and regulation of feelings. University of New Hampshire, USA Yale University, USA.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2008). Emotional intelligence: New ability or eclectic traits? *American Psychologist, 63*, 503-517.
- Mayers, M. (2006). *Improving Players Performance: The marriage of Sports Science and Coaching*. West Texas University, USA.

- McConville, S. A., & Lane, A. M. (2006). Using on-line video clips to enhance self-efficacy toward dealing with difficult situations among nursing students. *Nurse Education Today*, 26, 200-208.
- McIver, C. (2005). Beijing and Beyond. Matside, British Judo Official Magazine. 1.
- McQuade, S. (2001). Relationship between the coach and the performer. Faster, higher and stronger, *The UK. Quarterly Coaching Magazine*. 13.
- Metzler, J. B. (2000). Development and Content of Teachers' Teaching Model Knowledge. www.aare.edu.au/03pap/cot03003
- Meyer, B., & Zizzi, S. (2007). Emotional intelligence in sport: Conceptual, methodological, and applied issues. In A. M. Lane (Ed.), *Mood and human performance: Conceptual, measurement, and applied issues* (pp. 131-154). London: Nova Science Publishers.
- Millard, L. (1996). Differences in coaching behaviours of male and female soccer coaches. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 19, 19-31.
- Miller, P. S., & Kerr, G. (2002). The athletic, academic and social experiences of intercollegiate student-players. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 25, 346-367.
- Moe, K. O., & Zeiss, A. M. (1982). Measuring self-efficacy expectations for social skills: A methodological inquiry. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 6, 191-205.
- Morgan, D. L. (1988). *Focus Groups as Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
- Morrell, E. A. (2006). Uchi-komi in the development of judo skills. *Newsletter*, 22.
- Morris, T., & Summers, J. (1995). *Sport Psychology: Theory and Application Issues*. Brisbane: John Wiley and Sons.

- Moritz, S. E., Feltz, D. L., Fahrbach, K. R., & Mack, D. E. (2000). The relation of self-efficacy measures to sport performance: A meta-analytic review. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, *71*, 280-294.
- Moshanov, A. (2007). Matside: Continuous professional development. *Distributed to British Judo Association Coaches*, *7*.
- Multon, K. D., Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (1991). Relation of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, *38*, 30-38.
- Munroe, K. J., Giacobbi, P., Hall, C. R., & Weinberg, R. S. (2000). The 4 W's of imagery use: Where, when, why and what. *The Sport Psychologist*, *14*, 119-137.
- Munroe-Chandler, K. J. (2005). A discussion on qualitative research in physical activity. *Athletic Insight – The Online Journal of Sport Psychology*, *7*(1).
- Murphy, K. R., & Davidshofer, C. O. (1998). *Psychological Testing: Principles and Applications* (5th ed.).
- Myers, N. D., Wolfe, E. W., & Feltz, D. (2005). An evaluation of the psychometric properties of the coaching efficacy scale for American coaches. *Measurement in Physical Education and Exercise and Science*, *9*, 135-160.
- Myers, N. D., Vargas-Tonsing, T. M., & Feltz, D. L. (2005). Coaching efficacy in intercollegiate coaches: Sources, coaching behaviour, and team variables. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *6*, 129-143.
- Nelson, D. (1991). The coach-player relationship. *Coaching Focus*, *16*(7), 4416.

- Nevill, A. M., Lane, A. M., Kilgour, L., Bowes, N., & Whyte, G. (2001). Stability of psychometric questionnaires. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 19*, 273-278.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- O'Leary, A. (1983). Self-efficacy and health. *Behaviour Research and Therapy, 23*, 437-451.
- Oppenheim, A. (1992). *Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement*. London: Pinter.
- Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research, 66*, 543-578.
- Pajares, F. (1997). Current directions in self-efficacy research. In P. R. Pintrich., & M. Maehr (Eds.), *Advances Self-Efficacy Beliefs. Current Directions in Self-Research: Self-Concept, Self-Efficacy* (pp. 1-49). Greenwich: JAI Press.
- Pau, A. K. H., & Croucher, R. (2003). Emotional intelligence and perceived stress in dental undergraduates. *Journal of Dental Education, 67*, 1023-1028.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.
- Parker, J. D., Summerfeldt, L. J., Hogan, M. J., & Majeski, S. A. (2004). Emotional intelligence and academic success: Examining the transition from high school to university. *Personality and Individual Differences, 36*, 163– 172.
- Parker, J. D., Hogan, M. J. Eastabrook, J. M., Oke. A., & Wood, L. M. (2006). Emotional Intelligence and student retention: Predicting the successful transition

from high school to university. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 41(7), 1329-1336.

Petrides, K. V., Furnham, A., & Mavroveli, S. (2007). Trait emotional intelligence: Moving forward in the field of EI. In G. Matthews., M. Zeidner., & R. Roberts (Eds.), *Emotional Intelligence: Known's and Unknowns*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (1995). *Motivation in Education: Theory, Research, and Applications*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Poczwardowski, A., Barott, J. E., & Henschen, K. P. (2000). The influence of team dynamics on the interpersonal relationships of female gymnasts. *www. Planet excellencesports. com/ Presentations. htm*

Potrac, P., Brewer, C., Jones, R. L., & Armour, K. M. (1998). Towards a holistic understanding of the coaching process: Methodological considerations. *Paper presented at the 8th European Congress of the International Council for Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Sport and Dance (ICHPER. SD)., 14-19th July, St. Mary's University College, London.*

Potrac, P., Jones, R. L., Armour, K., Brewer, C., & Hoff. J. (1999). Experience is everything: The acquisition of knowledge by top-level English football coaches. *Paper presented at the AIESEP '99 World Conference, 7-9th April, Besancon, France.*

Reeve, J., Bolt, E., & Cai, Y. (1999). Autonomy-supportive teachers: How they teach and motivate students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 91, 537-548.

- Rogers, C. R. (1967). *On Becoming a Person: A Therapist's View of Psychotherapy*. London: Constable.
- Rowell, S. (2001). Relationship between the coach and the performer. Faster, higher and stronger, *The UK. Quarterly Coaching Magazine*, 13.
- Rust, J., & Golombok, S. (1999) *Modern Psychometrics: The Science of Psychological Assessment* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality*, 9, 185-211.
- Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., & Caruso, D. (2002). The positive psychology of emotional intelligence. In C. R. Snyder, and S. J. Lopez (Eds), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 159-171). London: Oxford University Press.
- Scalan, T. K., Stein, G. L., & Ravizza, K. (1989). An in-depth study of former figure skaters: Introduction to the project. *Journal of Sport Exercise Psychology*, 1, 54-64.
- Schinke, R. J., & Da Costa, J. (2000). Qualitative research in sport psychology. *Avante*, 6, 38-45.
- Schinke, R. J., & Peterson, C. (2002) Enhancing the hopes and performance of elite players through optimising skills. *Journal of Excellence*, 6.
- Schinke, R. J., & Tabakman, M. S. W. (2005). *Reflective Coaching Interventions for Athletic Excellence*. Ontario: Wendover,
- Schunk, D. H. (1981). Modelling and attributional affects on children's achievements: A self-efficacy analysis. *Journal of Education Psychology*, 73, 93-105.
- Schunk, D. H. (1982). Rewards contingencies and the development of children's skills and self-efficacy. *Journal of Education Psychology*, 75, 511-518

- Schunk, D. H. (1983). Ability versus effort attributional feedback: Different effects on self-efficacy and achievement. *Educational Psychology Review*, 75, 848-856.
- Schunk, D. H. (1987). Peer models and children's behavioural change. *Review of Educational Research*.
- Schunk, D. H. (1989). Self-efficacy and achievement behaviour. *Educational Psychology*, 2, 173-208.
- Schunk, D. H. (1994). Mythological issues and measurement problems sport psychology. *In International Perspectives on Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 35-37.
- Schunk, D. H. (1995). Self-efficacy and education and instruction. In J. E. Maddux (Ed). *Self-Efficacy, Adaptation, and Adjustment: Theory, Research and Applications* (pp. 281-303). New York: Plenum.
- Schunk, D. H. (1995). Self-efficacy, motivation, and performance. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 7, 112-137
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, C. J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25, 167-177.
- Schutz, R. W. (1994). Methodological issues and measurement problems in sport psychology. In S. Serpa., J. Alves., & V. Pataco, *International Perspectives on Sport and Exercise Psychology* (pp. 35-57).
- Schwandt, T. A. (1997). *Qualitative Inquiry: A Dictionary of Terms*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Seligman, M. E. P. (1991). *Learned Optimism: How to Change Your Life*. New York: Pocket Books.

- Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1999). Goal striving, need satisfaction, and longitudinal *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 26, 465-489.
- Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15, 4-14.
- Silverman, D. (2000). *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical Handbook*. London: Sage.
- Singer, R., Hausenblas, H., & Janelle, C. (2001). *Handbook of Sport Psychology*. New York: Wiley.
- Smith, R. E., Smoll, F. L., & Hunt, B. (1977). A System for behavioural assessment of athletic coaches. *Research Quarterly*, 48,401-407.
- Smoll, R. E., & Smith. F. L. (1989). Leadership behaviours in sport: A theoretical model and research paradigm. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 19, 1522-1551.
- Stake, R. E. (2000). Case studies. In N. K. Denzin., & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 877-898). London: Sage.
- Sternberg, R. J. (1997). *Thinking Styles*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Stevens, M. J., Lane, A. M., & Terry, P. C. (2006). Mood profiling during Olympic qualifying judo competition: A case study testing transactional relationships. *Journal of Sports Science and Medicine: Combat Sports Special Issue*, 5, 143-151.
- Swinnen, S. P. (1996). Information feedback for motor skill learning: A review. In H. N. Zelaznik (Ed.) *Advances in Motor Learning and Control*. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell. S. (2001). *Using Multivariate Statistics* (4th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

- Terry, P. (1992). The psychology of the coach-player relationship. In sport psychology (A self-Guide). The Crowood Press Ltd.
- The Successful Coach (1996). National Coaching Foundation, Headingley, Leeds.
- Thelwell, R. C., Lane, A. M., & Weston, N. J. V. (2007). Mood states, self-set goals, self-efficacy and performance in academic examinations. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 673-583.
- Thelwell, C., Lane, A. M., Weston, N. J. V., & Greenlees, I. A. (2007). Examining relationships between emotional intelligence and coaching efficacy. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 224-235.
- Thelwell, R. (2008). Applied sport psychology: Enhancing performance using psychological skills training. In A. M. Lane, (Ed.) *Sport and Exercise Psychology: Topics in Applied Psychology* (pp.1-6).
- Thelwell, R., Weston, N. J. V., Greenlees, I., & Hutchins, V. (2008). A qualitative exploration of psychological-skills used in coaches. *The Psychologist*, 22, (1).
- Trail, G. T., & James. J. D. (2001). The Motivation Scale for Sports Consumption: Assessment of the scale's psychometric properties. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 24, 111-121.
- Trudel, P., C, J., Côté, J., & Bernard, D. (1996). Systematic observation of youth ice hockey coaches during games. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 19, 50-66.
- Turner, D. (2003). Why ex-elite players do not always make the best coaches. *Faster, Higher Stronger*, 19. *Sports Coach*, UK.

- Tzetzis, G., Kioumourtzoglou, E., & Mavromatis, G. (1997). Goal setting and feedback for the development of instructional strategies. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 1411-1427
- Webb, J. (2008). Using exploratory methods to develop an intervention to enhance mental toughness in elite judo. *A dissertation research project submitted to the school of sport, performing arts and leisure. University of Wolverhampton 2008.*
- Webber, K. L. (1997). *Teaching Judo*. Birmingham: Webber.
- Webber, K. L., & Collins, M. D. (2005). *Creative Judo Teaching*. West Midlands: Kyudan Books.
- Weinberg, R., & McDermott, M. (2002). A comparative analysis of sport and business organisations: Factors perceived critical for organisation success, *Journal of Applied Sport*, 14. 282-298.
- Werthner, P., & Trudel, P. (2006). A new theoretical perspective for understanding how coaches learn to coach. *The Sport Psychologist*, 20, 198-212.
- Widmeyer, W. N., Brawley, L. R., & Carron, A. V. (1985). *The Measurement of Cohesion in Sport Teams: The Group Environment Questionnaire*. London, Ontario: Sports Dynamics
- Weinberg, R., Burton, D., Yukelson, D., & Weigand, D. (2000). Perceived goal-setting practices of Olympic athletes: An exploratory investigation. *The Sport Psychologist* 111, 426-439.
- Williams, L. (1994). Goal orientations and players' preferences for competence information sources. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 16, 416-430.

- Woodman, L. (1993). Coaching: A science, an art, an emerging profession. *Sport Science Review*, 2, 1-13.
- Woodman, T., & Harvey, I. (2003). The relative impact of cognitive anxiety and self-confidence upon sport performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 21, 443-457.
- Yamashita (2007). British Judo Association magazine. *Judo article*.
- Zeidner., M., Matthews, G., and Roberts, R. D (2004). Emotional intelligence in the workplace: A critical review. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 53, 371–399.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1989). Models of self-regulated learning and academic achievement. In B. J. Zimmerman., & D. H. Schunk (Eds.), *Self-Regulated Learning and Academic Achievement: Theory, Research and Practice* (pp. 1-25). New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (1996). Misconceptions problems and dimensions in measuring self-efficacy. *Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York*.
- Zimmerman, B. J., & Kitsanta, A. (1997). Development phase in self-regulation: Shifting from process goals to outcome goals. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 8, 60-75.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2008). Investigating self-regulation and motivation: Historical background, methodological developments, and future prospects. *American Educational Research Journal*. 45(1), 166 - 183.

- Zizzi, S., Deaner, H., & Hirschhorn, D. (2003). The relationship between emotional intelligence and performance in college baseball players. *Journal of Applied Sports Psychology, 15*, 124-136.
- Zubiaur, M., Ona, A., & Delgado, J. (1999). Learning volleyball serves: A preliminary study of the effects of knowledge of performance and of results. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 89*, 223-232.