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GENDERED COACHING

THE IMPACT OF GENDER

ON ROLES AND QUALITIES OF ELITE

WOMEN'S FIELD HOCKEY COACHES

**A thesis presented in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree of**

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THIS THESIS IS DEDICATED TO

THE MEMORY OF

**Associate Professor G. Ross Cochrane
(DSc. PhD. MSc.)**

AND

**The subjects of this present study:
The coaches of elite women's field hockey
in New Zealand**

ABSTRACT

Field hockey in New Zealand is gender balanced in terms of numbers of female and male participants, but gender biased towards males, in terms of coaching appointments. The trend towards men increasingly dominating leadership positions in elite women's coaching, has been the focus of concerned feminist researchers for over a decade. This current study examined the early roots of field hockey history in New Zealand, noted the trend towards hegemonic male domination of coaching roles, and sought to elucidate the roles and qualities of actual elite coaches and, in particular, examine the impact of gender on the stage of elite women's field hockey.

The elite level of competition, familiar to the researcher as a past field hockey international player, has been defined as one that occurs at the highest internal national (usually provincial), or international (test) levels, of sport. It is within this elite sporting setting that the impact of gender has been studied in the present research, whereby gender is viewed as a socially constructed concept, based on culturally reinforced images of masculinity and femininity, as expressed by accepted traits, roles and qualities.

A variety of qualitative methods was used, each underpinned with the basal intention of capturing participant voices and portraying images of perceived realities as they emerged from a variety of scenes, including matches, team meetings, warm-ups and post-match evaluations. The study concentrated on three provincial women's teams over a period spanning three years. Participant images were also captured from observations with the New Zealand women's hockey team during their build up to World Cup in Holland in 1998. Furthermore, interviews with provincial women's hockey coaches, and a questionnaire of provincial hockey players, added further data for analysis. Integral to the research process was the systematic critical reflection of the researcher, her chief supervisor, and main subjects of the study.

Participant observation, semi-structured coach interviews, and player questionnaires generated data from a variety of research settings. These data were subjected to grounded theory analysis to create a master list of categories and properties that, in turn, generated theoretical propositions about coach roles, coach qualities, the impact of gender, and coach development.

The theoretical propositions became the basis of a model explicating the impact of gender on the setting of elite women's field hockey. Critical to this model were the three realms of administrators, coaches, and players. Interactions between each realm were perceived by the researcher as occurring through a centrally placed 'gender archetype' proposed as a domain of social field moderation. The degree to which the archetype impacted on each setting varied, according to societal and individual perceptions of gender. Critical gender issues were raised through this study in terms of men coaching women at the elite level. These were especially noted in terms of: gendered beliefs and attitudes, physical myths and realities, confidence and competence, and sex and sexuality.

Significant aspects of this research's findings included: the large number of roles undertaken by elite women's hockey coaches; the prime importance of communication and leadership in terms of both roles and qualities; and the lack of support mechanisms utilised by, and provided for, coaches. The study noted the difficulties associated with recruitment and retention of women in elite roles and highlighted the need for administrators to develop proactive programmes to foster women in such roles, and to educate men committed to women's hockey, about gender issues raised in this study.

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GENDERED COACHING: THE IMPACT OF GENDER ON ROLES AND QUALITIES OF ELITE WOMEN'S FIELD HOCKEY COACHES.

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GLOSSARY AND TECHNICAL TERMS

AEWHA	All England Women's Hockey Association.
ALHA	Auckland Ladies Hockey Association.
Astroturf	Artificial grass surface on a hockey pitch. Also called turf.
Bunt	Occurs when the ball is moved forward a short distance, after it has been trapped using the lay-down stick trap at penalty corners.
CANZ	Coaching Association of New Zealand.
CWHA	Canterbury Women's Hockey Association.
Dugout	Small covered area on the side of the hockey turf for non-playing team members. Normally the turf has a dugout for each team.
FIH	Fédération Internationale de Hockey.
Fives	Drills or sprints designed to get the players physiologically warm, five minutes before the team begins the match. Same as Hots.
Giving and going	Occurs on the field when one player gives a pass and then runs to receive the ball in a different position.
Haka	A traditional Maori war dance or choreographed challenge to a visiting or intruding group.
Hospital passes	A poor pass that puts the receiver at risk of losing the ball or getting hurt.
Hots	Drills or sprints designed to get the players physiologically warm, five minutes before the team begins the match. Same as Fives.
IFWHA	International Federation of Women's Hockey Associations.
Iwi	Maori tribal sub-group.
JCC	Joint consultative committee formed by representatives of the FIH and IFWHA to promote hockey.
Man-to-man marking	Term used to describe a defensive strategy where one player is responsible for another and stays with them to prevent an attack.
Mana	A Maori term denoting special prestige.
Maori	Indigenous or native person of New Zealand.

Marae Village meeting place or surrounds.

NZHF New Zealand Hockey Federation.

NZHF Winning Women Programme

Mentoring programme developed by the NZHF to encourage female coaches to progress to elite level coaching positions.

NZLHA New Zealand Ladies Hockey Association.

NZWHA New Zealand Women's Hockey Association.

Pakeha A Maori word denoting, broadly, a person of European or white descent.

Penalty corner

An attacking opportunity provided by an umpiring decision for an infringement (by defenders) inside the circle or a deliberate infringement inside the attacking 25-yard line. The attacking team pull the ball out from the back line to a point outside the attacking circle. The ball must be stopped dead by the attackers before a shot at goal is taken. The opposing team are allowed five players (including the goalkeeper), confined to the base line until the ball is played, to defend the goal.

Penalty stroke

A goal scoring opportunity awarded by the umpire for a deliberate infringement inside the attacking circle or for an infringement that prevents a certain goal. One attacker places the ball on the penalty spot (inside the circle) and has a shot at goal defended by the opposing team's goalkeeper.

Poi Flax ball suspended on a string. Used by Maori in 'Haka Poi' cultural performances.

Read the game

To scan the play, determine pattern or movement, and plan related field moves if necessary.

Rohe Maori word for region.

Roll-around Move where a player turns around with the ball on the stick.

Roopu Maori word for group.

Sweat box Practice drill where one defender tries to take the ball off an attacker. This drill takes place in a confined area normally marked by cones.

Tane Maori man.

Taonga Maori treasures, and/or valuable material possession.

The arrow Defensive arrow arrangement of players, designed to stop an opponent's free hit.

- The box** A defensive formation used to position players during penalty corners.
- The press** Same as the squeeze. A positional defensive tactic used by teams to isolate the ball on one side of the field.
- The squeeze** A positional defensive tactic used by teams to isolate the ball on one side of the field.
- Three-minute-syndrome**
A term used by one coach to describe a situation where the opposition scored in the last three minutes of a match.
- Tikanga** Custom(s).
- Wahine** Maori woman.
- Waiata** Maori song.
- Wharenui** Maori sleeping hut.
- 33311** A particular formation of playing positions where there are three strikers (forwards), three midfielders (halves), three defenders (backs), one sweeper (deep defender) and one goalkeeper.
- 5321** A particular formation of playing positions where there are five strikers (forwards), three midfielders (halves), two defenders (backs) and one goalkeeper.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the study and outlines the parameters of the research. The researcher's choice of topic and personal linkages with the sport of field hockey are discussed, along with the research sequence and central ideas.

- 1.1 Engaging the study
- 1.2 Background to the study
- 1.3 Research goals
- 1.4 Research sequence

1.1 ENGAGING THE STUDY

Sport is one of the prevailing domains of social experience in New Zealand. Nationally, images of trophies held aloft by elite sportspersons, the television coverage of world championships and media focus upon special events such as the Olympics Games and America's Cup, illustrate the country's deep interest in sporting pursuits. This fascination for sport as a cultural dimension of New Zealand society is studied increasingly by academic writers from a variety of perspectives, including historical, educational, political, religious, cultural and sociological (see, for example, Collins, 2000).

The emergence of critical debate about sport and its place in New Zealand society mirrors the examination in overseas literature of sport's impact on the wider cultural frameworks of modern society (Coakley, 1998; Dunning, 1999; Messner, 1992; Taylor and Toohy, 1999; Yiannakis and Greendorfer, 1992). Critical examinations of sport, for example, such as those exposing the historically hegemonic nature of sport (Cameron, 1996; Guttman, 1991; Hargreaves, 1994; Kew, 1997; Polley, 1998; Tilly, 1989; Vertinsky, 1994a, 1994b), help to inform society about the impact of sport on people's everyday lives and lead theorists towards developing models aimed at explicating our fascination with this particular type of organised, competitive, physical activity.

Critical examinations of sport have sometimes focused on distinct groups of people involved in physical competition: the athletes, the administrators and the coaches. Although more recent research has also extended the groups considered to include fans, spectators and family (see Bale, 1989), the traditional focus on athletes, administrators and

coaches is often reflected strongly in media coverage and sport journal interest. Increasingly, especially since the rise of professional sport, media attention has been given to top level coaching appointments and perceived coach performance. (For example, New Zealand netball's Yvonne Willering and rugby's John Hart were publicly admonished over losses in World Championship matches during 1999.) Cross and Lyle (1999) acknowledge these types of sport media critiques are sometimes deserved but lament the lack of attention given to effective coaching practice, despite the outstanding contribution made by some coaches. Coaching roles appear to demand such attention because coaching may be seen as "an occupation with its own education and accreditation structures, membership affiliation bodies, career development and codes of conduct" (Cross and Lyle, 1999, p.vii).

Cross and Lyle's (1999) belief that the coach is the key to enhanced sport performance is reinforced by McConnell (1996) in his New Zealand study of elite sport team leadership with rugby union coaches and captains. Despite the apparent importance of the coaching role in the sport domain, it may not always be accessible to fifty percent of the human population - women. Evidence to support this assertion has been provided by numerous researchers (Acosta and Carpenter, 1985a, 1985b, 1992; Hart, Hasbrook and Mathes, 1986; Heishman, Bunker and Tutwiler, 1990; Holmen and Parkhouse, 1981; True, 1986; Weiss and Sisley, 1984) who have illustrated the decline in numbers of women in coaching roles. New Zealand researchers (see, for example, Edwards, 1993, 1997; Skilton, 1994, 1995; Blake and McKelvey, 1999) confirmed an increasing trend for males to coach girls and women. Women's progress into coaching roles has not followed other societal trends, such as the increase in women in traditionally male dominated professions such as medicine, nor have they mirrored the increase in numbers of women and girls participating in competitive sport (Borish, 1996; Cameron, 2000; Coakley, 1998; Guttman, 1991).

The researcher acknowledges that many feminists believe such an imbalance of women in coaching roles is typical of a gendered society, whereby members are socialised into "gender roles and expectations and they associate various traits and qualities with gender categories" (James and Saville-Smith, 1989, p. 10). Even more critical is the fact that, in some societies like New Zealand, being male may be seen as being rewarded more highly than being female (ibid). Such differential treatment, based on gender as opposed to biological sex, contributes to the hegemonic domination of sport by men (see Cameron,

2000) whereby “specific social and historical situations, support established social relations and structures of power” (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 22).

Indeed, a preliminary survey of the literature provides support for a critical consideration of the impact of gender in coaching and suggests coach roles are linked with societal perceptions of masculinity and femininity and the ways that these roles are played out in the perceived realities of coach behaviour. Thus the researcher sought to consider gender as a hegemonic construct impacting upon formulation and enactment of the coach role, coach selection, recruitment and retention and critically considered its impact upon the embracing experiences of men and women aspiring to coach women’s sport. Within that paradigm the term “cross-gendered coaching” has been assigned the specific meaning, for the purposes of the present research, of a coach of one gender having responsibility for players of the opposite gender.

In the framing of the present study, critical consideration was given to the over-domination of one gender, male, in positions of authority such as that of coach, over the athletes of the other gender, female. This has theoretical and practical implications for sport researchers, educators and practitioners seeking to explore the impact of gender in the coaching environment. One such consideration for sport researchers, for example, could be the analysis of girls and women in sport in terms of perceived benefits from the presence of female role models which, in turn, may have implications for increasing participation rates or lowering dropout rates (Acosta and Carpenter, 1985a; Knoppers, 1990; Theberge, 1988). Within sport there are certain groups who assert the need to encourage females into coaching in order to increase the total number of coaches and to provide a greater variety of perspectives and styles for the coaching role (Coaching Association of New Zealand, 1994).

In New Zealand, the Hillary Commission for Sport, Fitness and Leisure has had the primary task of allocating funds which are to be used for the generation of greater equity in sport participation and administration. An awareness of gender imbalance as a focus for examination is reinforced by such moves as the Hillary Commission’s initiating and funding of pilot schemes to encourage females in coaching (Blake and McKelvey, 1999).

Such considerations as the foregoing, and the researcher’s own experiential background as a player, administrator and academic working in the field of women and sport, were

fundamental elements in the genesis of the present study. This study examined elite level coaching, in the setting of women's field hockey, and explored dimensions of the coach's role and qualities and, especially, searched for clues to the way gender impacted upon the participants in this setting, using qualitative methodologies. The following extract from the researcher's participant observation field notes provides a snapshot of the resultant vista:

Brian (*coach*) calls out to the right fullback "Katie! Come off". She tilts her head and stares at him, raises her eyebrows and waits. (*She has not been subbed off in a representative game before and seems to be questioning his decision*). He calls again, but louder, and beckons with his hand. Clearly she is to be subbed off. Katie leaves the field, ignores the coach and slumps on the bench and appears to be oblivious to the substitutes' accolades - "Great game, Katie", "Well played girl". Tears slide silently down her cheeks but she says nothing, her eyes are still, seemingly focusing on a match ball near her feet. Brian completely ignores all activity on the bench and watches the game with unwavering intensity. The team are still losing with twelve minutes remaining on the clock (Field Notes, 7.10.97).

This single incident from the researcher's participation observation, though it lasted less than one minute, captured an increasingly familiar image - that of a male coach leading a female team in the highly competitive environment of elite women's field hockey. The extract also illustrates the variety of themes woven into the present thesis: my life history within the sport of field hockey; an abiding interest in the historical background and the development of women's hockey; the commitment to participant observation as a tool to elicit personal realities of sport; and a sustaining belief in the academic rigour that I have pursued in order to record in detail and critically reflect upon my findings, thus providing a basis for my contribution to current discussions on women in coaching.

My reflections on the extract above highlighted the personal affections that I still hold for field hockey and a desire to contribute to the development of positive roles for girls and women within this sport. Concomitantly, my involvement in elite hockey has become a critical stimulus to enhance my self-reflection upon the game and its practitioners. For example, Katie's reaction to being subbed off contrasted sharply to my own tentative beginnings in representative hockey.

The look on Katie's face, that of total disbelief and shock, reminded me of Millie in my provincial team. Millie had an enormous amount of self-confidence. She knew in her heart that the team needed her on the turf to win... even years later when her knees were shot,

she could not come to terms with being subbed off. Katie may have reacted differently today if the team were winning ... "subbed to give the substitute a run" ... but when you're losing, you are being replaced by someone whom the coach thinks is better

I know how she feels. I used to spend the whole game expecting to be subbed off, running towards the sideline every time the manager indicated a substitution was to be made. I maintained this attitude of complete surprise at being selected in the starting line-up throughout my career, including playing in the New Zealand team. On reflection I noted that at no time did any coach, manager, or captain, speak to me about why I was on the field or why I was subbed on or off.

Katie appeared to be openly questioning the coach in front of the spectators and other members of the team. What would Hilda Poulter (New Zealand women's hockey coach, 1935) have thought if one of her players (of the very best character!) had objected to being exchanged? Even, in the nineteen eighties, when I first began playing for my province, the coach was totally unquestioned.... These days players even try to negotiate their own positions... (Researcher's Notebook, 7.10.97).

Although my experience of elite hockey is not necessarily rare, field research and its key component of critical reflection, in regard to the structures and practices of this women's sport, remains an academic scarcity. Few have linked experiential knowledge with methodological tools of enquiry or combined passion for their sport with the academic rigour of research scrutiny in order to create original sports theory and practical research-based recommendations. This thesis represents my moving beyond simple observations I may have made as a player on the predominance of male coaches who work with elite female players to a critical examination of the factors which shape perceived sporting realities of elite coaches (female and male) within women's hockey.

Brian, the subject coach of the field note extract (p. 4), illustrates certain key aspects of the rationale for this study. As a male coach of an elite women's team, Brian was faced with the particular challenge that any coach has of achieving victory and developing a team environment. Yet furthermore, he was placed in the contextual cross-gendered situation of coaching female participants which has rarely been considered in elite sport literature. It was the latter focus that sustained the purpose and process of this study.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The researcher's playing and coaching experience in hockey was a major influence on the selection of the research topic. I played hockey for twenty years in the Auckland premier club competition, and thirteen years at provincial level ranging from one province's Under-21 side in 1976, through to captaining another province's victorious side at the National Women's Hockey Tournament in 1989. I have coached girls and women in secondary school, a provincial Under-18 team, a provincial women's premier team (as assistant coach), a club women's premier team, and participated as a coach with the National Age group (Under-18) clinic. Practical experience at all levels allowed me to establish valuable contacts with people in the coaching profession and hockey administration that facilitated access to subjects in this study.

Field hockey was also chosen as a research topic because it was a gender balanced sport in terms of participants but lacked balance in terms of numbers of women and men coaching at the top level. Numbers of female adult participants are reported at some 53% of the estimated 10,000 open grade players (New Zealand Hockey Federation, 1998). However, an examination of gender balance in coaching roles showed that women were proportionally under-represented in elite coaching roles. None of the top three women's coaching jobs in New Zealand women's hockey, namely the national women's coach, assistant coach, or the academy head coach, have been held by women between 1990-2000. These figures were also illustrated in the low numbers of women coaching field hockey at the annual national tournament. In 1970 70% of women's teams at National Tournament were coached by women, but this figure fell to 50% in 1990, and 35% in 1995. In contrast 100% of men's teams at the equivalent provincial level during these years were coached by men.

Given that coaches at the elite level have, almost without exception, come through the club coaching ranks, it is relevant to note the same types of gender imbalances are perceived at the club level. Edwards (1997) reported that in the 1993-1996 Auckland club competition, only three of eight teams in the two top women's grades were coached by women, in contrast to the absence of women coaching equivalent men's teams. It was also noted that the number of women progressing to higher coaching qualifications was proportionally lower than that of men (Edwards, 1997).

Given the researcher's playing experience, perceptions of gender imbalance, and preliminary study exploring Auckland field hockey, the resultant opportunity to draw upon them in a new and more expansive project was realised through the present thesis.

1.3 RESEARCH GOALS

This study aimed to portray an image of women's hockey from the perspectives of participants at the elite level. The researcher, with an active interest in the arts, found herself increasingly drawing parallels between her research process and the constructive works of an artist. The researcher has striven to realistically create a picture, upon an historical backcloth, of women and men who coach hockey at the elite level, through systematic observation, listening, reading, analysis and critical reflection, and to elevate the contribution of participants as a central tenet of this study.

The use of grounded theory was seen to be particularly appropriate for the project as the researcher approached her fields of exploration with the basal intention of drawing out a record and understanding of what coaches of elite women's teams "actually did" in carrying out their roles. Unlike research founded on a predetermined hypothesis, the present study was predicated on the belief that the utilisation of qualitative field research methodologies would generate such a depth of data as to yield categories and properties of gendered coaching, through a process of critical reflection and analysis focussed upon those data. As with the parallel construction of a painting or sculpture, the final form of the present study reflected the craftsperson's original interpretation and perceptions of the subject matter. In essence, the study results in the researcher's conscious stepping back from the canvas to gain a better perspective of the unfolding picture and consequent representation of her perceived world.

Critical reflection from the researcher's background in field hockey, combined with a sustained review of current research and literature, generated three broad research objectives.

1. *To study the coaches of female teams with the purpose of answering the following questions:*
 - (i) *What are the roles and qualities of elite field hockey coaches?*
 - (ii) *What is the impact of gender on the experience of coaching?*

2. *To contribute to the relatively new area of ethnographic research in the domain of elite sports teams.*
3. *To make recommendations, based on the research, to sports bodies in order to increase the number of women in elite coaching and to enhance coach development.*

Over the full course of the literature review and initial research pilot study, it became clear to the researcher that the roles and qualities could not be separated as in 1(i) from gender as in 1(ii) and it therefore, appeared necessary to examine coach roles and qualities in the context of gender. Thus, the wording of objective one was modified to become the research question that underpinned the research project. This question was:

What are the roles and qualities of elite women's field hockey coaches and to what extent are these moderated by the impact of gender?

The researcher continued to hold objectives two and three above as potential outcomes of the research resulting from a full and in-depth exploration of cross-gendered coaching experiences.

1.4 RESEARCH SEQUENCE

The aim of the thesis was to seek an understanding of gendered factors shading the setting of elite women's hockey coaching. This was to be achieved by following a series of steps, similar to that used by an artist to create an oil painting, where the type of materials, painting techniques, and artistic style depend on the intended outcome of the exercise. For the construction of the present thesis the researcher chose an inductive process which maintained a freedom to explore the living, coloured, canvas of field hockey in order to stimulate debate, expose participant perspectives and offer solutions. This freedom was, however, tempered by the demands of academic rigour and an emphasis on the tools of research which would allow the completed work to be replicated by another scholar. The research process was considerably facilitated by the researcher's notebooks which embedded, over time, consistent aspects of coach behaviour and the world of cross-gendered coaching.

The sequence below provides an overview of the chapters in the thesis and, in particular, tracks the development of the research path toward completion. At every stage the researcher asked questions as an important part of the project's guiding process. At the study's inception she asked why the research should take place and why she as a particular researcher should undertake the study? Questions remained an integral part of the work and included such considerations as: Who are the main characters? What is the main setting I should portray? How are the main characters positioned in relation to each other and the background? What parts should be highlighted? What details have I missed? Do all the elements fit together?

Such self-reflective questions allowed the researcher as a craftsman to remain self-critical of the emerging picture, and sensitive to the balance between it capturing feelings or a scene and the extent to which the creator feels a confidence, even a fulfillment, in knowing there is a synergy between the process and the product. It is the intention of this research to paint, through the field notes and participant observation, the living experience of the cross-gendered world of the coach. Only miniature sketches of the real world of elite women's hockey coaching are presented but the accumulated detail is available to anyone who wishes to contact the researcher. Within the portrayal, the academic expectations and desire to evoke a clear image from perceived realities found an underpinning that was particularly appropriate through the use of grounded theory. Consequently, the meanings are those which have been drawn out through the grounded theory process and explicated in the form of the present research project in categories and properties.

Chapter Two opens the literature review of this study and provides an overview of the development of women's field hockey in New Zealand. Women's hockey associations often began before the men's in many areas of New Zealand, for example in Auckland, and women were fully involved in all aspects of the game as players, umpires, administrators and coaches from the outset. The overview draws upon historical text, original documents and interviews in order to size the canvas on which to paint the study proper. An examination of the recent amalgamation between women and men's associations at club, provincial and New Zealand levels is also provided.

Chapter Three continues the review of related literature, with a focus on coaching in elite women's teams. An overview of existing literature on the coaching process, elite coach

roles and qualities is followed by an examination of research outlining the decline of women in elite coaching roles. Subsequent to this discussion is a review of literature on issues of gender equity as they pertain to coach education and development. The chapter concludes with a review of literature highlighting the gender differences that may need to be considered by coaches, female or male, of women's teams.

The methodological outline is discussed in **Chapter Four**. Qualitative research is central to this research project and a brief outline is provided on field research, validation and ethical concerns. The chapter then provides a discussion of the pilot study and methods employed by the researcher in three main phases of research: participant observations with provincial and national teams, elite coach interviews and elite player questionnaires. The chapter concludes with a discussion about theory generation and perceived data meanings using grounded theory techniques.

Chapter Five is the first of three results chapters explicating the results of the study and presents data collected over three years of participant observation with elite women's teams, including three provincial teams and the national women's hockey team. Exploration of participants' perceived realities included training sessions, matches, warm-ups, pre-match preparation, post-match evaluation, team meetings, social occasions and tournaments. The observational data were progressively analysed using grounded theory and formulated in categories presented at the end of the chapter.

Chapter Six presents data generated by interviews with female and male provincial women's hockey coaches. These participants provided rare insights into the realities of coaching and playing in elite women's hockey teams. Coach perspectives included their perceptions of essential elite roles and qualities, first impressions of coaching women, gender differences, women's issues, and coach ideas on recruitment and development of elite coaches. Again, the categories generated through grounded theory analysis of the data are presented in the chapter's concluding section.

Elite player perspectives are presented in **Chapter Seven**, from the results of a questionnaire carried out at the national hockey tournament in 1997. Demographic information, player perceptions of essential elite roles and qualities are provided, along with evidence of players' preferences for a particular gender of coach. The chapter

examines players' perceptions of their own coaches' knowledge then concludes with a presentation of categories arising from the data.

The research data were subjected to grounded theory analysis in each research phase of this present study. This led to the formulation of a master list of categories and properties which provided the basis for theoretical propositions on coaching and gender developed in an inductive manner as presented in **Chapter Eight**. This chapter discusses the study's findings, in particular, the impact of gender in the setting of elite women's hockey and the implications of the findings for the development of females as elite coaches. A theoretical model highlighting the impact of gender is presented. It is the researcher's belief that the discussion in Chapter Eight could be used by sporting codes other than field hockey, to educate and nurture women and men who choose to coach female athletes.

A rudimentary dichotomy of research processes incurred in qualitative methodology is that of dimensions that are both creative and analytical, and an over-emphasis upon either of these may, arguably, obscure appropriate generation of all possible field data. However, the rigour of research in the present project with its checks and balances, noted in Chapter Four, did ensure that the researcher consistently and conscientiously attempted to attain a balanced approach throughout the research process.

The study concludes with the **Chapter Nine** summary and recommendations both for further research and for sports administrators to consider in order to enhance gender equity in the coaching domains of elite women's field hockey.

CHAPTER TWO**HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF FIELD HOCKEY**

The first of the literature reviews provides an outline of the development of women's field hockey with considerations of its historical roots and progression into an organised sport in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The overview draws upon historical texts, original documents, interviews and hockey association publications. In particular, the chapter considers the literature outlining the development of New Zealand women's hockey through the twentieth century and explicates the structure which underpinned the amalgamated state of New Zealand men's and women's hockey at the beginning of the 21st century.

- 2.1 Introduction
- 2.2 Ancient hockey type games
- 2.3 Modern hockey: International developments
 - 2.3.1 Rationalisation and codification
 - 2.3.2 International administration: Gender separate control
 - 2.3.3 Gender amalgamation
- 2.4 New Zealand women's hockey
 - 2.4.1 Early days
 - 2.4.2 Dominion tournaments
 - 2.4.3 Maori women's hockey
 - 2.4.4 International competition
- 2.5 Summary and review

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is the first of the two literature review chapters, and presents an overview of the development of women's field hockey and contemporary administrative structures of New Zealand hockey in order to provide historical background and context for this study of gendered coaching of elite women's hockey. The present chapter broadly comprises three parts. The first of these is an historical outline of the development of hockey from ancient times through the nineteenth century and into the twentieth, with a particular emphasis on generic ball and stick games played throughout the world. The chapter then outlines more contemporary hockey developments from abroad, including the formation of the International Federation of Women's Hockey Association, which were to impact upon the game in Australasia. The third part of the chapter traces the development of women's hockey as a New Zealand sport, which was strongly shaped initially by the English field hockey game and later by additional international influences.

The review notes that into the twentieth century, hockey in New Zealand has taken a particular shape, initially sculpted by women who developed an internal structure, competitions and international test programme. The chapter concludes with an examination of the contemporary state of women's field hockey and a discussion of the 1989 amalgamation between men's and women's administrative bodies to form the New Zealand Hockey Federation (Inc). This amalgamation impacted upon the 1990s environmental shape of women's hockey - particularly administration and coaching.

The second literature review chapter examines research and relevant literature on the coaching process, and roles and qualities of coaches who operate at the elite level. This examination of the coaching literature includes a definition of coaching, and construction of a knowledge platform from coaching literature to enlighten this current study and to identify issues that may be significant in terms of the present research project.

The literature on field hockey is limited in comparison with other sports such as baseball in the U.S.A., cricket in England, or rugby in New Zealand, and is indicative of a broader imbalance in literature on male and female sports. In addition to historical texts, and the limited number of published hockey books and manuals that consider the development of women's hockey, this literature review draws upon archival documents and informal historical interviews. These documents have been used by the researcher to complement broad brush impressions from the few prevailing texts, and as a source of communications for providing an historical backcloth for this study (Chadwick, Bahr and Albrecht, 1984; Sarantakos, 1993).

2.2 ANCIENT HOCKEY TYPE GAMES

An examination of ancient hockey type games provides a background, to assist understanding of factors which were influential in determining the present shape and structure of the modern game.

The twentieth century sport of field hockey may be traced back to a stick and ball game played in 2000 BC in ancient Egypt. A mural in a tomb at Beni Hasan depicts two figures staging what appears to be a "bully" with two curved sticks poised around a ball (Jewell, 1977; Thomson, 1925; Viney and Grant, 1978). Other early evidence of a hockey-like

game includes a bas-relief in Athens (dated 514-499 B.C.) built by Themistocles depicting six men playing with sticks and ball, and an ancient Aztec representation which pictured the gods of light and darkness playing ball (Brasch, 1986; Jewell, 1977; Lowerson, 1996; Viney and Grant, 1978). It is also recorded that in Ireland, before the battle of Magh Tuireadh in 1272 B.C., “the leading warriors of each side engaged in a hurling match which was completed when all the members of one side were defeated or slain” (Arlott, 1977, p. 426).

The apparent appeal of stick and ball is illustrated by reports from twelfth century London about a “balle playe” bandy type game, and in suggestions by Viney and Grant (1978), Brasch (1986), and Lowerson (1996) that even older evidence such as the silver altar flask at the National Museum, Copenhagen and the stained glass window at Gloucester cathedral were depictions of a stick and ball game like hockey.

Written evidence about stick and ball games such as camp-ball, cammock, comocke, cambuca, hockie, hackie, hawkie, hookie, caman, camanhd (Scottish shinty), shinty and bandy are recorded from Great Britain (Brasch, 1986; Jewell, 1977; Thomson, 1925). Names which do not frequently occur in the literature are paille-maille, pell-mell, clubbes, club-ball, baddin, hurl-bat, shinnops, jowling and doddorts, which were probably local variations on bandy (Arlott, 1977; Creek, 1951; Hole, 1949; Viney and Grant, 1978). Games played in other countries that bore resemblance to hockey included hocquet and jeu de mail (France), het kolven (Holland), kolbe (Germany), cheuce (Mexico) and cheuca (Argentina). The Galway Statutes of 1527 forbade “the horlinge of litill balle with hockie stickes or staves” (Hole, 1949, p. 58), and appear to be the first mention of the word “hockie”.

A sport historian’s reflection on ancient hockey type games may suggest their dominant characteristic is the universality of factors that have shaped the modern game. It demonstrates the basic appeal of bat and ball and competition, which is not limited to Europe, as a cursory examination of standard sport history texts often might imply. Also, the literature indicates a predominance of games played exclusively by men rather than by women. A notable exception to this is the game of North American shinny (see Appendix A) where, unlike contemporary sport in a European setting, men of the Crow tribe pitted their skills against women as an opposing team. Presumably this was done because there

was a realistic evenness of the competition and physical skill level of these gendered groups.

The game of shinny itself, discussed in Appendix A, illustrates a partial shaping of the sport by the environment and a shaping of the social environment by the game itself. For example, the use of blankets, buckskin and wood for making balls, came directly from the natural artifacts in the local environment. In turn, the place of the game in the immediate social environment of the tribe raises questions about its role within that society's leisure and sporting activities and raises further questions about gendered sport participation which have rarely been examined by sports historians in such a context.

2.3 MODERN HOCKEY: INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

2.3.1 Rationalisation and codification

The origins of modern or twentieth century women's team sport with such characteristics as rules, team structure, playing positions, local, regional and national sports associations, international competition, interactive dealings with media, and standardisation of rules, uniforms, participation levels and playing fees are seen by sports historians as having their roots strongly determined by developments in male team sports of the nineteenth century. Hargreaves (1994) points out that rationalisation of women's sports was often based on the men's sport model and that in England the lack of women's involvement in rough "uncivilised" games led to middle-class values being adopted for sports administration purposes from the beginning (p. 98).

The rationalisation and codification of women's hockey in the late nineteenth century followed developments in the men's game, which began with the formation of the Blackheath Club, sometime before 1861. Although records of exact dates are uncertain, the Blackheath Club claims to have drawn up the first code of rules (Rhind, 1993) and the Teddington Cricket Club is credited with the introduction of a smooth cricket-type ball to the game (Arlott, 1977). More attempts at regulating the game followed, with the publication of hockey rules in the *Eton College Chronicle* in 1868 and the introduction of the eleven a side teams in 1872 (Weir, 1974). Brasch (1986) suggests that individual clubs developed their own distinct type of hockey until 1883 when the game was standardised by the Wimbledon Club in London (Rowley, 1964). The Wimbledon rules were subsequently

adopted by the Hockey Association in London in 1886 and spread, with only minor alterations, to other parts of the world in the late nineteenth century (Lowerson, 1996).

The development of men's hockey in England was quickly mirrored by the establishment of women's clubs. The first reported women's club was East Molesey in Surrey in 1887 (McCrone, 1988, 1991; Pollard, 1946; Rowley, 1964; Ward, 1994) and at Oxford, the same year, women's hockey was reported at Somerville College and Lady Margaret Hall (McCrone, 1988; Viney and Grant, 1978). In 1889 the Wimbledon women's club was formed, being the oldest surviving women's hockey club in the world (Arlott, 1977).

National hockey associations were formed throughout the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century, reflecting this increasing codification and organisation of sports administration. The first men's national association was the Hockey Association, formed in London in 1886, but the inaugural men's hockey international test match in 1895 was played by Ireland and Wales (Borrett, 1955; Viney and Grant, 1978). Later the same year, in what has also been described as the first test match (see Lowerson, 1992), England beat Ireland by five goals (The Earl of Suffolk and Berkshire, 1911).

The Irish Ladies Hockey Union was formed in Dublin in 1894 (Lodge, 1955), one year before the English Ladies Hockey Association was founded in 1895, inspired by a "test match" between Newnham and Girton as "England" and Alexandra College Dublin as "Ireland" (Lodge, 1955; Pollard, 1946; Ward, 1994). A name change to All England Women's Hockey Association occurred the following year and the first official international test match was played between England and Ireland in Dublin in 1896 (Ireland winning 2-0). Although competing for cups and prizes was forbidden at this stage in the game's development (McCrone, 1988), the competitive nature of play has been noted in women's personal reflections from this era (see for example, Rowley, 1964).

2.3.2 International administration: Gender separate control

In 1900, the men's Hockey Association was influential in forming the International Rules Board, with the responsibility for controlling men's test hockey matches (Arlott, 1977; Salt and Sinclair, 1954). Ireland and Wales provided two representatives each to this board while three came from the [English] Hockey Association. Although the Scots joined in 1902, other major hockey nations from Europe (Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Hungary, Spain and Switzerland) decided to form their own controlling body, the

Fédération Internationale de Hockey (FIH), in Paris during 1924. Britain did not join the FIH until 1970, despite pressure over the years, including exclusion from the 1928 Olympic Games because they were non-members (Arlott, 1977).

Mrs Heron Maxwell from the AEWHA suggested women's hockey should form their own international administrative body in 1922 (IFWHA, 1963; Lodge, 1955). Writing and approving the constitution took time and in 1927 the inaugural meeting of the International Federation of Women's Hockey Associations (IFWHA) took place in London with founding memberships from Australia, Denmark, England, Ireland, Scotland, South Africa, U.S.A. and Wales. The IFWHA was an organisation founded and run by women, for women. The NZWHA was affiliated to the All England Women's Hockey Association and as such did not join the international body as an independent country until just before the outbreak of war in 1939 (IFWHA, 1929).

The constitution of the International Federation of Women's Hockey Associations stipulated that an international hockey conference would be held every three years and that international "exhibition" games would be held in conjunction with the conference. The initial purposes of the IFWHA were clear :

The purpose of the Federation shall be to further the best interests of the game among women of all nations; to promote friendly intercourse among players, to work for uniformity of rules and to promote international matches (IFWHA, 1929, p. 25).

Grant (1984) discusses the philosophical changes that took place in the IFWHA over the years and states that the importance of promoting real friendship and understanding among women of different nationalities was of primary importance. Grant, as former Canadian women's hockey team coach and international umpire, outlined tangible demonstrations of fair play:

In those days substitution was not permitted in the case of injury; thus, if an injured player were removed from the game, the opposing team also withdrew one of their players to ensure a fairer game. Similarly, it was commonplace for a player to indicate to an umpire when she had been responsible for putting the ball out of play. Further, it was noteworthy to watch how, in many instances, the players themselves helped umpire the game because of this belief in fair play (p. 35).

Melvyn Hickey's (1964) description of the IFWHA tournament in Baltimore attested to the fair play values simultaneously demonstrated alongside intense competition for victory.

Personally I see no point in going out on to the field not caring whether my side wins or not - the whole object of the game is lost - and I can assure you that there was no such feeling as the English XI marched out on to the field in Baltimore (U.S.A.) in August 1963. Why, we would have felt unworthy to have been our country's representatives, and rightly so. But win or lose fairly and squarely - that's the aim; not by means foul and unfair, nor by deliberate abuse of the rules. If one accepts the game and a set of rules that govern it, I see no satisfaction in winning only by breaking them (Hickey, 1964, pp. 60-61).

Apparently, honouring and respecting opponents coincided happily with the English team performing their best hockey and trying to beat the opposition.

Whether they were victorious or not was irrelevant because the IFWHA philosophy of not declaring a tournament winner was in contrast with tournaments run by the FIH for their European members women's divisions. The FIH women's tournaments were run following the male model with trophies awarded to winning teams and a top to bottom ranking system. When the FIH allowed its women's divisions to affiliate to both hockey organisations in 1948, they began to participate in IFWHA tournaments in which every team played the same number of games and no outright winner was declared. However, in 1975 the IFWHA changed its non-competitive policy and staged its first "World Championship" with a silver quaich (Scottish drinking cup) presented by the Royal Bank of Scotland being awarded as a first prize (IFWHA, 1975b).

At that time the IFWHA and the FIH seemingly co-existed, each working for the promotion of hockey independently, having formed a Joint Consultative Committee (JCC) in the mid- nineteen sixties. The JCC helped establish the Women's International Hockey Rules Board, in accordance with the long-standing men's International Hockey Rules Board in order that the two groups could have "competent" discussions regarding changes to the rules of the game (IFWHA, 1967, p. 18). However, the 1970s saw a period of tension develop between the IFWHA and the women's division of the FIH, as described by the IFWHA (1975a) "the JCC, after one meeting, ceased to exist when the FIH broke off relations with our Federation" (p. 21). This struggle, over ultimate control of international competition in women's hockey, was to lead to the demise of the women's organisation within one decade.

2.3.3 Gender amalgamation

The next phase in what may have been perceived as the battle for world domination in women's hockey was the suggestion, by Mr Idenburg, the President of the Royal

Netherlands Hockey Association, to form a supreme council representing both associations. This was achieved on 8th June 1974 at Baarn (Netherlands) where the supreme council, named similarly to the men's existing body, the "Fédération Internationale de Hockey (IFWHA-FIH)" was to preside over matters of common policy and interest, with each federation being completely autonomous. This co-operative arrangement eventually failed, after a few years of confusion in regard to the timing of international tournaments, but the matter was finally decided, through mutual agreement, with the IFWHA being assimilated into the FIH in 1983.

Grant (1984) suggests that a combination of factors, led to the downfall of the unique women's government developed by the IFWHA. Firstly, the changes to the women's field hockey system were driven largely by the need for teams to receive government funding. Government funding agencies, being male dominated, were more familiar with the men's model of sport, required a justification for national team support and as a result wanted to know the world ranking and win/loss records of the teams. Secondly, many women wanted the material rewards of the men's system including access to the Olympic Games and the glory and status associated with world cup tournaments. Thirdly, the quiet acceptance of the male model, beginning in 1967 when a winner was declared for the first time, and ending when teams were ranked top to bottom, may have suggested some women thought that "to see things differently than the men meant we were wrong" (Grant, 1984, p. 37).

The aim of access to the Olympic Games provided a catalyst for many sports' development and hockey was no exception. The impending merger assured the women a place in the 1980 Olympic Games, in contrast to men's hockey inclusion since 1908, because the FIH had previously "blocked its rival organisation" (Lowerson, 1996, p. 422). (Hockey games appear to have been played at the 1900 Olympic Games in Paris, as it is reported that each team played France but no medals were awarded [FIH/IFWHA, 1983]). Sporting politics, involving the European based FIH and Olympics Games committee, therefore played a role in ensuring the end of the British based international hockey organizations, the men's Hockey Association and the women's IFWHA.

Aileen Gooder, President of the International Federation of Women's Hockey Associations from 1967 until 1971, recalled that, despite initial concerns about amalgamation, gradually the hockey countries came into line and felt the merger was the

most appropriate governance decision. “England were not very much in favour to start with but gradually, as it was discussed at conferences, they came around to thinking it was the best thing to do in the interests of international hockey” (A. Gooder, personal communication, July 31, 1997). In Gooder’s opinion, the amalgamation was positive for women and the joint committees, such as the rules board, worked successfully together.

The end of the IFWHA put women into the position they had asked for in some cases, right from the beginning of the modern game, that of being partners in one joint organisation. Modern hockey had spread from England in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, and men had led women in the initial codification and organisation of the game. Women had then developed their own distinctive organisations based around unique values of fostering the game and friendship between women (Grant, 1984). The international competition, begun in the 1890s for both men and women in the British Isles and which led to the formation of bodies (the HA for men, the FIH for men and women, and the IFWHA exclusively for women), was to provide a context for the development of hockey beyond Europe. One such field hockey country to be drawn through the late nineteenth century into twentieth century participation was New Zealand.

2.4 NEW ZEALAND WOMEN’S HOCKEY

2.4.1 Early Days

Women’s hockey spread from the British Isles to the colonies during the late 1890s. One of the first hockey games in New Zealand was played in the small South Island town of Kaiapoi, just south of Christchurch. The Reverend H. H. Mathias has been attributed with introducing the game to the region and setting up a men’s club called Kaiapoi in 1895 and a women’s club, Hinemoa, the following year (Oakes, 1996). Games were probably contested between Hinemoa and the largely school-age team of Kaiapoi Girls’ Hockey Club, formed in 1897 (Coney, 1993). Around the same time, a women’s club called Christchurch Hockey Club was formed, followed by the Christchurch Men’s Hockey Club in 1898 (Coney, 1986).

Coney’s research (1986, 1993) indicates that women’s hockey was also started at Nelson College for Girls and in the Auckland region at Remuera Ladies College around 1897 although Hammer (1990) provides evidence that schoolgirl hockey in Auckland may have

begun later, around 1902. Interest in hockey as a sport for women spread to the local communities and clubs began to appear, for example, the Wapiti Ladies Club in 1899 ("The Wapiti Club," 1901), started by Major George of Epsom whose team uniform of black and white represented his racing colours (Pritchard, 1977). Auckland had three women's club teams by 1901 (Wapiti, University and Kopana) and this rose slowly to six teams over the next five years. That the women's competition was in progress before men's teams were formed was commented on in the news of the day (Aliquis, 1901).

The common occurrence of male sponsorship of women's hockey is noted in historical newspaper articles. Major George was important to the Wapiti club in Auckland because he supplied the grounds upon which the games occurred. Similarly when the Kopana club was formed in 1901, Mr Richard Udy "came to the rescue by kindly lending his paddock at Epsom for practising purposes" ("The Kotiro Ladies Club," 1901). Men were also apparently useful as coaches; for example, it was reported in a contemporary press article that "Under Mr Hosking's able coaching this club will soon be one of the best" ("The Kotiro Ladies Club," 1901). Women however, also had early coaching roles:

Miss MacCormick their secretary, has worked in the club's interest with great energy. This Lady devotes much of her time to coaching the members, and although she does not now take an active part in the matches, she is able, by watching play, to show the players where they can improve their game. Miss MacCormack under-takes coaching in addition to her duties as secretary ("The Wapiti Club," 1901, p. 18).

Auckland men formed their regional Auckland Hockey Association (AHA), before women established a controlling body, and joined the New Zealand Hockey Association (NZHA) one year after it was formed in 1902. They played a representative match against Canterbury, losing 2-1, before the women organised a representative association in 1903. The Auckland Ladies Hockey Association (ALHA) was formed on the initiative of University players and consisted of six different clubs with two teams each competing in a regular competition (Hammer, 1990). Evidence of early inter-provincial competitions were provided in contemporary newspaper accounts, for instance the description of an ALHA challenge to a Hamilton representative team in 1904 ("Hamilton ladies challenged," 1904).

Despite hockey's New Zealand origin in Canterbury, the Canterbury Women's Hockey Association (CWAHA) was not formed until 1908 but, as it consisted of 27 clubs with 32 teams in the competition, it was the largest women's association at that time. According to

local hockey historians, men were apparently playing in some of the early Canterbury women's teams because CWHHA minutes noted "that no men be allowed to play in competition matches" (NZWHA, 1959, p. 5), thus signaling a change in attitudes. Formalisation of the CWHHA may have been hastened by suggestions of forming a national administrative body for women's hockey or by the need to gain control over their own sport, as they reportedly barred men from their executive (Coney, 1993).

The emerging sport of hockey was similar to the sport of golf in its New Zealand development, in that men's and women's organisations developed the game in gender separated associations, in contrast to mixed sports such as croquet and tennis which competed separately at times but had single national administrative organisations. Macdonald (1993, p. 407) described the development of golf administrations as an "unbalanced parallel", in that women were hindered in some cases by men's associations with better access to resources. This unbalanced parallel was illustrated in women's hockey with the struggles between men and women over ground allocation, which was a common occurrence in Auckland and Wellington in the early days of hockey. Pearl Dawson was a seminal figure in the Auckland Ladies' Hockey Association and chaired the executive for twenty-five years. She recalled that "the men always gave us a ground out in the back blocks. Number Four was always given to the ladies. We got the dirty end of the stick all the time" (Coney, 1986, p. 176).

In Wellington similar battles for grounds took place. For example, one newspaper rebuked women players by stating that "young ladies who wear Parisian heels to play hockey should be more considerate for the ground and the men who play after them. It has been with great difficulty that the Wellington Hockey Association could be persuaded to let the grounds to the ladies' hockey teams. The fields were pock-marked all over with holes quite a couple of inches deep" ("Ladies hockey," 1909, p. 11).

Despite such battles over ground allocation, the game progressed and the New Zealand Ladies Hockey Association (NZLHA) was formed in 1908 with ten provinces affiliated: Auckland, Canterbury, Hawkes Bay, Marlborough, Nelson, Otago, Taranaki, Wairarapa, Wanganui, and Wellington (New Zealand Women's Hockey Association, 1959). By 1922 the numbers of member associations had risen to 20, climbing slowly to 36 affiliated associations in 1986 (NZWHA, 1922, 1986).

Initially, the office bearers of the NZLHA were male, the first President being Dr A. W. Izard from Wellington with the secretary Mr McIntyre. These men were elected despite protestations at the inaugural meeting by Cora Maris Clarke (representing Auckland) that women should be elected to hold offices in a women's organisation (Macdonald, 1996). Mrs Russell Grace was elected as President in 1910 but from 1911 until 1930 men held this critical position. This situation was in direct contrast to the AEWH, which had barred men from any offices within the organisation, according to Pollard (1946), because the men's Hockey Association had rejected their formal request for affiliation at the outset, declaring "the Hockey Association has been formed entirely in the interests of men's clubs" (p. 6). Apparently, the men in international hockey administration could not see fit to recognise the new women's association.

New Zealand women at this stage of the game's development were slightly ahead of their Australian counterparts in forming hockey associations. The All Australian Women's Hockey Association was formed in 1910 and held its first interstate hockey tournament in that same year (Vamplew, Moore, O'Hara, Cashman and Jobling, 1992). The Australians however, were the first Australasian country to play an international test match, engaging the English team which stopped over in Australia on their way to tour New Zealand in 1914 (Vamplew, et al., 1992).

2.4.2 Dominion tournaments

The first official New Zealand Women's Hockey Association Dominion Tournament was held in 1908 and was contested by eight representative provincial teams, with the inaugural winner being Hawkes Bay. This tournament was an annual fixture, as Todd (1966) records, with the exception of war years (1914, 1916, 1917 and 1941-1944), and provided a focus for the representative calendar. The round-robin format adopted for this competition was sometimes questioned and the possibility of running a challenge system similar to the men's national competition was discussed at management committee meetings (NZWHA, 1911a).

Early newspaper accounts suggest that such women's hockey representative matches were of considerable interest to spectators. For example, the Auckland Weekly News recorded that a representative ladies' hockey match, between teams picked from the Wellington clubs and visiting elevens from the tournament, was played at Days Bay before 1000 spectators. "The game resulted in a draw, with two goals each, after a most exciting

contest” (“Ladies’ match at Wellington,” 1903, p. 19). Representative and inter-club matches were also an occasion for socialising with the opposition and the hosts. When the Wapiti club from Auckland visited the Hamilton Young Ladies Club, they were treated to an after-match dance in a volunteer hall “by the bachelors of Hamilton” (“Matches at Hamilton,” 1904, p. 26). Similarly, the social calendars provided at dominion tournaments were viewed most favourably by the players and team officials. In 1940, at Auckland, the dominion tournament hosts arranged an entertainment programme which included a social evening on the first night, a trip to the War Memorial Museum hothouses and fernery, several afternoon teas, a picture evening, and celebration dinner on the final night (NZWHA, 1940).

Notes jotted in a tournament programme (NZWHA, 1935a) regarding a beach party reprimand, which described a situation where one player asked her team mates not to report her, bore testimony to the grand social evenings enjoyed by the teams. However, despite these social forays, dominion tournament was, in reality, a showcase for the country’s best hockey players who were simultaneously trying to win section trophies for their teams and display their individual hockey skills to the New Zealand Women’s Hockey selectors in order to gain national representative honours.

Daisy Tinney’s 1911 Tournament Diary

Saturday, September 2

Fine day, rough trip, girl fainted on boat...

Tuesday, September 5 A bye.

The trip was rough
 Mother foretold
 If Daisy went she’d
 get a cold and get a cold she did

Sore throat had Daisy
 and her breathing wasn’t easy

Wednesday, September 6

Daisy sick, couldn’t play
 and in bed she had to stay
 felt rotten, played rotten, behaved rotten

One such player, Daisy Tinney a member of Wellington A who later went on to play for New Zealand in 1914, vividly recorded the difficulties she faced by jotting notes in her dominion tournament programme (see Figure 2.1). The daily entries from Daisy’s 1911 programme (NZWHA, 1911b) illustrate the yesteryear problems of travel and the difficulties for representative women players who had to play in poor weather conditions.

Figure 2.1. Extract from Daisy Tinney’s 1911 tournament programme (NZWHA, 1911b).

Competing teams, such as Daisy’s Wellington, at the New Zealand Women’s Hockey dominion tournament played every team in their section and gained two points for a win and one point for a draw. The team who gained the most points was awarded the section

trophy. The major focus for a team in the dominion tournament, despite the social activities, was winning its relevant section - in marked contrast to All England Women's Hockey Association's policy of non-competition (Grant, 1984; Hickey, 1964). The IZARD Cup was the prize for the top section, from the first dominion tournament until 1924 when it was replaced by the magnificent solid silver 'K' cup presented by Mr Sam Kirkpatrick of Nelson. This trophy was briefly ousted in preference for a sponsor's trophy for three years (1983-1985) but was reinstated by the NZHF in 1986, as the premier grade trophy.

Originally the Floyd Shield was given to the runner-up team in the tournament and the Holden Cup to third place getters but, as the number of associations affiliated to the NZWHA grew and the tournament divided into sections, these trophies were redesignated for winners of the second and fourth sections respectively. The Mills Cup had been given as a junior trophy in 1908 but disappeared for a time and, on recovery, was used as a winning trophy for the third section (Todd, 1966). The Umpires Trophy was presented (1977) as a reward for winners of the fifth section (C. Maddill, personal communication, April 14, 1996).

At the 1909 official tournament at Hastings, seven associations took part in the tournament: Auckland, Hawkes Bay, Taranaki, Wanganui, Wellington, Nelson, and Horowhenua. The number of associations increased markedly over the years and peaked at 42 associations attending the National tournament at Napier in 1985 (NZWHA, 1985). The increasing number of teams meant they had to be divided into several sections to ensure a winner could be found in the course of a week-long tournament. Sections were ranked and promotion-relegation games were played at the end of the week between the losers in one grade and the winners of the grade below to ensure successful teams would eventually play in the premier grade.

In conjunction with the dominion tournament, representative teams engaged in a variety of other competitions. An inter-island match was regularly undertaken at the completion of the formal competition, first having been played in 1900 at Days Bay in Wellington ("Inter-island match," 1905; "North Island versus South Island game," 1900). In contrast, it is noted that the men's first North Island versus South Island game was in Christchurch some three years later. Another competition, which has not been retained in modern times, was the inclusion of a Maori versus Pakeha game at some tournaments in the 1940s.

A more unusual feature of the women's tournaments in the late 1920s was a competition for the "Millie Memorial Cup" (see, for example, NZWHA, 1929b) presented by Mr Joe Edwards of Gisborne. The object of this competition was initially an individual sprint race over 100 yards, and then a relay race was introduced after two seasons, but the race proved unpopular and was the subject of several disputes until, finally, the cup was returned to Mr Edwards in 1930.

However, the 1920s produced inter-provincial competitions of far more significance for hockey participants than the Millie Memorial Cup. Indeed, 1919 heralded the introduction of the Hatch Cup inter-provincial competition for primary school boys, while the equivalent girls' competition, the Collier Trophy, was not instigated until 1966. Appendix B.1 briefly outlines these competitions and also illustrates a similar gender lag which appeared between the introduction of the secondary school boys' Rankin Cup (1923), and secondary school girls' Federation Cup, tournaments (1992).

Gender proportions of coaches had also changed over time. Personnel in charge of teams, in management or coaching roles, at dominion tournaments were commonly male. Team photographs from 1911 (NZWHA, 1911b) show a male figure present in 10 out of 16 photographs, although only one was listed as a coach, five others being described as managers, and one was identified as an association President. (Three men had no role listed.) In 1925, all seven teams at Dominion Tournament were under the control of a male manager, teamed with the obligatory female chaperone. However, this example of male domination of team management was atypical and following years' programmes recorded the increasing involvement of many females in coaching and managing representative teams.

This observation highlights the differential gender belief systems prevalent in these early times. Women, if coached by a male, required supervision by chaperones during visiting trips or tournaments. Although no record of a "chaperone job description" was discovered in the NZWHA archives, the job appears to have involved protection of the young women in case they became too close to the male coach (A. Gooder, personal communication, July 31, 1997). The men's teams had no chaperone assigned.

Such differential gender beliefs also occurred as late as the 1980s when women's teams were treated differently than the men's teams at national tournament. For example, the

Auckland men's team stayed in a hotel, could share a room with a spouse or girlfriend and were permitted to freely choose when to attend social functions, but the Auckland women's team were instructed not to bring partners, were commonly denied permission to go out in the evenings and were under close supervision from the manager who assumed a chaperone type role. The same was true for teams travelling overseas to international tournaments; women were chaperoned by female managers while men were treated as responsible adults, as Kevin Towns, manager of the New Zealand men's team in 1986, has recalled (K. Towns, personal communication, June 12, 1998).

A more detailed consideration of the percentage of male coaches at women's national tournaments is critical for the background of this current study as it illustrates the imbalance of male and female coaches at the elite level in New Zealand. Appendix C illustrates the percentage of male coaches at national tournaments, and shows that in 1955 (29 teams) and 1960 (25 teams) only a third of the teams were coached by men. The number of male coaches in charge of female teams increased over the 1980s and 1990s. Programmes from the 1980s recorded the sudden rise in the number of male coaches, the 1985 national women's hockey tournament listing 22 males for 42 teams (52%) (NZWHA, 1985). An examination of the numbers of male and female coaches at the NZHF 1995 national premier tournaments contrasts the apparent selection of women to coach women's teams and the selection of men to coach women's and men's teams. For example, 100% of the top twelve men's team coaches were male, while 67% of the top twelve women's team coaches were also male. Therefore, only 17% of all coaches at NZHF premier hockey tournaments in 1995 were female.

The increase in numbers of players affiliated to the NZWHA grew steadily, from its 1908 inception with 4695 players being registered in 1935, up to a peak of nearly 25,000 in the mid-1980s due to the huge growth of hockey in primary and secondary schools. The changes in number of women and girls playing hockey in New Zealand over time is shown in Appendix D. Of note is the large increase in numbers playing hockey in 1970s and the steady decline of adult women players in the 1990s (see Figure D.2). The total numbers of women and girls playing hockey in the late 1990s have dropped back to just under 20,000, with schoolgirls making up two-thirds of the players (NZHF, 1996).

A further examination of age comparisons of women playing the game reveals causes of further concern for hockey administrators. The numbers of adult women, and of girls

playing at secondary school have both declined markedly over the twenty-year period of 1976-1996. For example, the number of open women in 1976 was 7,782, which had declined to 4,824 in 1996, while the numbers of secondary school girls playing fell from 10,259 to 6,384 for the same time period (NZHF, 1996). In contrast, the number of girls engaged in this code at primary school has more than tripled over the same time span, and is a major factor in slowing the decline in total numbers of female players.

There appear to be no simple reasons for the decline in open women and secondary school girls but factors suggested by Edwards (1997) may have fuelled the decline of women in Auckland. These include: the amalgamation between men's and women's associations; financial pressures associated with international tournaments, new surfaces and buildings; increasing city size and associated transport and safety issues; and the change to artificial turf based hockey which altered game scheduling. Typophilia, the attachment of players and spectators to a particular ground, has also been suggested by others (J. Bale, personal communication, August 28, 1997) as a cause for declining numbers of players and/or spectators. Certainly, in Auckland with the advent of artificial turf surfaces and amalgamation requiring moves away from traditional grounds (Hobson Park for men's hockey and Melville Park for women's hockey) this may have been a contributing factor to the decreases in active playing numbers.

2.4.3 Maori women's hockey

Maori women enjoyed winter team games, including hockey, which they had to play on Saturday mornings to avoid clashing with men's rugby in the afternoon (see Metge, 1976). As early as the 1930s, Maori had formed the Taira-whiti Maori Hockey Association, affiliated to the NZWHA, for the specific purpose of organising Maori hockey competitions (NZWHA, 1932a). For some Maori this yearly event was an important way of networking. It also served to revive historical tournaments, which were largely organised around local marae, iwi or districts. Historically, Maori competed for trophies such as the Stringer Shield and the Lady Arihia Ngata Memorial Gold Cup, presented by Sir Apirana Ngata as a memorial to his late wife (Coney, 1993). The Maori novelist Witi Ihimaera, describes such a local competition in his fictional account of the Mahana women's hockey team playing the Hukareka women's team in a top of the table clash for the Gisborne senior ladies competition:

Aunt Ruth was huddled with the team. She had just finished karakia, calling on God's aid in this fight against the Infidel. Aunt Miriam was centre forward. Aunt Esther and Aunt Kate - Uncle Hone's

wife - were inner right and inner left, and the wings were the youngest - Haromi on the left and Frances on the right. Playing at halfback positions were Aunt Sephora, Aunt Dottie - Uncle Ruka's wife - and my mother Huria, who seemed to be a different person all toggged up in her hockey outfit. The backs were the heavyweights, Aunt Ruth and Aunt Sarah, an impenetrable wall of solid flesh, with Aunt Molly as goalie (Ihimaera, 1994, p. 146).

Sir Apirana Ngata's letters to Sir Peter Buck confirm large numbers of Maori gathered for the annual hockey tournaments. Ngata wrote, "We held the third celebration of the Canoe sextennial in Hawkes Bay in August to synchronise with the Te Aute Centennial, both being hitched on to a great Hockey Tournament" (Sorrenson, 1986, p. 253). Earlier, when describing one gathering at Waitara, (ibid p. 216) Ngata explained to Buck that a "hockey and football element" of over 1000 Maori would be present. Of interest is the knowledge that hockey tournaments were often combined with men's rugby football tournaments and based around tribal activities such as commemorative occasions and opening ceremonies for new buildings.

Maori women were selected into early New Zealand teams and have been present in national teams ever since. According to Evans (1991), Te Kiato (Kia) Riwai was chosen for one of the earliest New Zealand women's hockey teams but could not play due to measles. Elva Love (nee Enoka) from Wellington did play for New Zealand in 1960 during a tour of Australia and captained the team at the 1963 IFWHA tournament in Baltimore. Love assisted with coaching her Wellington club and representative teams and was also a member of the NZWHA management committee for several years ("Quietly spoken Maori girl leads hockey team in U.S.," 1963) and was appointed manager of the New Zealand women's hockey team in 1967.

This team to the world tournament in Cologne (Germany) also contained Margaret Raureti Hiha (Te Arawa), an emergent Maori leader, who went on to coach Hawkes Bay, New Zealand Universities and the New Zealand team. Hiha was to spend many years in the service of hockey and was elected as a member of the New Zealand Hockey Federation Board. She was also a key figure in establishing Te Kaunihera Haupoi Maori O Aotearoa (Maori Hockey Council) in 1995, which aimed to foster the game for New Zealand Maori and to administer Maori national teams, tours and test matches.

Hiha had also been the driving force for the establishment of an annual National Maori representative tournament for eight regions as determined by the Maori Land Court (see

Appendix B.2). The first of these tournaments took place in 1992 and culminated in the naming of the first New Zealand Maori Women's Hockey team who played their first international test match the following year, defeating Fiji 21-1 (M. Hiha, personal communication, 22.11.00). This team provided an opportunity for Maori to play international games and provided a staging point for top Maori players who benefited from the exposure, experience and extra coaching opportunities. More importantly, in the context of this current study, a Maori woman was chosen as the New Zealand Maori women's team coach, and thus gained valuable experience at the international level.

However, the unique feature of these national Maori representative tournaments is that they have cultural as well as sporting objectives (see Appendix B.2). Regional and national Maori teams, are encouraged to accommodate visiting teams in local Marae or similar communal living quarters. For example, the Takatimu men's and women's teams attending the 1997 National Maori Tournament at Tamaki Makaurau (Auckland) based themselves at a South Auckland primary school, with the hall being treated as the Wharehuni (sleeping hut). Members of the teams practised Maori cultural protocols and were encouraged to learn a waiata (Best, 1976, p. 203) or haka (Best, 1976, p. 85) to be performed immediately before hockey games and at the tournament dinner.

Many factors, including the development and exposure opportunities afforded by Maori initiatives, have seen a growing number of Maori women being selected for national honours. Such selection into the New Zealand Women's Hockey team was an honour reserved for the very best players on display at dominion or more recently national tournaments. This chapter now moves to examine the development of the New Zealand team's participation in international competitions.

2.4.4 International competition

The NZWHA had its first international competition when it hosted an English team in 1914. This New Zealand team was selected and managed by Mr Albert Manning and chaperoned, as social etiquette of the times dictated, by Mrs Peacock. The New Zealand women's hockey team lost all the test matches, but Poverty Bay province secured a win to ensure the English team did not return home unbeaten (Todd, 1976).

The next international venture was to have been a tour to the 1930 Empire Tournament in South Africa but lack of financial support from affiliated associations and central

government lead to the cancellation of the tour after the team had been announced and Hilda Poulter appointed manager (NZWHA, 1929c, 1930). It is significant to note that tour's setting in the context of New Zealand's sporting history and the frequent male sports practice of sending "white only" rugby and other teams to South Africa. Concerns over travel to South Africa, other than in regard to financial matters, were presented to the NZWHA by some women's hockey associations. The Rotorua Association for example, wrote to the NZWHA expressing the view "support could not be expected if there was to be no Maori representation" (NZWHA, 1929a, p. 154). The Association's concern over the possible lack of Maori representation offers evidence in marked contrast to Nauright's (1993) statement that the exclusion of "Maoris from tours of South Africa sparked little controversy in New Zealand before the second world war" (p. 20). Indeed, the grassroots protests from constituent women's hockey associations has not been noted in any of the conventional sport history or sport politics texts (see, for example, Collins 2000).

The issue of having a male coach for the team also arose at this stage. The NZWHA wrote to the All England Women's Hockey Association and asked for advice on whether New Zealand should send a male coach to South Africa. The reply stated that it was a matter for the South African Association but they preferred New Zealand to have "no male camp followers" (NZWHA, 1929b, p. 168). The English association had barred men from any role in their women's teams and seemed to expect New Zealand to do the same.

In the pre-coaching era (McConnell, 1996), it was the captains of women's hockey teams who had a responsibility to coach the team. Pearl Dawson recalls that, as Auckland captain in 1911, she was, in effect, also the coach and manager as well (Pritchard, 1977). This tendency for the captain to have some coaching responsibility was even present at the elite international level as New Zealand women's hockey teams were accompanied by managers with no specific coaching duties (M. Chappell, personal communication, 18 August, 1997). Managers were however, required to use coaching skills, direct game plans, and to choose the team for the day (A. Gooder, personal communication July 31, 1997), a fact confirmed by the minutes of the NZWHA Management Committee (1935b) which stated that a manager had to possess knowledge of the game, training, health and diet as well as the ability to help select the team while abroad.

In 1935, a team managed by Hilda Poulter toured Australia and played in the Australian inter-state championship. This team was very successful, winning 13 out of 14 games and

beating Australia in a one-off test match (2-1). Their fortunes were also favourable the following year when the New Zealand team beat Fiji, four goals to nil. The success of these tours in terms of results, however, may be overshadowed in retrospect by the significance of the all women composition of the touring party.

The All-England women's hockey team returned in 1938 and beat the NZ team on every occasion, the last test being lost 8-2. This tour to NZ was significant for two reasons. Firstly, it reportedly drew record crowds of five and six thousand (Coney, 1993) and received a favourable response in the press. Secondly, for the first time a national coach, as distinct from manager, was appointed to the women's team. This was Mr G. Hamilton, who had been very successful with the Eastern Southland team for many seasons. He was to be the last male appointed to the National women's team until Wayne Boyd was elected as coach by the NZ Women's Hockey Council in 1984. Men were still given selection roles until 1948, but from 1938 until 1983 women were exclusively given roles as managers, coaches and selectors of New Zealand women's hockey teams.

The first NZWHA team to be sent to the IFWHA conference and tournament (Folkestone, England in 1953) went with co-managers, Mrs E. Moore and Miss C.M. Wilkins. This team thus flew the NZ flag at what was the fifth IFWHA tournament and was markedly successful, winning 16 out of 20 matches played at the tournament and its subsequent tour of England, Holland and Scotland. The 1956 team sent to the Sydney tournament, three years later, maintained an excellent record with 20 wins out of 22 matches played (NZWHA, 1958b). The manager was Hilda Poulter and the assistant manager, with responsibility for coaching duties, was Aileen Gooder (personal communication, July 31, 1997). Women's teams from the Netherlands, Scotland and United States of America then visited New Zealand in the traditional post-tournament tour allowing many associations a first-hand encounter with international hockey.

New Zealand, along with 15 other women's teams, also participated in the seventh IFWHA in Amsterdam (1959), Holland where Pearl Dawson from the Auckland Ladies Hockey Association was elected vice president of the international body for a three year term (IFWHA, 1967). The team, managed by Aileen Gooder with assistance from Mrs C. A. Scott, toured England after the Amsterdam tournament, but were not as successful as the previous team, winning only four games out of nine test matches (lost 4, drew 1).

International fortunes improved markedly in 1963, at the IFWHA Baltimore (U.S.A.) tournament, where New Zealand was unbeaten, winning all six test matches at the tournament. However, a post-tournament tour allowed them to play close rival Australia, whom they had not played at the tournament, and they conceded defeat on three out of six occasions. The captain on the 1963 tour, Elva Love, managed the team to the next IFWHA in Cologne, Germany during 1967, where New Zealand won four out of seven games, losing only to Australia and the Netherlands.

While the team were in Cologne, Aileen Gooder, from Auckland, was given a role in international hockey administration, being elected as IFWHA President for three years from 1967. Concurrently, Jessie Smith was given the job of tournament secretary for the 10th IFWHA tournament and conference in Auckland, New Zealand.

Hosting the 10th IFWHA World Conference and Tournament was a major commitment for the NZWHA. Jessie Smith worked full-time for three years to ensure the tournament ran smoothly with organisation being up to the high standards of previous years (J. Smith, personal communication, September 13, 1997). She remembers the one contentious incident of the tournament as the withdrawal of South Africa, perceived as a response to letters of protest from C.A.R.E. (Citizens Association for Racial Equality) and which was later described by the IFWHA President, as the anti-apartheid policies of the New Zealand government (IFWHA, 1975a). Some associations and individuals also objected to South Africa's attendance and proposed tour (NZWHA, 1971).

The New Zealand team's results at the home tournament were mixed - they won three out of six test games, drew two and were defeated by England narrowly (1-2). The team, now coached by Mrs J. Crossen, did not get to play Australia because in line with the IFWHA philosophy a tournament winner was not determined at this time.

International success

New Zealand traveled to Holland again in 1973 for the Dutch Association's 75th Jubilee eight nation tournament, where they were coached by Mrs E. Lush, placed third, and presented with the Silver Tulip Trophy. The team toured extensively in Europe and came home via South Africa, a destination which again caused controversy within the NZWHA associations. Indeed, permission to tour was only granted by a secret postal ballot of the New Zealand associations being won by 23 votes to 15, with three votes deemed invalid

and 12 were not returned (NZWHA, 1972b). The tour eventuated and the inclusion in the team of a Maori player, Kay Waapu, caused much comment in the South African media where she became the focus of many press photographs (M. Chappell, New Zealand women's player, personal communication, August 18, 1997).

The trip to Holland was highly successful for New Zealand who were proud to be ranked at number three behind Germany and the Netherlands and ahead of close rivals England and Australia. The national team, with another female coach Mrs M. Jenkins, again travelled to the Northern Hemisphere for the first IFWHA "World Championship" in Scotland (in 1975) where they were again placed third.

The next era of international hockey led to the transformation of former New Zealand vice-captain Shirley Eddy into coach of the team from 1977 until 1980. One of the many highlights of this era of New Zealand women's hockey was reached, under the guidance of Eddy, on Saturday March 5th 1977 at the Wembley Stadium in England, when New Zealand beat the English team. Gladys O'Brien, then manager of the team, described the events of the historic day in her NZWHA (1977) tour report:

The wait was short as Pat and Jenny led their team through the tunnel as the heavens broke with the undescrivable noise of 60,779 voices, screaming to their utmost the team played like girls possessed with a mission in hand - the louder the cheers, the harder they played; the initiative was theirs, the plan had worked and the All England style of play was shattered what an elated team at the sound of the final whistle ... our victorious lap of honour was done without the approval of the Wembley Master of Ceremonies, who requested that I recall the girls until after the National Anthems - my simple reply was that I didn't wish to spoil the girls' "thunder" and that I was sorry (p. 7).

Changing fortunes

In 1979, at the IFWHA world championship in Canada, New Zealand's ranking slipped dramatically to ninth but improved to seventh with the World Cup tournament in 1983. Margaret Hiha, who had taken over as coach of the team in 1981, wrote: "For the 1983 team I have nothing but praise for their professional attitude and dedication prior to the tournament and their application and willingness to adapt their play for the benefit of the team. Their fitness was first class and team members gave everything in every game. It was not for the want of effort that sees New Zealand in seventh spot" ("New Zealand Hockey at the crossroads," 1983, p. 3). Journalist Kevin Tutty reported on the problems facing the New Zealand team, for example, extreme heat, lack of international warm up games, lack of funding in comparison to other teams, and a lack of practice on astroturf

surfaces. He concluded, however, that a lack of basic skills was also a key factor in the team's falling fortunes (Tutty, 1983).

The fall in fortunes had far reaching consequences for the women's game. There appeared to be an increasing belief that international competition required a change in administrative management of the home national body. This led to the formation in 1980 of the NZWHA Council, which aimed at "providing a streamlined management and administrative structure which could take a professional approach to promoting hockey, and encourage women to participate at whatever level suited them" (Jackson, 1993, p. 427). The Council had to combat the falling number of women hockey players, a trend that had been of general concern since the 1970s. In addition, the Council needed to seek sponsorship (and the necessary media coverage) in order to meet the increasing need for elite international competition. Given that women's hockey, throughout the 1960s and 1970s, had relied largely on the services of women's unpaid labour, the standards required by funding agencies, with the corresponding increase in paper work and organisational skills, demanded the sport became more "professional" in the sense of business-like management procedures.

The reaction of the new NZWHA council to the fall in world rankings, was dramatic. After three years, the council removed the NZWHA constitutional safeguard which stated that "All official appointments in connection with the New Zealand team, such as manager, umpires and conference delegates, all of whom shall be women, shall be decided by majority vote at a general meeting of the association" (NZWHA, 1975, p.12). It is unclear when this clause was first included in the constitution but this gender safeguard was not included in the first constitution (1908) or that re-drafted in 1932. The removal of this clause, occurred immediately before Wayne Boyd was appointed as the New Zealand women's team coach, prior to the 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games.

Under the guidance of this new coach, and assistant coach, Pat Barwick, New Zealand qualified for the Los Angeles Olympics in 1984 but were placed sixth out of six. Two years later, they achieved another successful international ranking, attaining fourth place at the 1986 World Cup again in Holland. Success at other international tournaments was, however, fleeting and the team dropped back to seventh ranking, missing a place in the 1988 Seoul Olympics.

Faced with their sport's increasingly commercial environment, representatives of the New Zealand Women's Hockey Council took part in a review, initiated by the men's national association in 1986, which concluded "that the need to obtain expert assistance and marketing, promotion, media relations and management meant that amalgamation was crucial for the future of the sport" (Jackson, 1993, p. 427). It was for these reasons that amalgamation between the two bodies took place in 1988, to form the New Zealand Hockey Federation (Inc) with a key element being the constitutional safeguard ensuring fifty percent female representation on the Board. However, the merits or otherwise of amalgamation were a matter of vigorous debate within sporting circles (Else, 1993) and, in some, the amalgamation may have contributed to falling numbers of female players, coaches, administrators and umpires (see Edwards, 1997).

Thus, it was a combination of factors, directly influenced by international competition, that impacted upon the New Zealand women's game. A significant factor leading the women towards change, was the development of artificial surfaces, used increasingly since the 1976 Olympic Games. New Zealand was slow to lay artificial surfaces, the first going down in Wellington in 1984, but by 1992 there were nineteen throughout New Zealand. Nationwide, in 1997 the number of artificial surfaces, according to Maddaford (1997) was approximately 36 (including eight water-based), with small associations such as Counties and Hauraki Plains having achieved this feat with national and local government assistance. The need for artificial surfaces meant that men's and women's hockey associations needed to join forces in order to increase the possibility of community or government funding or sponsorship and rationalise requests for financial aid.

The move to artificial surfaces coincided with the appointment of Pat Barwick as coach. Barwick was a former New Zealand captain (1971-1979) and assistant coach and, by the Barcelona Olympics in 1992, the New Zealand government considered the team a medal prospect, giving the women's team a larger budget than the men's team. Unfortunately the team did not play as well as expected, finishing last out of eight teams, and Barwick retired and was replaced by Paul Ackerley the following year.

The decline in world rankings of the New Zealand women's hockey team fortunes reached an all-time low in 1993 when they dropped to a record low of 21st in the world (McFadden, 1997). As a consequence of this decline in international achievements New Zealand were now in the position of having to attend pre-qualifying and qualifying tournaments to gain

entry to the World Cup. Similarly, gaining entry to the prestigious Olympic Games required success in a series of international competitions. Thus the FIH system of international qualifying tournaments meant New Zealand teams had to attend more tournaments than the NZHF had previously been able to afford. Players struggled to get time off work and meet monetary contributions to help fund the travel (H. Clarke, personal communication, August 27, 1997). The NZHF also struggled to obtain the increasing funds they perceived as necessary to develop and support a team in order to achieve high international ranking, a cause not helped by the team's failure to qualify for the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games.

However, team fortunes rose again and by 1997, with Ackerley still at the helm, the New Zealand women's team had reclaimed a top eight position in the world rankings, and won the right to compete in the 1998 FIH world cup in Utrecht Holland, where they finished seventh. The team went on to win a bronze medal in the 1998 Commonwealth Games in Kuala Lumpur, after which Ackerley announced his retirement. In the build up to the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, the NZHF appointed Mr Jan Borren as head coach and Mr Selwyn Maister as assistant coach. In Sydney, the New Zealand women's hockey team gained national exposure as they succeeded in making the medal round and ended with a sixth placing out of ten teams competing.

The appointment of male coaches appeared to be increasingly popular with other international women's teams. An examination of tournament programmes of the International Federation of Women's Hockey Associations and the men's FIH, shows that males were absent from any coaching position of national women's teams prior to amalgamation (IFWHA, 1963) and that immediately the bodies became joined, men assumed the coaching roles in several countries, particularly in those which had been part of the FIH as women's divisions. A significant portrayal of this gendered coaching imbalance is seen in the combined FIH/IFWHA 1983 World Cup programme which records that five only out of the twelve competing countries were coached by a woman. By 1998, at the World Cup in Utrecht Holland, only two, out of twelve women's teams, had a female coach.

Thus the New Zealand women's hockey team began their push towards the 2002 World Cup, with males heading their administrative body, the NZHF, and males heading their coaching staff. Furthermore, the NZHF existed within an environment determined to a

large extent by the Hillary Commission for Sport Fitness and Leisure (equivalent body to the Australian Sports Commission and the British Sports Council), which demands a business approach be used by sports administrations in order to obtain government funding. Finance from the Hillary Commission and the Sports Foundation, as well as money generated within the organisation, or through private sponsorship, enables NZHF to honour its main aims:

We aim to offer the widest possible opportunities for all persons to participate in the game of hockey and to make hockey a readily accessible sport and recreational opportunity for all.

To provide all participants with the opportunity to excel by developing their game to their chosen or actual potential.

To provide a healthy social environment for participants and others associated with the game of hockey (NZHF, 1996, p.1).

The New Zealand Hockey Federation's strategic plan identifies the organisation's "business" and outlines the current situation, the vision for the immediate future, as well as a competitive strategy, which provides both specific and operational objectives for specified time periods. This strategic plan is sanctioned by the elected NZHF Board of Management but is controlled largely by the Executive Director and the National Development Manager who are supported by five paid office staff. As previously noted, gender safeguards were put in place at the time of amalgamation in 1988, to ensure women's voices were heard in the combined administrative body but, in reality, the Board was no longer involved in coal-face administration. New Zealand hockey women, therefore, having taken their initial lead from the English women, subsequently chose a different path for the development of women's hockey, that of male leadership.

This chapter has described the historical background of New Zealand women's hockey, particularly at the elite level. Particular emphasis has been placed on the role of women as coach, in order to highlight changes and highlight gender shifts in this role. The major historical points, arising from this current chapter, have been captured in a timeline outlined in Appendix E. The chapter now concludes with a summary and preliminary set of questions.

2.5 SUMMARY AND REVIEW

The game of hockey, originally a spontaneous and somewhat dangerous game played without rules, was practised in many countries in ancient times. The game was tamed in

Britain during the latter half of the nineteenth century with the development of rules and administrative associations to govern the sport. Hockey spread from England to New Zealand, through the agency of European settlers, where it was adopted with great enthusiasm in both islands.

The early days in women's hockey in New Zealand were marked by a change from disorganised locally based competitions to the formation of regional associations, preceding the formation of a national administrative body in 1908. This evolution reflected the expansion of contemporary sports in the early decades of the twentieth century in its initial moves towards international competition. Throughout the ensuing decades of the twentieth century such competition was to become dominant in world hockey and often be responsible for periodisation of an entire season directed towards major competitions such as the Olympic Games and World Cups.

The amalgamation of women's and men's hockey administrations is only one of many changes that have occurred since the very first international test match against England in 1914. Over the years, New Zealand women's hockey has influenced, and been influenced by, international considerations. New Zealand women's success amongst other national teams has been a source of great pride to local hockey administrators. That a small country, with a population of just over three million people, could finance teams on world tours and host an international conference in Auckland suggests the NZWHA was a successful women's organisation. However, with the increasing need to finance artificial surfaces and increase the number of international contacts, coupled with the demand to exist within a competitive economic environment, the decision to amalgamate with the men's organisation was undertaken.

The New Zealand Hockey Federation evolved through a common concern by men and women involved in administering hockey in New Zealand. The blueprint for amalgamation had once again been provided by international role models. The contrast which should be noted, however, was that the model for the development of the game in New Zealand came from England but the plan for amalgamation came from the co-gendered, but male dominated, European based FIH. A second contrast of note is that the development of the game spread upwards from small institutions to larger ones (club, provincial, national, international) while the amalgamation percolated through the system

in the opposite direction: international amalgamation occurred first, followed by national, provincial and club.

Historical changes in the gender proportions of people participating as players, coaches, administrators and umpires have changed from the beginning of the century with a remarkable explosion of those involved in hockey in the 1970s with the escalation of junior and secondary schoolgirl hockey. In the 1980s and 1990s numbers of female players, coaches, administrators and umpires have fallen. It has become apparent that women's leadership of hockey has changed from being partners with men at the outset, to being women-dominated in the middle of the twentieth century, and back to being partners at the beginning of the new millennium.

In terms of developing the research question, the historical review has demonstrated that women have coached at the elite level in New Zealand, ever since the game began here in the late 1880s. Women coached at provincial level in the 1900s, and internationally from 1935, with the world rankings indicative of women's success. The role of the team leader, initially referred to as the team manager, did include coaching duties, and the captain also played a part in coaching the team. Into the late 1980s, with a changing hockey environment, and amalgamated administration, men became increasingly likely to take on elite coaching roles in the women's side of the game.

The consequences of this male coach takeover highlights the importance of the research question (see pp. 7-8) and, in particular, the importance of finding out what elite coaches are expected to do. Other questions may be:

What aspects of the coach roles and qualities are the most important?

Are any aspects of the role too difficult for women to undertake?

If gendered coaching is the coaching of one gender by a person of another gender, what are the equity issues and considerations for coach education?

Are there any special considerations for coaching women that demand consideration by coaches, whether male or female?

CHAPTER THREE

CONSIDERATIONS OF ELITE GENDERED COACHING

This chapter builds upon the overview of the development of women's hockey, in an examination of the literature on elite coaching roles and qualities, the decline of women in coaching and, more specifically, the literature on coaching equity and strategies to increase the retention and recruitment of women in coaching. This review concludes with special considerations on coaching elite female athletes from sport coaching literature fields such as physiology, psychology, pedagogy and health.

- 3.1 Introduction
- 3.2 Coaching at the elite team level
 - 3.2.1 Elite coach roles
 - 3.2.2 Elite coach qualities
 - 3.2.3 Elite coaching: The decline of women
- 3.3 Gendered coaching: Equity and opportunity
 - 3.3.1 Equity issues
 - 3.3.2 Coach education
 - 3.3.3 Support structures
- 3.4 Special considerations in coaching women
 - 3.4.1 Physiological issues
 - 3.4.2 Psychological issues
 - 3.4.3 Pedagogical issues
 - 3.4.4 Health issues
- 3.5 Summary and review

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter forms the second part of the literature review and examines the literature from various domains with relevance to the coaching of women's hockey at the elite level. The first part of the literature review, Chapter Two, outlined the development of women's field hockey in New Zealand and highlighted the administrative shifts within New Zealand hockey in the late 1980s, particularly the move to amalgamation of the separate women's and men's organisations, and the consequent appointment of male coaches to elite women's hockey teams in New Zealand. The literature noted that this pattern was also reflected in other countries' international women's hockey teams. Given the historical background, this present chapter examines the coaching literature consequential to the research questions noted at the conclusion of Chapter Two.

This chapter begins with a broad examination of literature on the roles and qualities of elite coaches. The variety of roles an elite coach fulfills, and the emphasis placed on each, provides a source of debate among researchers. If coaching is an influence role, as

described by Lyle (1993, p. 15), “whereby individuals intend to improve the performances of an athlete or team and to reduce unpredictability of performance towards an identified target competition”, the question then arises – is this achieved by coaches at the elite level? Alternatively, what do coaches actually do to help athletes improve their performance? The resultant consideration of literature focuses on key coach roles and qualities as perceived in New Zealand and overseas literature, particularly that relevant to elite women’s hockey.

Overall, the literature suggests that coach roles and qualities are closely linked, and sometimes difficult to separate conceptually. Over 150 coaching articles, texts and dissertations are examined in the present chapter and the key roles and qualities of an elite coach are presented. Significant among the perceived roles of an elite coach are those of leader, selector, strategist, communicator, and team developer (Cross & Lyle, 1999; Martens, 1997; Pyke, 1997; Woodman, 1993). Key elite coaching qualities or attributes include personal philosophy, vision, goals, leadership and communication skills (Chelladurai, 1990; McConnell, 1996). Other important coach qualities necessary to successfully compete in elite team sport are noted, such as the importance of teaching skills (Salmela, 1994a).

Gender rarely enters the discussion of elite coach role and qualities and this review notes the lack of studies comparing female and male coach role and qualities. In terms of the present study, this lack of literature underscores such considerations as: Can female coaches carry out the key elite coaching roles? Do female coaches have the qualities necessary to coach at the elite level?

This chapter examines the coaching literature in terms of gender. The literature on elite women’s coaching in New Zealand is significantly limited. Accordingly, the literature from countries outside New Zealand is noted as that may have relevance or parallels to the New Zealand setting. Of immediate significance was the discovery that the decline of women in coaching was a phenomenon noted in many developed nations, including Canada, England, the United States of America and Australia. Significant considerations from that body of literature also include critical issues that may, according to Lay (1993a, 1993b, 1993c), influence the coaching of women’s teams, especially in such aspects as equity, coach education, networking and mentoring.

Given that the gendered coaching literature raises questions in regard to equitable job recruitment and retention of females in coaching, the final section of this chapter turns to an examination of special considerations for coaching elite women and the relevance of gender in this setting. Examination of the literature was confined to general domains of athlete development in order to ascertain whether female and male athletes should be treated differently in regard to physiological, psychological, pedagogical, and health domains. This section presents evidence from research that suggests women may benefit from differential treatment in certain areas, an argument that has ramifications for administrators involved with selection, recruitment and education of coaches for elite women's teams.

3.2 COACHING AT THE ELITE TEAM LEVEL

In considering the coaching literature, the definition of elite noted in Chapter One underpins the selection of relevant material for consideration within the context of this present study, namely that an elite team is one which competes "at the highest internal national level of competition, (such as state, provincial or county), or is engaged in international competition" (McConnell, 1996, p. 34).

This definition appears to sit well with other coaching research groups interested in elite level sport. Schinke, Bloom and Salmela (1995), for example, similarly refer to expert coaches as those coaching at national or international level. This current study refers to coaches working with an elite team, as defined above, as elite coaches. Inherent in this elite coach title is the assumption, which may or may not be true, that elite hockey coaches should possess the appropriate skills, competencies and highly developed cognitive schemata (knowledge structures) consistent with working with athletes at this level. The link between expertise and knowledge structures, and the idea that being an expert implies possession of a higher level of conceptual thought, has been shown to occur in educational research by Dodds (1994) and Berliner (1988) and is an assumption accepted for the purposes of this current study.

High quality coaching has been described as an art and a science (Woodman, 1993) with the main intention of helping athletes achieve their best possible level of performance by preparing them for competition. Lyle (1993, p. 15) describes coaching as a positive

influence role which is “the recognised practice in sport whereby individuals intend to improve the performances of an athlete or team and to reduce the unpredictability of performance toward an identified target competition”. The current writer’s definition, of coaching, is *a coach-athlete relationship in which the main intention is to move the athlete beyond any intrinsic and extrinsic limitations that they may have on their level of performance in a competitive or training environment*. The spirit of this definition is captured succinctly by a renowned hockey coach, as he describes the changes attributable to the best type of coaching as “changing potential into reality” (Whitaker, 1990, p. 6).

Such considerations of coaching guide the researcher towards finding the answer to a further question: what is a coach? Tchesnokov (1989) addresses this issue and states that “the coach is a professional head of a team who is responsible for the preparation and performance of single players or of a team as a whole. A coach is a person who is responsible for the result” (p. 57). If the coach is indeed responsible for the result, what are the roles of a coach and what individual qualities does a coach at the elite level need to fulfill this task?

Worthington (1984) suggested the coaching process should be conceptualised as a cyclical interrelationship between knowing, organising, coaching and observing. Knowing, according to Worthington (1984) refers to knowledge of the athletes’ skill level, including strengths and weaknesses, motivations, and desires. His description of organising is based largely on everyday coach activities such as planning practices, preparing for games; team meetings and other team based functions. Coaching is described as teaching the correct skills and techniques, such as goal setting, and includes the provision of necessary feedback. The final part of Worthington’s coaching process involves watching, analysing and using the observations as a guide to one’s comments or interactions.

Typical of a systems approach, Fairs (1987) provides a more complex view of the coaching process. This five-step model is shown in Figure 3.1 below and diagrammatically represents interactions between the initial phases of observation (step one), followed by the internal thinking process of diagnosis and assessment (step two) towards goal setting and plans of actions (step three). Fairs provides two further steps. Step four is the implementation of the plan, which would involve athlete cooperation, and step five is an evaluation of how the plan worked, and a phase of reassessment which leads back into one or both of the beginning observation and/or diagnosis steps.

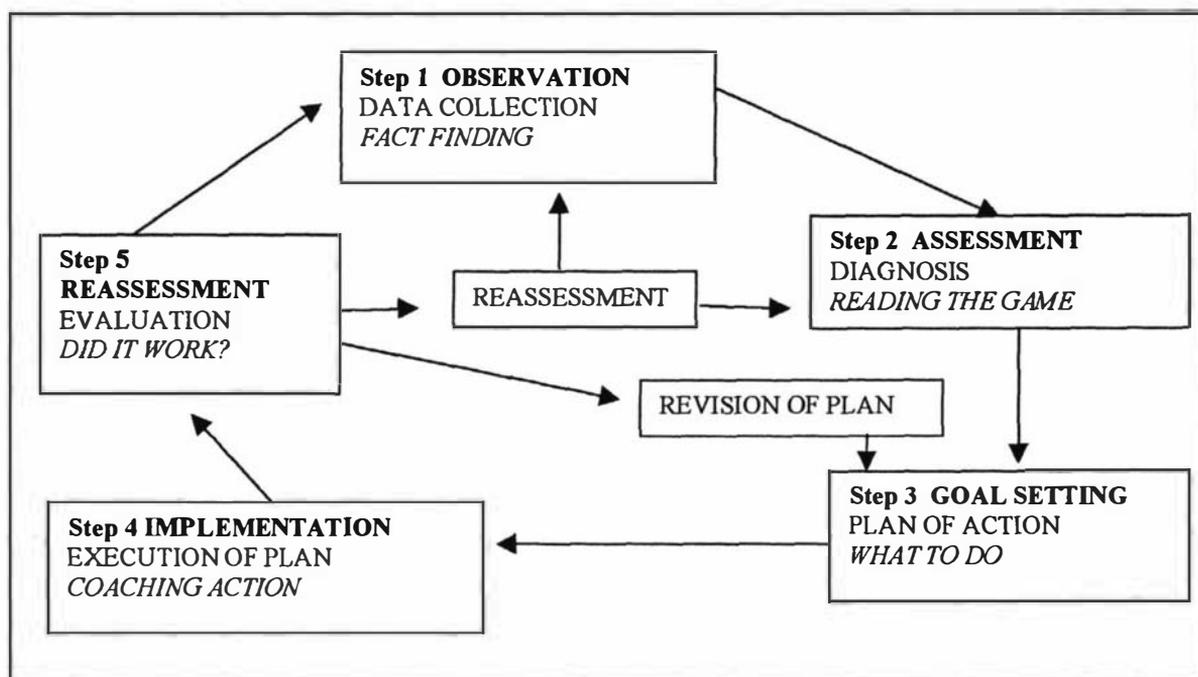


Figure 3.1. Five-step model of the coaching process (Fairs, 1987, p. 19).

The key element of Fairs' (1987) model appears to be that reassessment and evaluation are critical factors leading to coach intervention and change within the coaching process. Clearly, the coach is a key element in that process. Fairs' (1987) action-orientated diagrammatic model does not, however, take into consideration interpersonal roles which have been shown to be significant (see Anshell, 1990; Smith & Smoll, 1990). Furthermore, Fairs' (1987) model appears to ignore personal characteristics of either athlete or coach, and does not include a consideration of organisational inputs and/or outputs.

Côté, Salmela, Trudel, Baria and Russell (1995) have made a significant contribution to the literary debate on coaching process by conceptualising a model of coaching demands and responsibilities. Their work, the result of interviews with expert coaches in gymnastics, culminated in the presentation of the Dynamic Model of Coaching (DMC), shown below in Figure 3.2. Central to the DMC are the three key components of competition, organisation and training. Other aspects deemed worthy of inclusion in the model were athlete characteristics, coach characteristics and context.

Application of such a model for the sport of elite women's hockey may be limited by the fact that the DMC model drew primarily from coaches in gymnastics, a non-team sport, and triangulation between coach and athlete perceptions of role and qualities was not

included, such as may have been done by interviewing the athletes. Furthermore, Lyle (1999b) critiques the DMC on the grounds that a complete understanding of the model is not clear, due in part to the authors' failure to explain the relationship between the various constructs.

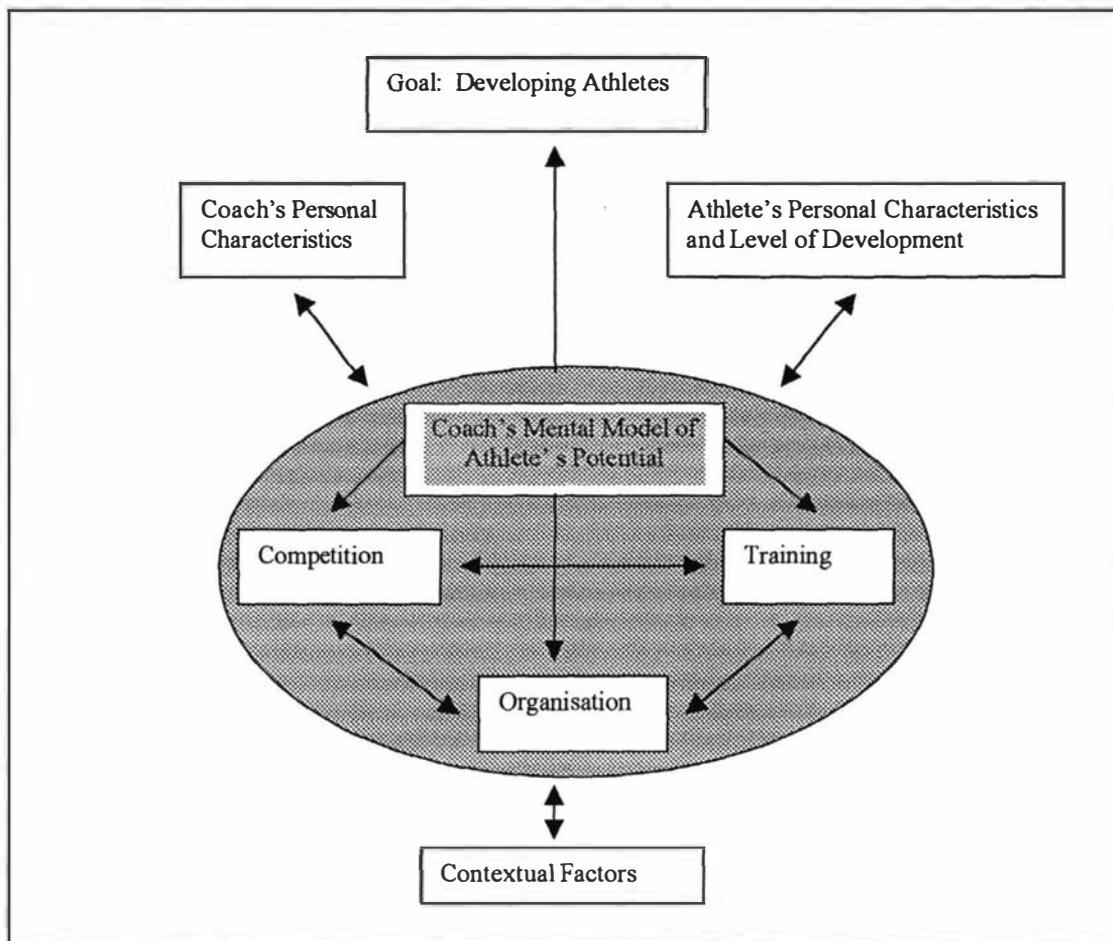


Figure 3.2. The dynamic model of coaching (Côté, Salmela, Trudel, Baria & Russell 1995, p. 10).

Lyle's (1999b) complex coaching process model is based on a set of building blocks or starter concepts.

These are: an information base, knowledge and skills of the coach, athletes' capabilities, performance analysis, regulatory mechanisms, systematic progression, operational performance analysis, regulatory mechanisms, systematic progression, operationalisation (programme management, practice management, competition management), goal setting, planning, a preparation programme, a competition programme, and individualisation (Lyle, 1999b, p. 20).

Notable differences between earlier models and Lyle's, are the level of detail with which his model is explained and the emphasis given to interpersonal interactions including "personal philosophies, styles, leadership orientations, characteristics and motivations etc"

(1999b, p. 20), as well as the cultural, including ethical and moral, dimensions which may have important ramifications for this current study. Furthermore, the model is based on Lyle's combination of academic expertise and practical elite level coaching knowledge and thus represents an insider's view of the elite coaching experience.

Few authors have attempted such global models of coaching processes, roles, and qualities possibly because of the difficulty posed by the complicating dimensions of societal context, politics, culture, gender, and organisational differences that may vary hugely from one context to another, making single domain studies more attractive. McConnell's (1996) wide-ranging and in-depth study of elite New Zealand rugby coaching and captaincy is the notable exception. Other researchers have concentrated on one domain of the coaching process, for example, Kidman's (1994) doctoral research on the process of changing coaching behaviours through self-directed coaching feedback.

Other examples of coaching process factors that have been discussed in the literature are: leadership (Chelladurai, 1984, 1990, 1993; McConnell, 1996, 1999); coach-athlete relationships (Smith & Smoll, 1990); team cohesion (Chu & Hadfield, 1998; Westre & Weiss, 1991; Widmeyer & Williams, 1991); and feedback and assessment of coaches (Barber & Eckrich, 1998; Kidman & Hanrahan, 1997).

In light of this brief introduction, and considering the literature on coaching from such prominent writers on coaching as Woodman, Dick, Pyke, and Salmela and associates, the process of coaching is reconfirmed as that whereby a coach-athlete relationship exists for the main intention of moving the athlete beyond intrinsic and extrinsic limitations that they may have on their level of performance in a competitive or training environment. Significant within this definition as Côté, Salmela, Trudel, Baria & Russell (1995), McConnell (1996), and Lyle (1999b) indicate, are the personal, interpersonal and technical and cognitive skills required to operate at the elite level. This chapter now moves to consider the roles of the elite coach and the coaching qualities required to fulfill such roles.

3.2.1 Elite coach roles

Given the definition of coaching, and the overview of the coaching process noted above, the question arises in terms of elite women's hockey: What does a coach actually do and what are the qualities required for such actions to be successful? Some debate exists in the literature about the classification of coaching into roles and qualities. Indeed it would

appear that confusion might exist in the minds of elite coaches about what constitutes a role and a quality. Iversen (1997) carried out a survey with elite coaches in the North Harbour region of New Zealand and found the respondents “could not or did not clearly distinguish between the role of the coach and the qualities of a coach” (p. 58).

For the purpose of this discussion, a role is defined as a set of related behaviours (Inkson & Kolb, 1998) practised by the coach to enable her/him to fulfill the job, task or process of being an elite coach (e.g. role model). A quality is seen as an attribute, personal characteristic, skill, competency, or way of interacting with resources including people, that a coach utilises to influence the athletes towards increased performance (e.g. uses appropriate language). In this way the distinction can be made, for example, between the role of a coach as leader and the possession, by the coach, of necessary leadership qualities.

The role of the coach, as depicted in Figure 3.3, has been considered widely in coaching texts under such headings as coaching duties and tasks, how to coach, how the coach behaves, the coach as a person, the coach as a professional, obligations and responsibilities of the coach, coaching objectives, coaches’ code of conduct, and coaches’ main functions (Gummerson, 1992; Jones, Wells, Peters, & Johnson, 1993; Martens, 1997; Vogel & DeJong, 1991).

Motivator	Personnel manager
Role model	Teacher
Disciplinarian	Prudent person
Psychologist	Recruiter/marketer
Friend/counselor	Trainer
Life management advisor	Public relations
Parent substitute	Fund raiser
Leader	Politician
Follower	Strategist and tactician
Knowledge resource	Administrator
Decision maker	Facilitator

Figure 3. 3. Roles of the coach (After: Gummerson, 1992; Jones, Wells, Peters, & Johnson, 1993; Martens, 1997; Seefeldt & Brown, 1991).

Discussion of the expected role of a hockey coach is provided by hockey expert (Glencross, 1984, p. 11) who describes the role of the coach as that of “the co-ordinator of resources within the team (skills, tactics, fitness and motivation, etc.) as well as the co-ordinator of ‘extra’ team resources (selectors, sponsors, club administrators, parents, etc.)”.

Glencross (1984), Wein (1973, 1981) and Walter (1989) all highlight the conceptually problematical conjoint nature of coach role and qualities, as discussed earlier in this chapter. For example, Glencross (1984) makes the connection between the coach role of coordinator and the coach qualities such as possession of knowledge (relevant to the coaching level) and high level of communication skills required for utilisation of this knowledge. However, careful examination of such coaching sources provides a wide range of possible roles for a coach to fulfil, including those listed above in Figure 3.3. In general, these texts do not differentiate between the role of an elite coach and those at other levels.

Woodman (1993), however, does note the role of the elite coach, in contrast to that of the junior coach whose role is based around opportunities to participate, in practice and competition, and to sequentially develop skills and have fun. The role of the elite coach is contrasted with the coach of juniors through its level of complexity because the elite coach is responsible for developing athletes into successful international performers. He states:

This may require that the coach work with assistants and coordinate other professionals from specialised areas. The tasks at this level are much more specialised and include conducting integrated and periodised training programmes, talent identification and long-term development programmes, organising training camps, going on road trips, using sports science and information technology and services, demonstrating leadership and personnel management skills, and dealing with the media (Woodman, 1993, p. 3).

The elite coach role, as outlined by Woodman (1993) in the preceding paragraph, is reflected in an examination of the contents of certain sport specific coach training manuals (Tchesnokov, 1989). Figure 3.4 illustrates the importance placed on elite roles such as coordination of input from outside specialists, competition preparation, performance analysis, planning, and selection. Many other sport specific coaching manuals do not fully discuss the roles of the coach, as such, but focus on particular aspects of the game that need attention by coaches of the elite level. For example, the New Zealand Rugby Football Union level three coaching manual (n.d.) includes a section called "role of the coach" which outlines the importance of the coach as a social role model who must set "off-field" examples such as good appearance, language, punctuality and behaviour (p.5).

Indeed it is this type of social influence of the elite coach on the behaviour of the team and their performance, that is the focus of attention for many sports researchers (Anshel, 1990; Horne, 1992; Lyle, 1993; McConnell, 1996).

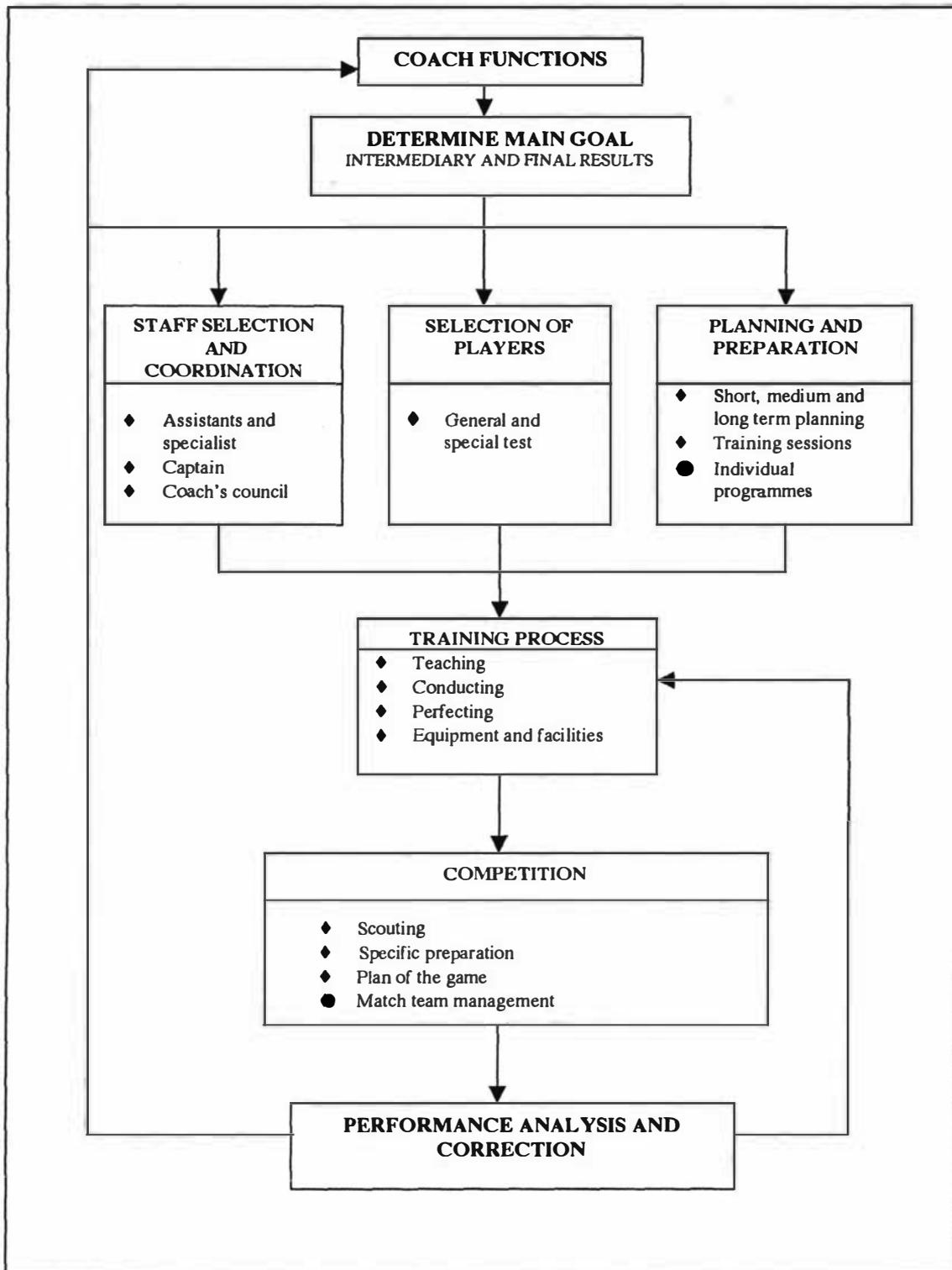


Figure 3.4. The role of the coach (Tchesnokov, 1989, p. 60).

One experienced elite coach, Frank Dick (1997), debates the traditional coach role as depicted in most training manuals, and recommends an alternative view of the coach as synthesiser for a range of inputs coming to the athlete via a multitude of specialist personnel, including psychologists, sport scientists and other significant contributors. Dick (1997) likens the coach-as-synthesiser to a “transformer which converts the level of

power available at a UK power socket to something that's usable by a USA appliance" (p.9).

This "transformer" view of the coach has not been adopted by elite New Zealand sports organisations, which remain committed to more traditional models in terms of coach roles, as was illustrated by an examination of national coaching appointment job descriptions. For example, New Zealand Cricket outlined the key responsibilities of the national coach in a job description (New Zealand Cricket, 1997) and noted the need for the coach to have overall responsibility for all cricket outcomes and creation of a "high performance" environment. General categories of responsibilities were: selection of players; development of team philosophy; strategy and tactical approaches; practice planning and implementation; creation of player development programmes; media comment on all cricket matters; training; and pre-tour camp organisation and budget. The role of a liaison person was an important element in the job list of responsibilities. The New Zealand coach was expected to liaise with members of the selection panel, support staff, technical advisor, player co-ordinator, and NZC administration in regard to both the playing programme, player contracts and performance bonus.

The New Zealand Hockey Federation's (1997c) job description reflected similar responsibilities but differed in two main respects. Firstly, a large part of NZHF's job description was dedicated to clarifying the communication responsibilities of the coach. The coach was given the responsibility for personal contact with the players, in the form of information, assessment and feedback, in respect to training programmes, fitness levels, health and general playing form. Such coach responsibility for personal contact was extended to cover communication (prior to media release) with previous national players who were not chosen for the current side, as well as the sports science co-ordinator and medical personnel. The national coach was also required to avoid criticism of NZHF policy in the media.

The second major aspect of difference between the two sports job descriptions was the NZHF's failure to clearly identify linkages between coach responsibilities and the team results. This job description, therefore, is in contrast to the clear connection between results and ongoing appointments that was spelled out quite specifically for one national team coach who was told she must win 75% of international games in order to retain her position (personal communication, National Coach, March 18, 1997). NZHF has clearly

chosen not to make the New Zealand coach responsible for hockey outcomes. Similarly, other sports, such as rugby union, often fail to produce job descriptions for coaches, even those who are in paid career roles at the elite level. Kane (1997) reports that “only half of the provincial coaches have written job descriptions” (p. 97) but does concede that, despite this, the majority of coaches had a clear understanding of what their main duties entailed.

Leadership roles

Neither NZC or NZHF mention the role of leader and/or the necessity that the intending coach possesses leadership qualities in their job descriptions, despite the strong association in the coaching literature between the role of the elite coach with that of leadership roles and qualities (Cross, 1999; McConnell, 1996).

The research of Chelladurai and associates (see, for example, Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978, 1980) has been influential in developing a Leadership Scale for Sports and in theorising the coach’s leadership role as a behavioural process of influence with high interpersonal interaction. In Chelladurai’s model “group performance and member satisfaction are considered to be a function of the congruence among three states of leader behaviour – required, preferred and actual. The antecedents of these three states of leader behaviours are the characteristics of the situation, the leader and the members” (Chelladurai, 1990, p. 329).

Chelladurai and Carron (1983) used the LSS to test athletes’ preferences for specific coaching behaviours in a study involving 262 high school and university basketball players. Their findings suggested that university basketball players differed from their younger counterparts in that they preferred coaches who were more socially supportive, more structured and provided a rigorous training approach. Similarly, and of importance for the present study on gendered coaching, Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) used the LSS to examine preferred leader behaviour and reported female education students preferred more social support and democratic behaviour compared to the males who preferred an autocratic leader. However, the applicability of such leadership scales to the elite setting of the current study remains unclear.

Support for Chelladurai’s model within team sports comes from Kuklinski (1990), Hardy and Jones (1994) and McConnell (1996). Indeed, McConnell’s study emphasises the role of the coach as leader in elite level sport and suggests coach and captain role and qualities

are key contributors to an overall coaching process involving the team, game plan and match, set within the overall administrative and social environment.

Adding to the body of knowledge on coach leadership research, are Smith, Smoll and associates who have provided findings over a period spanning two decades (Smoll and Smith, 1989; Smith, Smoll & Hunt, 1977; Smith, Smoll & Curtis, 1978). Using a combination of direct observation and written testing this group attempted to code coach's behaviours using the Coaching Behaviour Assessment System (CBAS). Key findings of research carried out in this group include: the desirability of reinforcement, encouragement and technical instruction; trained coaches were perceived to have communicated more effectively and as such made positive contributions to athlete self-esteem; and children who were low in self-esteem responded more favourably to coaches who used reinforcing and encouraging behaviours (Smith and Smoll, 1990; Smith, Smoll and Curtis, 1978). In terms of the present research project, however, it is noted that the majority of this work has been carried out on Little League baseball teams. Its significance for elite hockey coaching may well lie in its explication of a possible mode of coach observation and assessment. Also, the findings provide coach behaviours for a researcher to consider at a higher level.

Leadership research has also been specifically designed to focus on the way leadership is enacted within the realms (competition, training and social environs) of the coaching domain. Research groups have explored linkages between the role of leader and coaching styles (Tutko & Richards, 1971), leadership styles (Horn, 1992; Pratt & Eitzen, 1989a, 1989b; see also Cross, 1999) and decision-making styles (Chelladurai, 1993; Chelladurai & Arnott, 1985; Gordon, 1988).

Examinations of feminine and masculine types of leadership, such as those carried out by business academics, have not been carried out in sports teams. Critical discussions of feminine leadership by such writers as Kanter (1977), Rosener (1997), Grint (1997) and Sinclair (1998) offer gender sensitive interpretations of women in leadership. Billing and Alvesson (2000) highlight the statistical fact that "women are greatly outnumbered by men in positions of formal power and authority, high status and high incomes" (p. 145) but believe the numbers are less critical than the link between gender and the various relational dimensions of power and authority. For example, in the case of a male coach leading a woman's team, he has power over the players, can be empowered by the players, and can

also share power with the players. Such interpretations of feminine leadership have not been a topic of study in women's team sport although a gender-linked preference for different leadership styles has been examined to a limited extent (see for example Le Drew & Zimmerman, 1994).

Empirical evidence from the literature (Chelladurai & Arnot, 1985; Gordon, 1988; Quek, 1995) would suggest that authoritarian styles of decision-making are preferred by some athletes. However, more research is needed that draws upon "real-life situations" and a wide range of sports (Chelladurai, 1993, p. 667). This cautionary note was echoed by Horn (1992) who stated that "considerably more research will be needed before a clear picture of the impact of particular leadership styles on athletes can be obtained" (p. 191) and suggested observational measures may well provide a valuable contribution to such research within the domain of coaching.

Horn's call for more in-depth, systematic and longitudinal observations of coaches in action is reinforced in the literature of such writers as Pratt and Eitzen (1989a) but has been largely ignored by sports researchers, particularly at the elite level. The notable exception is McConnell's (1996) doctoral thesis which provides an in-depth, multidimensional analysis of the roles and qualities of elite coaches and captains of the New Zealand All Black rugby football team. McConnell identified 25 main coach roles and these are discussed later in this section. McConnell's thesis also outlines a strong rationale for a participant mode of research to ascertain the coach's roles and to determine the qualities, implicit and explicit, in such roles in action.

McConnell's (1996) study pre-empted the sudden 1995-1996 move by the New Zealand Rugby Union toward employing professional coaches. His study therefore, does not encompass an examination of All Black coach role change in regard to the professional era. Coaching, as a paid profession, is not an area for detailed consideration in this literature review but it is a phenomenon that may influence perceptions of the way coaching is defined and enacted (Marcotte and Larouche, 1991) and may be especially important when the changes, from voluntary to paid coaching, take place over a short period of time, as in the case of the New Zealand Rugby Football Union. Kane (1997), however, has undertaken a recent study of elite rugby coaches and his findings note the increasing demands on professional coaches to become more formally qualified, to utilise sports scientists, and to develop managerial skills.

Leadership is clearly not the only important role of the elite coach. Indeed, recent research into the Auckland Rugby Union by McConnell C.D. (1996) confirms the “holistic” approach to elite coaching positions by sports administrators in the late 1990s. One of McConnell’s respondents, New Zealand sports commentator Murray Deaker, stated: “In professional sport, only one thing counts – winning. Everything else is secondary. However, because we are such a small country, the team coach has had to be all things to all men” (McConnell, C.D., 1996, p. 256). Such literature indicates that the elite coach’s role may be all encompassing and, within that broad framework, must include the role of people management as expounded by 1995-1999 All Black coach John Hart (Thomas, 1993).

Other roles

An examination of coach management literature lends support to the concept of an elite coach as a manager of people. Mintzberg’s (1980) seminal work on managerial roles suggests role behaviours can be classified into three groups; interpersonal, informational and decisional, with each group containing more defined role categories. Mintzberg (1980) explained interpersonal roles as figurehead, leader, and liaison, while interpersonal roles included monitor, disseminator and spokesperson, and decisional roles included those of entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator. Support for such realities of managerial roles within elite coaching comes from the 1999 All Black coach John Hart (Hart, 1997; Thomas, 1993) and former All Black coach Laurie Mains (Howitt and McConnell, 1996). Despite such sources, Chu and Hadfield (1997) note the disparity between the relatively large amount of research being conducted into what makes an effective manager/leader in the business environment, compared with the limited amount of research aimed specifically at what makes a more effective coach.

The role of the coach as educator has been addressed by Bloom (1982, 1985) who examined talent development of world class performers in science, arts and sport environments. Bloom’s research supported the premise that the coach, teacher or mentor was a significant factor in the development of talented individuals in all spheres. Csikszentmihalyi, Rathunde and Whalen’s (1993) longitudinal study on the development of 200 talented high school students over four years in mathematics, science, music, athletics, and art confirmed the importance of an appropriately qualified and experienced master teacher or coach to the development of individuals. Replication of such a study

with the focus on elite sport teams (as opposed to individuals) would provide further clarification as to the importance of the coach as teacher.

The ability to teach strategy and technical skills to athletes is often described as the “main role” of the coach (Cardinal, 1989). Certainly, in highly technical sports such as hockey, great emphasis is placed on the role of the coach as a teacher of strategy and skill (Glencross, 1984; Wein, 1973, 1981). The importance of such teaching skills is expressed by Salmela (1994a, p. 44) who interviewed expert coaches and found that they were “master teachers who have this ability to take complex skills and teach them in a unique and personalised manner to athletes of different skills levels”. One of the coaches Salmela interviewed believed teaching skills were so important that they could share information with aspiring rivals with confidence that the other coaches could not teach the information satisfactorily: “It’s nice to have the information, but that isn’t the secret, it’s how to explain it, what drills to use, what teaching cues you use with the athletes” (1994a, p. 45).

Implicit in the assumption that the elite coach is a teacher is the desirability for the coach to possess a high level of communication skills and appropriate knowledge in all areas pertaining to the coaching realm (Bloom, Schinke & Salmela, 1997). For example, the elite coach needs to have a high level of expertise on all matters tactical, technical and strategic. It may be assumed, without justification, that prior experience playing at an elite level provides such expertise. Kane (1997) illustrates this assumption as he describes the elite coaches surveyed as having backgrounds

typified by a long and distinguished playing record, followed by a procession of coaching appointments generally starting at high school or other lower grades and graduating through senior club and sub union and provincial colts teams to the senior provincial A team. The whole process on average spans periods in excess of five years. All rely on this extensive experience as the training ground for their coaching expertise (p. 87).

Being an elite player or athlete in the past does not appear to be enough to make an elite coach. Personal experience of twenty years of elite New Zealand hockey indicates, to this researcher, that years of experience and possession of knowledge does not always equate to transfer of knowledge or positive athlete learning. Groppe, Loehr, Melville and Quinn (1989) support the opinion that great players do not always make great coaches but concede that the understanding that comes with participation in high level competition may be valuable.

Evidence gleaned from elite coach interviews presents another scenario whereby elite coaches do not always come from populations of former elite players. Salmela (1994b) for example, found that few elite coaches in his study had made national or Olympic teams and suggests that “not being ‘natural’ athletic talents may have enabled them to develop the personal insights and strategies to become excellent teachers” (p. 9). Salmela’s research illustrates the perceived importance of the teaching role to the elite coach and also indicates the importance of in-depth interviews as a methodology for discovering perceptions of such role realities.

Two research studies from within New Zealand attempt to uncover the realities of coach roles in sport. The first, Kane’s (1997) study of elite professional rugby coaches, saw those coaches select their five main duties from a list of 20 possible duties, such as planning practices, conducting practices, strategic development, match day direction and planning player conditioning and development. Although Kane did not make the distinction, it is this researcher’s belief that three of these roles (planning player conditioning and development, planning practices and strategic development) can be categorised into higher order roles. The other two (match day direction and conducting practices) fit into a more operational level which may be thought of as day-to-day tasks. Further research in this area may be beneficial in order to establish a hierarchical level of coaching roles, which may be related to processes such as coach recruitment, retention, education and selection.

McConnell’s research, based on perceived realities of elite team leadership, culminated in the production of a comprehensive list of roles for an elite coach in New Zealand rugby football (see Figure 3.5 below) and concluded that:

Personal philosophies and vision lay at the heart of the team leader roles. The coach has primary roles of selector and team strategist. Allied to these are personal qualities and the ability to develop a unified team commitment to a clear game plan. The game plan emerged as a critical finding, with an importance greater than that noted in the literature (1996, p. 407).

Figure 3.5 illustrates the enormity of role possibilities with which coaches may choose to engage. The importance of each has been signified by the hierarchically numbered order. Noteworthy is the large number of roles that require interaction between the coach and others such as the captain, team members, manager, organisational personnel and the public. This suggests personal coach qualities (as discussed in the next section), are critical aspects of the ability of an elite coach to fulfill these roles.

COACH ROLES

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Selector of team and captain | 13. Creator of environment |
| 2. Developer of team strategy | 14. Coordinator |
| 3. Team developer | 15. Motivator |
| 4. Link with assistant coach | 16. Public relations |
| 5. Link with captain | 17. Analyst |
| 6. Utiliser of strengths | 18. Social agent |
| 7. Relationship builder | 19. Respector of tradition |
| 8. Controller of training | 20. Organiser |
| 9. Developer of players | 21. Player perceptions |
| 10. Link with team management | 22. Role change |
| 11. Knowledge informant | 23. Role impact on private life |
| 12. Technical guide | 24. Role impact of rugby life history |

Figure 3.5. Coach roles (McConnell, 1996, p. 353).

Critics of McConnell's list of roles may question the inclusion of "role impacts" in the list of coach roles and it is not consistently clear from his thesis what the coach's actions were in this regard. Additionally, it would appear from McConnell's (1996) representation of coach roles that more research on how a coach might achieve the unified athletes' commitment to a game plan, in team domains other than rugby, might be useful given that the game plan was seen in his research as being an important category of elite coaching.

McConnell's study was carried out with elite male sports teams but, whilst valuable in that it is the only participant observation study of elite coaches, it does not provide first hand evidence from within a women's sport. Consequently, the roles his research delineated are noted, and, whilst apparently being supported by the literature and anecdotal evidence, are not substantiated in terms of female sport. Further research into the impact of gender on coaching roles and processes, the hierarchical status of such roles and resultant role effectiveness, should be carried out.

The literature reveals a paucity of studies examining elite team coaching in the depth and longitudinal perspectives such as attempted by McConnell (1996), who states that "what research exists has focussed primarily upon non-team sport with data drawn from surveys, interviews and observations" (p.46). There are no other studies that include such ethnographic evidence as to what the elite coach actually does and, consequently, what coach roles and qualities are revealed in the full range of environments such as training,

competition, team social settings, team talks and individual-coach meetings. Thus, the literature does not provide first hand insights into the role of elite coaching of women's sport.

3.2.2 Elite coach qualities

This chapter now moves from the discussion of elite coach roles to a consideration of the qualities required for an elite coach. It seems appropriate, given the dimensions of the present study, to confine the discussion to qualities whose possession by the coach is deemed to be desirable at the elite level because they make the coach successful and/or effective. However, debate exists in the literature, about what constitutes effective or successful coaching. Kidman and Hanrahan (1997) argue that success, as a favourable outcome, is dependent on what coaches attempt to achieve or want to happen, therefore, effectiveness should be considered as an ongoing process subject to change and redefinition according to each situation and how the coach enhances their own coaching skills. In essence "it is important to judge the effectiveness of that process rather than any particular outcome" (Kidman & Hanrahan, 1997, p. 14).

Consideration of the qualities of effective or successful coaches is rare within the sport of hockey. The writings of past coaches highlight some factors to consider. Possession of sport-specific knowledge (including tactical, technical, psychological and physiological); clear communication skills; ability to critically analyse games and performances; and the ability to cope with defeat and retain a will to win were deemed to be essential qualities by many past coaches (see for example, Walter, 1989; Wein, 1981; Whitaker, 1990).

A former New Zealand men's hockey coach described his view on what an effective male coach needed:

He must have a knowledge of all those skills which are the base of the game of hockey; the ability to impart that knowledge in clear, concrete and unambiguous terms; the imagination to appreciate how skilful this game can be; the courage of his convictions in order to provide leadership and to make decisions; the ability to analyse in detail the reality of every relevant match and to retain the respect and affection of his players. He must have a willingness to listen to his players and to encourage them to express their opinions; a capacity for rebuilding and revitalising after a defeat; a sense of humour; a will to win; a philosophical appreciation of Rudyard Kipling's twin imposters, triumph and disaster, and a ruthless antagonism to all technical faults (Walter, 1989, p. 192).

David Whitaker, coach of Great Britain's men's hockey 1988 Olympic Games gold medal winning team, identified knowledge and communication as "the key attributes common to the best coaches and which work together to change potential into reality" (1990, p. 6). Communication is also viewed as a key coaching quality by Glencross (1984), Hastie and Hanrahan (1993), Madden (1994) and Kidman and Hanrahan (1997).

Horst Wein, an internationally recognised hockey coach, is critical of the level of psychological knowledge of some coaches and believes that many coaches "have correct attitudes to individual players without knowing it, but some stand out only because of their poor, unsympathetic understanding of individuals, giving non-specific instruction to both groups and individuals" (1981, pp. 12-13). This type of coach cannot be described as effective, although depending on the team members and situation, personal experience suggests that the outcome may well be successful.

Anshel (1990) makes the distinction between a successful coach, described as a winning coach who gets others to achieve what the coach wants, and an effective coach, described as one who can generate athlete performance and is largely driven by athlete needs and goals. Gross (1990) considers successful coaches as those who are part of a winning team and so outcome is again viewed as the determiner while Howe (1990) uses effectiveness as a universal term incorporating elements of Anshel's successful coach. The realities of elite sport, for a small sporting nation on the world scene, are such that success may be framed in terms of limited numbers of victories and thus Anshel's (1990) definition is limited in terms of such a setting. However, the concept of effectiveness remains constant regardless of the frequencies of test victories.

Keith Gorringer, former New Zealand men's hockey coach, believes that the outcome goal of winning internationals is very difficult to achieve in reality for several reasons: New Zealand hockey has fewer resources (including financial) than other countries such as Australia; they have less professional coaching; they have relatively low numbers of players; their teams are exposed to few internationals and they often play in low status competitions (personal communication, 8 December, 1998). Gorringer quotes the example of a young player, under the age of twenty, who has currently 14 internationals. "He needs to play 50 internationals in the next year, but he'll be likely to play only 10 over the next eighteen months, while Australia will play 50-70 over that same time period" (K. Gorringer, personal communication, 8 December 1998). If reaching outcome goals is more

difficult to achieve because New Zealand hockey is comparatively under-resourced, the question that should be asked is: How can the NZHF decide if their elite coaches are effective and/or successful?"

A multi-dimensional approach more like that of Douge and Hastie (1993) can be used to identify the characteristics of an effective coach. Having examined literature from a wide range of sources including teaching, physical education, processes of instruction, and coach observation systems (including computer systems), they conclude that effective coaches: provide frequent feedback including prompts, hustles, correction and reinstruction; use high levels of questioning and clarifying; are primarily engaged in instruction; and manage to create an ordered training environment.

Coach observation systems like that pioneered by Tharp and Gallimore (1976) enable researchers to identify coach behaviours and in effect may provide a basis on which to determine whether the coach is effective in moving athletes towards their goals. This study led to the identification of 2,300 behaviours of John Wooden (former successful coach of the UCLA men's basketball team). Several overseas researchers have replicated this type of study but apart from McConnell (1996) no studies using this methodology have been done in New Zealand. Other researchers, (Franks, Johnson & Sinclair, 1988; Lacy & Darst, 1985; Lacy & Goldston, 1990), have developed special coding systems aimed at empirically determining the role and qualities of the coach.

These studies are very helpful because they focus the discussion and allow for critical reflection upon the qualities that may be required in coaches at the elite level. However, the reality is that virtually no research has been carried out to ascertain what qualities are actually revealed in coach/athlete interactions in all environments (including team meetings, team talks and social settings) and to what extent these qualities play a part within the coaching roles. These systems are also very specific and difficult to perfect which means they may be reliant on experienced observers and therefore, hard to replicate. Of particular importance to the present research project is the point that few studies have been carried out in women's sport compared with that of men.

The few studies which do examine coach behaviours in terms of gender do not deal with elite coaching or use ethnographic in depth approaches but do raise considerations which may be important for the present study. Millard (1996), for example, found that males

gave more technical instruction than females and less general encouragement. Since these two factors have been identified as desirable coaching behaviours, and may influence the way players feel about the coach (Hastie, 1993; Horn, 1985; Smoll & Smith, 1989), these gender differences may be significant.

A wider examination of the coaching literature on elite coach qualities confirmed few researchers have used ethnographical methodologies to study elite sport and coaching, although some excellent work has been done in youth sport (see Fine, 1987; Landers & Fine, 1996). Tomlinson and Yorganci (1997) used covert participant observation as a major methodological component of their study on power relations between male coaches and elite female track athletes in England. Although the study was not designed to measure coaching effectiveness as such, it did provide useful insights into coach behaviours and athlete responses that could affect competitive success, and is discussed further in the section on sexual harassment in this present chapter.

Schinke, Bloom and Salmela (1995) and Bloom (1996) make a clear call for more research to be carried out on elite coach behaviour. Such demand by researchers (see also Horn, 1992; Kimiecik & Gould, 1987) for more in-depth, qualitative research into coaching effectiveness was responded to by McConnell (1996) in his study of roles and qualities of All Black coaches and captains. This New Zealand based research, using participant observation and grounded theory, along with other qualitative methodologies, has been instrumental in providing a detailed description of elite coach qualities in the sport of rugby football and other elite team codes including hockey. McConnell (1996) identified 31 main coach qualities, hierarchically ordered, in Figure 3.6 below.

The key factor for a coach working at the elite level would appear to be the ability to articulate a clear philosophy for the elite team (McConnell, 1996). Other key qualities ranked highly in McConnell's research are vision, personal goals, leadership, teaching skills, and communication. McConnell (1999) explains leadership, in terms of a coach quality, as the capacity to provide clear and effective leadership and possess qualities perceived by the players as being those of a leader. McConnell (1996, 1999) emphasises the important connection between the coach (who possesses the quality) and the perception of the player (who decides whether or not the coach has a particular quality). The question remains, how does gender or, more particularly, the socially acceptable enactment of gender, affect either the possession of elite coach qualities or the player's perception of

those qualities? Further in-depth research on elite coaching qualities and their interaction with gender is needed.

COACH QUALITIES	
1. Personal philosophy	16. Willingness to learn
2. Vision	17. Utilisation of specialists
3. Personal goals	18. Interpersonal skills
4. Leadership	19. Self-knowledge
5. Teaching skills	20. Preparation
6. Personal qualities	21. Hard worker
7. Organisation	22. Respected
8. Communication	23. Coping skills
9. Motivation	24. Analytical
10. Utilising player abilities	25. Long term planner
11. Coach-player interaction	26. Single-minded
12. Technical knowledge	27. Assimilates information
13. High standards	28. Self-discipline
14. People management	29. Provides feedback
15. Psychological skills	30. Ethic of hard work
	31. Development needs

Figure 3.6. Coach qualities (McConnell, 1996, p. 354).

This first part of this chapter has examined the literature about coaching roles and qualities at the elite level. Several main roles have been identified. The most important of these appear to be those of the coach as a leader, teacher, planner, selector, strategist, organiser and people manager. Given the distinction drawn between effective and successful coaches, the qualities required for a coach at the elite level are largely those associated with aspects of philosophy, vision, leadership, teaching skills and personal qualities.

A preliminary consideration of elite coaches in New Zealand indicates that although the literature often discusses coach roles and qualities in a non-gendered way, the reality in New Zealand is that male teams have male coaches and female teams tend also to have male coaches. Indeed, despite the moves towards a greater integration in administration of hockey in New Zealand, as noted in the previous chapter, the reality is that there has been a decline of women coaches fulfilling the elite roles and exemplifying the qualities noted in this chapter. This literature review now moves to examine such a decline of women in coaching in a wider context.

3.2.3 Elite coaching: The decline of women

This section of the literature review deals with a broad examination of the decline of women in coaching. This discussion is largely centred on overseas examples at the college and university level because studies that target elite coaching are uncommon. Similarly, the review draws mainly on overseas research because few New Zealand studies have been undertaken, with the exceptions of Skilton (1994, 1995), Edwards (1994, 1997) and Blake and McKelvey (1999).

The fall in numbers of female coaches, despite increasing numbers of female participants and coaching positions, has been well documented in the United States of America (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985a, 1992; Holmen & Parkhouse, 1981; Hart, Hasbrook & Mathes, 1986; Heishman, Bunker & Tutwiler, 1990; True, 1986; Weiss & Sisley, 1984).

Holmen and Parkhouse (1981) studied intercollegiate athletics and showed that the numbers of coaches for female athletes increased 37% between 1974 and 1979, but that female coaches were not filling these positions. The number of male coaches almost trebled in the five-year period compared to a 3% increase in the number of female coaches (Holmen & Parkhouse, 1981, p.17) but of even more concern was the 20% decrease in female head coaches. Another example of the decline in female coaches was in Wisconsin where 100% of the girls' teams were coached by women in 1971-72, but by 1984-85 only 41% of these teams were coached by women (True, 1986). True (1986) reported similar statistical declines in the number of female coaches in Washington; 85% of the girls' teams were coached by women in 1971-72, followed by a decline to 32% in 1984-85. In Oregon, the 1985-86 statistics indicated that only 17.3 % of all high school coaches were female (Sisley and Capel, 1986).

The most exceptional example of decline in female coach numbers comes from the longitudinal studies of Acosta and Carpenter (1985a, 1992) who document the decline in female coaches in American intercollegiate sport over a period of 20 years. They provide evidence, for example, that in intercollegiate sport in 1972, 90% of the coaches of women's teams were women. By 1990, this figure had declined to only 47.3% (Acosta & Carpenter, 1992).

Low numbers of female coaches are also found in voluntary youth sports (Gould & Martens, 1979; Wandzilak, Ansorge & Potter, 1988; Weiss & Sisley, 1984). Although not

dealing with elite team sport, these investigations have relevance to this doctoral study because the voluntary nature of the New Zealand elite hockey coaches is similar to the American youth coach. Gould and Martens (1979) surveyed over 400 volunteer coaches and developed a typical youth coach profile. The typical coach was a male in his mid-thirties who coached his own child or children. Weiss and Sisley (1984) confirmed these sex and age characteristics in a later study of youth sport coaches.

White and Brackenridge (1984) and Lay (1993b) expressed concern over similar declines of female coaches in the United Kingdom and Canada. Lay (1993b) reported a study by the Canadian Intercollegiate Athletic Union which found that the number of male head coaches rose 100% over five years (1978-83) while the number of female head coaches dropped by 10%. It is noted that these figures show trends during a period of increased funding and greater awareness of equality issues in Canadian sport (Lay, 1993b).

Images of men in elite coaching roles have also been examined by academic writers from central European cultures, for example, Doupona and Bon (1999, pp. 120-121) who reported on the case of Slovenian handball coaches.

Nowadays in Slovenia, approximately 90% of all coaches are men. There are many active (male) coaches aged over 50 years, whereas, female coaches are from 25 to 35 years old. In the period of active playing, none of the female players included herself in the Association of Handball Coaches (ZRTS) and becomes an active coach, while on the other hand many boys (male handball players) begin to coach already very early (at 17,18).....

In Slovenia we cannot find female coaches at the highest competition level (1st League), where the demands, responsibility, and also the financial compensations are the highest. In the 1997/98 competition season all teams in the first and second league (21 teams) are coached by men.

Australian examples of research may be more applicable to the New Zealand situation because they have a very low number of full-time paid coaches and also low numbers of female coaches at higher levels. Australian researchers McCallum (1991), Reynolds and Otago (1991) and Reynolds, Otago, Plaisted and Randell (1992) voice concern over low numbers of female coaches in Australia. Reynolds et al. (1992) note that less than one third of all accredited coaches under the Australian Coaching Council scheme are female, and lament the fact that "a large number of the elite women's sports teams are coached by males" (p. 1).

The Coaching Association of New Zealand (1994) conducted a survey of 44 national sports organisations and showed that the representation of women coaches was significantly less than that of men, especially at the elite levels. This study also outlined the figures of women athletes and coaches who attended the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games. Out of 12 sports who had female athletes, only two out of 26 coaches were female (CANZ, 1994, p.3). These two females coached hockey and were not re-appointed after the Olympics.

Such reference to the sport of field hockey in coaching literature is rare. However, two notable exceptions are Edwards (1993, 1997) and Acosta and Carpenter (1985a, 1992). Edwards (1993) confirmed changes to gender ratios of voluntary hockey coaches over time and although this study dealt with club rather than elite coaches, in-depth interviews with former elite players provided rich insights into their reasons for not entering the coaching domain: for example, burnout, lack of time, and family reasons.

Edwards (1997) reports historical declines in the numbers of New Zealand women involved in elite hockey coaching where a clear pattern has emerged; women and men coach women's teams, but men exclusively coach men's teams. In 1997, 1998, and 1999, males coached the two largest New Zealand Hockey Federation provincial association women's teams (Auckland and Canterbury), the New Zealand women's hockey team, and the NZHF women's Olympic Academy.

In contrast to Edwards' (1993, 1997) studies, Acosta and Carpenter's (1985a, 1992) longitudinal studies have shown that the sport of field hockey provided the notable exception in the general trend for male dominance of coaching in the United States of America as it was shown that this sport was coached almost exclusively by females. Figure 3.7 illustrates the percentage of female coaches in field hockey and contrasts the figures with the largest intercollegiate sport, basketball. The exact reasons for this trend are unknown but one suggestion may be that the numbers of men who play field hockey in the States are extremely low. Further examination of the United States hockey organisations is needed before realistic comparisons between the two countries can be made, including such factors as extent of amalgamation between men's and women's associations, coaching structures and participant numbers.

Date	Basketball	Hockey
1977/78	79.4	99.1
1978/79	77.7	97.4
1979/80	76.5	98.3
1980/81	73.7	98.3
1981/82	71.2	99.6
1982/83	66.6	96.9
1983/84	64.9	98.2
1984/85	62.7	93.8
1985/86	61.0	97.1
1986/87	59.9	96.8
1987/88	58.5	96.2
1988/89	60.0	97.3
1989/90	59.0	97.8

Figure 3.7. Changes over time in the percentage of female coaches in hockey and basketball (Acosta & Carpenter, 1992, p. 38).

Another example of this trend for men to coach both sexes but women to coach females only, was provided by Le Drew and Zimmerman (1994) from within volleyball, a sport which, like hockey, is gender-equal in terms of participation. Le Drew and Zimmerman (1994) reported that their survey of high school volleyball players (girls $n=227$, boys $n=183$) found that all the male athletes indicated they currently had a male coach, while 79% of the female athletes indicated that they also had a male coach. Clearly, the proportion of women in coaching did not reflect the participation balance in terms of gender.

The concern over the declining percentage of women coaches has triggered a number of research perspectives on the causes for the decline and centres on three main suggestions. Firstly, females do not want to coach and are simply not applying for the positions. Secondly, females want to coach but cannot get the jobs, or the jobs are made more difficult, because of certain 'barriers'. The third suggestion is that falling numbers of female coaches may be the result of factors causing females to 'drop-out' of coaching.

The literature has also focused attention on the fact that men have become increasingly attracted to coaching female athletes because of increased salaries, increased visibility and heightened status of female sports (Acosta & Carpenter, 1992; Sisley, Weiss, Barber & Ebbeck, 1990). Therefore, the competition for the coaching positions has increased.

Recruitment factors

Females may decide not to coach because they may perceive the role as being more suited to males or they may lack suitable role models (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985b; Greendorfer, 1977; Hart, et al. 1986; Lovett & Lowry, 1988). Females may also be discouraged from applying for coaching jobs because of stereotypical beliefs held by female athletes or administrators (Greendorfer, 1977; Parkhouse & Williams, 1986; Pastore, 1991; Sisley, et al., 1990; Wallston & O'Leary, 1981; Weinberg, Reveles & Jackson, 1984). This belief may result in women themselves doubting their own ability, which could lower their self confidence and further damage their will to coach (Lay, 1993c; White, 1994).

An example of how this type of gender bias may affect female coaches was provided by Pease and Drabelle (1988) who asked 178 United States college students, interested in coaching, to indicate if coaching was their primary goal. They found that 60% of the males saw coaching as their primary goal whereas 47% of female students indicated this response. It should also be noted that the males in this study aspired to a higher level of coaching than the females (Pease & Drabelle, 1988).

Although the Pease and Drabelle (1988) study was not based on elite athletes, it may have ramifications in terms of attracting and recruiting women into coaching. Similarly, volleyball research conducted by LeDrew and Zimmerman (1994) highlighted biased perceptions of athletes in terms of gender differences. Their data revealed several aspects of gender bias. For example they concluded that females thought coaching was more difficult than males did, that males were more likely to believe that females had a different coaching style, and that males and females preferred a male coach, despite the fact that the majority of students had little experience of a female coach.

Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) made a valuable and recent contribution to this discussion on gender differences in preferences for the coaching profession. Their study attempted to evaluate both women's and men's perceptions of the coaching occupation and their preferences for that occupation by surveying college basketball players. They concluded, "the reasons for the underrepresentation of women in coaching ranks do not reside in the women themselves" (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998, p. 197). Women did not differ from men in self-efficacy regarding their ability to coach, their perception of working hours as a barrier, or their desire to coach at various levels. Furthermore, Everhart and Chelladurai

also found that female players who were coached by women perceived less discrimination and had a greater preference for coaching than those female players coached by males.

Barriers

Another group of suggestions deals with the possibility that females do want to coach but cannot get the jobs because of certain barriers. Lack of successful female networks was viewed as a major barrier by many researchers (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985b; Knoppers, 1987; Lay, 1993c; Lovett & Lowry, 1994; White, 1994). Knoppers (1987) concluded that as one gained power, more opportunities for personal decisions were available which, in turn, could be used for one's own advantage. Thus high numbers of male sport administrators in positions of power may be keeping some women out of coaching (Lovett & Lowry, 1994) especially if men tend to hire more men as has been suggested by Berg (1996b).

Other barriers were seen as: lack of time and/or family commitments (Acosta & Carpenter, 1992; Pastore, 1991; Reynolds et al., 1992; Weiss, Barber, Sisely, & Ebbeck, 1991; Weiss & Stevens, 1993); lack of qualifications (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985b); lack of administrative support (Weiss et al., 1991); lack of personal support (Thorngren, 1990); and isolation and homophobia (Thorngren, 1990; Wellman & Blinde, 1997a, 1997b).

Gender discrimination against female coaches, or perceptions of inferior ability, were seen as barriers by others (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Knoppers, 1987; LeDrew & Zimmerman, 1994; Lovett & Lowry, 1994; Parkhouse & Williams, 1986; Snyder, 1990; Wallston & O'Leary, 1981; Weinberg, et al. 1984; Williams & Parkhouse, 1988). The importance of such perceptions of male superiority as barriers is expounded by Theberge (1993) in her examination of the construction of gender in the work of women coaches.

Theberge states:

The conception of coaching as quintessentially masculine is supported by the reality that most coaches are men; many of the women in this study worked with athletes who previously had not been coached by a woman. The near absence of women in all but a few sports has provided fertile territory for the growth of an ideology of gender. At the heart of this ideology was an assumption that men are naturally superior athletes and on this basis also superior coaches (1993, p. 305).

Skilton's (1994) study confirmed the existence of similar barriers for elite New Zealand coaches. The main barriers were described as: attitudes of administrators; unconscious discrimination from both males and females; lack of confidence in own ability; family

commitments; male networking; lack of experience; selection process; lack of women mentors; lack of female role models; and lack of child care facilities (Skilton, 1994).

Blake and McKelvey (1999) surveyed elite female coaches in New Zealand and confirmed the existence of many of the barriers listed above (including male networking, lack of support from administrators, administrators' preference for a male coaching project officer, time commitment and cost of childcare). They suggested proactive programmes developed by the Hillary Commission for Sport Fitness and Leisure, had improved female coaches ability to overcome barriers in areas such as experience, female mentors, female role models and self confidence, although different methodologies were employed in both studies which makes a direct comparison unreliable. Importantly, Blake and McKelvey (1999) identified two barriers, financial considerations and work commitments, as being new to elite female coaches, which may reflect changes to New Zealand society as a whole.

Retention factors

The third major area of literature with important information regarding falling numbers of female coaches is that concerning coach "drop-out". Hart, et al. (1986) found that current coaches would leave if "their coaching performances were no longer adequate," while former coaches left because of "time and role conflicts" (p. 76). Pastore (1991) and Doherty and Casey (1996) found that female rather than male coaches leave because of time and family constraints but other researchers have produced conflicting evidence that suggests male coaches are more likely to leave coaching to spend more time with family (Hasbrook, Hart, Mathes & True, 1990; Pastore, 1992; Reynolds, 1991; Reynolds, et al., 1992; Weiss & Sisley, 1984).

Burnout has been offered as another reason to explain coach drop-out (Dale & Weinberg, 1989; Lovett & Lowry, 1988; Pastore & Judd, 1993). Caccese and Mayerberg (1984) reported higher levels of burnout among female college coaches than among male college coaches and discussed possible reasons including differing levels of experience, effort, rewards, and the ability to handle competition and stress.

Other suggestions for coach drop-out include: socialisation (Knoppers, 1987; Thorngren, 1990); gender bias (Greendorfer, 1977; Parkhouse & Williams, 1986; Pastore, 1991; Sisley, et al., 1990; Wallston & O'Leary, 1981; Weinberg, et al., 1984); inadequate

coaching skills (Cassese & Mayerberg, 1984); lack of success (Hart et al., 1986); poor social conditions (Lowry & Lovett, 1997); homophobia (Wellman & Blinde, 1997a, 1997b); and lack of support from administrators (Pastore, 1991).

Weiss and Stevens (1993) examined coaching motivation and attrition from a different perspective than previous studies. They asked current and former head high school coaches to identify the costs and benefits of being part of the coaching profession. Benefits were described as the enjoyment of seeing athletes achieve a goal, the enjoyment of working with athletes, the fun of coaching, the enjoyment of seeing athletes learn new skills, and the challenge of encouraging individuals to work as a team. The main costs of coaching were described as less time for family, work load, sacrifice of personal time, and inadequate programme support (Weiss and Stevens, 1993).

Weiss, Barber, Sisley and Ebbeck (1991) used qualitative interviews to gain insights into the attitudes, perceptions, and motivations of female coaches. Coaches were asked about negative and positive aspects of the coaching experience as well as being asked to comment on the strengths and weaknesses of their coaching. Weiss et al. (1991) and Theberge's (1993) studies, above all the others, seemed to capture the very essence of what the coaches were thinking and feeling about their experiences and the author notes the richness of data achieved through the use of in-depth interviews.

Two theoretical concepts from social organisational theory, which may have relevance in terms of elite coach development but which do not appear in the coaching literature, are the amount and type of social support and the future prospects offered by an organisation (Taormina, 1997). Co-worker support is defined as "the emotional moral or instrumental sustenance which is provided without financial compensation by other employees in the organisation in which one works, with the objective of alleviating anxiety, fear or doubt" (Taormina, 1997, p. 3) and could include such things as verbal encouragement, behavioural solace, and provision of material assistance. It is possible that the lack of co-worker social support given to coaches due to the competitive nature of the sporting environment may provide a source of stress, as this has been shown to occur in organisations (Johnson, 1991; Karuppan, 1994; as cited in Taormina, 1997). Research that provides the answers to questions about the provision of co-worker support would be valuable in the context of retention and recruitment of female coaching. For example: Do

competing coaches provide support to each other during tournaments and, if not, who does provide this support?

Lack of future prospects is another concept borrowed from sociological organisational psychology that may have relevance for coaching recruitment and retention. Future prospects as described by Taormina (1997) refer primarily to the employee's view of the job's rewards that make it attractive, such as promotion, financial rewards, future job assignments, promotions, bonuses, recognition and awards. The literature offers little advice on the rewards of elite coaching, although one study of club level hockey coaches (Edwards, 1993) found that the positive perceptions of coaching included personal development gained by the use of skills and knowledge, along with opportunities for social interaction, and the rewards that come with successful player and team development.

Organisational research would suggest that when employees perceive their chances of success are slim, the result can lead to poor socialisation or, in the worst case, the employee will leave the institution (Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1990). This has implications for coaches who have followed the NZHF pathway for coaches (and have the necessary experiential training including attendance at elite coaching courses) and yet have been continuously overlooked for coaching promotion to New Zealand level.

New Zealand research

Having considered the literature regarding the declining numbers of females in coaching and the reasons proposed to account for the declines, the writer suggests that research, conducted inside the New Zealand sporting environment, is needed to advance New Zealand perspectives about women in coaching. The main differences between the overseas studies and the New Zealand case is that elite coaches here, with the exception of rugby, are mostly coaching in their own leisure time for little or no financial reward. An example of this is Keith Gorringer, the former New Zealand men's hockey coach who took 83 unpaid days off work (not including weekends) during the 1998 international hockey season (Gorringer, personal communication, December 8, 1998). In contrast, most of the USA coach examples noted in this review were based on cases involving paid coaches at either college or university level and, therefore, the retention and recruitment issues may be different in each setting.

The lack of research addressing gender and coaching issues, drawn from the arena of elite team sport is also noted in this literature review. Similarly, research from within the familiar environments of New Zealand is lacking with the exceptions of Skilton (1994) and Edwards (1993, 1997) who provide New Zealand examples worthy of consideration for this present research.

Very few of the studies conducted have used qualitative methodology that would provide in-depth information regarding the female coaching experience, with Weiss et al. (1991), Thorngren (1990) and Theberge (1993) as the notable exceptions. This literature review has therefore identified an area of research where there is opportunity for further study.

In summary, factors highlighted in the literature with relevance for the retention and recruitment of female coaches and the impact of gender on the roles and qualities of such coaches have been discussed. Factors such as the biased gender preference of athletes and administrators, positive and negative aspects of the female coaching experience, the existence of barriers to female coaching involvement and preferred coaching qualities are all issues that need to be considered for this present study. It is hoped that careful consideration of the results generated by this study may suggest further research and provide recommendations to help increase the number of female coaches. Given that male coaches may be faced with coaching athletes from a different gender group (females), the next section of the literature review deals with gender specific issues that need to be considered by people who coach women's teams.

3.3 GENDERED COACHING: EQUITY AND OPPORTUNITY

The decline of women in elite coaching positions, as illustrated in this and the preceding chapter, compels an examination of the primary factors which influence the appointment and development of coaches at the elite level. Noted researchers in the field of female coach development (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985a; Lay, 1993a, 1993b, 1993c; Lovett & Lowry, 1995a; Strachan & Tomlinson, 1994) and elite coach development (see Côté, et al., 1995; Woodman, 1993) identify strategies for change such as: revising coach education practices, enacting the concept of gender equity in sport, and the encouragement and establishment of particular support mechanisms in order to retain women in coaching.

This section of the literature review firstly considers a brief clarification of the concept of equity in sport and its relevance in terms of women in coaching. Secondly, an examination of coach education in New Zealand, and especially elite hockey, is needed to clarify the opportunities and challenges, or lack of opportunities, that are present in current coach development schemes. Finally, the literature review turns to a critical discussion of mentoring and networking as these concepts relate to support mechanisms for women in coaching.

3.3.1 Equity issues

New Zealand, like other developed nations, faces constant societal struggles about fairness and social responsibility in addressing issues of minority peoples or disadvantaged groups in terms of gender, race, sex or sexuality. Inequities in opportunities in our wider society are also reproduced in sporting environments, including coaching, and therefore need to be addressed if change is to occur. Strachan and Tomlinson (1994) state that:

Equity is not just the perception of fairness but involves the reality of acting on a daily basis in a fair and unbiased way. Implementing gender equity in sport means addressing the patriarchal nature of sport today. Patriarchy is a system of relations in society that accord value and power to men by virtue of their gender. In sport, patriarchy means that men and boys have greater access, more choices and opportunities, increased prestige, larger resources and more favoured status in the media than girls and women simply because of their gender. This inequity in power affects every aspect of how girls and women participate in sport (p. 3).

Equity issues for women are also enacted in other areas of society, for example in job opportunities, and therefore it is necessary to consider the changes in our society that have lead to the promotion of women into non-traditional roles such as accountants, doctors, and lawyers (Maslen, 1998). One example of this change in societal attitude is that there are many more women in the workplace and many more in middle management positions in organisations (Sinclair, 1998). Similarly, young women are strongly represented in formerly male-dominated professions such as engineering and science (ibid). In stark contrast, women are not increasing in number in the coaching profession, and are actually a declining proportion in the elite-coaching strata as it moves into a professional era in New Zealand.

There are several strategies used by governments and sports bodies to address equity issues. Legislation is one method that has been employed by governments with limited success in some areas. Examples of such legislation are Title IX legislation, aimed at

providing equity for women in sport in the USA (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985a, 1992) and the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms (1982; as cited in Strachan and Tomlinson, 1994). The New Zealand equivalent is the Bill of Rights Act which falls under the auspices of the Human Rights Commission (New Zealand Government, 1990). Governments may also choose to sign international charters such as the Charter of Physical Education and Sport (1978; as cited in Strachan and Tomlinson, 1994) which guarantees signatories will strive to provide access to physical education and sport for all and to ensure full opportunities for participation and achievement commensurate with each person's abilities.

Such formal commitment has been demonstrated by the New Zealand government in May 1994, when they signaled their intention to increase the involvement of women in all areas of sport, and signed the international Brighton Declaration. Following this, New Zealand's national sporting body developed and promoted their own "Winning Women Charter" (Hillary Commission for Sport, Fitness and Leisure, 1995) similarly intended to guide actions towards a more equitable involvement in sport for women.

Following legislation, practical strategies called affirmative action schemes may be used by organisations to remove direct or indirect discriminatory practices. These may include educational or development schemes, and/or mentoring and networking schemes aimed directly at the target equity groups. This chapter now moves to a discussion of the literature on these types of affirmative action schemes and their relevance to women in coaching.

3.3.2 Coach education

The New Zealand Hockey Federation has begun to address inequities within opportunities for coach education. For example, NZHF specifically requested a female Fédération Internationale de Hockey (FIH) presenter to attend the Olympic Solidarity coaching course in 1997 which, according to the Dutch coach who was chosen, was a very uncommon situation (Benninga, personal communication, 18 June 1997), in that most countries refuse to have a women presenter. Other gender responsive initiatives include: having female presenters and an equal gender ratio of participants in all NZHF coaching courses; asking the Association to accept the 'Winning Women Charter' to encourage equity in sport; and providing financial support for research, including women in coaching.

In addition, the NZHF have spent much time and effort on the development of a “pathway for coaches” (see Appendix F; NZHF, 1996, p. 7) in order that coaches were aware of the steps toward becoming an elite hockey coach. Coaching courses available through NZHF range from a two hour course for teachers or parents of young children, to one day, two day and week long seminar courses, such as the Olympic Solidarity Course, designed for higher level coaches. In 1997, the NZHF ran its first Level III coaching course, which included five participants (four men and one woman), selected because of their potential to coach at National level.

Of note in the pathway for coaches is the provision for “coaches with standout qualities” to bypass or skip normal channels (NZHF, 1996, p. 7). This means people who have not followed the hierarchical pathway of coaching courses, and/or have not coached at any of the desired levels can be considered for elite coaching positions if they fulfill certain criteria understood by selection committees.

Despite the clear paper pathway, promotion into the top coaching positions is clearly a complicated matter. Men who are appointed to lead the New Zealand Women’s Hockey Team are not required to possess or demonstrate any knowledge about coaching female athletes or to have practical experience of either international women’s hockey or coaching women’s hockey teams. It would appear that the NZHF coach selection panels are concerned with selecting the best coach, with the assumption being that the gender of either coach or athlete is irrelevant. Saunders (1998) reported on the selection of Jan Borren as New Zealand women’s hockey coach: “Borren, a member of one of New Zealand’s most famous hockey-playing families, shares similarities with his predecessor, Paul Ackerley. Both came under Cyril Walter’s influence at the University club in Christchurch, both were New Zealand representatives, while both now live in the capital city” (p. 11). Saunders may have added that both men had come from the male side of the game and neither had any previous experience in coaching women when appointed to the top women’s coaching job. Given that many of the unsuccessful applicants had a great deal of experience coaching women’s hockey at the elite level, and included the 1998 assistant New Zealand women’s coach, a former head coach of the New Zealand women’s hockey academy and the 1998 head academy coach, this prior experience may not have been a factor given due consideration by the coach selection panel.

The selection of elite coaches should, as a necessity, be closely connected to the coaching pathway, coach education system and a framework for coach evaluation and appraisal. Clearly one should not exist without the other and in this regard the NZHF designed a Level III practical evaluation to be completed by an experienced assessor. Barber and Eckrich (1998) provide an in-depth discussion on this topic and outline the dilemma of coaches who face mixed messages from administrators when coaches have little knowledge regarding the process or criteria by which they are evaluated (*ibid*). It is not surprising therefore, to find a link exists between evaluation and perceived support of the administration and that the earlier part of this literature review linked coaching “drop-out” with lack of administrative support (Pastore, 1991; Weiss et al., 1991).

3.3.3 Support structures

Although a range of support structures exists to variable degrees, these may be broadly incorporated in the terms networking and mentoring. These terms would include, for example, family support, same sex organisations, and professional support bodies. Networking and mentoring are two subject areas that have been highlighted in the literature on women in coaching (see Acosta & Carpenter, 1992; Knoppers, 1989; Lovett & Lowry, 1994). Humanist ideologies, espousing networking and mentoring as the way forward for women in sport, draw attention to the fact that both processes create environments in which women provide support, advice and care for other women, and where gendered models of success are enacted (Lay, 1993c; Segerman-Peck, 1991; Theberge, 1987; White, 1994). However, this literature review also gives consideration to cautionary notes about mentoring and networking (see Brooks, 1997; Cameron, 1996; Hall, Cullen & Slack, 1989) as reactive, patriarchal devices which encourage imitation and patronage rather than divergence and progress.

Networks are broadly described by Segerman-Peck (1991, p. 36) as “collections of people linked by a common interest or experience, a group of contacts”. Lay (1993c) prefers to use the feminist definition coined by Kramarae and Treichler (1985), who state that to network is to establish good connections with other women and provide assistance such as information, concrete help, and personal or professional support. Of note in this last definition is the importance placed on the word women, in contrast to the earlier reference to people. An examination of the literature suggests that women only “New Girls Networks” (Segerman-Peck, 1991, p. 41) and mixed gender networks exist in sporting arenas, and that both serve to benefit women personally and politically (Lay, 1993c).

However, the advantages of networking in a non-male environment are noted by researchers as providing traditional values of support and cooperation within a comfortable safe environment. Segerman-Peck (1991) asserts “women’s groups provide a bolt-hole, a safe-house, a non-tense environment in which to relax, have a drink, a chat, and just exist without constant challenge” (p. 48) as well as providing opportunities for women to mix at close quarters with women who have “made it”.

Rubbing shoulders with successful women also has a more tangible benefit. You are touched by their glory, and this touch stays with you. A feeling develops of being at home with success, that success is right and comfortable. And the power of this sensation cannot be underestimated. Anything other than success is unthinkable. So every member of that network knows that her pathway leads up. You belong, therefore you will succeed. How can it be otherwise? (Segerman-Peck, 1991, p. 50).

Networking may be represented in women’s lives as informal gatherings, or as groups set up to achieve specific goals. In Australia, a group called Women-Sport Australia serves to provide a forum for sports minded women and an independent voice regarding government sport policy. Canada has a group called the Canadian Association for the Advancement of Women in Sport and Physical Activity (CAAWS) which is a powerful feminist education and advocacy organisation. Indeed, Lay (1993c) argues that it is through networks “that our consciousness is continually raised and the real issues continue to be named, clarified and addressed in ways that will bring about change” (p. 4).

Lack of successful female networks has been viewed as a major barrier to women’s progress in coaching (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985b; Knoppers, 1987; Lovett & Lowry, 1994; White, 1994). Female athletic administrators have attributed the demise in the number of female coaches to both the failure of the “old girl” network and the success of the “old boy” network (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985b). Indirect evidence of discriminatory hiring practices, which may be perpetuated by old boy networks, were provided by Anderson and Gill (1983) who discovered that men who coached women were more likely to have lower qualifications than men who coached males or women who coached females.

Knoppers, Bedker Meyer, Ewing and Forrest (1993, p. 266) believe that “since control of sport is largely in the hands of men, it is their homosocial group or old boys’ network, which sets the rules and has the greatest power in the workplace”. Unfortunately, support for this rather pessimistic view is found in Skilton’s (1994) New Zealand study of women in coaching which showed that 70% of her respondents (female high performance coaches)

agreed that male networking presented a problem for the progress of women in coaching. Other research on women in sports administration by Young (1990) and Cameron (1996) shows that over 80% of their subjects agreed that the old boys' network were barriers to women.

Mentoring, like networking, is worthy of consideration in this literature review as it is a support process which has had particular benefit to women and minorities in the realm of business (Colburn, 1992; Daws, 1995; Kanter, 1977; Morrison, White, & Van Velsor, 1987; Morrison, 1992; Rubens & Halperin, 1996), and as such, may provide a mechanism to support and guide women in the field of coaching. Mentoring, as defined by Allen (1995), is about equipping and empowering individuals, the proteges, to achieve goals and may be defined as "having a significant beneficial effect on the life or behaviour of another person" (p. 14). Formal mentoring schemes in business typically use a mentor who is a senior person in the same organisation, who has more experience, skills, contacts and greater access to resources, including information and power which can be accessed in order to help the mentee achieve their goals (Coley, 1996). More recent mentoring schemes from female science and engineering groups include telementoring and on-line mentoring schemes (see Connolly, 1997; Muller, 1998).

Elite coaches themselves appear to think the mentoring concept is worthy of inclusion into coach education programmes. The Canadian researcher, Salmela (1994a), provides evidence that elite coaches believe that "formalised educational experiences combined with various forms of mentorship should be used to enhance coaching education process" (p. 48). Earlier research, in the United States, conducted by Gould, Giannini, Krane and Hodge (1990) indicated elite coach support for mentor-type coaching apprentice programmes. This type of support is clearly illustrated by Bloom, Durand-Bush and Salmela (1998) who interviewed elite coaches and found that "different types of mentoring occurred throughout the evolution of the expert coaches careers" (p. 272). The elite coaches had been mentored as athletes, and as developing coaches, and in turn, they reciprocated this "trusting relationship" (p. 268) when they mentored their own athletes and other coaches, once they had reached a certain status and level of expertise.

Bloom, Durand-Bush and Salmela (1998, p. 277) interviewed one female volleyball coach who espousing a mentoring programme called "promotion plus" aimed at providing female role models at the elite coaching level. Very few examples of such formal

mentoring programmes have been reported in the literature, with the exception of three Australian schemes: the Australian Institute of Sport mentoring scheme (McCallum, 1991) aimed at encouraging women into coaching roles; the Western Australian Institute of Sport reported success from mentoring schemes used in netball, cycling and rugby league (Hesse and Combs, 1999); and, the Tasmanian Department of Sport and Recreation (1989) reported on a similar master coach scheme.

Support, by elite coaches, for such mentor schemes has been shown in New Zealand. Skilton's (1995) study confirmed that the majority of high performance (elite) female coaches in her survey sample agreed with the suggestions that a lack of women mentors (56%) and lack of role models (53%) created barriers for women in coaching. Interestingly, when these same coaches were asked to rate suggestions that might help get more women into coaching, 91% of the high performance coaches agreed that having a mentor system to encourage women in coaching would be beneficial (Skilton, 1995). The current researcher suggests these results may indicate that although the elite coaches did not require assistance from other women to "make it" in coaching, they perceive mentor support would benefit other coaches. Similarly, many male coaches interviewed in Iversen's (1997) study indicated support for the suggestion that mentoring be included in coach education courses.

Recent discussions on mentoring have included a suggested repositioning of the mentor role to become a "learning leader" who works with employees to increase their learning, the leader's learning and the learning of others in the organisation. Kaye and Jacobson (1995, 1996) present the scenario of "learning leaders" working with a "learning group" of four to six employees so that peers can learn from each other as well as from the leader.

One of the few examples of such a group mentoring model is the NZHF Winning Women's Programme (Appendix G; Barwick, 1999). The programme involved one mentor and several learner-coaches who were provided with a range of educational and support opportunities in order to aid their progression in elite coaching. The programme is credited with several anecdotal successes, including the promotion of one woman to assistant academy coach, but failed to stop the decline of women in provincial coaching roles (Barwick, 1999). If modifications to the Winning Women's Programme can allow its expansion to involve more women and overcome the sole mentor difficulties, this

scheme could provide a successful model for other sports bodies trying to retain female coaches and help them progress up the coaching career ladder.

Unfortunately, both networking and mentoring as support mechanisms, though showing much potential in encouraging and assisting women in elite coaching, have problematic considerations arising from a wider examination of literature from coaching, business, education, and sport administration studies (see Brooks, 1997; Burke & McKeen, 1996; Cameron, 1996, 2000; Ragins & Cotton, 1993). These considerations include racial and socio-cultural diversity and problems of participant gender including patronage and sexual harassment, which may occur in certain circumstances.

Abney and Richey (1991), Morrison (1992), and Waitere-Ang (1999) cite research findings which confirm that the lack of mentors and role models is a major barrier for women and people of colour, echoing academic literature on the barriers for women in coaching previously discussed in this chapter (see pg. 71). It has also been shown that women from culturally diverse backgrounds do not always have the same opportunities to participate in sport as their white counterparts (Taylor & Toohey, 1999). This may have ramifications for New Zealand Maori women, as they are in the racial minority in both administration and coaching within the New Zealand Hockey Federation and consequently may have fewer role models and opportunities for meaningful networks to develop in a sporting context.

Gray, Lee and Totta (1996) provide support for the impact of racial issues in regard to mentoring when they suggested that women and people of colour often make poor career decisions and lack organisational savvy about how to progress in the corporate world. They note that these individuals may have difficulty knowing how they fit in and how to go about reaching their potential and that they “have no one to help them objectively assess their abilities and behaviour” (Gray et al., 1996, p. 45).

The literature suggests participant gender is another problematic concern for support schemes such as networking and mentoring (Hillary Commission, 2000b; Weaver and Chelladurai, 1999). Support is given to the same-sex model of mentoring (as in the case of the NZHF Winning Women Programme) for two reasons. Firstly, the lack of female role models has been identified as a barrier to women’s progress in coaching (see discussion on pg. 72 of this chapter), therefore, a female mentor may also become a role model for the

learner coaches (Burke, McKeen & McKeena, 1993; Gilbert and Rossman, 1992). Secondly, same-sex-mentoring relationships may avoid the problems associated with cross-sex mentoring reported by Ragins and Cotton (1993) and Segerman-Peck (1991), such as sexual harassment and innuendo. In contrast, Noe (1989), hypothesised that proteges mentored by a person of opposite sex worked harder to make the relationship succeed because of the possible difficulties of cross-gender relationships at work.

Burke and McKeen's (1996) examination of gender effects in mentoring relationships concluded that women with female mentors reported more psychosocial support but greater intention to leave the organisation. This raises the possibility that coaching mentors may act at times like Burke and McKeen's respondents, and spend time discussing the negative aspects of the organisation's climate for women which would increase their likelihood of leaving coaching. Burke and McKeen's study also reported that female mentors were both younger and at lower organisational levels than male mentors. Once again, extrapolating to the coaching situation, a lack of resources and influence may be a very limiting factor in any female coach mentor scheme.

Finally, some researchers have sounded a warning about the use of role models and mentors. Vilkinas (1991, p. 20) questions the use of "success stories" and role models because they are often so far removed from the lower ranks of management as to be irrelevant. The same could be said about the "super women" who have made the ranks of elite coaches in New Zealand. Coaches of lower rank may simply not see the relevance of another woman's story for their own situation. Hall, Cullen and Slack (1989) provided an astute reminder that the concept of mentoring and role modelling may be flawed because it focuses on *what* somebody else has achieved rather than on *how* they achieved it.

Such a warning is echoed by Cameron (1996), who showed that New Zealand women were not very good at taking credit for their own achievements, which may mean they will focus on what others did for them rather than attributing success to their own skills and knowledge. This may have implications for female coaches who, ideally, should possess a high level of self-confidence in order to coach successfully at the elite level. Cameron also made the point that "even if role models are important for individuals, at the organisational level they detract attention away from the fundamental problems that lie with the organisation" (1996, p. 200). In other words, one or two successful women coaching teams at the elite level could be held up as a good example, and deflect overall concerns

about gender imbalance within the NZHF coaching structures. This then leads on to the situation where it may appear that women who were not progressing up the coaching ladder were deficient and in need of “repair” (Knoppers, 1987) to make it into top level coaching rather than find solutions involving change at the organisational level.

In summary, networking and mentoring are two schemes with potential to help women progress to the elite levels of hockey coaching. The main advantages of providing women’s networking opportunities in hockey are to enable women to share knowledge, provide support for personal development and ensure women in coaching are exposed to coaching jobs and learning opportunities. Similarly mentoring schemes have the potential, as shown in the Winning Women’s Programme run by the NZHF, to increase women’s self-confidence, improve sport specific knowledge and improve opportunities for coach evaluation and appraisal (Barwick, 1999; Hillary Commission, 2000a).

3.4 SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS IN COACHING WOMEN

The coaching literature indicates that men are commonly coaches of elite women’s teams. Coaching appointments in elite New Zealand sport illustrate the common perception that there is no difference between coaching men and women at this level. For example, Mike Walsh, who replaced Cheryl Kemp as New Zealand women’s softball coach, did not feel his lack of experience coaching women was a matter of concern. “It is the same game, just played by two different genders” (New Zealand Press Association, Wed Sept 16, 1998, B8). Similarly, Jan Borren, a male appointed to coach the New Zealand women’s hockey team did not expect any problems with his lack of prior experience at coaching women’s hockey (Saunders, 1998). These attitudes raise the question: Are there any gendered considerations that should be taken into account when coaching women’s teams? The next section of the literature reviews attempts to answer this question by highlighting, in broad terms only, some examples of gender differences between male and female athletes which elite coaches may need to consider.

A search of coaching course contents of administratively amalgamated New Zealand team sports, such as rugby, rugby league, softball, and hockey revealed some evidence that gendered coaching is considered worthy of inclusion as a topic. (As a presenter on two coach education courses of the NZHF Level Two coach accreditation course, and Softball

New Zealand provincial umpire education course, I can attest to the inclusion of gendered coaching discussions in some codes.) However, despite the propensity for men to coach women at this level, there is a lack of relevant literature, with the exception of Taggart (1991) on gender differences and related coaching strategies for the elite level.

It is recognised by the researcher that all women do not fit into one social grouping or possess the same types of differences from men. Feminist researchers try to understand the multiple differences attributable to differences in race, ethnicity, disability, social class and therefore, include all women in their discussions. Ruzek, Olesen, and Clarke (1997) reject the concept of a shared sisterhood of difference by stating:

Learning to deal with differences is a shared endeavor. It involves a commitment to understanding the perspectives of others, particularly when others challenge one's deeply cherished beliefs about shared definitions of situations. It also requires affirming that different individuals and different groups, grounded in their particular life circumstances, will likely see the world through different lenses than one's own (p. 51).

With the above viewpoint in mind, the current consideration of literature on gender highlights the importance of female diversity and exception. The coach, therefore, as a role model for athletes (Christina & Corcos, 1988; Gray & Cornish, 1991), may be in an important position to reinforce correct attitudes about women and sport and gender differences in life in general. In such coach roles there are gender issues that may need to be addressed by the coaches of female athletes at the elite level.

The literature review now briefly discusses examples of such issues or concerns for female athletes within the framework of some main coaching areas such as physiological, psychological, pedagogical, and athlete health issues.

3.4.1 Physiological issues

Of the approximately 10 trillion cells that make up the human body only those that make up the reproductive system result in physical differences between males and females. Only the hormones of the reproductive system are dedicated exclusively to the survival of the species and account for variation between the sexes. The functioning of all the rest of the cells is dedicated to the survival of the individual. No one for example can distinguish a female's liver, heart or brain from that of a male's when the organ is lying on a laboratory table. Many might guess that the larger organ is a male's, but the size of the organ is more related to the size of the total body from which it came than the sex of the body (Wells, 1991, p. 6).

There are no morphological or physiological reasons that prevent women and girls from entering into and enjoying sport at the elite level. Historical female frailty myths that Lenskyj (1986) and Theberge (1997) described have been discredited and it is now readily accepted that women can gain great benefit from aerobic and anaerobic training of energy systems and muscle groups. Sports science journals abound with studies that show differences between females and males (Hill & Smith, 1993; Lewis, Kamon & Hodgson, 1986) and general opinion suggests these gender differences should not be reflected in exercise prescription. Such gender differences may be attributed to either environmental-experiential or biological factors such as the differences in morphological and physiological characteristics.

The main morphological gender differences are of an anatomical or structural nature and include the facts, as summarised by Wells (1991), that women are shorter, lighter in total weight, and fatter than the average man (25% rather than 15% relative body fat). Skeletal differences include women having narrower shoulders, shorter limbs relative to the body length, and a wider pelvis. Women have a different angle between the neck of the femur and the pelvis, a biological fact that has given rise to the view that women may be predisposed to knee problems in sports, like field hockey, that require jumping, running, or sudden changes of direction (Hunter, 1988).

The most important morphological variation with considerable influence on sport performance is difference in lean body mass between women and men. Women have a larger percentage of body fat and concentrations of subcutaneous adipose tissue, less lean body mass (muscle and bone) and less muscle mass (Wells, 1991). This has consequences for strength training as it suggests that women will have lower absolute strength than men will. However, when elite athletes are compared, the differences in body fat are often no more than 2-6%, a small difference which illustrates the degree to which socio-cultural variations and physical activity levels affect body composition (Wells, 1991).

Williford, Scharrf-Olson and Blessing (1993) study showed that females and males also exhibited unique differences in fat storage and metabolism and that females had difficulty losing fat off specific areas such as hips and thighs. Williford et al. recommended individual counseling and personal exercise prescription for females with a particular emphasis on realistic expectations of weight loss.

It is widely believed that coaches can improve female performance by implementing strength training and muscle conditioning programmes with particular emphasis on muscles in the upper body, wrists and forearms (Freedson, 1994; Lewis et al., 1986; Parkin, 1991). For example, in hockey, upper bodywork will have the advantage of allowing women to gain greater control over the stick, improving hitting strength and speed and an overall improvement in stick skills. In the past some weight training exercises were thought to be unsuitable for women (Parkin, 1991) but the misconceptions that females cannot tolerate the rigours of intensive weight training programmes have been largely refuted (Baechle & Groves, 1992).

Specific exercises for the pelvic floor muscles are highly recommended for female athletes as 26-33% of exercising women suffer from stress urinary incontinence (Bø, 1992). Bø (1992) states that stress urinary incontinence makes women change the way they exercise and many women withdraw from fitness activities because of the problem. The literature also highlights the fact that to be effective, pelvic floor exercises must be taught properly using the correct techniques (ibid).

Elite coaches may need to consider female concerns about weight training, such as a fear of developing "masculine" muscle bulk, and lack of support from friends and family (De Swardt, 1988). Weiss (1993) suggested educational information, preferably written, should be provided at the outset of the programme and interested parties should feel free to ask questions. Pressick (1998) believes many women fear the "weights room" environment "that often consists of a large male population, new equipment, new coaches, and new experiences" (p.7) and as such, a weight training area where female athletes feel safe, welcome and supported is essential. Consideration should be given to using a women only facility or having special times for women to workout. Results and progress should be carefully monitored, with an emphasis on self-comparison rather than norm-based comparisons (Weiss, 1993).

Physiological differences between the genders have been shown to exist in the cardiovascular and respiratory systems. Research has shown that generally women have smaller hearts, lower blood volume, fewer red blood cells, lower maximal heart rate, lower cardiac output, smaller thorax, and less lung tissue (Wells, 1991). These differences have

major consequences for performance if, as is widely believed, cardiac output is the primary limiting factor for maximal oxygen uptake (Wells, 1991).

Hawley and Burke (1998) report the results of elite athletes tested for aerobic and anaerobic performance times. Results of the maximal oxygen uptake measurement on elite hockey players showed that females had an average vo_{2max} of 50.1 ml/kg/min compared to the male score of 60.7 ml/kg/min. Unfortunately, these results should be viewed with caution as only six females were tested, as opposed to 14 males. A comparison of the 1992 United States Olympic team rowers showed that the females had a vo_{2max} of 58.6 ml/kg/min compared to the males at 70.9 ml/kg/min. Anaerobic comparisons, carried out using the Wingate anaerobic test, echoed the endurance results. Similarly, a comparison between the mean power scores of male and female US national road cyclists showed the males achieved a score of 11.2 w/kg for mean power, as compared to the females' score of 9.6 w/kg (Hawley and Burke, 1998).

Wells (1991) makes the assertion that physiological differences are smaller among well-trained male and female athletes within the same sport than within the general population. This suggestion, added to the observation that women's world records have gradually crept closer to the men's in swimming and athletic events (Astrand, 1994; Dyer, 1988), makes it likely that socio-cultural factors, such as training and conditioning, exposure to coaching, or competitive experience, and patterns of habitual activity, may help create and maintain the variations in physiological capacity between the sexes.

One further consideration in regard to physiological training of elite athletes is fitness testing. Personal experience with school age and young club hockey players has shown that young females do not enjoy fitness tests that are compared to teammates and female players especially hate results of the test being public knowledge. Put downs are a serious "turn-off" for many women and are a real factor in teenagers dropping out of sport (Chalmers, 1993). Coaches of women's teams may need to consider letting the athletes complete their own test (for example the aerobic fitness "beep-shuttle" test) at home and report the results in private (Weiss, 1993).

3.4.2 Psychological issues

The scope of this thesis precludes an in-depth discussion on the full range of psychological studies ranging from historical brain size debates to gendered personality traits. This

section, instead, deals with psychological aspects highlighted in the literature as possibly impacting upon the coaching of elite women's hockey, including self-esteem, the importance of goal setting, attitudes toward homophobia, the effect of gender bias and sex stereotypes.

Psychological training is important for all athletes, regardless of gender (Orlick, 1980, 1986), but female athletes can benefit from special attention to mental factors such as self-esteem and realistic goal setting. Keep in mind that females are socialised to be second to males, to be subservient, to have considerably lower expectations and feelings of self-worth than men (Anshel, 1990; Browne, 1993; Lenskyj, 1986; White, 1994) and may therefore need psychological help to overcome stereotyped ideas.

One strategy for improving self-confidence and competence is for coaches to follow a systematic programme of setting goals and working to achieve these goals. Martens (1987) and Orlick (1986) recommend that coaches of female athletes should make a firm commitment to the basic rules of goal setting in order to help athletes develop competence in terms of sport skills. (Although it would seem likely that all coaches at the elite level would engage their athletes in goal setting, personal experience of the researcher in elite hockey teams, suggests that this is not the case.)

Self-worth is a fundamental psychological concept that has a direct bearing on an athlete's self-confidence. Sports psychologist Martens (1987) commented that "Great coaches enhance athletes' self-worth; poor coaches destroy it" (p. 154). This may be especially true for coaches of elite female athletes (Anshel, 1990; Weiss, 1993). Strategies to improve the self-worth of athletes that are noted in the literature are positive encouragement and feedback, relaxation methods, visualisation of success, using role models of similar age and sex, and a decrease in competitive situations when learning (Orlick, 1980, 1986; Taggart, 1991).

Another method elite coaches have used to increase self-esteem is the coaching style termed empowering. Sports psychologist, Miller (as cited in Taggart, 1991, p.40), believes empowerment ensures athletes use their own initiative, accept more responsibility for their training, and reduce their dependency on the coach. Similarly, Weiss (1993) believes that females should be taught "self-regulation" learning techniques including self-observation, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement. Weiss also recommends coaches ask athletes to

update logs and diaries after every practice and game so they can clearly see the progress being made.

Homophobia and sexual harassment are gender issues with a direct effect on self-worth and hence self-confidence (Caudwell, 1999; Cotton & Jackson, 1992; Griffin & Genasci, 1990; Hall, 1993; Lenskyj, 1986; Palzkill, 1990; Theberge, 1998; Wellman & Blinde, 1997a, 1997b). Homophobia is an intense hatred or fear of homosexuals. Cotton and Jackson (1992) extend this definition to include fear of behaviour that is perceived to be outside the boundaries of traditional gender role expectations and believe the stress associated with homophobia could have a detrimental affect on performance. Griffin and Genasci (1990) point out that the social taboo surrounding homophobia “results in the perpetuation of ignorance, fear, violence, isolation, and psychological stress” (p. 212) - an atmosphere which is hardly conducive to personal best performance.

Sexual harassment, in sport and all other realms of life, is commonly perpetrated by men against women, and can be summed up simply as unwanted sexual attention (Brackenridge, 1997; Britton, 1997; Volkwein, Schnell, Sherwood & Livezey, 1997). The key element of the equation that adds up to the occurrence of harassment is the power differential between the harasser and the victim who may suffer negative consequences if the attention is rejected (MacKinnon, 1979; Ogelsby & Sabo, 1998). One recent study that employed covert observations and in depth interviews to uncover sexual harassment in women’s athletics was Tomlinson and Yorganci (1997) who reported that while only 0.7% (one out of 143) had been pressured to have sex with her coach, 2% had been subjected to fondling while 17% admitted to suffering from invasive physical contacts (e.g. slapping on the bottom). This study clearly sketched the image of normalcy used by athletes to excuse harassing coaches’ behaviour, such as that expressed in the following quote from Tomlinson and Yorganci (1997):

He also does things like pinch your bum or something. You know. He doesn’t mean to be offensive or anything. But, I find it offensive. But he is just like that.... it is stupid. I don’t know. I don’t like him doing it. I don’t know. But you know what he is like, so... but I don’t think he should (p. 150).

Exploitation of athletes by coaches has been also been reported by Sims (1996) who described the court case of Derry O’Rourke, a respected and successful Irish swim coach with 25 years international experience.

It was revealed that for decades, Ireland’s leading swim coach had systematically, relentlessly and with apparent impunity groped and raped young athletes under his care. Between 1976 and 1983, his

worst period, O'Rourke had sexual intercourse with three girls yet to reach their teens; he sexually abused them and other young female swimmers all the way up to the time he led the Irish team to the Barcelona Olympics in 1992 (Sims, 1996, p. 21).

A similar court case in New Zealand, although not at the elite level, exposed a hockey coach who sexually harassed and abused many of his athletes ("Tom Leigh dies", 1999). Tom Leigh, a secondary teacher was convicted of 28 sex offenses against 21 Mahurangi College girls and subsequently jailed for 17 years in 1996. In this instance the apparently friendly and trustworthy character was finally exposed after irrevocably changing the lives of some young female hockey players.

Cotton and Jackson (1992) recommend several strategies for coaches to come to terms with homophobia and sexual harassment in sport. Coaches of elite teams may choose to acknowledge the problem of homophobia, and educate themselves about it by attending seminars or workshops or reading relevant articles. They should also avoid any homophobic or sexist language and actively work for social change. Coaches may also demand that fellow staff and administration follow a non-homophobic policy. Griffin and Genasci (1990) point out the benefit of identifying local resources that can provide ongoing assistance in addressing homophobia among athletes (e.g. gay/lesbian organisations, women's centres and counseling groups).

Other psychological issues that enunciate gender differences are personality studies, research on gender role and achievement orientations, and studies on gender belief systems (see Gill, 1994 for a full discussion on the issues). Of these topics, only the research on gender belief systems has been examined for this literature review, as the researcher believes this area has possible ramifications for coaching at the elite level.

Gender beliefs are ideas constructed, enacted and renegotiated within the context of the broader social environment. According to Deaux (1984), gender belief systems are complicated social constructs that encompass diverse gender stereotypes and attitudes about appropriate characteristics, traits, roles and behaviours. As previously mentioned in the section on the decline of women in coaching, participants have been shown to exhibit biased perceptions of gender (Greendorfer, 1977, 1987; Wallston and O'Leary, 1981). Of particular importance for this current study is the fact that gendered beliefs have been shown to be linked to the evaluation of sport performance (Gill, 1994). It may therefore be

possible that an elite coach's ability to assess the roles, capabilities and performance of their athletes, is clouded by their own gender belief systems. At the very least, an awareness of these factors must be an advantage to a coach working in cross-gendered situations, however, the literature reveals no research directly linking elite coaching roles and effectiveness to gender belief systems.

Further examination of the applied sports psychology literature failed to uncover a comprehensive programme designed for elite female athletes. Harris (1987) discusses the application of sports psychology programmes for women but stops short of defining a truly female model. Gill (1994) believes that applied sport psychologists have yet to actually investigate specific psychological skills interventions, programme goals, structures, and procedures that might be appropriate for women participants. Indeed, there appears to be a need for the development of a female model of applied sport psychology at the elite level.

3.4.3 Pedagogical Issues

Pedagogical issues concern the ability of an elite coach to teach the relevant skills of the sport and, although closely linked with psychological issues such as goal setting, require further examination in view of the importance of the coach-teaching role as highlighted previously in this chapter.

Maureen Weiss (1993) presented information on participation motivation and linked this to the teaching of sport skills. She indicated that coaches are key people in continued participation because they provided feedback about gains in competence. The development of competence and mastery are essential in building self-esteem and confidence. When athletes perceive themselves as being competent, they increase their intrinsic motivation. The main gender differences were that males (14-18 years age group) used competitive outcomes (winning and losing) and speed or ease of learning to judge their competence, while females of the same age used self comparison (internal) information and feedback from peers, coaches and spectators. Even at the elite level, parental encouragement may be an important factor in providing the social support necessary to sustain training and improve performance (Simon Towns, elite field hockey player, personal communication, May 5, 1996) and if females need more encouragement, this factor may be important for coach consideration.

Weiss (1993) suggested several strategies to improve the teaching of sport skills to females and although she does not make suggestions for the elite level exclusively, the principles may be applicable to that environment. She suggests that mastery experiences should be at the cutting edge of an individual's capabilities and that coaches should follow developmental progressions from simple to complex skills. Realistic goals that are not norm-based may allow females to gain greater enjoyment and increase the likelihood of continued participation. Practices should be fun and contain creative team exercises and drills, and role models of similar sex and age should be used where possible (Christina and Corcos, 1988). It is very important that the elite coach uses a positive communication style and uses reward contingencies based on performance outcomes (Kidman and Hanrahan, 1997). Coaches must replace criticism with information. Many male coaches simply treat female and male athletes identically, but Weiss's (1993) information makes this researcher question the validity of these practices.

3.4.4 Health issues

According to the literature, female and male athletes may have different needs and requirements to ensure their health is maintained at optimum levels (Hawley & Burke, 1998; Ruzek, Olesen, & Clarke, 1997). Examples of unique female health issues of relevance for coaches of elite athletes include body image concerns, dietary deficiencies and the corresponding links between eating and health known as the "female triad" (Harris, 2000; Hawley & Burke, 1998). The female life cycle realities of menstruation and pregnancy will be discussed further.

Worry over body image is ranked very highly among the issues that concern young females participating in sport (Crossen & Raymore, 1997). Although hockey is not an aesthetic sport such as gymnastics, an ultra thin body may be perceived as necessary for selection (personnel communication, Player DW). "Research has shown that even casual references to overweight may prompt young women to resort to dangerous weight control behaviours, and insensitive coaches may precipitate the problem by public criticisms of athletes who have not stayed within some arbitrary weight range" (Lenskyj, 1992, p. 3). This is especially true given the results of one study by Griffin and Harris (1996) that showed coaches demonstrated both negative attitudes toward and limited knowledge about obesity.

may have eating disorders. This advice is supported by Harris (2000) who studied weight control in elite female tennis players, and concluded that coaches who work with such players should emphasise healthy eating and avoid the temptation to focus on weight and appearance. Further support is added by sports nutritionist Clare Wall (personal communication, March 10, 1997) who has implored coaches to throw away the skin fold calipers or, if statistics are absolutely necessary, compare skin fat measurements from one area, over time, while on a properly supervised nutrition programme. However, problems with coaches making weight control decisions on the basis of appearance alone have also been criticised (Griffin & Harris, 1996).

The term “female triad” has been coined to publicise the health risks and problems associated with a combination of factors commonly associated with women. These factors include: eating disorders such as anorexia and bulimia; amenorrhoea (disturbed menstrual function); and osteopaenia (reduced bone density) which has consequences for an athlete’s later life as it has been linked to osteoporosis (Bennell, Malcolm, Wark & Brukner, 1997; Harris, 2000; Hawley & Burke, 1998). The relationship between the factors cannot be expressed simply as a three-sided triangle; rather it should be viewed as a balance between the various genetic and environmental factors that may differ markedly between athletes. Experience suggests that an elite coach may be in the position to identify symptoms, for example, sudden weight loss and/or a drop off in performance, and therefore, knowledge about the female triad, could be crucial to an athlete’s immediate and long-term health.

The delicate nutritional balance, as indicated in the female triad, can be demonstrated by examining the effect of calcium deficiency on female athletes. Females have a smaller bone mass than males, and oestrogen levels influence bone density (Eisenman, Johnson & Benson, 1990; Harris, 2000; Hight, 1993) therefore, osteoporosis is more common in women, particularly post-menopausal women. Coaches should be aware that athletes at particular risk are those who are on a restricted calorie intake, for example an athlete who is dieting, and those who have amenorrhoea. Eisenman et al., (1990) discuss symptoms which may include muscle cramps and stress fractures but conclude that more research about calcium deficiency is needed. Coach recommendations for athletes should once again include increasing calcium intake (e.g. increase the consumption of low fat milk, cheese, yogurt) and referral to a qualified sports nutritionist.

again include increasing calcium intake (e.g. increase the consumption of low fat milk, cheese, yogurt) and referral to a qualified sports nutritionist.

Traditional concern for the health of females while undertaking physical activity is often centred on menstruation (Coakley, 1998; De Swardt, 1988; Lenskyj, 1986). It is now understood that training through menstruation is not only acceptable but it can have a positive effect on period pain (Highet, 1993). Training may lead to an extreme reduction in percentage of body fat, and women may experience some change in their menstrual cycles, the most common of which are secondary amenorrhoea (no periods in 6 months) and oligo-menorrhoea (irregular periods). Recent evidence has come to light, however, that links amenorrhoea to osteoporosis (Lenskyj, 1986; Coakley, 1998; Harris, 2000; Highet, 1993) and coaches are warned to advise athletes to seek medical attention if these types of health issues arise (Taggart, 1991).

Exercise during pregnancy is an issue of concern to many female athletes. It has become common practice for many athletes to regard pregnancy as a natural state and train for many months or even until term (Carbon, 1988). Maureen Weiss (1993) commented that pregnancy enhances the physiology of the female body and believes it may be a time for increased awareness of health and fitness. Pregnant females have also noted advantageous changes in physiology and, in order to prevent the spread of “pregnancy enhanced performance”, the International Olympic Committee have recently banned pregnant competitors. Pregnancy tests are now compulsory before major events.

Coaches of pregnant athletes may need to consider the feelings of the individual and respect their wishes regarding training intensity and continued performance. Dr. Ruth Highet (1993) advises pregnant athletes to have regular antenatal checkups so that blood pressure and urinary sugar levels are monitored and recommends use of a balanced nutritional programme to maintain adequate weight gain. Overheating and dehydration should be avoided and athletes should warm up and cool down properly (Carbon, 1988). An exercise plan should be devised whereby athletes follow exercise levels appropriate to previous fitness levels and the intensity and amount of exercise should taper off in the last few months (Carbon, 1988). Athletes are advised (Carbon, 1988) to set realistic short-term goals and be prepared to adjust these goals throughout the pregnancy.

Another health issue that affects females to a greater degree than males is iron deficiency. Women in general are at risk because of the significant monthly blood loss during menstruation which may involve iron losses in the region of 14 to 15 mg a cycle (Eisenman et al., 1990). Coaches should be aware of symptoms such as reduced performance, lack of concentration, excessive tiredness, loss of appetite and a feeling of being run down. Iron deficiency is a serious business for elite women athletes particularly if they are involved in a dieting regime.

In summary, the literature provides a plethora of examples of differences between female and male athletes. These gender considerations, within the broadly defined categories of morphology and physiology, psychology, teaching sports skills and health issues have been discussed in order to provide evidence that gender differences do exist and that consideration should be given to these issues by the coaches of elite women's teams.

This examination of gender differences underscores for the researcher, the implications that arise from the research questions, which underpin the study. The literature does not address such differences in terms of male and/or female coaching. Consequently, at the elite level, the literature does not inform such a coach on the relevance of gender differences to the enactment of the coach's role and the utilisation of appropriate qualities. Furthermore, the lack of research in this field means that a male coach, for example, of an elite female hockey team, has little to draw upon in order that understandings of gender differences are known and reflected in his coaching practice.

3.5 SUMMARY AND REVIEW

This chapter, as the second part of the literature review, considered the literature on coaching roles at elite level and the essential qualities of an elite coach. It has been demonstrated that there is little in the literature to inform a prospective elite coach on the desired roles and qualities of these positions. Furthermore, this is especially important in the case of a male coach taking over the coaching of an elite women's team. In the latter case, a whole range of factors may be relevant to the successful enactment of coaching roles and illustration of essential qualities, but the present coaching literature in New Zealand does not inform a male coach on such issues. The majority of studies are drawn from the North American context and may have limited application to the New Zealand

sporting environments, especially to an amateur sport such as field hockey. The review also highlighted the lack of actual field research studies, such as participant observation, into the coach's roles and qualities at the elite level and noted the possibilities in the emergence of new types of in-depth multidimensional sport specific studies like that of McConnell (1996).

The discussion moved on to an examination of the literature on the decline of women in coaching roles in both New Zealand and overseas countries. Excellent longitudinal studies such as those provided by Acosta and Carpenter (1985a, 1992), depict a gradual decline of women in coaching despite increased participatory numbers of women involved in sport. The failure to recruit and retain females into coaching roles has been attributed to a variety of causes, for example, the existence of certain barriers that prevent women from rising to elite levels. The exploratory work by Skilton (1994, 1995) and Blake and McKelvey (1999) are the only New Zealand studies to focus on barriers perceived by women in elite coaching roles. No studies were found that provided in-depth participant perspectives (including athletes and coaches) on a broad range of issues affecting the retention and recruitment of females in coaching.

The chapter then discussed gender equity and coach development issues and particular attention was paid to supportive schemes such as mentoring and networking, that may have potential in encouraging women in other areas of society including the realms of business and science. No research was uncovered that dealt directly with support mechanisms for elite female coaches in New Zealand, although discussions on mentoring and networking by Canadian Marion Lay (1993a, 1993b) provide a useful indication of the main support issues.

In order to consider the types of specialist gendered coaching knowledge coaches may need, especially given the likelihood that males will coach women at the elite level, the chapter turned to sample literature reporting physiological, psychological, pedagogical and health differences in female and male athletes. Coach awareness of physical issues, for example, upper body strength differences, may be important. Psychological factors, for example, self-esteem, were viewed as being especially important for women, and it is necessary to critically reflect on the practice of men, who have no experience of coaching women, filling elite coaching roles in that domain. Of further concern was the serious nature of health issues potentially affecting female athletes, for example the female triad

that links training and diet to menstrual disturbances and causes abnormal bone changes. Indeed, if these issues impact on performance, the absence of any studies directly addressing coach knowledge and gender differences needs to be addressed.

As a result of the literature reviews the researcher critically considered her initial research question that underpinned the present study:

What are the roles and qualities of elite women's field hockey coaches and to what extent are these moderated by the impact of gender?

The literature clearly outlined a paucity of information on roles and qualities of elite field hockey coaches. Indeed, it highlighted the lack of field research carried out in the elite coaching field to determine the roles and qualities revealed in the actual practice of such coaches, and found that the bulk of literature on coaches tended to come from levels below elite or from countries outside New Zealand. The literature on gender and the impact of gender differences is markedly limited. Consequently, the initial research question has not been answered by the researcher from the literature and now provides the basis for the next stage of the present research report. The study now turns to an examination of appropriate research methodology that may enlighten an understanding of this research question.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

Critical reflection upon the literature review reshaped the research questions and had implications for consequential research. This chapter details the methodology used by the researcher to consequently explore gendered coaching within elite women's field hockey through a wide range of perspectives and perceived realities of the researched field. Qualitative research methodology in the present project included participant observation, interviews, questionnaires, and document analysis. The data generated by this research were subjected to grounded theory modes of analysis and classification.

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Research considerations
 - 4.2.1 Research questions
 - 4.2.2 Research design
 - 4.2.3 The nature of qualitative research
 - 4.2.4 Ethical considerations
 - 4.2.5 Description of setting and participants
- 4.3 Data gathering procedures
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 - 4.3.4 Questionnaires
 - 4.3.5 Documents
- 4.4 Generating theory
 - 4.4.1 Grounded theory
 - 4.4.2 Triangulation and validity
- 4.5 Personal reflections on the methodology
- 4.6 Summary and review

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the methodology used to gather data and undertake analysis on the perceived roles and qualities of women's hockey coaches and the impact of gender on the enactment of such roles and qualities. The researcher has chosen a variety of qualitative modes in an attempt to discover, describe and interpret the multiplicity of perspectives brought forth in this setting, using a similar approach to that employed by McConnell (1996) in his study of elite rugby coaches and captains, and Theberge (1995a, 1997) in her study of an elite women's ice hockey team. This can be illustrated in an analogy described (though for a different purpose) by Taormina (1997) as a carpenter's belt which held a variety of tools, each having a special purpose. The tools are best utilised in combination with other tools and, more importantly, in the hands of a skilled worker, in order to complete the whole structure.

It was envisaged by the writer that the methodological tools put to use in this thesis would help build an interpretative framework, on which to paint, with a grounded research perspective, the phenomena of gendered coaching in elite women's hockey. This picture may provide a better perspective of barriers and issues than that currently available and may allow the development of strategic options, previously undiscovered, to be considered.

Attempts at portraying role realities in the field of elite team sport have been undertaken by journalists (see, for example, Simons, 1982; Shirley, 1999) who have spent many hours interviewing players or observing teams in order to report the details of sporting lives, and to write of the excitement and frustrations of life at the elite level. Players from such elite teams have also written detailed accounts of their exploits, including personal glimpses into their working and family lives (see Edge & Romanos, 1995; Kirk, 1997; Laidlaw, 1972). However, the sport of field hockey does not possess a rich array of such personal insights and stories.

The danger of relying on such accounts to portray sport realities is two-fold. Firstly, they do not systematically examine the daily patterns or team events from broader theoretical perspectives which might help to explain them (Whitson, 1977). Secondly, the lack of a systematic approach to evidence gathering may reduce the general applicability of any theory generated. In other words, conclusions and ideas generated from one account can not be used to generate solutions and strategies for another setting. Thirdly, the accounts are often written for financial gratification and hence audience appeal may affect the rationale behind the observations, making the sensational more likely to be reported.

This study aims to provide a realistic portrayal of elite women's field hockey from research guided by sound methodological principles, and to elucidate that everyday world within which the elite coaches and players operate. From this knowledge of the perceived realities of women's hockey, theory on gendered coaching in this elite women's sport is developed.

4.2 RESEARCH CONSIDERATIONS

4.2.1 Research question

The primary objective of this thesis was to generate theory about the roles and qualities of the coaches of elite women's field hockey teams from data gathered in the "real" environments of such teams. The intention was to analyse the data generated from in-depth research techniques as the basis for developing theory on gendered coaching and to suggest practical strategies for hockey administrators in problematic areas that may arise from the research findings. This broad objective was necessarily framed in a manageable research question designed to guide the study. This question, is as follows:

What are the roles and qualities of elite women's field hockey coaches and to what extent are these moderated by the impact of gender?

4.2.2 Research design

Decisions on research design have reflected the research orientation of Denzin and Lincoln (1994) and Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1994), suggesting that the researcher should aim to provide access to the fullest range of relevant research data using the appropriate field and research methodologies. Thus the intention of the present research design was to capture and record data drawn from the world of the participants and their perceived realities of elite coaching. McConnell (1996) mirrored the present researcher when he described his approach to the research questions on elite rugby coaching being founded on the belief "that we frame or construct the world through our experiences and perceptions; that this world has multiple realities constructed by its participants, and does not exist as a given or necessarily agreed upon state" (p. 81).

Of fundamental importance in the exploration of the "constructed world" is the relationship between the researcher and the central theme of the study – the understanding and realistic portrayal of coach role and qualities at the elite level in the sport of field hockey. This understanding was aided by the researcher's experiential background in elite women's hockey and her quantitative background and qualitative research experience that facilitated researcher-subject interactions and provided a basis for judicious reflection upon the data.

The challenge for the researcher in this thesis was to obtain, represent, and interpret the participant realities without succumbing to delimiting restrictions created by the researcher's experiential knowledge. In this study, experiential knowledge is, however, seen as a valuable tool along with the literature reviews, methodology modes and analytical processes, and is utilised to elucidate a deeper understanding of informant realities, to which an outsider may not be privy.

The belief that participants construct their own realities by their perceptions and subsequent interpretation of their environments (sporting and other), and in social action and interaction, underpins this present study. These "realities" are subject to constant change and re-negotiation and this is emphasised by commentators on qualitative research (Straus & Corbin, 1994; Tolich & Davidson, 1999). Furthermore, research into women's sporting realities has often been carried out by men, and this study heeds the growing number of academic voices, arising from feminist perspectives, urging women to research women (Duquin, 1994; Sinclair, 1998; Spender, 1988).

The primary method of data generation in this study was the participant observation of three provincial women's field hockey teams during their competitive seasons and respective tournaments, and participant observation of one national team during the build-up and competition at a major international tournament. These observations were complemented by semi-structured interviews with elite provincial coaches, elite player questionnaires, and the analysis of relevant documents. In this way, the data generated by any of the modes of enquiry were validated through triangulation and cross-referencing with data generated by the other methods noted.

The research process generated a large quantity and variety of rich qualitative data that were then subjected to analysis, categorisation and theory generation through the process of grounded theory. Grounded theory is discussed more fully later in this chapter, but it is appropriate at this point to explain that it provides a "way of thinking about and conceptualising data" (Strauss & Corbin, 1994, p. 275) so that order and understanding arrive out of the initial field complication of raw material. Figure 4.1 provides a visual representation of the research design.

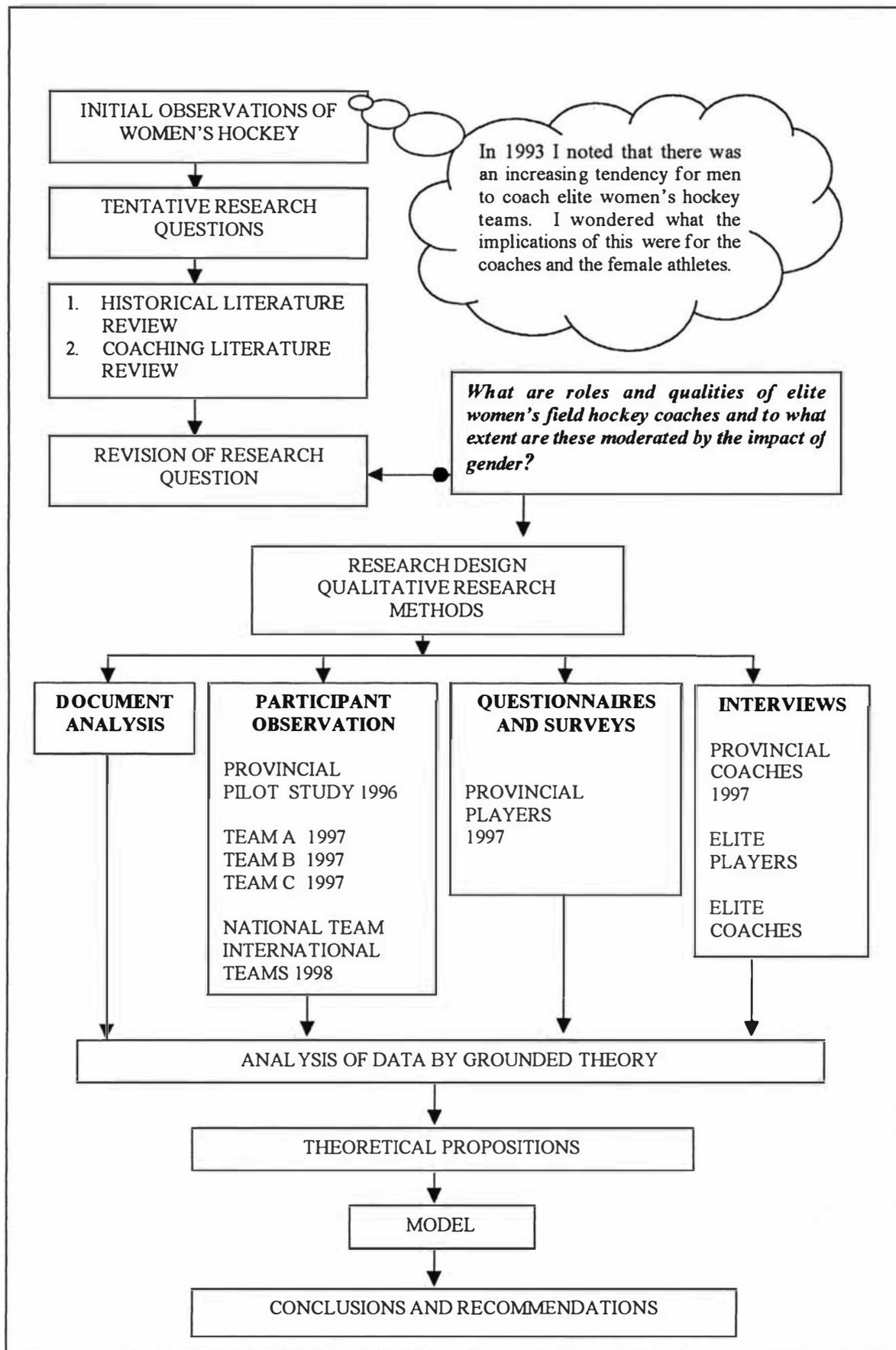


Figure 4.1. Research design map (After McConnell, 1996).

4.2.3 The nature of qualitative research

Qualitative research is sometimes seen as a catch-all term for a variety of methods used to research the human condition. The generic description offered by Denzin and Lincoln (1994, p. 2) captures the expansive nature of the term: "Qualitative research is multimethod in focus, involving interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings. Attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them". Qualitative research offers the researcher a way of getting a detailed picture of participant realities in terms of action, interaction along with reaction, consequence, and subsequent changes that may occur. A detailed sketch of the participants, their organisations and the interactions between the two, emerges as the researcher utilises the many and varied methodologies available under such a qualitative paradigm.

Central to qualitative research is the emphasis on gaining rich, in-depth data not based on precise measurement, statistical procedures, or other means of quantification (Abercrombie, Hill & Turner, 1984; Babbie, 1992; Lofland & Lofland, 1992) whereby theory is "discovered, developed, and provisionally verified through systematic data collection and analysis of data" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 23).

The main qualitative methods used in this study are more fully outlined in the data gathering procedures outlined on pages 109-125.

4.2.4 Ethical considerations

The elite hockey research setting in New Zealand is relatively small, and the observer was known to many of the participants. Consequently, critical considerations were given to ethical considerations in order to ensure the highest level of ethical research and to protect both the participants and researcher.

Research on human subjects involves ethical considerations born out of a sense of moral duty toward the participants and researcher. Lofland and Lofland (1984, p. 18) suggest two questions be answered prior to research on human subjects: "First, should this group, setting, situation, question, or whatever be studied by anyone? Second, should this group, setting, situation, question, or whatever be studied by me?"

The justification for pursuit of answers to these questions is found within research studies tracking the decline of women in elite coaching roles (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985a, 1992; Edwards, 1993, 1997; Holmen & Parkhouse, 1981; Skilton, 1994; White & Brackenridge, 1984) and those outlining the barriers for women in elite coaching (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985b; Knoppers, 1987; Lay 1993c; Lovett & Lowry, 1994; Skilton, 1994). It was the researcher's and supervisor's view that such literature on gender inequity justified an in-depth examination of the factors impacting upon elite coach roles and qualities in the elite setting. There was no ethical reason for the present researcher not to undertake the current research, as guarantees of anonymity and confidentiality were accepted by the participants. Although the researcher was known to some of the participants, this was viewed mutually as an advantage that allowed access to sites normally off-limits for outsiders, such as half-time team talks during test matches. Experiential knowledge was also seen to be a valuable aid for interpretation of the settings and compilation of data as the researcher had played provincial and international hockey and was familiar with virtually all on-field and off-field circumstances.

As with other research conducted within the paradigm of sociological research, utmost importance was given to the protection of participants in this study. In his qualitative study of All Black captains and coaches, McConnell (1996) modeled his ethical considerations around four ethical domains as outlined by Fetterman (1989), Kroll (1993), and Safrit (1993). These domains have been adapted for use in this present study.

Establishing field entry and trust

Explanation of research goals, expected duration, procedures, benefits of research to the subject, availability of the researcher's supervisor for subjects' questions or queries.

As the current researcher is involved in the sport of hockey and plans to continue that involvement, it was especially important that ethical considerations were fully examined. Therefore, an application for ethical approval was an important priority and was accepted by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee. Conditions that aimed to protect the participants included collecting signed consent forms from all coaches who participated in the study (see Appendix H.2 and I.3). Coaches were guaranteed anonymity in the subsequent results of the research and all publications that followed, and were given the assurance in writing that they could withdraw from the research at any time. No coaches withdrew from the study. One provincial coach at a national tournament did not grant permission for an interview and although they agreed to an informal meeting without note-taking and tape recording, the data were not subsequently included for analysis. As an

added protection for the subjects, the name and address of both academic supervisors were supplied on the information sheet to allow subjects to contact them, for further information or confirmation of the research procedures. No person contacted either supervisor.

At the commencement of research in each site, full explanations of the aims and scope of the study were given to the team coaches, management and players. Information sheets were supplied which outlined the researcher's interest in the topic and suggested benefits such as coaching development. The researcher pledged a summary of the recommendations and conclusions would be available on the completion of the study, written in lay person's language.

Of note was the insistence of the Massey University Human Ethics Committee seeking clarification of the researcher's role in provincial women's hockey during the time of research. The committee felt that, given the detailed knowledge an observer would acquire over an entire hockey season, she would then be in a strong position to coach an opposition team the following season. A two-year stand down period of my own involvement was suggested, to allow significant changes in team personnel and tactics to occur over that period. In accordance with this condition, the researcher has not played any role as coach, manager, or team consultant, in elite women's hockey during the data collection or writing-up phases of this study, as requested by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee.

Status of records

Confidentiality, availability to subjects, publication without informant identification, final summary or copy to informants.

Records, including such information as field notes, questionnaires and interviews, were shared amongst four people: the subject, the researcher, and the supervisors. Codes were written on all records, to prevent subject identification by anyone except the researcher. Copies of field notes and interviews were posted to key participants for their consideration and comment. Participant feedback was valued as an added check on the study's reliability and, on two occasions, a key informant phoned to discuss my interpretation of an event, and their response was noted as a post-script to the field notes. It was appreciated when three coaches informed the researcher over the period of field study that the field notes were very interesting and a source of self-reflection. In contrast with McConnell (1996), field notes were not available to the players, except by permission of

the coach, because the players were not the focus of the study and the field notes often contained information that players could regard as being sensitive, especially when observations recorded the players not obeying specific instructions. No coach shared their transcripts with the players during the time frame of the research.

Questionnaire responses from the provincial teams were also coded to protect participants from identification and stored at the researcher's home. Similarly, tape recorded interviews were fully transcribed after the interview by the researcher, checked by the subjects, coded and then stored at the researcher's home.

Subject rights

Participation was voluntary and anonymous.

The consent forms assured the participants that they had a right to withdraw from the study at any time. Permission to observe team players in all settings was sought at a team meeting conducted by each respective coach. No player voiced an objection to the study but it should be noted that players could have been influenced by their coach's agreement to the research and may have felt uncomfortable in opposing access. With this possibility in mind, players were given both written and verbal explanation of the questionnaires by the researcher who explained the concepts of voluntary participation and confidentiality, including the promise that they would not be identified by name. Players were assured of their freedom to answer some questions and not others or to decline the invitation to take part in the players' questionnaire.

Protection of subjects

Response to questionable circumstances and preventing harm to participants.

Initial discussions with the coaches included the assurance that the researcher would not bring harm to the participants. In the event of any inappropriate or embarrassing behaviour occurring, which may have compromised an individual or team's self-esteem, the inclusion of the incident in field notes was to be discussed by the coach and the researcher. It was agreed that the implications for research accuracy and integrity would be dealt with if, and when, the situation arose. Only once during the study was the researcher denied access from a team setting when a player was suspended from play and had to endure a disciplinary hearing. The researcher's field notes included a description, in general, of the on-field incident but specific details were not included because the

researcher consulted with the coach and then voluntarily denied herself access to the subsequent meeting of officials and player.

Advice from one supervisor was sought in regard to one player's questionnaire response on sexual harassment. The player strongly disagreed with the statement "coach does not harass me". It was decided that as the questionnaire response did not contain details of the perceived harassment, the established research procedure would be followed and the grouped summary results sent to the coach as had been done with all the other coaches. This coach was then aware that one member on his team thought she had been the subject of harassment by the coach, which may have given rise to feelings of anger and guilt, depending on what had occurred. Similarly, for the player, the act of completing the questionnaire may have evoked psychological distress, and feelings of guilt and other unpleasant emotions (McKinney, 1992; as cited in Babbie, 1992). The researcher finds possible distress to both parties regrettable and her research ethics have protected the identities of the individuals concerned.

4.2.5 Description of setting and participants

The dearth of first-hand elite level coaching research explicating coach roles and qualities, the lack of coaching studies examining gender issues within the coaching environment, and the researcher's own experience and familiarity with coaching structures in New Zealand led the researcher to choose the elite women's hockey setting and participants for this present study.

Prior to such field research, the researcher acquired a full understanding of her intended field methodologies and undertook a pilot study utilising these. One provincial women's hockey team was observed during the first two months of the 1996 season. The pilot phase was followed by the research proper, with participant observations of provincial women's hockey teams during indoor and outdoor training sessions, pre-match team talks, half-time talks, post-match evaluations, representative matches, and social occasions. The following field note extract illuminates some aspects of the settings encountered.

Four members of the team sat together in the old wooden stand. One player, her hair still wet from the after-match shower, produced what appeared to be an old army rug, which they then spread over their legs. They quickly squashed together until they were touching shoulder to shoulder, in the way team familiarity ignores personal space conventions. The coach sat directly in front of them and when asked if he wanted any rug, he laughed and said there wasn't enough room. His attention quickly

returned to the turf where the next game had begun. The rest of the team sat scattered about in the stand, also watching the game... (Field Notes, 7.9.96)

The participant observations occurred over the latter part of the 1996 season and the entire 1997 season and are discussed in more detail later in this chapter. The researcher also had the opportunity to observe elite men's hockey coaches in action during a test match series and an academy team's training week. Although this opportunity was not part of the formal study proper, it widened the author's perspective and helped initiate the discussions with the New Zealand women's hockey team coaches that led to the subsequent observation of the women's team in international competition.

Following the observation of the provincial team, the researcher's presence was accepted by the New Zealand Women's Hockey Team, at training sessions and an international hockey test series in 1998. As with the provincial setting, the researcher was admitted to pre-match talks, half-time talks, post match evaluation and small group player meetings. Informal interviews were conducted with team members and coaches during this time. The time-frame of the study was subsequently extended to allow the inclusion of data from the Fédération Internationale de Hockey World Cup in Holland in May 1998. At this tournament valuable information was gathered at the team's social functions and through regular contact with team members, and through analysis of daily diaries and other documentary sources.

One outstanding feature of the world cup complex was the provision of an especially built children's turf placed between the two main competition surfaces. Children placed their names on a list, were given coloured bibs, and organised into opposing teams, for 6 a side games commencing at regular intervals. Coaching sessions by ex-elite Dutch players gave advice to aspiring youngsters. These Dutch players, female and male, were apparently regarded as sporting heroes, and the adoration of certain star players, reminded me of how New Zealand children react to rugby greats such as Michael Jones (Field Notes, 2.6.98).

In all of these settings, observation of the coach as the primary research subject was of paramount importance, with attention being directed toward coach action in regard to the coaching process, and coach interaction with players, administrators, spectators, parents and significant others. Observational data were enriched by semi-structured and informal interviews with provincial and national coaches that elicited their personal perspectives.

4.3 DATA GATHERING PROCEDURES

4.3.1 Pilot study of procedures

During the 1996 hockey season, the researcher piloted the research project in the setting of one elite women's hockey team. This involved interviews with and participant observation of the coach and coach interactions with other participants including players, management and the provincial hockey organisation. Observations of the team included three training sessions, three competition games (including pre-match talks, half-time talks and post-match talks), three team meetings and one social occasion. Over the course of the pilot study, informal interviews were carried out with the two ex-provincial coaches, one current provincial coach, one team manager and ten elite women hockey players.

The time frame of the pilot study covered the team's first two months (April and May) of their build up to the 1996 national tournament. No questionnaires were administered to the team during the pilot phase of the study.

Full ethical procedures were followed although, with the supervisors' concurrence, no formal approval was obtained from the Massey University Human Ethics Committee for the pilot study phase. Informed consent was sought, as it would be in the study proper, to ensure protection of both the participants and researcher as the author was known to many of the subjects. Similarly, a proposed outline of the research and expected outcomes was verbally communicated to all members of the team.

The pilot study served a number of purposes. Most importantly, it was used as a way of establishing "trust, rapport and authentic communication patterns with participants" (Janesick, 1994, p. 211) and also for determining the level of acceptance that could be gained by the researcher. As a former team mate and/or coach of some team members, and having been an acquaintance and former rival of the team's coach, it seemed necessary to experience the levels of discomfort associated with sitting quietly in a corner of the changing rooms observing and recording everything that occurred. Lofland and Lofland (1984) warn of the emotional stresses involved in such qualitative research and suggest that knowing the possibilities and sources of stress ahead of time is helpful. For example, two common sources of stress for participant researchers in studies such as this are firstly, sympathy and the impulse to help and secondly, the temptation to go native.

The pilot study allowed practice at dealing with situations such as players or coaches asking for coaching advice from the researcher, and preventing club groups (sub-groups of the team that come from one club team) within the team adopting the researcher into their group. The pilot study allowed the researcher to set the parameters of her involvement with the team and clearly demonstrate the impartial observer/recorder stance to be adopted in the study proper.

Indeed, the pilot study also allowed the researcher to ascertain many helpful practices and strategies to maximise opportunities for data collection. For example, arriving fifteen minutes before a pre-match talk in order to find a space at the back of the room where the participants could be unobtrusively observed. Another example was the practice of carrying a small cushion to sit on, to avoid a repeat of the embarrassing situation that arose during an early team meeting because of chair unavailability. The following quote from the researcher's notebook explains:

I learnt an important lesson last night at the pre-match talk. I arrived early and seated myself at the back of the room as usual. After the coach had started the meeting, one player arrived late, glanced around the room to see that there were no chairs left. I immediately offered my chair, interrupting the meeting, but was turned down by the player who said she wanted to sit on the floor. The quality of field notes on this occasion was below standard as I felt uncomfortable about both the interruption and the incident (Researcher's Notebook, 8.5.96).

The pilot study also allowed feedback on the actual process of recording data. On two occasions during the pilot study I carried out, with one of my academic supervisors (who had experience in participation observation), a simultaneous but separate observation of the team's training session. Each dual observation was followed the next day by a field note comparison and intensive review of processes and records. For example, the supervisor's examination of pilot study field notebooks led to the suggestion of frequently recording times in the margin of field notebooks in order to monitor the flow of time and the amount of notes recorded per time period. It was hoped that such academic feedback would lead to improved field note richness and increased self-reflection on the method utilised for data gathering.

Janesick (1994) believes that pilot studies can allow the researcher to focus on particular areas that may have been unclear previously and allow tentative testing of questions. This

is valuable and enriching for later phases in the study. In this way the researcher moved towards certain elements that appeared to be central factors in the setting, such as the role, qualities and style of the coach, the coach interaction with key players in the team, and players' perspectives of the coaching process.

In summary, it is believed that the pilot study made a valuable contribution to this study's progression. This phase of research helped the researcher to:

1. Establish trust, rapport and authentic communication patterns with key participants in the study.
2. Test initial questions and focus points of interest while confirming the usefulness of a multi-method qualitative research design.
3. Increase in self-confidence in the enactment of the observer role as well as in the organisation and initial analysis of a relatively large amount of field data.
4. Develop and test practical routines and strategies including establishing the central role of the researcher's field notebook and self-reflections in the observation record.
5. Gain an opportunity for early feedback on field data from experienced academic supervisors, and hence increase the researcher's self-reflection and competence in field research.

4.3.2 Participant observation

In essence the participant observational phase of research aimed to capture the "biological experience" as eloquently expressed by Denzin (1989):

This means that we want to capture the stories of everyday persons as they tell about the pains, the agonies, the emotional experiences, the small and the large victories, the traumas, the fears, the anxieties, the dreams, fantasies, and the hopes in their lives. We want to make those stories available to others (p. 139).

Of note in Denzin's quotation is the sense that even the small victories provide "stories"; indeed in the hands of a sensitive interpretative researcher, it may be argued that upon full and considered reflection, the small reveals the special. Commonplace events and perceived environmental realities may often be crucial aspects worthy of portrayal rather than the special, one-off incidents commonly portrayed in the media in regard to elite coaching.

Participant observation of elite women's hockey teams generated the bulk of the research data (see Figure 4.1). Two provincial coaches in their team settings were the main focus of participant observation, but circumstances allowed the initial parameters of the study to

be subsequently expanded to incorporate observations of the head coach and assistant coach of the New Zealand women's hockey team. These observations were designed to describe, explore, and eventually analyse the whole social milieu of the coach, as the study's main focus, and the team of players as members of the group. Team members' perspectives were also sought to elucidate their perceptions of coaching style, role, qualities and processes.

Over the course of the study, the researcher observed three provincial coaches during their competitive seasons, including in-depth observations with their teams for 144.5 hours. One team was observed to a greater degree than the other, due to practical considerations of location, travel times, and expenses. This team was studied during the latter phases of 1996 and the whole of the 1997 season. A second team was observed to provide a different perspective during 1997 only. A third provincial side was observed for one training session, one meeting and three matches.

		Number of Trainings	Number of Meetings	Number of Games	Estimate of hours
Provincial Team A					
	1996	5	3	6	26.5 hours
	1997	8	5	10	43.5 hours
Provincial Team B					
	1997	5	2	10	33 hours
Provincial Team C					
	1997	1	1	3	9.5 hours
National team					
	1998	5	4	8	32 hours
Total	1996-1998	24	15	37	144.5 hours

*This estimate does not include the hours of the pilot study or hours of observations of informal social settings such as after-match functions.

Figure 4.2. Number of hours of participant observations.

Observations of all teams used for analysis included team-training sessions, team meetings, social gatherings and match-related situations including pre-match talks, warm-

ups, half-time talks, and post-match talks. The participant observation culminated in a focused phase of research that included 32 hours in-depth observations of the New Zealand women's hockey team carried out during 1998. Figure 4.2 summarises the hours and types of observations that provided data for this phase of the present study. Data obtained from these observations were triangulated whenever possible with document analysis and data from other methods of inquiry, including questionnaires and interviews.

The study of elite sport realities, with its associated closed networks of communication and extensive information control, presents the researcher with a dilemma of gaining access. Jonassohn, Turowetz and Gruneau (1981, p. 188) believe that "observation, participant observation, and intensive interviewing techniques" are the best methodologies for studying sport cultures and gaining access to otherwise closed settings.

Entry to the research site was negotiated between the researcher and the coach. As with the pilot study, the coach asked the team, during a team meeting, for their approval. This was given on all occasions. The coach was provided with a one page written explanation of the research aims and objectives and was given the right to withdraw from the study at any time (see Appendix H.1). The researcher provided a consent form, approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, for the participating coaches to sign (see Appendix H.2). All did so. Permission for the field research to be conducted in an elite tournament setting was also sought from the New Zealand Hockey Federation by way of formal letter, and this received a favourable response.

Research role

Methodological literature has suggested a variety of stances available for adoption by the observer. For example, Gold (1958; as cited by Atkinson & Hammersley, 1994) suggested a four-fold typology: complete observer, observer as participant, participant as observer, and complete participant. This linear typology represents varying degrees of paired extremes such as familiarity/strangeness, detachment/involvement, and closeness/distance. Initially, the stance of *observer as participant* was adopted as it signified a formality and separation that was needed in the early stages to signify the researcher (who was known to many of the participants) was no longer on-site as a coach or player but in a more disinterested role. The pilot study was instrumental in demonstrating that the researcher needed more flexibility in moving from one typological stance to another in order to view the setting from a range of different perspectives.

In this study the researcher has adopted the peripheral membership role described by (Adler & Adler, 1994, p. 380) as being able to “observe and interact closely enough with members to establish an insider’s identity without participating in those activities constituting the core of the group membership”. Furthermore, the research stance was overt, in that all players were aware that the coach was the focus of the study and they could see the researcher writing notes and tracking the coach. A small amount of research may, however, be considered as covert, in that the players may not have been aware that coach-player actions, interactions and the consequences of those, were also being observed. Thus, while the general aims and explanations of the research were known to the whole group, the actual points of interest and emergent categories of data remained undisclosed. Nonetheless, the researcher at times, by her very presence, was drawn into situations of interaction with players that sometimes had the propensity to shift the balance of disinterest.

Adoption of the role of researcher, on occasions, lead to situations where there was an intersection with private matters of players. This problem arose for me during my third week of observation when one player told me she was trapped in a labyrinth of self-loathing and loss of confidence which had alienated her from the rest of the team and the coach. In this case I adopted the stance suggested by Lyons (1992) and chose to counsel the player and offer friendly advice. Although I later recorded this information in my researcher’s notebook, the coach remained unaware of the player’s personal difficulties as I felt that my recording of the player’s confidence would have breached the player’s trust in myself as a listener.

Stages of observation

Changes occurred in the types and quality of data collected over the period of participant observation. These changes have been expressed diagrammatically in Figure 4.3.

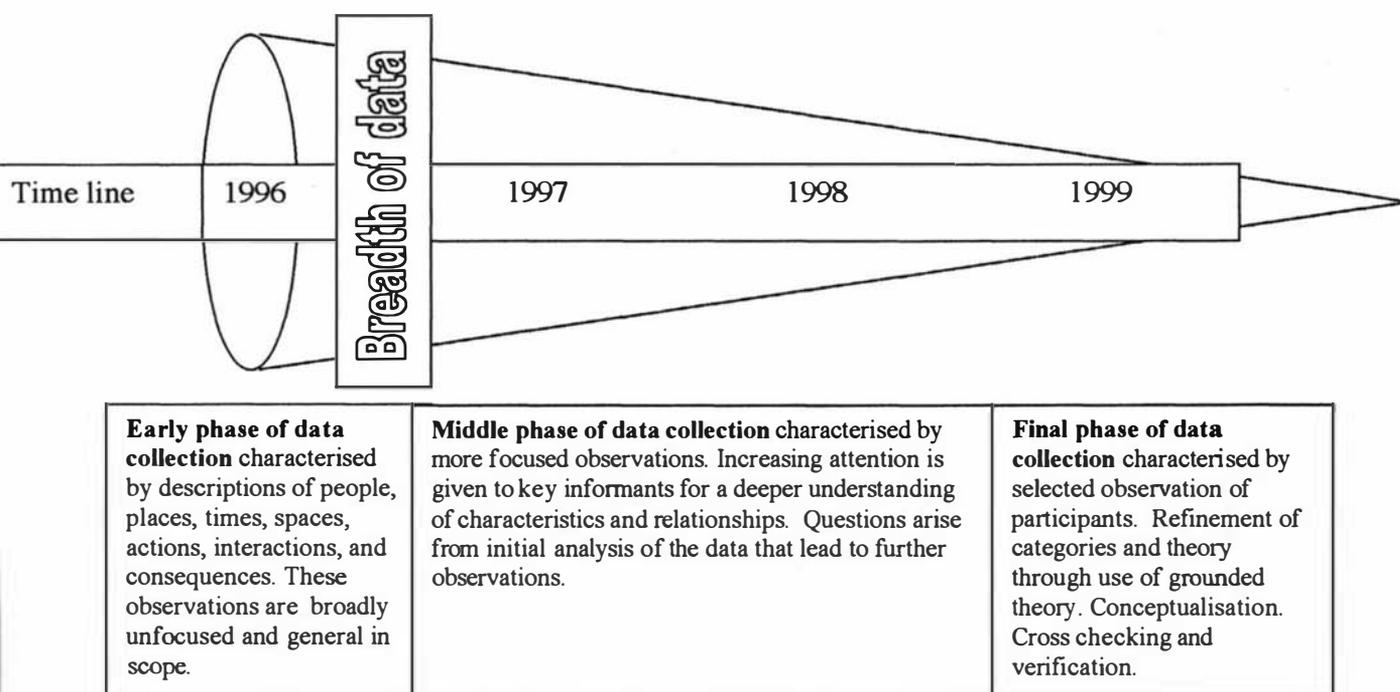


Figure 4.3. Overview of main observation stages.
(After Adler & Adler, 1994; Denzin 1989; Jorgensen, 1989; Spradley, 1980)

Data collection

Settings for collection of the participant observation data have been described previously in this chapter (namely, provincial, national and international) and facilitated data collection for all areas of the coaching role, except private contacts between participants. For example, no private meetings were attended and no inter-group telephone conversations, other than those between researcher and subject, were included for analysis. Similarly, the researcher did not seek permission to attend meetings between the coach and the organisation in which they were working (e.g. the New Zealand coach and the New Zealand Hockey Federation), but elicited perspectives of such interactions through interviews and informal talks with key informants.

The environments that proved most useful for observed data collection were: indoor and outdoor training sessions, including the pre-training gathering and post-training talk; the match day, including the pre-match talk, warm-up, half-time talk, post-match talk and events such as the social hosting of the opposition team; travel to games, including shared transport (car and airplane trips) to distant venues; visits to official team accommodation at tournaments or training camps; and social occasions.

Throughout the research process, notes were kept in a series of small hard cover notebooks. The date, time and general description of the setting were recorded at the beginning of each observation. Notes were then typed during the evening of the day's observation. The primacy and impact of the observation material sometimes generated further recall which then was incorporated in the researcher's notebook in italic form. In this way, the researcher knew what she had observed first hand and what she had remembered subsequently. These transcripts were given to the coach for comment and a note was made of any points or explanations given by the coach. (Typically, one match observation would cover ten typed pages.) Such participant cross checking was followed by tentative coding of the material. This coding included the addition of further questions, highlighted in bold, to emphasise the points that needed greater exploration through selected observation of, or interview with, the key informants.

At every stage, but typically immediately after the observation and field note expansion, the researcher reflected upon the observation experience and recorded notes in the Researcher's Notebook. The initial intention was to record self-reflections as a personal diary but as the study progressed, the Researcher's Notebook became an important tool for making connections between the literature and the field, and as a self-monitor of the researcher's mood and use of methodology. It was also used in a manner suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990) to review the actual steps taken during a session of data analysis to see beyond the obvious and attain a level of interpretation largely devoid of prior assumptions.

The following extract from the Researcher's Notebook illustrates the researcher's feelings and consequential self-monitoring arising from one situation during a tournament:

I am worried about why the coach was not keen to speak to me. I think back to the notes I had sent out. Was there anything that I had written in the last field notes that had caused this upset? Why did the coach seem so uncomfortable? Why would their attitude have changed so much? (Researcher's Notebook, 9.10.97).

The texts on participant observations rarely provide insights of the day-to-day realities of the research. The Researcher's Notebook provided reminders of actions designed to lessen intrusions such as the avoidance of page turning during moments of silence, having a spare sharp pencil readily to hand, stifling coughs or sneezes, and arriving early carrying a cushion on which to sit to avoid last minute seat changing. Apart from noting such

practicalities and occasional impediments in the research process, the Researcher's Notebook had a special value in its use as a journal of critical reflection. This complemented the systematic process of recording, typing and expanding, cross-checking, coding, and theory generation, which are the key elements in participant observation methodology.

Theory was generated by critical reflection and analysis of the systematic coding and interpretation of fully annotated observation transcripts, following the methods consistent with those detailed in Strauss and Corbin (1990) and Lofland and Lofland (1984). The typed data were firstly coded, line-by-line, using pencil notes jotted in an especially wide right-hand margin to record names of categories as they occurred to the researcher. This author, following her main supervisor's example, (see McConnell, 1996), utilised a practice explained by Strauss and Corbin (1990) as: "The most important thing is to name a category, so that you can remember it, think about it, and most of all begin to think about it analytically" (p. 68).

These named categories were called positive codings because they were to be used directly in creating theories. Negative codings were poorly defined phenomena, incidents, actions and the like that were noted in the left-hand margin to provide a prompt for future attention. These negative codings also drew attention toward "red flag" phenomena that suggested to the researcher that something was going on that needed a more detailed examination. For example, if the researcher recorded a coach's reaction to a player turning up late to a team meeting, the researcher may need to find out if this was a typical reaction or otherwise, if the player's reason was genuine, and to examine any consequences of this lateness. These incidents or observations were marked clearly with a 'highlighter' pen.

Immediately following the initial coding, the researcher composed a list of all the questions that she could ask about the categories written in the margin. Secondly, the researcher sought to compare categories with those drawn out in previous occasions and her 1996 pilot study. At this stage, emergent concepts were written on cards kept in a series of folders to enable a reshuffling and regrouping of these throughout the research. Attempts at improving the theoretical sensitivity of the data were made at this early stage. These methodological tools, for example, "flip-flop" and "far-out comparisons", are fully explained in Strauss and Corbin (1990, p. 84, p. 90).

In determining the categories, this author used a continuing process of critical review and constant moderation and adjustment as trialled successfully in the pilot study. Central to this process was the continual critical reflection upon the tentative framing of categories. In this sense, the study followed exactly the outlines set up Strauss and Corbin (1990). In any such process of human recording and analysis there is the possibility of bias, as will be discussed later in the section on validity (p. 131). It is strongly felt, by the researcher, that in the present study such bias was minimised by continual dialogue between herself and a key supervisor who had field experience of research in grounded theory and another supervisor who brought the critical detachment of being some distance from the field research milieu.

The final process of data generation, which arose from combining the categories and properties that arose from all phases of the research, is discussed in the section on grounded theory later in this chapter (see p. 125).

4.3.3 Interviews

In the context of this study, semi-structured interviews and informal interviews provided an avenue for the participants' voices to permeate this study by providing a body of data reflective of coaching role realities that was complementary to data generated by participant observation. McBride (1989) states that "interviews allow the researcher to gain knowledge about intrinsic factors that cannot be observed, including feelings, values, thoughts, and intentions. Interviewing, in sum, permits access to another person's perspective" (p. 423), and such a perspective is viewed by feminists as being a worthy tool to include in a study where women's voices are sought by a woman researcher, which removes the power differential commonly found when men interview women (Oakley, 1988).

Interviews also allowed for points of interest arising from the participant observation data to be checked, reformulated, tested and validated in much the same way as the process of triangulation has been used by other researchers (see Griffin & Templin, 1989).

Semi-structured interviews were utilised as the primary methodology to give voice to coach perspectives on the impact of gender on the coaching experience at the elite level. Fetterman (1989) suggests that this method is advantageous over formal or structured interviews in so far as clarification and topic expansion may be developed but fall within

the bounds of broad parameters. The semi-structured interviews had the advantage of allowing responses to common questions to be compared across the body of respondents. A further advantage of using this type of interview method was that the order of questions was clear and provided security for the interviewer that a level of focus could be maintained while still allowing freedom for the subject to roam beyond the most obvious and immediate answers. Another advantage of semi-structured interviews was the ability to be guided by a specific number of questions, which assured the subjects that the interview would be conducted within a reasonable time frame.

Twelve semi-formal interviews were conducted with 1997 provincial women's hockey coaches. Eleven coach interviews were undertaken over a period spanning ten days around national hockey tournament in September 1997. Most interviews were conducted in a room at the hockey ground during a period of the week when the coach was free from team responsibilities. One interview was conducted in the motel room assigned to the coach, two interviews were conducted in the researcher's motel room, and one took place after tournament at the researcher's own home.

The time-frame of the interviews ranged from one hour and fifteen minutes to four hours and twenty-nine minutes. After an initial welcome, the interview proper began with a brief explanation by the researcher as to the nature of the study. This recapitulated an overview of the study's aims and objectives provided in the information sheet forwarded to the subject prior to the interview. A consent form, posted to each participant earlier, was collected during this initial stage of the interview (if it had not been returned already) and this was carried out with an added assurance on matters of anonymity and confidentiality. The subject was also asked for permission to tape record the interview. All but one subject agreed. The interview then proceeded following the semi-structured interview form (see Appendix I).

In my role as the researcher and interviewer, in this study, I adopted the stance of interested listener (Fontana & Frey, 1994) in an attempt to generate a situation similar to a focused conversation. "This, in turn, encourages subjects to talk on their own terms and uncovers meanings that the subjects construct about their social world and operative frames of reference" (McConnell, 1996, p. 105). However, due to the possibility that the tape recorder might fail, and despite the possibility that note-taking would distract the

subject, handwritten notes were jotted throughout the duration of the interview as suggested by Tolich and Davidson (1999).

Fully typed transcripts were subsequently posted to each participant with an invitation to make additions or comment. One transcript was returned with added information and further comment. In three cases, I received positive feedback reporting on the positive experience of the interview. One subject subsequently wrote and thanked me for “a wonderful opportunity to reflect on the coaching experience” while another told me he would contact a former mentor coach to ask for help because this topic arose during the interview. My general impression, as noted in my research diary, was that “*coaches did not get many opportunities to talk about their experiences of coaching and enjoyed this occasion which allowed them to discuss elite level coaching from their own perspective*” (Researcher’s Notebook, 23.9.97).

The initial interview guide was constructed from my own experiential knowledge of elite women’s hockey and information gathered from the literature review chapters. The interview was piloted with two former coaches of elite women’s hockey. The interview guide (see Appendix I.1) was reduced in length following critical feedback of transcripts from these trial coaches and the chief supervisor.

The pilot interviews also allowed the researcher to address possible problems, such as honesty of expression, that have been associated with interview data (Dean & Whyte, 1958). In this present research the interviewer was known to five of the subjects and this may have influenced (positively or negatively) the degree of disclosure with which the subjects felt comfortable. Given that one question addressed coach-player relationships, sensitivity and empathetic reaction to participant responses was a high priority. Other factors to influence the reliability and validity of interview data include: ulterior motives; informant desire to please; poor or distorted recall; or conscious reshaping of an event (Dean & Whyte, 1958). In order to counter these effects the researcher followed McConnell’s (1996) example and called upon a range of reflective research techniques including examination for implausibility, suspicion and recognition of distortion.

Another important consideration in regard to interviews was that of participant gender. Most interviews were conducted with men, as these made up the majority of the population of elite women’s hockey coaches. It is therefore assumed that because the

interviewer is female, the interview takes place within the cultural boundaries of a paternalistic social system and as such may be subject to gender effects (Denzin, 1989). If, as Oakley (1988) suggested, interviewing is a masculine paradigm, this present research rejects the more formal approach whereby the interviewer is a dispassionate observer. A feminist style of considering the interviewer as human, free to interact, answer questions and express feelings is preferred and consequently avoids the “hierarchical pitfall” (Reinharz, 1992, p. 22).

A further consideration in regard to interview methodology, especially in the New Zealand context, is that of cultural awareness. Interviews in New Zealand present some unique cultural possibilities of bias as there may be a deep distrust and suspicion of researchers by Maori subjects (Smith, 1986, 1999). Although the present researcher has Maori ancestors, her outwardly Pakeha appearance had potential to dissuade Maori from participation in the research. Smith (1986) explains the problems of individual interviews with Maori who have a different concept of knowledge possession than Pakeha:

The connection of knowledge with mana could mean that an informant is not going to reveal too much, is not going to admit lack of knowledge, is going to assert influence or a picture of dominance by what s/he chooses to reveal and is going to give an individual view from an individual perspective of group knowledge and activities (p. 9).

This consideration led to informal or unstructured interviews being used in an attempt to overcome cultural differences in the way that knowledge is perceived by the two cultures. It was hoped that the use of informal or non-formal interviews, along the lines of “structured conversation” occurring within the boundaries of participant observations, would preserve the mana associated with knowledge, and reduce the likelihood of fear and distrust which may distort the voices of participants. In this sense, the research has incorporated methodology which may have been more appropriate for Maori participants (see Teariki & Spoonley, 1992) through a sharing of knowledge rather than the more Pakeha orientated concept of knowledge being given to the researcher in the form of tapes and transcripts.

Informal interviews have been successfully employed by Theberge (1995a, 1997) in her research study of women’s ice hockey in Canada where she used a combination of observations, formal interviews and informal discussions to provide a rich array of data for interpretation. Support for using everyday conversations to collect data has also been

shown to be effective in New Zealand studies, for example Tolich's work with jockeys in the racing industry (Tolich & Davidson, 1999).

Similarly, in this research project, informal interviews were frequently conducted with players, spectators, parents, partners, managers and administrators within the settings encountered. These informal interviews mainly occurred with players or coaches at post-match gatherings, during shared travel to games, and social settings where semi-formal interviews may have been impractical. In this way valuable additional information about the settings was gained and the researcher's elite hockey world immersion was deepened.

4.3.4 Questionnaires

Questionnaires were utilised as another primary methodology source during the NZHF National Provincial Hockey Tournament in 1997. Babbie (1992) believes that this type of survey research is probably the best method of collecting original data for representing a population too large to be directly observed. This methodology provided an efficient means of gathering data from the large player population in order to complement and contrast data gathered in other phases of research, including participation observation and coach interviews.

Self-administered questionnaires were used in this study in order to gain perspectives from a large number of players over a short period of time. Every female player in the participating teams, at the week long national tournament, was provided with a questionnaire (see Appendix J.1) in order to generate data illustrative of the player's perceptions of coach role and qualities and the impact of gender on the coaching process. The team coaches and managers had been approached by the researcher and asked for permission for the team to take part in this phase of the research questionnaire. Managers were provided with one copy of the questionnaire for each team member, which included a full information sheet outlining the goals and objectives of the research project (see Appendix J.2). In most cases the researcher met with the teams and explained these goals personally, in order to answer any questions the players might have and also to improve the prospect of gaining a higher response rate.

Each questionnaire was accompanied by a stamped self-addressed envelope to ensure confidential returns. However, players were given a choice of posting their own returns or placing them in a large envelope for their team manager to post. Nine teams chose bulk

collection and post. Two teams chose to post individual returns separately and these were the two groups with lowest response rate, probably due to the fact that finding a post outlet may prove time consuming for many people. The overall response rate for the questionnaire was 79.5%, which exceeded expectations, and therefore no formal follow up postings of questionnaires was deemed necessary.

The players were informed that each team's results would be collated separately as some of the questions required coach-specific answers. Players were told the forms were coded to allow team identification but not individual identification and were assured that their own coach would only receive group-collated data and not individual feedback from players. They were also provided with the written assurance (in the information sheet) that they could leave any questions blank if they considered them to be inappropriate or insensitive. Only one player left any blank spaces in the questionnaire responses.

The questionnaire contained core questions that were also asked in the semi-structured interviews with coaches. That meant the researcher was gaining possible key perspectives of coaching from both players (in written form) and coaches (orally). As with the interview guide, questions were piloted with three ex-provincial players who provided valuable feedback, and checked by two colleagues experienced in the art of social research.

It would have been valuable to have completed the interview phase of the study and follow it with the player questionnaire as recommended by Fetterman (1989). However, in practical terms, with the coach interviews being held at the same time, to have followed Fetterman's procedure, would have entailed an inordinate amount of travel and disproportionate amount of expense and researcher time. Additionally, the researcher felt the opportunity to meet personally with the players and possibly obtain a high response rate was another deciding factor in the conjoint method research design.

4.3.5 Documents

Documents such as those produced by coach, player, hockey organisations, including the international (e.g. Fédération Internationale de Hockey), national (e.g. New Zealand Hockey Federation), and provincial (e.g. Auckland Hockey Association) were collected as data and utilised in this study. Annual reports, for example, provided particularly valuable information on planned coach development pathways, educational opportunities and coach

promotions. Documents with common features were grouped together for critical consideration as shown in Figure 4.4. and included newspaper articles and reports displayed on the FIH web page with relevance to this study.

Justification for the use of such written types of documents has been provided by Lincoln and Guba (1985), who note the broad possibilities of documents available for analysis, and Fetterman (1989) who believes that material documentation may indicate purpose, images concerns, priorities, goals or organisational values. For example, notes from a player's personal diary written after one NZHF National Tournament game, indicate a loss of direction and a sense of dissatisfaction:

I got five minutes. Five minutes! Five minutes isn't a lot to show the selectors I'm back. I played so well last week. I knew 'Bee' [player] would get on as she is back from injury. Why didn't he [Provincial Coach] tell me? What is the plan? (Player's personal diary, undated).

Such examinations of personal documents have been used in many social research settings (see May, 1997) but are often accompanied by warnings of potential bias. For example, documents such as newspaper articles reporting on coach views may be gender biased because men are in the numerical majority of coaches at the elite level. Women's voices, therefore, are often missing from, or muffled within, certain types of documents. Another source of bias is noted by May (1997) in that "what people decide to record, to leave in or take out, is itself informed by decisions which relate to the social, political, and economic environment of which they are part" (pp. 149-150).

It is important to note that documents collected in this study were not formally analysed using content analysis (Sarantakos, 1998) but formed the subject of critical reflection by the researcher. They were mainly used to supplement data (derived mainly by in-depth participant observations, interviews, and questionnaires), that were subjected to analysis through grounded theory. Documents were also used to highlight possible areas for the researcher's consideration in the other domains, such as participant observation, to which the researcher may not have give due consideration.

1. COACH	Game plans Annual/Strategic plans Memos Team handouts and notices
2. PLAYERS	Personal diaries Match preparation notes Cards and letters Personal communications
3. MANAGER	Memos and plans
4. HOCKEY ORGANISATIONS	Annual reports Letters and faxes Coaching resources Media releases Match programmes Job descriptions
5. OUTSIDERS	Hillary Commission reports Newspaper and magazine articles Advertisements Significant others cards/letters Supporters songs

Figure 4.4. Types of documents used for analysis.

4.4 GENERATING THEORY

4.4.1 Grounded theory

Grounded theory was the method employed in this study for “making sense out of the data” collected in all research phases and for categorising and generating theory arising from those data. The method arose during the 1960s partly in response to the perceived lack of social insights gained by the rigid “one-right-way” scientific method whereby initial hypotheses were tested through experimentation. Glaser and Strauss (1967) provided a way of thinking about and conceptualising data through systematic collection, analysis, and interpretation of data derived from observations, interviews, questionnaires and other methods.

A grounded theory is one that is inductively derived from the study of the phenomena it represents. That is, it is discovered, developed, and provisionally verified through systematic data collection and analysis of data pertaining to that phenomenon. Therefore, data collection, analysis, and theory stand in reciprocal relationship with each other. One does not begin with a theory, then prove it. Rather, one begins with an area of study and what is relevant to that area is allowed to emerge (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p. 23).

Grounded theory also allows for the elaboration and modification of other, pertinent, theories to be compared, contrasted, elaborated and/or modified. In this way, grounded theory is both inductive, in building theory that is derived from the data, and deductive, in testing of other models and theories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Thus, both inductive and deductive reasoning, arising from consideration of theory and data, work together in order to provide a complex theory.

Grounded theory has been used in New Zealand research in education fields (Battersby, 1981), and sport (Chalmers, 1993; McConnell, 1996; Palmer, Burwitz, Smith & Collins, 1999; Tolich, 1994). Grounded theory has also been used for analysis and interpretation of in-depth interview research of elite coaches by Cote, Salmela, Trudel, Baria and Russell (1995) and Schinke (1995), Bloom (1996), Crossett (1995b) and Kellett (1998).

The process of grounded theory has been explained by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Strauss and Corbin (1990) as a four-step process which leads to the establishment of a knowledge base through - and from - rich data gathering: identification of properties; integrating categories and their properties; delimiting the theory; and writing the theory (McConnell, 1996).

1. Identification of properties

The initial stage of using grounded theory with observational data involved identification of phenomena occurring in the study setting. Properties are phenomena or incidents that occur in the field setting, for example, a coach calling out to a player on the field. Each phenomenon may have a variety of dimensions. A practical example of such complexity was included as a personal reminder in the Researcher's Notebook during the pilot study. This illustrated how a simple call from the coach during a game may have a variety of dimensions such as frequency, intensity, extent and duration which can be expressed using questions to facilitate the focus of the researcher.

At each stage of the research each incident, such as the coach's call, is recorded and grouped conceptually into a category or categories because of perceived similarities or commonality with other recorded data in such groupings. The researcher needs to constantly reflect upon the categories and monitor the dimensions and criteria for inclusion of each category while the research is progressing. In this way she builds up a realistic

picture of the observed phenomena, and their essential characteristics, parameters, consequences, and conditions under which these occur.

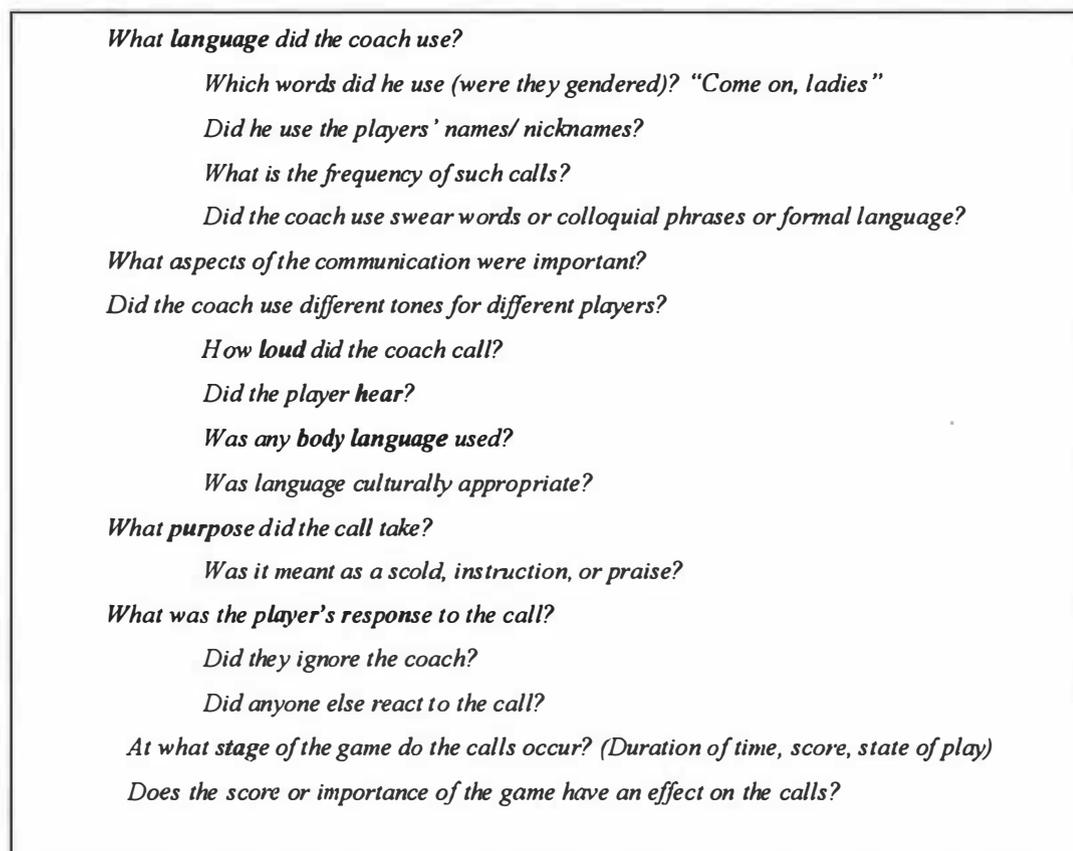


Figure 4.5. Extract from the researcher's notebook (12.5.96).

2. Integrating categories and their properties

During the grounded theory research, coding and analysis begin as soon as the first data are collected. The concurrence of data collection, coding and analysis means that the process can "reflexively fine-tune" further data collection, (Tolich & Davidson, 1999, p. 140). Thus, the initial action of the coach calling is perhaps grouped with similar incidents in a category called "roles of the coach", which is differentiated at a later stage of research into a property named "match controller", including such in-game communications as feedback, praise, instructions and other calls.

Positive coding (Tolich & Davidson, 1999) identifies and aggregates areas of theoretical and empirical interest in the participant observation field notes, interview transcripts or questionnaire data. As incidents are recorded as properties, they are coded and compared (using both similarities and differences) with new and previous properties, and

consequently assigned to an existing or new category. Modification of existing categories is frequently undertaken and this is once again an ongoing reflexive process.

3. Delimiting the theory

If, as in this study, the researcher has a primary interest in what the coach actually does, and is perceived to do, all activities of the coach are noted in the data collection for possible inclusion into theory generating categories. Sideline calls, for example, may be grouped under the label “in-game communications”. This group could also include other activities such as talking to umpires, managers, substitutes, talking to players who come off the turf, and liaison with physiotherapists in regard to injuries. “In-game communications” in turn, may be grouped together with other in-game activities such as recording and prioritising information for the half-time team talk, analysing individual players, analysing the opposition and so forth, into a property called “match controller” within the major category of “roles of the coach”. Thus, categories developed in this study can be represented diagrammatically in a hierarchical fashion as shown in Figure 4.6 below.

The initial coding process fractures the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) and allows the identification of properties and tentative categories of theoretical significance. As the research progresses, stronger themes are identified, modified, reconfirmed or removed. Through rigorous consideration of their placement a pattern emerges whereby categories become settled and additions of new properties are less frequent.

Experiential knowledge proved to have inherent advantages and disadvantages during the daily routines of data coding. Familiarity with the setting helped identification of positive codings and emergent themes. However, it was also a source of potential bias as familiar situations that appeared to the researcher to be “normal”, in an elite field hockey context, could have led to phenomena that needed further exploration being ignored. This possible propensity towards bias was handled by formulation of a participant observer checklist, systematic negative coding, and rigorous reflexive examination of data, in order to identify areas needing further examination by observation or informal interview.

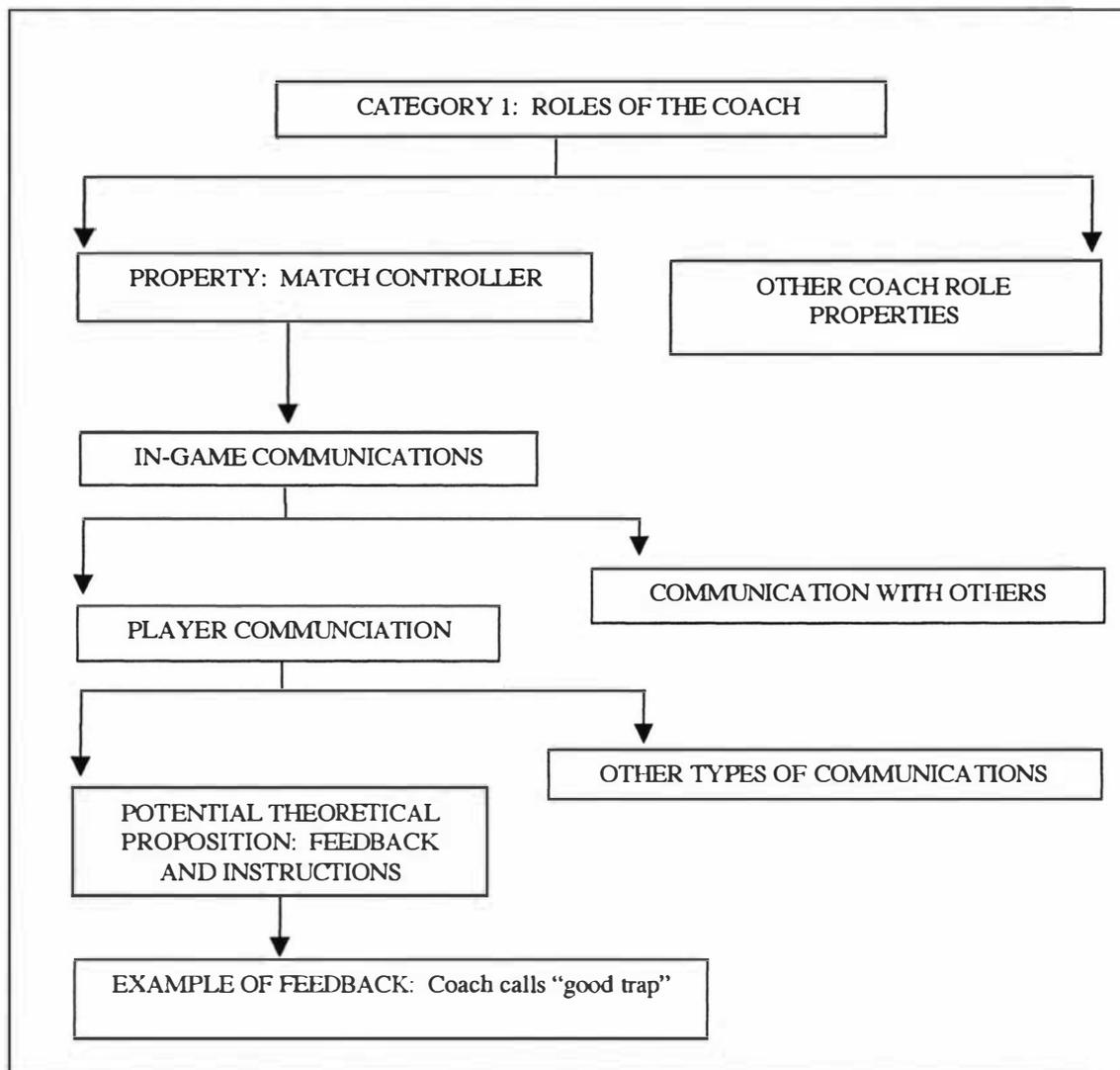


Figure 4.6. Example of the relationship between categories and properties.

Axial coding follows the initial phase and this process helps define the categories and make connections between categories and properties. This involves specifying such parameters as the conditions that give rise to these; the context in which these occur; the ramifications and consequences of action/interaction strategies associated with the phenomena; and the consequences of those strategies (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). If, using the familiar example of coach calls, it was discovered that the coach called out more frequently during an important game such as a national final, then the context of the game has a dimension that impacts on the frequency of calls. If a coach called out only when the team was losing, this may impact on the psychological well being of a team or individual sensitive to the increasing tempo of coach calls. Similarly, if calls were usually only directed to individuals performing poorly this may lead to consideration of positive and

negative communication, message content, and whether more mistakes were being made by players targeted for comment. Axial coding, therefore, puts the datum pieces of the jigsaw back into an interlocking clarity so they can be interpreted through grounded theory.

There is no definitely single or right way, and certainly no quick way to achieve transformation of copious amounts of raw data to analytical theory using grounded theory methodology. Data are systematically placed, replaced and reconsidered into different categories and subjected to questions framed within emergent theories. Constant analysis and modification of tentative theories culminate in the discovery that further data collection will add little or nothing to the study (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lofland & Lofland, 1995). This is the point of theoretical saturation, which is described by Fetterman as “the law of diminishing returns” (1989, p. 200).

4. Writing the theory

Once saturation has been achieved, along with definition of categories, sub-categories and their relational properties, theoretical development can be formally stated. The resultant analysis, when written, is enriched with narrative and excerpts from participant observation records and interviews. The voices of the participants should be a point of focal interest for the reader and be a realistic portrayal of field research participants. Lofland and Lofland’s (1995) and Tolich and Davidson’s (1999) recommended practice of sharing early drafts of theoretical analysis with supervisors, participants, family and colleagues was adopted for this study to provide a “benchmark against which to appraise the theme’s attempt to represent reality” (Tolich & Davidson, 1999, p. 162).

Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggest the final stage of analysis be accompanied by the naming of a central core category which clearly and undeniably tells the reader what the story is about. Clues to the focal point of the story will come from questions which enable the researcher to come up with an essential message about the research “that you want to pass on to others” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 122). In addition, the story should indicate properties and the relationships and linkages between properties, categories and sub-categories and these must be arranged in a logical order that provides the reader with a clear path to traverse the main story line. Theory interspersed with rich portrayals of context, conditions, strategies and consequences provide this key for the reader to follow the story, check for validity and make sense out of participant realities. Sensitivity to the

human condition, and issues of cultural, ethnic, gender, physical and socioeconomic power and politics in a variety of forms is a necessary part of the final story telling.

The story in this research study is presented in written print form using a variety of narratives including both confessional and impressionistic narratives suggested by Van Maanen (1988, p. 102) in an attempt to “crack open the culture” of elite women’s hockey coaching.

In the present research, the categories and properties generated by the participant observation phases are presented in Chapter Five as the study’s initial generation of categories. These were cumulatively added to and modified once the data from other phases of research, including coach interviews and player questionnaires, was completed. The master set of categories and properties generated by the field research data is presented at the end of Chapter Seven in this thesis.

4.4.2 Triangulation and validation

Triangulation is a strategy used by qualitative researchers to research findings using different methods. Fetterman (1989) and other authors (Harvey & MacDonald, 1993; Miles & Huberman, 1984) believe that triangulation is at the heart of ethnographic validity. The current author endorses this belief but finds favour with the approach advocated by Denzin and Lincoln (1994) whereby triangulation is used, not as a tool of validation, but as an alternative to validation. Triangulation, the multiple ‘checking out’ of interpretive formulations (McConnell, 1996), therefore provides a way of avoiding the danger that the research method will reflect, in some way, the method of inquiry and goes some way toward answering other concerns raised by critics of qualitative methods such as lack of neutrality, observer bias, limited sampling, loss of perspective, and problems of rigour (see Goetz & Le Compte, 1984).

This research investigation employed three main modes of triangulation. Firstly, the study used multiple methods to examine the actions and interactions of the participants in a variety of levels of the conditional matrix. Secondly, the emergence of one cumulative set of data was interpreted through multiple perspectives, such as those from players, spectators, parents and coaches. Thirdly, a range of data sources as diverse as historical photographs, annual tournament programmes, player diaries, newspaper reports, and

magazine articles were employed creating a vast depth of rich material with which to allow the cross-checking of various perceptions and perspectives.

It is hoped that the detailed description of data gathering procedures noted earlier, combined with the presentation of numerous field data examples, will open an expansive window through which other researchers can view the world of elite women's hockey coaches. In this way, replication of the present study in other sports and social spheres is possible but, critically, the study's readers are then in a position to make their own decisions about validity. Replication of the research trail should then be possible, with the caveat that the results of a replicative project may not be exactly congruent with those of the present study due to the interpretive nature of the research, the complicated nature of human actions and interaction, and the perceptions and consequences of these.

Validity in the qualitative arena refers to the fit between the description and the explanation presented by the researcher. The reader must ask "Is the explanation credible?" (Janesick, 1994, p. 216). The literature contains many examples of the types of questions and strategies which deal with issues of qualitative validity, credibility and generalisability (see Eisner, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990). Patton (1990) discusses three important considerations for credibility that should be presented to the reader when writing up a qualitative study and these have been observed by the researcher in the current study. Firstly, the techniques and methods that were put in place to ensure integrity, validity and accuracy of the findings should be explained fully. Secondly, the researcher must declare their own experience and qualifications and state how these impinge on the study. Thirdly, the reader should be informed about the assumptions that underpin the study.

The techniques to ensure integrity, validity and accuracy included the following practices. The Researcher's Notebook was used throughout the study, to record raw data, self-reflections, self-rebukes, and emotive feelings. This notebook proved most valuable when it was discussed with the project's main supervisor who had wide experience in using participant observation as a research tool.

A further check on the project's validity was provided by the practice, mentioned previously, whereby the key participants were given full access to field notes, group questionnaire summary results and interview transcripts. This cross-checking practice is

commonly known as member check (Janesick, 1994; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) and was achieved by regular posting of all materials, including raw transcripts and grouped survey data to the main actors. In addition, detailed discussion and feedback was sought from the researcher's academic supervisors (one of whom had undertaken a similar study), experienced field hockey coaches, and immediate past players, in order to refine the categorisation of data arising from the results.

Submerging oneself in qualitative research presents the researcher with a dilemma in the sphere of participant observation. The avoidance of "going native" is discussed by Lofland and Lofland (1984, p. 34) who caution the researcher about abandoning the research and joining the group. One strategy employed in the present research to help such over-identification with the teams under investigation was to declare myself impartial and refrain from supportive cheering, or audible comment, and to avoid any outward identification with the team under study, such as wearing a particular coloured scarf or tracksuit. Establishing oneself in the overt role as opposed to covert also acted as protection for particular players as every member of the group was clearly aware of my presence and purpose.

Illustrative of the problems posed by participant observation was an occasion where I found myself, after a team's well fought win over an opposing province, patting the players on the back and joining in the celebration. This occasion was recorded in the Researcher's Notebook and avoided during further observations for two reasons. Firstly, joining the celebrations clearly prohibited the detailed note taking and close observation necessary at this level of research, and may have been detrimental to objectivity and led to bias potentially tainting the research (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). Secondly, it was felt that strong identification with any one team would lead to decreased field opportunities with other teams because such teams could perceive my presence as partial.

This discussion on validity must also note the important assumptions that underpin the study. The researcher assumes that prior experience in both coaching and playing at the elite level will aid interpretation of the data. The researcher is an insider in the elite hockey setting as she has been involved in premier club hockey for twenty years, was a senior representative provincial hockey player for ten years and had toured and played with the New Zealand women's hockey team. Also as a former employee of the New

Zealand Hockey Federation, access to people, resources and data in a variety of settings may have been advantaged by that position.

The researcher engaged with the present research in the belief that eliciting understandings of women's hockey would have positive benefits for women's hockey. Inherent in this approach was the possibility that the researcher – known in her hockey identity – could note certain aspects of the sport in critical view in order to provide conclusions, solutions and recommendations which would aid in the recruitment and retention of women in coaching. There is no deliberate intention to harm the sport of women's hockey. The researcher's personal history of support for women's sport was double edged in the research context. It provided understanding and a sense of possible meanings to be explored but also meant that a rigorous checking of data was necessary in order to avoid bias in interpretation. The gender mix of the two supervisors and their own research rigour ensured a constant dialogue of research evaluation and data analysis.

The researcher does have an honest recognition that, like all other qualitative researchers, the reader must be alerted to personal bias that occurs when a theoretical framework is built within the researcher's own nest (Janesick, 1994; Lofland & Lofland, 1984). Indeed, this bias is assumed by qualitative researchers and should not be hidden but, rather, stated forthrightly as a given condition, in the expectation that constant checking and counterchecking, and interpretation of the setting, from many different perspectives, will create a theory derived from participant "realities" and not the researcher's unvalidated construct. The assumption here is that experiential knowledge will enable realistic images to attain a sharp focus rather than bias the study in a similar fashion to the distortion that occurred when one player's hot breath fogged a changing room mirror.

Changing Room Mirror

*the mirror reflects
gut crafted determination
forged by goal driven purpose
but those glittery eyes expose
volatile pre-match nerves
sparkling like fast combed hair in the dark*

*what will you see
after the game?
when hot breath fogs the vision
to recreate your sweaty face
in distortions twisted
up or down by win or loss*

(Researcher's Notebook, 11.11.97)

4.5 PERSONAL REFLECTIONS ON THE METHODOLOGY

I was aware from the outset of the project that being an outsider (researcher) who had previously been an insider (elite player) within the setting of elite women's hockey had the potential to create challenge, in terms of researcher acceptance, bias, data interpretation or lack of validity. I acknowledge that this current study is not immune from bias but believe that my awareness of potential problems from the study's inception, and the procedures built in to regulate them (including critical reflection with supervisors, subjects and self), have minimised such sources of bias.

I was also aware that, although I could negotiate entry into settings not readily available to others, I had the potential to bring harm to the participants and the sport, through an unethical or careless use of material. I was constantly aware of, and appreciated, the high level of trust that subjects placed in me. My stance as overt observer often created a sense that I seemed out of place, although the teams and coaches I observed and interviewed always treated me with respect and even friendship. However, I was not a "real" member of such teams and always felt privileged to be a recorder of team talks and meetings where opposition informants would not be welcome.

Throughout the participant observation phase of the research, the importance of my goal to capture participant realities of elite coaching, and my over-riding passion for the game, sustained me during the wet and cold outdoor conditions of the winter training sessions. Such passion for the game did, of course, occasionally present me with the desire to don boots and shin pads and race out onto the turf! I particularly enjoyed the reconnection with elite hockey environs from my past, despite my changed status to that of researcher. In my research, I was thus privy to life in hockey reminiscent of the days I played at the elite level, with one main difference- the pre-match nerves were replaced with only a moderate apprehension about the outcome of the games!

I found the use of a personal notebook invaluable as a tool to maintain my distance from the coaches and players, and kept reminding myself not to get too attached to the groups who were undergoing sustained observation. In this regard, my supervisors provided rigorous feedback on field notes and made appropriate suggestions on how to maintain impartiality. Feedback from the participant coaches also provided a valuable reality check on my field notes and helped maintain a sense of objectivity.

I did encounter one ethical dilemma that arose after the data collection phase of research was completed. In 1999, during the writing up phase of this study, I was asked to manage one of the provincial teams I had studied. Much as this presented an attraction in terms of using my knowledge and the opportunity for gathering more notes, I declined the opportunity because of my previous commitment to the Massey University Human Ethics Committee, and confined my role at this time to that of researcher. In this way, my insider knowledge (on such things as player strengths and weaknesses, game tactics, set moves and team culture) could not be used for the benefit of one provincial hockey side over another.

4.6 SUMMARY AND REVIEW

This chapter has stated the research question and discussed the design and ramifications of the research methodologies used in the project. Methodological issues, of particular importance when dealing with qualitative research, in regard to sources of bias, triangulation and validity have also been discussed. Similarly, ethical issues were confronted and viewed as having major significance: hence the research was conducted in an overt manner with informed consent and protection of subject rights having utmost importance.

A pilot trial of methodology was carried out in the early stages of the 1996 competitive hockey season and critical review of the data gathering process, recorded data and category formulation led to the improvement of methodological techniques. These were then employed in the participant observation of provincial women's hockey teams carried out over a period of two years, aimed at providing data in regard to elite coach roles and qualities and the perceived impact of gender on these roles and qualities. This was followed by a similarly targeted further period of observations with an international team in all research settings, including test matches.

This chapter then discussed the methodology used for the other phases of this study's field research, particularly provincial coach interviews and provincial player questionnaires.

The data were systematically collected and analysed in accordance with the grounded theory principles outlined by Strauss and Corbin (1990) and in conjunction with my chief supervisor, considerations by the subjects, and self-review and critical reflection. Final categories and properties arising from the data are presented at the end of Chapter Seven.

This present research project now moves to a presentation of the results of those main research phases, beginning with that of participant observation.

CHAPTER FIVE

COACHING REALITIES: PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of three years' detailed observations with provincial and national level women's hockey teams. The chapter provides the reader with an account of elite women's hockey realities as perceived by the observer, involving mainly the coach and players within a variety of provincial and national settings, including training sessions, matches, warm-ups, pre-match preparation, post-match evaluation, team meetings, social occasions and tournaments. The observational field research data were progressively analysed using grounded theory and thus this chapter concludes with an outline of categories and properties derived in an inductive process.

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5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to capture, through careful systematic observation, the elite coaching "reality" revealed in the multitude of actions and events, interactions and reactions that occur within the setting of women's hockey at this elite level. The primary goal in creating the images and revealing the inside story of elite women's hockey coaching is to generate categories and properties.

Participant observation, by its nature, can be a long journey in search of truth. The researcher tramped many paths in order to signpost the labyrinth of perceived realities inside women's hockey. The resultant properties and categories generated from this

journey are presented in the last section of this chapter. During three hockey seasons, the researcher observed over 144 hours of elite games, meetings and training sessions. The accumulated data from the researcher's observations were recorded, interpreted and analysed as well as being typed out in full transcripts. These were then sent to the subject coaches to allow them to confirm their accuracy.

The researcher gained access to the teams by negotiation with the elite coaches and was party to many events and settings possibly off-limits for outsiders, which may have been facilitated by her own elite field hockey playing experiences. The researcher's stance was overt and great care was taken to safeguard the subjects' identities in the researcher's notes as the coaches and athletes were all part of one small elite hockey community. Consequently, as noted in the methodology section, this chapter uses pseudonyms for individuals, teams, hockey associations, towns and cities.

The main focus of the participant observation phase of the research was upon the coach. Players were informally interviewed throughout this phase in order to gain more information about the coach and/or the player's interpretation of the coach's actions or explanations. This latter process materially assisted the triangulation and validation of the primary research data.

This chapter now moves to examine participant observation data from the provincial team phase of the research. (Transcripts taken directly from field note observations have been indented and presented in 10 font. Reflections and considerations taken from the Researcher's Notebook are shown in italic).

5.2 PROVINCIAL TEAM OBSERVATIONS

As previously discussed in the methodology section, two provincial teams were the subject of the majority of participant observation sessions, including a period in 1996 and all of 1997. "Dawson" and "Gooder" were both city-based teams, selected from those competing in inter-provincial competitions early in the hockey season. The "Hiha" women's hockey team was observed late in 1997 to provide data from another elite setting.

The Dawson women's hockey team coach, Larry, was the sole selector of players into the team, although nominations of players were called from each club in the province. Typically, an extended squad was named and the selections to the final 16 were narrowed down after several games. The Gooder coach, Moana, similarly, had sole selection responsibility for her team. Each had a manager and had been instrumental in their manager's appointment.

The field observations typically included five main phases. Firstly, the coach would engage in pre-match preparation including research and analysis of competing teams and a pre-match team talk which would occur in a changing room, dugout, or other available room prior to the match start. Secondly, with around 30 minutes to the match start, the team would physically warm-up with a five to ten minute run followed by drills and specific skill work on the hockey turf, usually lasting between 10 and 15 minutes. The third observation period was the seventy-minute match itself, which consisted of two 35-minute halves with a five-minute half-time spell, which would include a short team talk. The fourth phase was a post-match evaluation meeting, which ranged from a short chat in the dugout to a detailed assessment of the game in a more formal setting. On some occasions, the post-match evaluation would be carried out at the beginning of the next team talk. Finally, observations were undertaken at the training session, viewed as being integral to the other phases of pre-match preparation, the match, and post-match evaluation.

In New Zealand, field hockey is a winter sport and provincial team observations began with the Dawson team preparing for a representative game, on a cold and extremely bleak June night in 1996. The coach roles and qualities observed in this first session provided the first participant observation data which would be used to create the initial categories and properties that would progressively lead to inductive theory production. Examples from the five main phases of the research observations provide an inside picture of elite women's teams, and their coaches, at work.

5.2.1 Phase 1: Pre-match preparation

Prior to the presentation of a pre-match team talk, the elite provincial coaches would research the opposition team and players. The elite coaches spent a considerable amount of time preparing for the pre-match team talk. In this initial session, effort was mainly spent trying to collect information on the opposition teams. Coaches used a variety of

methods to obtain this information, including direct observations of the other provincial matches. For example, observation notes (5.10.97) showed that Larry had made very detailed notes about the opposing Hillsway and Redding teams' penalty corners, set plays and game strategies. *I noticed Larry had a large book filled with comments and drawings that he would make use of at tournament. When the players watched opposition teams, they were not asked to watch specific aspects of the game, or to note down penalty corner moves or set plays... It appeared that many of them watched the opposition's game with little attention to detail (Researcher's Notebook, 5.10.97).*

Larry also used other methods of finding out opposition lineups, including using newspaper clippings posted by friends in other provinces, and quizzing his own players about strengths and weaknesses of opposition players through their involvement with the New Zealand Women's Team and age group sides. More direct detective work was also used, as the following incident recalled from field notes (25.9.97) illustrates. On one occasion when Larry was in Redding, for a business meeting, he called into the Redding team's headquarters and asked for a team list; the staff happily obliged (apparently not realising who Larry was). This amused Larry and the Dawson team as they believed the lists gave them a pre-match advantage.

Knowledge uncovered through pre-match research would provide the basis for the coach to prepare the team talk. Written preparation of the pre-match talk was done by the coach alone, though often after consultation with the captain or other senior players. The coach designed the talk with the dual purpose of providing motivation for, and information about, the forthcoming match. The following extract is taken from one such pre-match Dawson team talk.

Dawson pre-match team talk (Field Notes, 1.6.96)

Dawson coach, Larry, names the number one line-up for the day's match. He also names the two substitutes who would not get to start the match. He explains to the team that he has not settled on a number one line-up for the season.

"We have some good options. There's a hell of a lot of talent in the team. I feel we could utilise the talent a lot better. We have set some lofty goals together. We want to be the best provincial team that ever came out of NZ. The best provincial team anyone in NZ has seen. To achieve that they have to utilise all the talent. Not in one game but game, to game, to game. We need to set the platform... set the benchmark. Progress. We have certainly got the individuals but it's how we approach the game. We need commitment, intensity, and concentration. You've all got talent but it's getting the brain

concentration. We set our own standard. We need to perform to the same level regardless of the situation. Remember when the Dawson rugby team used to win and win and win – and win by huge margins back in their heyday? They never stopped going for it even when they were winning by 90 points.”

Larry goes on to encourage a high work rate and tells the players “Work rate - I know you give 100%. Improve your reaction time - for example ‘giving and going’. Have confidence in each other. Get available for the next pass and if you’re beaten, back tackle straight away. Use ‘the squeeze’ to trap the ball in our half.” He then explains ‘the squeeze’ as a defensive strategy aimed at containing the ball from a defensive 16-yard hit, by drawing a diagram on the white board.

The coach uses good eye contact with the players and looks around the room as he is speaking. He refers briefly to his notes written on a small paper pad. “Concentration- be aware of the opposition. Back yourself to get there.” He goes over an example on the board. Larry stops talking and looks at the team using the silence to emphasise an important point. His calm clear voice and steady gaze portrays self-confidence. He appears to be relaxed. He quietly reminds the team of one more important point gleaned from his notes. “Be aware of the options - before you get the ball.”

Larry refers back to a team meeting that seems crucial. At this meeting the team had created the season’s goals. He reminds the players that they had been the ones to suggest the goals and team rules for the season. He hands out a booklet, of professional quality, to the players. He tells them the booklet can be “added to, as and when needed”.

The coach then addresses the team’s goals and strategies: “We want to achieve at National tournament. We want to play the best hockey that a provincial representative team has played. Seventy minutes regardless. Remember the ‘three minute syndrome’. The most dangerous times are the three minutes after a goal had been scored and three minutes after half time. Pick up the intensity and concentration. Go down and score another one and another and another. Make sure you all get back and help and remember to play our style. We are focusing on one game, the final at Nationals, therefore, the intensity is important. Respect the other teams, but set our own standards”.

Larry completes the motivational part of his talk and moves on to address the strategic points of importance for the game. “Concentrate on ‘the squeeze’ in opposition half only....”. Larry draws a positional move on the whiteboard and reminds the team to have early shots at goal. “Aim at converting 33% of our corners. If we get congested.... hold possession. Balance speed with accuracy. Try to be fast and accurate. For example, if the ball gets taken off you, go and get it back. Make a point of that. Let’s maintain possession for as much of the game as we can.”

Larry checks on player roles for attacking and defensive corners. “Strokes? KI? I’ve seen your last two strokes”. Larry stops and laughs and the team join in the fun. (KI had apparently missed the last two penalty strokes she had been given). The coach then invites the Dawson captain to speak to the team. At twenty-five minutes before the match the team leaves for the dugout.

The coach's main roles in this first team talk of the season were: to motivate the players; to remind the players of the mutual goals they had set; to discuss important strategic points using illustrations on the whiteboard as needed; and to instruct the players in regard to set moves such as penalty corners and strokes. The team talk was coach-centred with the captain being the only other significant contributor.

Larry had adopted a friendly, though business-like, stance for his presentation. He spoke rapidly, as if he had much to get through in a short time, with emphases provided by changes in volume and occasional breaks of silence. He appeared to be self-confident in both his hockey knowledge and relationship with the team. His talk was pre-planned and organised around a pattern that would emerge throughout the study: firstly, the announcement of the starting team; secondly, a discussion focused on motivation and team or individual goals; and thirdly, instructions about the strategy details and set plays. I noted Larry did not use questions to check for clarity of understanding (Researcher's Notebook, 1.6.96).

Larry's coaching style appeared to change over the two years' observations, although the pre-match team talk was essentially the same in terms of structure and content. A team talk taken from the latter part of the 1997 season illustrated that Larry had become more inclusive in that he encouraged player discussions and asked questions to gauge players' understanding of match aspects.

Dawson pre-match team talk (Field Notes, 11.9.97)

The Dawson team assembles in a room at their hockey ground. The coach places the magnetic board at the front of the room on a table. Chairs were placed around the room in a semi circle. SP was getting changed in the corner as she had come directly from work. The manager sits down on the floor. The weather outside is really bad - wind and rain again - and this was the subject of a general discussion.

Larry asks the team "Where's LP?". Nobody knows. MK was here, although she had still not been cleared to play as yet. Someone mentions that LP had a varsity lecture to go to. The general chatter suddenly stills although Larry had not yet mentioned he wanted quiet but he uses the silence as a cue to begin. Larry begins. "Just a couple of things since you're all quiet... there's only one sub tonight because we have a few injuries. Secondly, if it rains at national tournament we'll be the best prepared team there."

GT asks if the one substitute includes the goalkeeper. Larry replies "Oh yes, we've got two subs". Larry outlines the starting line up. PJ and FM are the backs. JH will play right half in the second spell. The coach asks RW if her legs will stand up to a full game. She says they will. Larry discusses defensive penalty corners and informs the team that they will use 'the box' tonight with alternative moves. Larry tells the team to "work close to the keeper so we've got it covered. The ultimate run will be the triangle." Larry then asks the team if everyone is comfortable with that? When no reply was forthcoming, he stops and asks "Was that a yes I heard?" The players now respond with a sheepish "yes". Larry then goes over all the attacking penalty corner moves, taking in to account the second half with differing people on the field and also allowing for more than one person to practise a role in the game (for example he wants SB to trap corners in the second half). He reads this from his paper pad and has pre-prepared the list of jobs. He outlines three more penalty corner options including one option a club team had used "with great effect".

Larry then asks the team "Who has been practising their strokes?" The players do not respond. "Those people who were identified by me, or who identified themselves, as penalty stroke takers, please put up your hands". Four hands are raised and other players look around hesitantly. The coach proceeds to remind the players who had been selected.

The question that needed to be asked was - did the coach choose the stroke takers or did the players choose themselves for this role? The answer gleaned through informal player interviews was a combination of both. Some players had volunteered themselves but the coach had suggested players who he deemed to be capable of taking strokes under pressure and who had not volunteered themselves. Taking strokes under the stressful conditions at tournament is a crucial decision that is made by the coach who should give consideration to a player's skill level, experience, and mental composure under pressure. I recalled at least two previous occasions when Dawson teams had failed to win a place in the final due to missed strokes. Larry's ploy, to get a large number of people practising strokes, was effective in that it meant Larry would have a large number of players to choose from in the event he had to make that decision, and the players remained unaware of whom he would choose (Researcher's Notebook, 11.9.97).

At times Larry's questions created embarrassment amongst the players, especially those who had not been listening to the team-talk. On many occasions the players did not immediately answer the coach's question and had to be prompted with further comment from the coach. For example, in one team talk, Larry reminisced over the lack of tight marking that had occurred in a practice game against a local men's team.

Dawson pre-match team talk (Field Notes, 11.9.97)

“There was a comment made that we played differently, that the guys gave us more space... so how can we eliminate tight marking?” No one answers. Larry looks around the room and asks MK what she thinks. MK replies “Take them on”. Larry raises his eyebrows and asks “When we’re in possession?” MK goes red because she doesn’t seem to know what he’s talking about and says, “Oh I don’t know.” BB offers a solution “Create space off them.... hold your space and create space for another player”. Larry rephrases what BB has said as “Run for one another and put the balls in behind... or run back and roll off... anyone else?” Several other players make suggestions. The coach draws the discussion to a close by reinforcing all the main points again, and thanks the team for what he saw as excellent points they have raised and summarises “Dynamic leads, tight, short and sharp... if you make a relatively slow lead, your marker will come with you”.

I noted Larry’s change in style at the team talk. During 1996 he had talked at the players and told them how to play the game. This team talk was more of a facilitation exercise, whereby players had an input and the coach summarised main points and tried to rephrase players’ statements in a way that other players could understand the concepts. I thought this was a good way of teaching and empowering players so that they could learn to think about problems themselves.

Today’s observation of Larry’s pre-match talk indicated one concern of participant observation methodology, noted in Chapter Four, namely, the possibility of the subject behaviour changing as a result of the observer’s feedback. Larry’s changing style may be one example, in that Larry, as coach, had read my field notes over the past months and had become more aware of his tendency to answer his own questions rather than have team members participate fully and share their own ideas.

The change in style and increased use of questions by the coach had clearly caught some players napping! MK’s failure to understand Larry’s questions was a good example of this. After the talk I asked MK if she understood what Larry was asking her about. She admitted that she wasn’t paying attention because she was not going to be playing and didn’t understand the initial question. Although MK wasn’t going to be playing, I was surprised that she was not listening. (Researcher’s notebook, 11.9.97).

The Dawson coach also used the pre-match team talk to relate strategies taught at training sessions to real game situations. Players were again quizzed on individual roles in team strategies, as each person’s full understanding was essential if the moves were to be successful. For example, in one pre-match team talk, Larry asked the team to recall the

“screen” they practised at training, thus making a direct connection between practice and game strategies. Larry frequently reminded players of another game strategy “the squeeze” and, towards the end of 1997, made sure players were prepared to demonstrate their understanding of this, by drawing their correct positions on the whiteboard. He constantly reminded players of individual responsibilities for correct execution of strategic team plays.

However, the researcher noted in her reflections that, although player input was increasingly sought over the observation period, the senior players voiced their opinions more frequently than newcomers or quieter players. For example, in one team talk (Field Notes, 11.9.97), five senior players discussed at length various methods to avoid [so called] “man-to-man” marking, including the importance of using stick cues to show the passer where to place the ball, the use of the “roll-around”, and reminders of the new obstruction rule. Junior players appeared to be listening but no one asked them if they understood the concepts or if they had any ideas of their own.

I noted a greater interchange of ideas than last year occurred between the players and the coach who acted as a facilitator. However, I also noted that only certain people spoke up, typically the more senior players. RW and PJ did not open their mouths but appeared to be concentrating on the board (Researcher’s Notebook, 11.9.97).

Larry’s overall pattern in his pre-match talks was similar to that of Moana, in her team talks as coach of the Gooder women’s hockey team. Moana typically let the manager speak about administrative matters prior to starting the team talk. Unlike Larry, Moana began with some general points about the game rather than announcing the starting lineup. Moana’s philosophy was that the starting line up was just that, the team to begin the game, and as she intended to use a lot of substitutions, this selection announcement was not a major issue for her. The following team talk, given to the team prior to a home match, illustrates Moana’s team talk style which was coach-led but had a large input from players, especially the co-captains, who appeared to be comfortable asking questions and making suggestions throughout the talk.

Gooder pre-match team talk (Field Notes, 21.9.97)

The team talk is taking place in a large room above the changing rooms. The players are arranged informally around tables or chairs and benches. The coach is at the head of the table with her magnetic hockey board on the table and a white board behind her.

12:40 p.m. The manager begins with some “housekeeping” messages. She discusses the accommodation at tournament and hands out a list of contact addresses. A second page attached to the first outlines the NZHF drug policy. She warns the players if they get sick before tournament to read the drug information carefully as a player from this province was drug tested last year. The mini van has been arranged to take people to national tournament. The players are required to bring their gear to the last training session, on the Thursday before they depart, because TW will tow a trailer carrying all gear except hand luggage down to tournament on the Friday night. Moana offers to drive the mini van “I presume you would like me to drive the van rather than a player”. The players nod. She believes that the driving will “tire players out”. The manager also asks if some players are available to travel down on Friday with TW as this will make the mini van less crowded. Two players volunteer.

The coach takes over the meeting. She tells the team which turf the game is being played on. Moana counts the number of players and asks “Who’s missing?” A player adds “JJ’s not coming. She’s hurt her back - didn’t you know?” Moana says she did not. LF comes in late, dressed in nice street clothing. Moana makes a joke of this and asks if she’s been to church. The team laughs and seems to enjoy this joke.

12:45 p.m. Moana composes herself and begins the team talk proper. She explains that Chappell is a serious opponent and lets them know that she’s well aware there will be a few tired bones after last night (the Gooder club knock-out and association prizegiving were held yesterday). Moana tells the players that they are playing Dawson B on Thursday night at seven o’clock here. Although this is an unscheduled game, the coach tells the team that she accepted the opportunity because she needs to try out her subbing pattern. She has an idea in her head about how it will work but “I want to get that right”. She then reminds them about the importance of having substitutes to cope with injury and illness at tournament.

She tells the team that she has spoken to a member of the Chappell team and told them to “be prepared for goals flying past them”. She wants a high intensity game and tells the players to “get some goals in”.

Moana names the starting line up and reassures the players that substitutes will be used. “That’s the way I tend to start it at the moment... after 20 minutes I’ll use the subbing option”.

Moana displayed a positive, friendly coaching manner. She motivated the team by telling them they were going to score lots of goals and made sure they knew that she had told the opposition they would score many times, thus publicly demonstrating her confidence in their ability. She did not refer to the team’s goals during this talk but did refer to the main purpose of the build up – the year’s national tournament. Although it appeared to the team as if Moana had decided on the starting line-up

and main strategies, she had told me that she often discussed such matters with her experienced captains; however, the final decisions rested with her. Similarly, in areas such as the attacking and defending penalty corners the coach had shared responsibilities with a captain (attacking corners) and the goalkeeper (defensive corners) as in these situations on-field decisions were often crucial (Researcher's Notebook, 21.9.97).

Moana outlines the attacking corners and details the substitute changes that corners will entail: "WY will sub on for corners ... the players that were subbed off... will have to sub on for number one corner options... at some stages that may be ridiculous with three people subbing on for a corner but within certain parameters... NK will have the responsibility for the drag flick when TW comes off after 20 minutes. If TW comes on, you know you won't be up there for that... if EM is off... we'll try and sort that out today".

Moana moves on to explain the defensive corners. The goalkeeper asks a question. Moana responds and seeks an assurance from the goalkeeper that she is happy with the arrangements (In many elite teams, goalkeepers are given the responsibility for defensive penalty corner options). GK replies "Yeah we'll see how it works". She continues with more details about corner options and reminds the players that they need not be shy about displaying their attacking corners in front of Chappell because this team is not even at the same tournament. She urges them to get down to the turf early and practise some of the more complicated corner options.

12:53 p.m. Moana then moves on to discuss an alternative penalty corner tactic. The complexity of the penalty corner generates player discussions and further implied uncertainty is voiced in their questions about substitutions. The coach indicates that the captain will have responsibility for the on-field decisions. I sense some unease at this situation and, although no one says anything more, there are one or two covert disapproving glances. The coach appears to be relaxed about this and reassures the team that "It'll be alright. TW will make the decisions on the corners because she's in the right position and has time to decide. We need to sort out some signals for tournament".

There are some whispered comments and giggling and Moana stops to say "What?" She glances around, shrugs, ignores the undercurrent laughter and continues by summing up the five important points she has covered in the talk including "the press" which she quickly works through on the board. TK and TW contribute to the discussion and help the coach move player's markers on the board. Moana explains the key lines (positions) necessary to make "the press" and "the arrow" successful during the game.

The laughter incident reminded me of situations that used to occur with one of my ex-coaches. During one provincial season, several players didn't respect the coach and would laugh at inappropriate times or ask tricky questions in the hope of making the coach

look silly. I wonder if one or two players in the Gooder team have a problem with Moana or are trying to make a subtle point about their unhappiness with the frequency of player substitutions (Researcher's Notebook, 21.9.97).

Moana speeds up the pace of her speech and urges her players to employ certain tactics early in the match: "Use lots and lots of talk. Keep up the level of intensity. We must maintain (pause) the subbing is to maintain intensity. Keep it going. We don't want to die off in last 20 minutes like we have in some games. Make sure we have tight marking in the defensive circle".

The coach recalls a tactical error in the last game and quickly rebuffs a player's excuse. She continues rapidly with pointed suggestions "React early and go with it tight. When they have the ball and are in control so get hold of our players and make sure we are clearing wide from defence. I don't want to see any pissy pushes to the top of the circle. Let's go back and around, both ways. We haven't done that, have we? (The players say "No") Use EL heaps. Give her lots of short sharp passes. Give her the ball more than normal to see what she does with it. Let's keep the passes short with the odd long pass... not the other way around. CP, make sure you keep running to the back line. Make the ball do the work. Any comments or questions? Set plays, intensity, and movement. Use EL. It's like a dummy run and if you're tired, it's even more important. I'm sure you can score lots of goals against this team. Okay, let's do it."

Moana exuded confidence. She was especially confident in her plan to use many substitutes, and conveyed her confidence in the team's ability to cope with these changes. I am not so sure the team agreed with the plan and it will be interesting to see how the plan goes in reality. Moana clearly displayed her knowledge of the set moves and demonstrated her ability to explain them on the magnetic board with ease. Moving those markers on the magnetic board is not as easy as it seems and I have seen many experienced coaches falter in the middle of an explanation over the years. I also noted that the player's input was valued, as frequent verbal interruptions and questions occurred throughout the talk, and were always dealt with in a friendly and positive manner (Researcher's Notebook, 21.9.97).

Provincial coaches, Larry and Moana, did not choose to address every individual player as part of their pre-match team talk routine. Neither coach spoke specifically to every starting player during this meeting. It was interesting for the researcher to note, from her informal observations of the men's academy team (17.4.96), that their coach did not address all team members but talked in terms of set plays (such as sideline hits, corners, 16 yards), strategies (pass rates and keeping possession) and general aspects such as intensity and tempo. Certainly, Larry and Moana talked to individuals, when they dispensed

information about a set play or strategy, but there was no systematic talk-to-each-member-of-the-team routine.

The third team, Hiha, who were observed for a short period in late 1997, had a coach who followed the same general pattern as Larry and Moana for pre-match talks. The coach gave the formal team talk that included naming of the starting line-up, a brief motivational speech and an outline of set plays and strategies lasting no more than twenty minutes. The pre-match talk was coach focused with limited input from the players.

5.2.2 Phase 2: The warm-up

The warm-up period usually directly followed the pre-match team talk. Warm-up times ranged between fifteen and twenty-five minutes and depended largely on the length of the pre-match talk. Bad weather also influenced the starting time, often delaying the player's exposure to the elements; a surprising attitude, given the elite level of the competition.

Larry's routine with the Dawson team followed a set pattern. The captain would initiate and oversee the warm-up run that took, on average, ten minutes. Larry used this time to walk to the dugout, organise his equipment (such as stopwatch, ladder for quick stepping exercise, balls and cones). This enabled him to be available, upon the return of athletes, to talk with players one-on-one if he considered this necessary. The players conducted their own initial skills drills and then Larry called them in to do "shots", a routine involving the whole team taking turns to pass and shoot at goal, which normally took place ten minutes before the game.

Dawson Team warm-up (Field Notes, 10.9.97)

The Dawson captain organises the warm-up run. Players then organise themselves into pairs for hitting and trapping practice. Larry leaves all the arrangements to the team and concentrates on arranging cones for a passing drill. The rain gets a lot harder. Larry gathers up some spare balls that have collected against the sideline boards, rolls them toward a central position on the turf, and walks into the centre of the field to watch the warm up more closely. He approaches and speaks to the goalkeeper. Suddenly one player (FM) takes a direct shot on the hand, which causes it to bleed. She runs to the sideline and asks for assistance from the physiotherapist (who arrived at the end of the team talk) who tapes up her finger. FM returns to the warm up. The three injured players (DB, XB and NT) chat about mutual friends. Larry notices the captain leaving the field and follows her to the dugout where he spends two minutes talking to her about the main points of the game plan.

Larry moves back on to the turf, and encourages the team who have moved into doing “shots on goal”. He claps his hands and calls loudly “Good good”.

The players straggle back in, soaking wet. One umpire turns up and speaks to Larry. Apparently there will be some delay, as the other umpire has not turned up. Larry tells the team to stay warm “Don’t drop off too quickly” as he anticipates a delay. The time is now 7:30 p.m. (official start time). Larry walks to the visitor’s dugout and expresses his frustration and disappointment over the lack of umpires to the opposing coach.

In the dugout the players talk about all sort of things including friends, partners and the weather. BA tries to cheer them up by saying, in a light and breezy voice, “It’s not too bad out there”. Some of the players laugh at her optimism. Larry returns, looking worried. He collects the balls and cones from the field and brings them to the dugout. He tells the team to put the weather out of their minds and think about the things they can control.

The captain and vice-captain call the team into the dugout and attempt to motivate them for the game by reminding them the game is an important step towards national tournament. The group moves to gather in a tight circle on the turf, heads bowed together, bums out, and arms entwined. The captain speaks again in a last minute attempt to get the players focused on the game. The Broadwood team loudly calls “Three cheers” and runs to their positions. The Dawson team remains in their tight circle for another thirty seconds and finally cheer, break up, and move to their field positions.

The team calls out for an orange ball and Larry hurriedly searches for one in the ball bag. The rain eases as the starting whistle is blown, by a nervous PJ, the first-half substitute.

On this occasion, Larry deviated from his established routine of calling the players into a group immediately before the game, and reiterating the major game plan. The more usual pattern was for him to call “Okay, ladies” as the cue for the team to come together for a talk just prior to the game’s start. On all previous occasions he had restated important game related points such as “Use the early passes”, “The key to this game is possession” - or motivational points such as “Let’s make it work”, “Set our standards”, “Go and have a good one” (Researcher’s Notebook, 10.9.97).

The Gooder team followed a warm-up routine, very similar to the Dawson team’s routine. Pre-game physical preparation began with a team run and static stretching routine, followed by some general on-turf hitting and trapping drills, and ended with shots and a final high intensity exercise to get the players ready for game pace. The coach was in overall control of the timing of the specific phases of the warm-up, and made use of opportunities to speak with individuals and provide general encouragement and

motivation. The coach also took responsibility for the collection and counting of match and practice balls.

Goodeer team warm-up, (Field Notes, 21.9.97)

At the conclusion of the run, the player's team stretch against the fence and chat until being told to get on with a set pushing and trapping exercise. Moana organises a player to warm up the goalkeeper. Moana asks the keeper "Do you want CT?" The keeper replies "No, SA". Moana then asks "SA can you warm up the keeper?" SA laughs (in a manner which suggests she expected to be asked but didn't really want the job) and walks off to warm up the keeper. One captain helps organise the players into lines.

Moana reminds the team of the time, suggesting urgency is required, and moves out to watch the hitting and trapping. At the coach's suggestion the players then move to the goal circle to do some shots. The coach stands beside the group of players and verbally encourages the shots: "Great shot... good save..." The goal shooting involves a drill, which requires the players to think and change positions. Again Moana encourages their efforts "Go hard, really hard... let's run out of balls.. take off ... here they come.. take off.. shot save". The coach also gathers the balls and rolls them back to the group so they can keep going. It is now 1:55 p.m. Moana directs the defensive players to try some competitive tackles against each other. She instructs the attackers to have some straight shots and again joins in with a positive commentary on their progress "Shot... talk it up.... shot...good shot!"

Moana pauses to go over a technical point with WY. She tells her to make sure the ball is running parallel, rather than letting the ball "roll away" before the shot. WY listens and agrees with the coach. Moana reminds them to keep the intensity, a fact made possible by knowing they have fresh legs (substitutes) on the sideline: The umpire blows the whistle to remind the teams they have five minutes before the game begins. Moana immediately tells the team to "bring in the balls" as a sign to clear the turf. TK has another shot.

Moana asks the team if anyone got the white ball that went over the fence. Moana asks the captain to take control of the last minute shuttle runs, aimed at raising the player's heart rates to match speed (she calls them "fives", the Dawson coach calls them "hots"). Immediately before the game, the team huddles together, cheer, and run to their positions. The substitutes line up against the sideline fence near the coach who sets her watch.

The main coach role during the warm-up period before the match appeared to be that of chief "orchestrator". I wondered if the team would actually get ready in time for the game if they had not been constantly told by the coach to run, to stretch or to complete some stick drills. The timing of the countdown appeared to be a crucial part of the pre-match routine with two important phases being the "shots on" goal and the last minute

shuttle runs which were intended to bring the players, physiologically, up to game pace. Coaches also used the last minute team gathering to reinforce important strategic points about the game and to motivate the players by reminding them of team goals or giving positive feedback. The captain, in both provincial teams, always spoke immediately before the team ran on the field and, therefore, played an important part in the pre-match routine.

The time pressure meant that coaches needed to be directive, highly organised and able to make snap decisions when asked questions by players. Both coaches seemed to display a confident outward demeanour and one-on-one interactions were typically positive and encouraging in this pre-match phase.

I noticed that Larry and Moana spent a considerable amount of time counting and collecting balls and, from past experience, I assume this is because players seem to ignore balls sent over fences and down gutters for the simple reason that they do not pay for them. Hockey balls (being small and easily lost) are expensive and total recovery would, therefore, justify such time expenditure (Researcher's Notebook, 23.9.97).

5.2.3 Phase 3: The match

Larry, the Dawson coach had a very professional attitude to the forthcoming game and took pride in his match preparation. He had a person videotaping the game from a vantage point above the ground and was in contact by walkie-talkie. Larry timed the game on a stopwatch so he knew exactly when half-time was approaching and when the game would end. He watched the game intently, often removing himself from the dugout to get a better view up on a bank behind the dugout. Larry rarely spoke to the substitutes or manager during the course of a game, except in response to an on-field emergency or when he perceived a need for a change in players. Larry spoke to the researcher on several occasions, usually about missed shots at goal or comments about players. He made game notes in a book and told the researcher he referred to these notes before the next game, and periodically throughout the season, especially when they opposed the same teams. Larry used the last two or three minutes of the half to focus on the main points he would verbalise in his half-time talk.

Larry would invite the players into the dugout in a very polite manner, for example he would say "Come in out of the wind, ladies". Larry used the term "ladies" to address the team throughout the entire period of the observation.

Individual comments were also part of Larry's routine. During one half-time talk the coach spoke individually to seven players and explained some points to three players in more detail. Although Larry liked to have the first say, he also made time for players to form into small groups in order to sort out a few problem areas. Typical comments were fed to the team in a rapid-fire fashion: "Slow down, control the passes ... some passes are off balance. Prop. Look to pass off a stable platform". Larry would then stop and get the players' opinions on why they were congested in one area of the field. He would then continue with other points from his notes such as "Improve the support for the ball carrier. Get ahead, and use more control. Use the centre half more." Larry would often check understanding by asking a question such as, "Does everyone understand?" Nods and affirmative answers from the players were taken as agreement. However, the researcher noted the fact that Larry never asked any player to display their understanding by verbally expressing it in front of the group. Time restrictions at half-time would possibly limit such opportunities.

Moana's half-time discussions, similarly, began with a coach-centred resume of the main points as she saw them and to plan changes associated with player substitutions. Moana also allowed the two co-captains to contribute to the discussions. Typically, as these talks were only five minutes long, the conversation was usually punchy and to the point. However, the researcher noted a tendency, on some occasions, for the coach to refrain openly from identifying problems with certain players' positional play, possibly out of respect for their feelings. The following extract from one game illustrates an incident of this type.

Goode half-time talk (Field Notes, 21.9.97)

The team gathers in a circle. Moana encourages them to form a tight group "Okay, come in.. we're down two goals to one, guys. The deep defence is still ball watching... you need to drop onto the opposition more quickly ... one or two people are going for the same person". NK (a deep defender) humorously interrupts "Did we both get the ball?" Moana pauses and thinks "No." She continues "EL, hold a bit more.. see if it feels comfy, and look right more. I did see some opportunities out right. The team needs to give heaps more talking to EL... She's looking but..." TK interrupts and explains that " It's just like... getting used to playing with each other". Moana listens and then rapidly moves to discuss another failing tactic.

One captain bemoans the on-field silence. Moana repeats her pre-match advice to keep the passes short. Moana then outlines the substitute changes that will now take place and finishes by asking if

there are any other comments or questions. The other captain adds “We look quite happy to just play hockey and not get a result”. Moana agrees with the captain – she tells them the level of effort looks less than desired. She does not dwell on this negative aspect and moves on to encourage the team with a more positive statement, “You can do it guys”.

Moana tells SA, who has not been on in the game as yet, that she’ll be coming on as the “break player”. SA asks her “as the what?” Moana responds calmly to this impudent question that signals an unhappy substitute player. Moana attempts to talk to her about it but five minutes has expired and the team moves out on to the field. SA moves a few metres away from Moana and does not raise the question again.

Immediately after half-time, while TK is having a rest from play, she tells Moana “I just feel lost out there today.... it started off okay, but then I got lost...”. Moana agrees that she looked lost and explains her view of the problem, “Yeah EL is too high and started doing so much”.

This incident reminded me of many previous occasions I had witnessed in half-time talks when a coach had identified a problem clearly on the sideline; for example, “EL playing too high”, but the message during half-time had been watered down to “EL should hold a bit more.” I wondered whether this “soft” type of communication worked. I also considered the feelings of other players who had picked up the problem during the game, and guessed they would lose confidence in the coach had she not addressed the problem.

Did the players think they were too high? Did telling them to “hold a bit more” convey the same type of information? If another coach had bluntly stated the problem, would EL have felt bad or would she have appreciated the opportunity to improve the team’s play and alter her field position as the coach deemed necessary? (Researcher’s Notebook, 21.9.97).

Typically the first-half substitutes did not contribute to the mid-match discussion, a factor noted by the researcher, as the substitutes could be a valuable source of information. In fact, the substitutes did not always pay full attention to the game and often conversed about movies, relationships and other people while they were wrapped up warmly in rugs on the sideline. During one observation, Larry asked two substitutes to run every ten minutes because some players were carrying minor injuries, and they could be needed at short notice. The instruction was ignored but Larry laughingly scolded the players at the game’s conclusion and therefore let them know, in a friendly way, he disapproved. (One player later told the researcher that the telling off was a “soft option and a waste of time”

but one of the substitutes concerned assured me that she “would run no matter what” during the next game).

During three games the researcher monitored all the comments made by the coach during the first half of the game. The researcher did not adhere to the relatively formal categories such as those of Tharp and Gallimore (1976) or Kidman (1994), but created four simple categories (instruction, scolding, positive feedback, and negative feedback) with the aim of ascertaining the balance of negative and positive coach directions. Additionally, the researcher noted comments that were specific to a named player.

When the comments from one game were progressively divided into categories, a trend of responses was clearly seen. Larry tended to make positive comments only. These comments were mostly general in nature. For example in one game in late June 1996, Larry made 52 sideline comments in the first half. Of these 51 were positive statements, and one was an instruction to “do the squeeze”. Twenty-eight comments were general comments like “Good” or “Well done”. Eleven of these were attached to a name, such as “Good work MK”, and two were attached to a specific aspect of play, for example “Good pass” or “Good shot”.

Similarly, Moana was focused on the positive aspects of the game and was generous with praise for her players when they were successful. For example, she would yell out “Good ball, OP” when this player delivered a telling pass, or “Well played, AC” when she won the ball off an opponent. This coach clearly enjoyed watching the game, was totally focused on the field play and did not shy away from offering advice to her team if she felt it was needed. The researcher noted that Moana called more instructions immediately after a substitution change was made. This suggested she knew the on-field responsibilities of her players, as was shown when she called copious instructions after one substitution: “Centre forward is EM; CP, you’re left wing; TW and LF, you’re off....”

In contrast, Ian, the Hiha women’s team coach, would yell detailed directions and instructions from the sideline. In one game (7.10.97) the first half comments comprised 23 instructions (for example, “I told you to keep the ball out wide... you are bringing it in too early”), five scoldings (such as, “No” yelled very loudly and “Don’t give the ball to BJ”), and thirteen positive statements. Ian, like Larry, tended to speak in terms of generalities rather than attach positive statements to names of players or aspects of play.

Swearing amongst the coaches was not a common place occurrence and only happened occasionally. Moana was heard in one game to swear in the middle of a call designed to help her players sort out some on field confusion: “Go forward, CP; higher, CP; shit, pick up the players, we’re outnumbered.” In contrast with McConnell’s (1996) rugby coaching field notes, “f***” as an expletive, was only heard by the researcher on five occasions, not expressed by coaches but by players who had been hurt on the field, or were very upset during an on-field incident or team de-briefing.

5.2.4 Phase 4: Post-match evaluation

Post-match evaluation occurred through a variety of mechanisms. The coaches made match notes, studied video footage, and received verbal feedback from significant others, including partners, managers, administrators, other coaches and spectators. The team itself also had some input into the post-match evaluation, although the team’s coach had the overall role of coordinating the information and deciding on the actions needed as a consequence of the analysis, such as what changes should be incorporated into future game or training plans.

The provincial coaches used a variety of ways to evaluate the match in a team setting. Three different approaches were used. The first and most commonly used approach was a formal team meeting to discuss the events of the match directly after the game. A dressing room most often served as the setting for such a meeting, although the dugout was sometimes used. Such meetings were typically no longer than 20 minutes as they were carried out before the team had showered, in all observations in this current study.

In contrast to the pre-match team talk, the post-match evaluation had a higher player input, with the senior players, in particular, verbalising their analyses and opinions on strategic and tactical changes. On many occasions, every player in the three teams observed was given the opportunity to comment on aspects of the match, although some players declined to comment

Moana typically began her team evaluation with a short summation of her version of match analysis and then allowed the players to make individual comments. The following extract from the Gooder team’s post-match analysis illustrated this approach:

Gooder team post-match evaluation (Field Notes, 4.9.97)

The coach counts fourteen bodies. She realises there is one player missing and asks the team "Where's WY?" Nobody knows. The team stands around and waits quietly, stretching against the sideline fence. TK glances at her watch and taps her fingers on the railings of the turf in a signal of apparent impatience. WY saunters over from behind the dugout, saying nothing about the delay. Moana ignores her behaviour and begins her evaluation: "Okay, it's disappointing having a 3-2 loss. We never quite got hold of the ball. We had no real control and didn't really dominate the game. They had six attacking penalty corners and we had none in the second half. We need to look at giving the back-pass under pressure. We threw it back but can't afford to put ourselves under pressure like that. We need to be tougher in the defensive circle. There was some good stuff individually for everyone. (Pause) Any comments?"

NK attempts to justify the back-pass incident that Moana had referred to. She explained that "the back-pass needs to happen more quickly" and tried to justify that she felt pressured to pass the ball back because no other player had been available to receive a pass. Moana suggests they should look at the video to sort out the back-pass problem. TW says the Gooder players made the mistake of trying to put free hits to the opposition's stick side and reminds the team that "it is not club hockey". She sharply tells the players they "will not get away with it at representative level" and spells out her opinion of the solution to the problem. TK supports her co-captain and suggests the problem originates from "not looking for the first pass which makes the other passes more difficult... instead of a passing game we want bigger, better, flasher". No one adds to this point.

Moana picks up the conversation and adds in a more conciliatory tone that that this performance was extremely different from that of last Sunday. She adds that she is aware that they are mentally tired because they are physically tired, which must affect decision-making. She pauses and looks around the group and asks in a final statement "Anything else?"

The goalkeeper takes this invitation to explain her version of events, including her belief that reactions in the circle were too slow. The coach does not appear to be keen to get involved in a detailed discussion about the goals at this time and says they can have a look on the video. Moana then thanks the team, and that signals the end of the debrief.

Moana's decision to leave the discussion on how the opposition goals were scored was, in my opinion, a wise one. Undoubtedly, like myself, she had been present at many sessions of blame attribution where the team attempted to find out whose fault the goals were. My long-term sport experience shows that players' memories, in terms of their own part in the incident, are often faulty. The video analysis of the game often highlights evidence, in terms of individual mistakes or faulty strategies, of circumstances that led to an opposition

goal. Moana wisely decided to look at the tapes before chairing this discussion. (Researcher's Notebook, 4.9.97).

Although all the Gooder players had the opportunity to speak, many chose not to do so, as illustrated in the preceding field note extract. Larry used a different technique to maximise player feedback; he asked every player in the Dawson team to say one good thing about the match and one thing they would like to improve upon for their next game, and in this way ensured a wide variety of material was raised for discussion. Positive statements were chances to affirm their own achievements or hand out bouquets to other team members. Criticisms fell into two categories, either general complaints about aspects of the game or specific criticism about the player's own part in the game. The only occasion where serious team conflict was observed was at a post-match evaluation with the Dawson team when the discussion moved to "hospital" passes.

Dawson team post-match evaluation (Field Notes, 10.9.97)

The coach picks up on the point raised earlier and asks "Hospital passes... were they given because... what do you think?" He looks at the captain. AD replies "I think people are demanding the ball and they are not on". Another player interrupts "You need to think about where we are on the field... for example, someone gave PJ a ball in a risky situation and that causes problems".

LP (who hasn't spoken until now) bursts out with her comment "I get really pissed off and think f--- I'm not going to give it... too many people are calling. I get really pissed off". LP sounds stressed, is clearly unhappy with the calling, and makes the point forcefully. Another player offers verbal support "It really gets to me as well". Embarrassed laughter escapes from some players but the majority of the team do not find the comments funny and join a serious discussion on the matter. LP reiterates her point "If I choose the wrong option, I don't need other people to tell me I've made the wrong option". Larry asks if she is referring to his comments from the sideline. LP reassures him that "No - it's on the field. On the field, it's pretty obvious".

Larry raises the point that this type of discussion is good... the players need to remember that the team is made up of individuals and "we all get turned on by different things". BB makes a joke about his comment, which has possible sexual connotations and laughs "We won't go into that". The players join in the laughter and this breaks the tension. The captain ends the discussion by reminding the team to give constructive comments on the field but warns players not to be too sensitive.

The coach begins a sentence but then changes the topic "If we were two-one up [meaning winning by two goals to one] in the final against Hillsway and had 10 minutes to go, what would we do?"

Although this meeting revealed on-field criticisms, informal interviews with the players concerned revealed the matter was never raised again and neither coach nor captain made any attempt to follow up LP's anger, despite the fact that the practice continued throughout the season. Thus, in this case the coach did not think it was his role to intervene and consequently let players take responsibility for changing their own behaviour.

Larry used some post-match meetings for a chance to praise the team for their great effort and to reinforce the team goals before nationals. Larry once told the team "Well done, winners" after a successful weekend tournament and would often thank the team for their effort and commitment. The following extract is an example of one such positive response to a successful match:

Dawson team post-match evaluation (Field Notes, 8.6.96)

"Excellent game, great commitment and 'guts'. We had the attitude and the desire was there. To do what you did was excellent. We were exposed at the start of the weekend but you've shown today that we can get better. Keep learning by what we have done. Remember to carry it forward. Our next game is National Tournament versus Broadwood, and that won't be easy. Take what we did into Broadwood, Hillsway, Greenslade, Redding, Chatwick, and into the final. Improve on it each time again. I hope everyone today now understands the commitment, the intensity required for seventy minutes.

Setting up was not so good. Take it early... position yourself early from the first whistle. Keep digging deep and when it hurts you, dig it deeper. Work hard for five metres and then you get a rest. If you don't move over five metres, you'll have to run 25 metres. Get there earlier, run harder. Excellent effort team." He slows down. "I'm really proud of you guys. You should be proud. But still keep improving. The control, passing, running, options, strength, hardness especially in the circle were a lot better. Excellent effort ladies, thanks very much."

Larry also used the post-match evaluation to reprimand players, for example, after a loss producing an unfavourable score sheet which illustrated the gap between provincial and international hockey. Larry began the talk by scolding the team for their poor performance, and then he changed tack and reminded them to remain positive and work together.

Dawson team post-match evaluation (Field Notes, 7.9.96)

"We do not have 100% of players who are fully committed for the whole game. Think about your work rate and commitment. We are making simple, obvious mistakes. We want to take the hard options. We're too soft! There is not enough 'guts' in attack. It's not a constructive work rate .. we must back ourselves going forward. We should pop the ball in behind the defense and then use speed

to go forward with commitment". Larry softens his voice and adjusts to a more friendly tone. "This is character building stuff team. It's a learning weekend. We've got to remain positive in this team. Focus keep on learning... keep on improving.... we must pull together. We're one team. Band together and work together and support each other."

The team did not get to share their opinions in the meeting noted above. Larry ended the meeting with a reminder for them to "take it easy" if they went out in the evening and in this way he may have been acting as team conscience.

The official team after-match meeting was only one part of the game evaluation. The researcher observed other modes of post-match feedback including coach-player one-on-one meetings. In both the Dawson and Gooder teams, informal meetings were observed, and occurred as chance discussions initiated either by the coach or player. For example, two hours after the team meeting described above (7.9.96) SB sidled up to Larry and asked his opinion on some specifics about her own play in the game. When questioned later, Larry told me that over the course of the weekend several players had asked for individual comments and help about aspects of their game.

The second approach required the team to evaluate the match at some later time, for example, at the beginning of the next training session or at the start of the next pre-match team talk. Larry used this approach most commonly when the players were wet and cold after a game in inclement weather or when the game was scheduled in a late time slot on a weekday night. Larry preferred to talk about the game immediately after its conclusion. However, the players in the team were of various opinions as to when the most suitable evaluation time occurred.

The third post-match approach was to congregate in a social setting and discuss the game informally. For example, following a large win over another provincial team, Larry suggested that the Dawson team "meet in the bar for a drink". Observations showed that this method of evaluation was the least successful of the three because the researcher noted that the whole team never stayed for a drink, despite the team being asked by the coach to gather in the bar. This was illustrated in the Dawson team one night when an informal evaluation with drinks were suggested by Larry, but MK had to go straight home to complete a university assignment and LP needed to get a lift with her mother who wanted to leave straight away.

5.2.5 Phase 5: Training sessions

The provincial coaches had sole responsibility for controlling the training sessions. The pre-planned sessions included: teaching new skills; practising previously acquired skills through the execution of simple or more complicated drills; working through tactical and strategic manouvers; practising set plays; working on speed and fitness drills; and playing small games and fun competitive activities. Opportunities for communication between the coaches and individuals, as well as small groups, the whole team, and administrative staff, were also observed. These included the organisation of travel arrangements, instructions, feedback, motivation and the exchange of social pleasantries.

As with the warm-up phase, the provincial coaches had responsibility for the necessary equipment, which included gathering balls and moving cones. Drill organisation, and the necessary cone rearrangements, were aided by pre-prepared drill diagrams included in the coaches' notebooks.

Training sessions were held in one of two places, the outdoor hockey turf or the gymnasium. The majority of sessions observed were outdoor sessions that took place on winter evenings during late 1996 and 1997. The following extracts are taken from typical outdoor sessions for each provincial team.

Dawson outdoor training session (Field Notes, 11.8.97)

The Dawson coach, Larry, arrives half an hour before the official session start, in order to train the goalkeepers and shares the turf with three players training on individual schedules. At 6:15p.m. the coach starts setting up cones for three different skills practice exercises. The coach shows me what he had planned for the session. I ask him if he had planned it at work and he laughs saying "It's a bit like that". He then outlines how he has planned the whole season and divided up the important things through the various training sessions.

Larry explains that the team is still a squad of thirteen players and four New Zealand players who will join them after their campaign to regain entry to the FIH world cup squad. He has chosen the captain, AD and vice-captain, BA. He anticipates BA will have an important role to play because AD may not be able to play all the games which means the job will become more of a co-captain position. The coach keeps checking his watch and tells me he is worried about players being late to training because the night is so stormy and cold and bad weather often affects the traffic getting out to the park.

As the players arrive, the coach tells them to "warm up well as it's a cold night". At 6:35p.m. the practice start is signaled by the coach calling his typical cue "Come in please". Larry reports on one

player not coming tonight, discusses another player's injury and goes on to explain the first drill. The team is huddled together in a circle that includes the coach.

Larry begins. "We didn't do too well against Gooder and this practice is built around trying to improve aspects of that game. Working spaces, using double-arounds, and improving our screening". He outlines the entire practice to the team. He notices a New Zealand men's player, TJ, on the other half of the turf dribbling a ball around. Coach asks TJ to join the team "TJ, you're more than welcome to join us if you want". TJ agrees to join the team and the women laugh and welcome him. I suspect a female coach would not have invited TJ to join the group.

The players are familiar with the first drill but Larry explains it anyway "AD you start with the ball..DB, you lead." He directs people to stand in certain places so they can begin the exercise and asks "Is everyone comfortable with what we are doing?" They begin and Larry calls "Hang on, hang on, switch it, get it going. Let's go! Good ..good. Hang on, what happened here? Stop!!" Larry stops them and reorganises the drill. "Got the idea? Talk it, let's pick up the communication". Larry carries on with encouraging calls "Receive and pass, good, Okay, TJ go through, good, that's it."

Larry then instructs the team to stop and bring the balls to the top of the circle again. Larry again reorganises the number of players at each set of cones in order to balance numbers and reminds them of the key aspects "Hold your lead. Think about the lead. Let's make the lead a bit more dynamic. Okay let's go". The coach then decides to do a demonstration of what he wants, which is the player holding and then running in to the spot quickly, and he gives them the cue words "Hold and burst". The coach moves his position around the circle. Larry then speaks to one individual about a correction.

Larry calls another stop and asks the team to change direction. The players' groan, I assume, because they think it will be hard. Larry senses a general lack of enthusiasm for the change and takes control again by speaking more loudly and calling them to watch the demonstration, showing the players where to receive the ball. "At the moment we pick up the ball here, now get it here". The captain calls "Come on girls". Some players are clearly confused. Larry urgently tells the team to "switch onto this... good basic skills... that's it... you go next". Larry stops the drill and admonishes the team "Okay, bring the balls back. Switch onto this, it shouldn't be too hard". The coach is speaking urgently and loudly "Pick up the intensity". He appears to be disappointed at the fact that the players cannot adjust to the change of direction. "Let's go, that's better, think about the quality." The coach tells them they are being very quiet. "Keep it going, good, well picked up, SB, excellent pick up, RW, FM, BB, well done, good, XB, good, GT, well picked up, BB, pick up the intensity a bit LW, AD, let it come past the body, good reaction, SB". Larry moves positions. "Another minute, stay low, sticks low" . He walks to another spot. The players are rotating anyway. Larry adds some instructions "Pick it up when you have to, ideally on the reverse". Larry continues "Good, XB, BA, well done, a few more, good. Okay, that'll do. Bring the cones in, please". Players who are close to cones grab them.

He takes time out to talk to the newest player, RW, and explains how he wants her to receive the ball. He moves his stick around to show her what he wants and then signals to the team that he is about to change the exercise by calling "Okay, last two". The players take a well-deserved rest. Larry collects some balls, calls the team in close, and explains a point. "The point I made to a couple of people - (I assume this is the point he made to RW before) get the ball... lead with right foot then slip the pass to your left." He explains and shows them how to do it with his head over the ball, letting the ball come in front, stepping on the right foot as looking as if the pass is going right, then slipping the ball left.

I have gained the impression over many years of elite hockey, and at Under-18 years national coaching clinics, that there is a belief among some coaches that female players are not very good at deceptive moves. My observations at tonight's training session certainly appeared to confirm that view. But the question remains – why are they no good at deception? Have they ever been taught? Certainly Larry put a lot of time into it tonight with explanations, demonstrations and one-on-one feedback (Researcher's Notebook, 11.8.97).

Dawson outdoor training session (Field Notes, 11.8.97)

7:00 p.m. The coach demonstrates and explains the next activity. He then talks with GT on her own as she has a critical part to play in the move. They begin and the first three groups of players fail to execute the move and laugh. Other players also think this is funny and join in the laughter. Larry does not laugh and begins to sound a little frustrated when he asks the players "which is the most critical lead?" Larry pauses. "In this exercise?" Larry pauses again. "The key lead is from here". He answers his own question. Larry continues to explain his answer. Again he asks for comment with a question "Yeah?" Still the players do not respond.

I thought the training session was meticulously planned in terms of activities that were intense and physically challenging. Larry could have improved some of his feedback by using more specific terms like "That dodge was well done" or "Great stuff you executed the move at speed". In other words, the players need to know why he thought what they did was good.

Larry provided some opportunities for real game-like situations to be incorporated into the training but I wondered if these needed to be explained more fully. I noted the coach did not refer directly to the opposition they would be encountering on the weekend. I also wondered whether, if Larry questioned the players about the tactics and plays, they would understand the game situations as fully as he would want. Questions that sprung to mind

during the session were: Did the players really understand the moves? Did they think critically about the tactics or did they just do as they were told?

The established pattern, where the drills were set up and player positions were arranged by the coach, was continued throughout the period of observation. Although the coach related the drills to real game situations the players had limited input into such activities.

Dawson outdoor training session (Field Notes, 18.8.97)

Larry looks into his book to see what he had planned next and moves around collecting the cones. He then spends some time with RW explaining something about receiving the ball. (RW is new in the squad and seems to need more individual attention. I wonder will she make the cut?).

GT is over on the sideline hitting balls on to the fence. BA is recovering from a quad strain and watches the men training from the half way line. Larry calls out to them "Okay, bring the balls across". Larry asks the team to carry the balls up to the half way line where he sets up a real game situation on the right side attack and places the players in the positions he wants them to play. "SB and LW, you are the left hand side defence. DB, BA, RW and GT combine together as the attack. Go higher, LW, you move out wider. BA, I want you running across behind me. The right wing will run to the sideline and get rid of her marker. We'll walk it through. Got the idea? Slowly walk it through". Larry reaffirms his important points and reminds the team of the drill's relevance to the match setting as he calls "That's what we want to see on Saturday."

Three things struck me during this training session. Firstly, I wonder if Larry should ask the players to set up the exercise and in that way think about what they are doing instead of getting Larry to do all the talking and thinking. If the senior players could be given more responsibility, in terms of contributions to the session, they could even learn from the experience. Secondly, the injured players who stood around watching the men's training could be given a role -perhaps recording accuracy of shots or counting how many dodges a player made. Thirdly, when I reviewed these notes I highlighted the fact that such individual attention, seemingly needed to bring a new player up to speed with game plays, may be interpreted as favouritism. I must observe this type of individual attention in future sessions. My earlier research, from club hockey (Edwards, 1993), suggested some players thought female coaches had more favourites. Do the players interpret Larry's individual attention to RW as favouritism, and would their perception be any different if Larry was a woman? (Researcher's Notebook, 18.8.97).

Discussion between players and the coach did occur on occasions, especially when set plays such as penalty corners and 16 yard hits were under scrutiny. The following extracts from one training session illustrate this occurrence.

Dawson outdoor training session (Field Notes 18.8.97)

7:45 p.m. The team are working on their free hits outside the circle. Larry explains what they are trying to achieve. The captain begins a general discussion involving the players and coach. This is the first group discussion I have observed tonight. BA explains how she is going to serve the ball into the circle... straight to DB's stick. Several players voice their agreement with this suggestion. Larry agrees with her too and states "I'm sure it's legal and the umpire won't be watching you in that situation." Larry gets them to run through it again. The captain praises the team "Beautiful". Someone else humorously mimics her "Beautiful". Larry asks the team "Say, if they had a defender here - what would you do?" BA says "I'd hit it like this." Larry agrees and tells them "That's the key on the weekend - we'll do it one more time everyone. Last one."

Larry moves to organise other players on the attacking penalty corners, using LW to strike. Larry tells the other players to keep warm by playing a game. BB tries hitting some balls out to the top of the circle. Larry asks the two players at the top of the circle to check their positioning. Only then do the players realise they are off centre and move around another metre accordingly. Again Larry checks "Is that OK?"

They score a goal from the next corner and celebrate the fact with a variety of delighted calls. The next shot is missed and LW drops her head. Larry makes a change "XB come in for BB to have some pullouts". LW scores again. Larry instructs BB to do two more pull outs targeting AD. AD asks "Do you want me hitting it, Larry?" He shows her what to do. They try one but fail and Larry urges them to try one more "Let's try one more. Set up for it. DB, let's go". The players appear confused. Do they understand the move? They are not standing in the correct positions. DB nearly collects a stick in the face because she came in too close to LW's fake hit. The other players who are not involved directly in the corners are walking around chatting to each other. What happened to the game that they were supposed to be playing?

Larry signals the end of the session and calls "Come in, please, we'll call it quits there... Okay, I appreciate it's been cold. It's going to be a big weekend. Grab a programme... we won't do any fitness work tonight. The bus will leave at 2:45p.m tomorrow. You can leave your cars here. Any questions anyone? Is everyone OK? Thanks ladies, go and get yourselves warm." He then spends five minutes with LW, who is working on her penalty corner strikes before collecting the balls and cones and packing up his gear.

Further reflection on Larry's training sessions raised several questions. Firstly, what influence did the players want to have in terms of discussions of plays and strategies? At

most sessions I thought players appeared to be compliant and happy to take “a back seat” where set play and tactical discussions were concerned. Many players appeared to be “going through the motions” and although on some occasions when the weather was bad I empathised with them, on other occasions (especially the indoor sessions), I felt they could take more responsibility themselves, especially in terms of enthusiasm and effort. For example, I was really surprised when the attacking penalty corner bracket (three players who trap, bunt and strike the penalty corners) had lined up in the incorrect position and needed to be told by the coach before they realised their mistake.

Similarly, I wonder why they did not ask questions and debate points with the coach and team. Out of all the Dawson team sessions I only observed one real group debate. Can players be empowered if they do not learn to think for themselves? Can they be empowered if they don't have their understanding questioned by the coach or themselves? Why don't the senior players take more of a role in terms of leading the team and why do injured players at training sessions “hang around” instead of making a contribution?

Finally, I liked the way Larry always talked in terms of “we” and “we'll” do this and that with corners. In this way he appears to be placing himself inside the team group, which is interesting when considering Lay's (1993 b) ideas about how the women who coach find it difficult to be outside the group (Researcher's Notebook, 20.8.97).

The Dawson coach arranged for his team to play men's sides in order to sharpen up their skills and provide pre-tournament competition of a high standard. This then led to the discovery that some female players had a gender biased view of male player talents. The field note extract below indicated that men were viewed as having superior speed.

Dawson pre-match team talk (Field Notes, 18.9.97)

Larry talks again about the last training game against a men's team which he was really pleased about the “quick little passes on the right side.” He then asks the team “Are women very different from the guys? BA replies “Yep, they'll give you space whereas ladies will not give you an inch.” SB adds her opinion “That's because they can get you with their speed”. BA continues “their speed, they're so fast”.

I recalled some of my most devastating experiences in provincial hockey were training games against men's sides. Humiliation and loss of self-confidence arose from an unfair competition that I found difficult to handle. In contrast, the players in the Dawson team

seemed to revel in the opportunity to test their skills against the men and I decided women's hockey had either come a long way in a decade or the players were not being honest. The major aspect of physical difference, in the players' minds, still seems to be one of speed (Researcher's Notebook, 18.9.97).

Observations with the Dawson team provided the opportunity for the initial creation of training session categories and properties. However, these were added to following observations with the Gooder team later in 1997. Moana, the Gooder coach, revealed a contrasting style and, unlike the Dawson team, the senior players contributed to training sessions to a much greater extent. The following extracts from the beginning and second half of one such Gooder outdoor training session illustrate this different approach.

Gooder outdoor training session (Field Notes, 9.9.97)

The training begins at 7:00 p.m. sharp with Moana, the coach, producing a chart outlining the teams' goals and key strategies. The chart was to be pinned up in their homes as a daily reminder about what they want to achieve at tournament. The twelve players stood in a circle that contained Moana. The temperature was cold with a very strong gusty wind. The rain had eased from earlier in the day and I hoped it would stay dry as it was too windy to use an umbrella to shelter my writing pad.

Moana then explains that the session will include problem solving with particular regard to 16-yard hits and long corners. Another focus will be to practise and develop a plan for a fast break on the right side attack, concentrating on a successful "two on one" against a fullback. This last situation was in relation to a successful fast break from a previous game. The team will work on these aspects in split groups. I note that Moana has no assistant coach or manager at the session. Moana gives the team the cue to start "Okay, warm up". Moana told me that "the press" and "the arrow" were aspects of the game which they were doing very well and she had taken these ideas directly from the New Zealand coach at the sessions she had attended as part of the NZHF winning women programme. She had worked through the ideas firstly on paper and then translated them to the turf situation.

7.18 p.m. The co-captains walk to the far end with the defensive group. The group gathers together and has a discussion facilitated by TK and TW.

At the other end of the turf Moana sets up the attacking move. She places people and explains each role. This is a "break out" situation in a game when the team has an attacking opportunity after being on defence. Moana finishes her detailed explanation by asking, "Okay, do you know what you're trying to achieve?" The players reply "Yep". Moana makes a direct reference to the situation in their last game "I really want you guys to beat the fullback, whom we weren't beating the other day. You need to use the width, use width, keep going - you don't have to give it back." Moana is trying to get the players to think about the realities of the game.

Moana moves to the other end to see how the 16-yard group is coping. She tells me that TK and TW are co-captains and that the goalkeeper is in charge of the circle. The group is working on the right side 16 yard hit. Moana asks them to show her the left side hit. The players gather into a close group and verbally discuss their roles and tactics for the left side of the field. They try the 16-yard and it works perfectly.

The coach suggests they also try a pass to the centre half position. The ball goes to TK who acts as centre half. Moana corrects the player "Alright yeah.. the ball was not quite right... the centre half wants it here.... alternate it, that's right". The fullback again misses the centre half, which necessitates the coach moving into the play to show her where to put the ball. Moana then talks to the other fullback with some one-on-one advice.

They try the move again and it works. Moana offers more technical advice to the fullback and goes on to encourage her by calling "Yay" when she is successful. The coach feels they need someone who acts like a centre forward against them to put realistic pressure on the defence and takes over this role herself, despite the fact she is wearing street clothes.

Moana then moves back to the forwards' end of the turf. I notice that the whole turf is being used (the coach tells me later this is a very unusual situation - normally the other half has another team on it). Moana moves to speak to the keeper and stays down that end watching the forwards. Moana stops the exercise and speaks to the fullbacks involved in trying to negate the attack move. Moana praises them "Good. Okay, there's two attackers and only one defender to beat, use some speed and break out". Moana reminds the wing forwards to cue where they would like the ball and she emphasises the importance of this point by speaking directly to the player and talking a little louder than she had been.

Moana looks in her book, decides to change the drills, and calls to the defense to bring the balls down to the attack end. Moana tells the goalkeeper what will be happening. The idea is to set up a realistic forward defence for the 16-yard hits. The coach pauses for a moment and thinks about who she wants to do each job. Three attackers stand and wait for the coach to tell them where to stand. Moana checks everyone is in position. "Hands up defensive team". Players raise hands and look around. Moana queries "Okay? Got it? Be tough if they lose it. Who's left over? GK, do you want to be in a goal? Play it out. I'll get my whistle. Andy, [Moana's son] could you get my whistle? That's nice, use the centre half, good, good. Try to stop them. Don't be nice to them. Put them under pressure. Andy, get some balls please....".

While she waits for more balls to arrive, Moana explains a new stroke rule by talking out loud during the 16-yard training. A stroke is awarded now only if it stops a probable goal. Two players asked her a question regarding that rule change.

7:45 p.m. Left side 16 yards continue with mixed success. The players stop for more discussion. Moana shows one player where to stand. That player appears to think about the placements of other

players in the circle, acts out her role, and then agrees with Moana. The coach now instructs the team to move to the right side for 16 yards practice. One co-captain explains the situation. LF discusses her role. TK cuts in with other advice which TW questions “in general play?” A general discussion ensues and is resolved with both players agreeing. Moana appears comfortable with this discussion. She listens but makes no attempt to interrupt the players and give her own opinion. The session continues with penalty corner strategies.

I recall that working on set moves lets the players know who will most likely be in the top line-up at National tournament. If the coach asked me to be involved in a key move, I would think that I may be rated ahead of a fellow teammate for that position. Presumably, players know the positions New Zealand selectors are looking to fill and that they may want to be displayed in a particular place. Recalling my coaching days ..this led me to experience stress during the coaching of these roles as I knew what players would infer from their allocated set play roles. I will ask Moana about this. It is also a time when having players away from training is a real problem. This is also a problem if you have outsiders, such as the two Redding players, who will miss out on learning their places in key set moves (Researcher's Notebook, 9.9.97).

Indoor sessions

Indoor sessions had a very different focus from the outdoor sessions. The outdoor session focus was on set moves, team strategies and positional play while indoor sessions were intended to develop speed of skill execution, to improve the work rate intensity, and provide opportunities for intense competition in small game situations. Observations at Dawson indoor training sessions recorded the fun element that appeared to exist for the players. This was displayed by the high level of chatter and laughter that accompanied the indoor sessions, which was often absent from outdoor venues. However, the inclement weather of the winter outdoor training sessions was also a factor in the apparent improved mood of players inside. The other point was that the players appeared to have a real passion for playing three-a-side games.

The indoor game, of three-a-side, where three players oppose three opponents, was the most frequently used indoor training strategy to increase intensity and sharpen skills. The players, depending on how many people were in attendance, selected teams of three or four people. If numbers were not suitable for even teams of three, substitutes would be used. These were simply included by the players calling out they were coming on and another player would leave the field. The coach generally umpired these games.

Such competitions were very hard fought with regular conflicts about rules infringements. On one occasion, three Dawson men attended the training at the invitation of the Dawson coach, Larry, in order to provide a higher skill level and intensity in the game and put the players under even more pressure. A discussion with one player, GT, afterwards, indicated that this was the “best session” they had during the whole year.

Indoor sessions also contained set hockey exercises such as tackle boxes, drag practice, dribbling practice, as well as hockey specific fitness drills such as shuttle runs. The intensity of the sessions dictated that they only, typically, lasted one hour. Of note for the researcher was the fact that attendance numbers were lower in the indoor sessions. The reasons for absence included work, study, sickness, and injury. The Dawson coach (13.8.97) had told his team that the outdoor training session was top priority, and that attendance at both was ideal. However, he explained that “in a team where everyone is either working or at varsity, attendance at every session isn’t always possible – but they do need to ring me – so I know where they’re at”.

5.3 NATIONAL TEAM OBSERVATIONS

At the conclusion of the participant observation with the provincial teams the researcher gained further insights into elite hockey through additional observations with the national women’s hockey team. The settings, with one exception, were similar to those of the provincial teams, and included pre-match preparation, warm-ups, test matches, post-match evaluations, and training. The setting also included small group discussions that were used by the New Zealand coach to improve communication with players and thus provide a high level of player input. The researcher also had the opportunity to observe the team during an international tournament in Holland and although this was not originally planned as a formal part of the study, it did provide additional information on elite coaching roles and qualities.

The national coach viewed himself as the overall leader in a four person management team which included himself, the assistant coach, the manager and the physiotherapist (Personal communication, New Zealand coach, 18.4.98). The head coach had been involved in over

50 test matches with the side, as had the manager and physiotherapist, while the assistant coach had been appointed more recently.

The coaches displayed a very positive coaching style and seemed to continually remind players of the progress the team had made over the last two years. The two coaches have adopted distinct 'head' and 'assistant' coach roles. This arrangement seemed to work very well, and signs of discord were rare. *During the observations the management team portrayed a united and solid front and seemed to get along together socially (Researcher's Notebook, 21.3.98).*

Field observations have again been broken into five phases and will be discussed in turn using the same formatting conventions to distinguish field notes from reflections in the Researcher's Notebook, as used in the preceding provincial results presentation.

5.3.1 Phase 1: Pre-match preparation

A key part of the pre-match preparation was the coaches' "opposition analysis scheme" (OAS) devised through trial and error over a period of six years. Information was gathered from a variety of sources including covert observers (labelled "spies" by the team) at opposition games and training sessions, video tapes, overseas coaches, and feedback from players who had spent time playing in other countries. The information the coaches required focused primarily on the opposition's philosophy of play, positional strategies, identification of key players, and detailed information about penalty corners and other set moves.

Prior to an international test match, the New Zealand team had two team meetings. The first was a "technical and tactical" meeting, conducted several hours prior to the test match, which focused on presentation of the opposition analysis scheme. The second meeting occurred immediately prior to departure for the ground, and focused on tactics and strategies of the New Zealand team. The meetings had clearly defined objectives and were part of an established routine developed over a period of nearly 50 test matches (New Zealand team coach, 21.3.98).

Technical and tactical team-talk

Normal procedure, prior to a test match, was for the team to firstly meet several hours before the match in order to discuss technical and tactical aspects of the opposition team.

This meeting has been given the abbreviation “tec and tac” by the coach and would be followed by a shorter team meeting immediately prior to test departure where the coaches and team focused on what the New Zealand team would try to achieve. The “tec and tac” meetings normally took place in the conference room of the hotel where the team was staying. The following extract is taken from such a meeting prior to the team’s first test match against Argentina.

New Zealand team meeting (Field Notes, 21.3.98)

The head coach, looking flustered, entered the room and apologised for the delay. Unfortunately, the video information, usually a key ingredient in this talk, was not available because the assistant coach (AC) had inadvertently taped over the clips they were going to use. He politely (using the word “please”) asks the players to turn and face the white board and begins the discussion with a characteristic “Okay”.

The head coach outlines the purpose of this meeting and reminds the team that the final pre-test meeting will focus on what their own team will do. He directs the team to focus on the opposition team, Argentina. He explains that he and AC have already collected and analysed video information on that team and have complemented that with information provided by the experienced coaches who spied on the Argentinian’s training session in the morning.

His spies confirm his own belief that Argentina will use a particular formation system (3331) and outlines the consequences for their own team. He makes a special note of the fact that, in training, the Argentinians had practised an exercise involving team tackling, and so the New Zealand team should expect a lot of back up work from their players. He explained this concept diagrammatically on the board drawing the players’ attention to the weakness of this strategy and the possibility that the Argentinians may lose sight of the players “in behind”. He stressed that this was a point to note for the New Zealand advantage. He reinforced this point again, stating that “the Argentinians have a ball watching philosophy... rather than a player watching philosophy” and he felt they could take advantage of this.

The coach moves back to the white board and records five other important points in regard to the opposition but reminds the players that “these are predictions only”. The coach refers to one page of notes he has bought into the room, looks around the room making eye contact with most players, and continues with his evaluation on the Argentinian attack. “Point one, they are patient, and good at holding the ball. They will often wait to see what the defensive player wants to do. The second point is that when they waited to release the ball, they would use long up field targets, again to the right and centre.” The coach uses arm gestures to the right and centre to emphasise this last point. He continues “The third point is that their dribbling skills and timing were very good, they execute well balanced tackles and are prepared to recover. They are strong on dribbling skills. In attack the Argentinians use flair and have nice touches. They often use short sharp leads, make good use of the half line in

attacking moves.” The coach adds emphasis to this point and states that in some circumstances, this may lead to Argentina becoming isolated up front.

The head coach draws a practice drill (supplied earlier by his spies) on the whiteboard. He asks “So what does it say?” He continues immediately “so what it says is... 1. Critical leads 2. Sharp sideways leads 3. If they are prepared to practice that sort of run, they may use it in the game.

He moves on to explain a second drill seen at their training. He poses the question “Now what does that tell me?” He does not wait for a reply but outlines the important aspects he surmised by studying this drill. He points out that the Argentinian formation might indeed be more flexible than he first considered. The third exercise they worked on was a one-on-one outside the circle, where the attack had to try to score a goal under real pressure by two defenders, which means they intended to attack with limited numbers.

He continues, “The last drill the Argentinians used was a complicated eight versus eight game which involved holding possession of the ball in the midfield for long periods of time, prior to making a focused and speedy attack on goal”. The coach asks the team to consider the implications of this, and suggests the opposition may try to hold possession in the midfield and then go for an opportunity to score.

The coach then reinforces his opinion that the drills from training may give some signals to the New Zealand team as to what sort of opposition tactics they might expect to face later in the day. The coach then asks the group if anyone wants to make a comment on what he had been saying. He invites the assistant coach to speak, but AC declines. The head coach then opens the floor for discussion. A team discussion ensues followed by an interactive analysis of the oppositions’ likely set plays.

The coach moves on to discuss their own attack play after an opposition attacking corner and draws a diagram on the white board simultaneously explaining the role of every person. He stresses the importance of the first outlet pass which must be hit “smack, it just goes... bang, I want to see you doing that consciously today.” The coach organises penalty corner substitutes, and then revisits the idea of the quick outlet by assuring the team that if the Argentinian’s block the easy outlet in the first test, New Zealand will rethink this option before the next game. The coach looks to the assistant coach and asks “Anything else?” AC shakes his head “No.” The head coach checks with the rest of the team “Okay?” and pauses before adding “Start thinking blue and white” [Argentinian colours].

In retrospect I thought that the “tec and tac” meeting was well planned and coach-directed. He focused on the point at hand and then moved to the next. He did not dwell on each point and open up general discussion. He had a lot to get through in the time allowed and spoke with a no-nonsense quick rhythm. The ‘tec and tac’ meetings were an established part of the group culture. The players were aware that these meetings were

focused on the opposition and were not an opportunity to discuss any point at length. The experienced players appeared to understand that they could contribute if they felt they had something important to add (Researcher's Notebook, 21.3.98).

Final pre-test meeting

Immediately prior to a test match, the New Zealand women's hockey team would meet for a very short time in a conference room in their hotel. Typically, and as part of an established routine, the team would focus on key video footage from a recent game and then concentrate on the main strategies to be employed in the current game. The meeting ended with a motivational video made from previously recorded clippings of New Zealand players scoring goals or accomplishing great tackles, accompanied by music appropriately upbeat and chosen to evoke mental images of the opposition they were to face. The following extract was representative of both the setting and interactions involved in such a meeting.

New Zealand team pre-test meeting (Field Notes, 21.3.98)

3:25 p.m. At the meeting's onset the physiotherapist is attending to medical needs in her area set up at the back of the room. The assistant coach (AC) is at the videotape machine and the head coach positions himself in the middle of the room directly in front of the white board. A message has been written on the white board which read "Visualisation needed. Imagine a needle scratching on a record (CD's don't do this)". No one explains what this message means and nobody asks questions about it. (The team psychologist had provided the quote for the manager to write up).

The assistant coach tells the team their psychologist, if he were here, would ask "What if? Expect the unexpected" and adds that "it is up to the team to decide what to do about the unexpected". The head coach reminds the players that peak performance requires the mental and physical sides of the game to balance.

The coach informs the team that the key things will be, firstly, "our pressure on them". The assistant coach freezes a video clip while the head coach walks to the screen and asks the team "Who is screening off the outlet... who is behind?" He gives the team an opportunity to examine the frozen clip and reinforces the importance of individual responsibilities. "It's no use some people busting their guts if other people don't bother." The second thing he wants their team to work on is better use of the two corner pockets and identifies the right half and inside forwards as key players in this strategy. He challenges the team to ask themselves "Are we good enough to identify spaces and use them?"

The coach refers to the Argentinian strategy of going down the right flank. He asks the team how they will stop this strategy and goes on to suggest New Zealand could "play the ball on their own

right side.” The coach pauses and asks the team “If they want to play right- where do we want the ball to go?” Again, he answers his own question: “To their left”. He expands on this aspect and illustrates the point with a video clip showing New Zealand’s previously successful utilisation of this tactic.

Sara asks the coach to draw it on the board “so everyone knows what to do”. Without hesitation the coach draws “the standard squeeze formation” on the white board and explains that the concept is simple. He adds two further points for the team to consider. Firstly, the players must be aware of the lines (between ball and opposition players) and secondly, they must put the squeeze pressure on them quickly. He checks their understanding and asks another question “Where is the ball going to go? To the player that is not marked”. The coach pauses and looks around the room, making eye contact with the players. I notice he could not see Sally because she is behind him. He continues, “Let’s work the lines... communicate to let other know what’s happening”.

3:37 p.m. The head coach indicates to AC that he is ready for the next clip. “Look at our team. What are we doing here?” One or two players mutter an inaudible comment. He gives the players time to study the clip and think about the situation but no discussion is undertaken. The coach returns to a summary discussion of the task at hand. He congratulates them on the test series win against the USA but reminds them they are only as good as today’s performance.

“Today, this team needs to concentrate on our pattern, our squeeze, and commit to it. In the squeeze we will take the lines, not the players, and when the squeeze isn’t the best option, you will need to pick up the opposition players”. The coach admits that the difference between these two approaches was subtle and that, for success to occur, every single person would have to cooperate. The coach goes on to discuss three other important tactical strategies for the day’s test match and warns the team against predictability.

The coach concludes the meeting, restating the key point “to succeed in negating the Argentinian strengths.” He also reminds them to apply pressure to the opposition in sufficient numbers and to work together. He wants them to repeat the pattern New Zealand had used against the USA, and improve on that. Finally, he names the stroke taker, and outlines the penalty corner options.

The coach’s last statement “I love cats, they taste like chicken” is a play on words about the Argentinian rugby team’s “Puma” nickname. On cue, the assistant coach begins the motivational videoclip. The video music starts with the track “Don’t cry for me Argentina” but changes to an upbeat modern song accompanied by rapidly changing images of the team enjoying each other’s company socially in a variety of settings, for example, the team playing golf and Taylor celebrating her 100th test match.

My impressions of this team talk were, firstly, it was treated as another part of the established routine. The purpose of the meeting was an established part of the team

culture regarding the preparation for the test match. As such, it was one part of the routine with a purpose of focusing on the key points for New Zealand. This meeting was not intended as the mechanism to motivate and fire up the team and consequently there were no bugle fanfares, no tears or tugging on emotional strings. The coach did not appear nervous (his voice was the same as the morning meeting- steady with normal pitch) - in fact, he remained calm and collected during his succinct presentation of key points. The meeting had been meticulously planned from start to finish, including the correct footage from videotapes to illustrate key factors identified by the coach and assistant coach.

The head coach had utilised information given by the players from yesterday's group meetings. He focused on areas that had been mentioned as needing improvement, especially the squeeze.

The players appeared to enjoy the music, and I noticed feet tapping and heads wiggling to the beat. They smiled at themselves, and called out encouraging comments about the team activities on the video footage that was created especially for this occasion and therefore watched with keen interest (Researcher's Notebook, 21.3.98).

5.3.2 Phase 2: The warm-up

The team began their warm-up routine after an initial settling in period at the ground. The team management decided on appropriate travel times and generally the team arrived well in advance of warm-up start time, in case of possible traffic delays. The coaches and players used this extra time to become familiar with the surroundings, meet friends, move gear and carry out last minute equipment checks.

The coaches were involved in several tasks before the test match. Coach liaison with ground staff, media, local medical staff, members of the organising committee, and New Zealand Hockey Federation officials were all observed. For example, during one international test match, the head coach spent considerable time helping the groundsman organise the timing of the watering machine needed to prepare the playing surface. Although, at first glance, this seemed a waste of valuable pre-match time, ex-international coaches confirmed the potential benefits of such an activity for the team, and the researcher noted this.

Without exception, the coaches introduced themselves to the opposition coach and made polite conversation. The coaches believed in the importance of cordial relationships with visiting coaches because social contact was expected at after-match functions and other on-tour occasions. Additionally, “friendly” overseas coaches were also an important source of valuable information for the opposition analysis system (OAS).

Prior to the warm-up starting and during the players’ run, other coaches, friends and family and officials would approach the New Zealand coaches and wish them “good luck”. The head coach appeared to enjoy conversing with well-wishers and told the researcher he physically relaxed during the pre-match time because he felt he had done all he could, and it was now up to the team. However, his communication with players occurred frequently throughout the warm-up period and continued right up until the starting whistle.

As with the provincial sides, the captain initiated and led the pre-match team run. This occurred 25-30 minutes before the test match started, in order to avoid time delays such as those that may occur with test match national anthems. The on-turf warm-up began with players working in pairs, followed by higher intensity drills, shots on goal, and final game pace sprints. The head coach and assistant coach were both involved in the timing and content of drills as the following extract illustrated.

The New Zealand team warm-up (Field Notes, 23.3.98)

The head coach moves to talk with Sara when the runners reappear. He asks her if they have done some sprints. The head coach moves on to the turf and helps organise the warm up. The assistant coach is readying the video equipment on the embankment. The manager moves on to the turf to help collect balls. AC notices Gilly is having difficulty getting her stick through the umpire’s test ring. [The ring tests the diameter of sticks]. AC removes a thick band of tape from around the end of the stick and it goes through the ring. Such a delay could have distracted Gilly but she did not appear flustered or annoyed and in fact seemed to find the whole episode rather amusing, especially later when she replaces the offending tape.

The rest of the team looked hot and sweaty and some players make last minute rushes to the toilet.

I remembered now the comment from one provincial coach who told me that this had really thrown him when he first took a woman’s side. He said that he was ready to give them some very important last minute advice and half the team had run off to the toilet. In his vast playing experience the men did not need to do this before a game (Researcher’s Notebook, 23.3.98).

During this initial test against Argentina, the researcher first noted evidence of New Zealand's bicultural heritage impacting on the elite field hockey setting. The coach appeared to value the opportunity for his side to be represented by a Maori haka performed prior to the test match. He was appreciative of the men's performance and stated in a later team meeting that the haka was an ideal way to start a game. The following extract describes such a pre-match event.

The New Zealand team warm-up (Field Notes, 21.3.98)

The team runs to the middle of the field and line up facing the clubrooms directly behind the coaches. The teams stand silently and await the anthems, but a technical hitch occurs and the anthems are abandoned. At this time a group of young Maori men gather on the sideline. They are representatives of the New Zealand Maori men's hockey team who are in the city for a tournament. The men talk excitedly and practise poking out their tongues, as their ancestors would have done during tribal confrontations earlier in the nineteenth century. The men run on to the field and arrange themselves facing the Argentinian team, and proceed with their war-like challenge, the haka. The coaches of both teams enjoy this spectacle immensely.

I would have thought the haka would have been rather frightening for the Argentinian players but they did not appear to be fazed. Perhaps they had seen the All Blacks performing the haka against the Pumas (Argentina's rugby side). Or perhaps someone had warned them about what to expect. I wondered who had dealt with the cultural protocol aspects of this event, and recalled a photo in my historical collection of the 1963 New Zealand women's hockey team performing the haka at Eden Park. Women are rarely sanctioned to perform the haka, or to play hockey on Eden Park (Researcher's Notebook, 21.3.98).

5.3.3 Phase 3: The test match

During a test match the head coach's efforts were directed towards control of the substitute players, making notes of possible relevance to the match, including analyses of strengths and weaknesses of both teams. The coach sat on the bench with substitute players, the physiotherapist and manager.

The head coach, in contrast to the three provincial coaches observed over the two previous seasons, did not keep up a constant patter of sideline calls. For example, in the whole first half of the second test against Argentina (23.3.98) he did not call out once. Rather, the players on the bench and the physiotherapist called out loudly. His outward demeanour

was one of calmness and control. When the New Zealand team was one goal down, in the second half of one test, they were awarded a penalty corner but the striker mishit the ball. The coach did not demonstratively react, did not get off his seat, and did not call out. He behaved in the same controlled manner minutes later when New Zealand did convert a penalty corner, and two minutes after that when Argentina scored again.

However, he did call out on rare occasions, for example, in the dying minutes of the same game discussed above, when an apparently bad umpiring decision caused the coach to raise his hands in despair at the call. He also began to sit forward on his seat and fidget. He called out to the team to “keep the pressure going” and called out loudly for a penalty corner to be awarded but then apologised to the players on the bench.

He also communicated by use of the walkie-talkie with the assistant coach, who was often in a better position to comment on parts of the game because of his vantage point with the video camera. The head coach also spoke to players on the sideline. If the captain or one of the senior players had been subbed off through injury, or for a rest period, the coach asked them to sit next to him and would talk with them about his ideas or particular situations that had arisen.

The head coach would greet the New Zealand players returning from the turf at the end of the match and, while the players would hug each other, he appeared to be content with patting his players on the back or shaking their hands. The head coach also made the effort to meet and talk with the opposition coach immediately before the match. At the game’s conclusion, regardless of the result, he would shake the opposition coach’s hand.

The assistant coach was not present on the bench, nor did he call out during the match, as his major task was the video analysis of the team. He set up the video camera prior to the game and filmed throughout. He left his post before the half-time meeting so he could join in the discussion, although on two occasions he was two minutes late for the start of this talk.

Immediately after one test match (23.3.98) the two coaches became involved in a judiciary meeting with the test match controlling body, the Fédération Internationale de Hockey (FIH). One New Zealand player had received a red card and had been sent from the field. A judiciary meeting was called ten minutes after the match and the coach was asked to be

present with the player. The assistant coach had caught the incident on videotape and believed the evidence would lead to a reduced suspension time for the player. The management group appeared to be unprepared for such an incident as no rulebook could be found and all the subjects were observed, rushing around with worried looks on their faces.

The international half-time talk normally occurred in an allocated changing room for a period normally lasting ten minutes. The general pattern of coach and player contributions was the same as in the provincial teams previously observed, in that the head coach spoke first from a list of points he had noted throughout the first half. Players were also given the opportunity to answer questions but had limited contributions because of time constraints.

The head coach was very direct in his approach to half-time communication. He positioned himself in the middle of the room and addressed each player directly. He spoke rapidly, in an urgent manner, and maintained eye contact with the player concerned while he spoke. There was also limited opportunity, within the time frame for players to talk to each other. This usually happened at two or three times – immediately the players entered the room, while they were deciding where to sit, or after the coach had finished his initial appraisal.

Half-time was also an ideal opportunity for the physiotherapist to attend to minor injuries that had occurred in the first half but not been bad enough to stop play for medical attention such as bruises or small cuts.

The following excerpts illustrated the types of communications typical of a half-time talk in an international test match.

New Zealand team half-time talk (Field Notes, 22.3.98)

As the players enter the dressing room Gilly explains a situation to Tui. Kiri listens and then adds a comment about balance in the tackles and demonstrates how they need to get the defender “more on the forehand.” The coach listens and asks the group “Did everyone get that?” He tells the team “This is important”. He then changes tack and says not to worry about the umpire. “We don’t want any cards and there’s a danger of that... maintain your composure... think about it.”

The coach inquires about two players – are they feeling all right? They give a positive response. He returns to the game and addresses the defenders “There is nothing I can say... we’re doing well enough... just more poise, more confidence... keep our shape... early pressure, run two metres,

calling... support... make it harder for them.” He turns his attention to the attackers “We need to nail our chances.... We’ve had some shots... dedication... commitment... mentally, switch on... make the next one a goal... use maximum determination goal-wards.... In the midfield, use Gilly. I’ve nothing more.”

The assistant coach joins in with his own advice. “You have to be tough and grind away at the opposition. You will get through this ...it’s a tough game. Sharpen up the release of the pass, especially when they have an option on early. Do not give the ball away. They are good at the intercept and don’t forget to use the ball in behind on attack.” Sara reiterates AC’s point about early release of the ball and stresses the importance of passing and having confidence. Two senior players add their contributions.

Sara calls them all over to one side of the changing room. They huddle together in a tight circle with the coach in the middle. Sally mutters in a quiet voice that “This is typical of an international game.” The coach quickly reminds the team that “New Zealand is bloody good at coming back... it’s a mental challenge and a physical challenge... let’s see more sharpness, determination. It’s a thinking game. Both sides look to have utilised control with aggression and speed. Remember the poise... don’t be hurried, settle down, lift each other with calls... go for it. This is our best challenge yet. Let’s go”.

On reflection, I noted two points about this last interchange in the half-time talk. Firstly, the coach quickly interrupts Sally’s negative comment with his own more positive belief that they can overcome the score deficit which suggests he believes in the power of the mind. Secondly, I observe that the head coach stresses the importance of the mental side of the game, and yet, it appears to me as if the sports psychology part of the team has been tacked on, like the obtuse message written on the whiteboard before the game. Certainly the sport psychologist involved with the team was not present at the two pre-game meetings or the game itself. I must find out if other countries have a full-time sport psychologist. I’ll check this out at the World Cup (Researcher’s Notebook, 22.3.97).

During the half-time talk, the head coach supplemented mental recall with reference to his typically detailed notes and also, on occasions, communicated with the captain before the full team assembled in the dressing room or dugout. The main points of the talks were to communicate information in regard to on-field strategies, and encourage pre-match tactics when this appeared to be necessary.

New Zealand team half-time talk (Field Notes, 19.4.98)

The head coach had completed one whole A4 page of notes in the first half and urgently scribbles more as the half time whistle blows. As the captain approaches the dugout, he rushes forward and

speaks to her quietly. She appears to agree with what he is saying and nods her head. They proceed to the dugout [the team did not use the changing rooms for this game, as it was an unofficial “test” match against the Australian Institute of Sport team].

He begins with a statement about the changed plan “It takes a while to get used to it. Stick with the plans we had.” He proceeds to outline the new lineup “Clare and Marg will start..... there needs to be a mental switch. The two front runners will play deeper and that will give the flexibility for the inside forwards to go up on attack. In the midfield, we need numbers, get into the attack, early on we were too slow to release the ball.”

AC joins the group from the far side where he has been taking video footage of the game. The head coach refers to his written notes and continues “The worst feature is the turnover of too much ball with short little passes. They are getting around the ball carrier. Change the point of attack. Then later on we exposed some gaps. We are opening them up but don’t be too rushed to give the pass. The work off the ball is particularly slow. Okay?”

AC and the captain speak for a further one and a half minutes. The head coach concludes the half time by outlining the immediate changes to the team. After the team return to the field, the head coach talks at length with Sara, the captain, whom he had subbed off.

One incident, which highlighted a gender issue in the elite setting of women’s field hockey, occurred during the first test match against Argentina (21.3.98) when one player needed to leave the half-time talk to help calm her distraught child. The manager also left the dressing room to see if she could offer assistance. The player was absent for two minutes and returned when the crying had stopped.

When I quizzed the coach about this incident later, he told me he was more than happy for a player to leave the half-time talk in such circumstances. He assured me this was not a regular occurrence but he felt comfortable about the way it was handled. I mused on the likelihood of this happening to a male player during an international test match and decided it was highly unlikely (Researcher’s Notebook, 21.3.98).

5.3.4 Phase 4: Post-match evaluation

There were two main post-match evaluation settings used. The New Zealand coaches used a “debriefing” meeting immediately after the match, as well as a series of small group meetings, involving the forwards, the inners, the halves and defence, to further evaluate match play. Information gathered from such team and/or small group discussion was then included in the major pre-match “tec and tac” meeting previously discussed in this chapter.

New Zealand team post-match debrief (Field notes, 22.3.98)

7:30 p.m. The head coach calls the meeting to order and asks each player to comment on two or three key things about the game. [The following quotes are typical of the comments from each player, spoken in turn]. “I wasn’t very confident”; “Our basics were disappointing”; “I loved it – it was nice to be on the field again”; “Communication”; “Calling and lines”; “We need to be stronger and more decisive”; “Frustrating”; “Spread out”; “The backs were good on tackles”; “We should use more short options”; “Frustrating”; “Silly errors”; “Midfield spacing”; “It was good to win, but we can play better”. The manager simply states “We won”. The assistant coach adds his point that the team showed a lack of understanding and the head coach tells the team to “go forward more”.

The coach asks the team “What do you think the Argentinians are saying?” Taylor lightens up the mood and pretends to speak in Spanish. The players laugh. The coach smiles, regains his focus, and asks them again “What do you think the Argentinians are saying?” He shares his own opinion that their basics let them down and that both teams had plenty of opportunities. He then drops his tone of voice and asks “How many times do you need to go over every set play? Sometimes we do set up but when we look for a quick one give the ball away. For example, the right hand new fangled long corner... it doesn’t matter if it doesn’t work... we don’t use the options.... Do I need to call them?” The players say “No”.

Discussion continues between the coach and senior players regarding ball control, the improvement of the squeeze, and the fact that the defence had difficulty reading what the Argentinian forwards were going to do. The coach closes the meeting with the point that out of the last twenty-four games they had played, they had only lost three. He ended with “Let’s make sure we don’t lose tomorrow.”

AC quickly suggests one last point – in regard to channelling players. This comment opens up another discussion that lasts for fifteen minutes. At the meeting’s conclusion, the programme for tomorrow’s second test day is outlined. The meeting ends at 9:00 p.m.

One player stays behind to talk to the coach about the situation where three Argentinian strike forwards were very high and created a problem in behind the defence. The head coach assures her AC has some video clips and, together, they will figure out some different ways to combat the situation, and discuss it with the defence tomorrow.

There was one observation, during another small group meeting, of the two coaches expressing different points of view to the players. The head coach ended the conversation with a statement “Clip it and we’ll have a look.” The two coaches agreed to re-evaluate the clip and consider it for a second time and avoided the temptation to sort out the problem in front of the players. They both appeared comfortable with the discussion.

Video analysis played a crucial part in the post-match evaluation. The initial match debrief was followed by an evening session of video analysis by the coach and assistant coach. The head coach believed the analysis of video footage was essential because it allowed both coaches time to construct, and debate, firm tactics needed to repair weaknesses in the New Zealand game. Furthermore, he believed taped evidence often reveals situational nuances previously undetected by participants or sideline critics (Personal communication, NZ team coach, 22.3.97).

The head coach believed that women reacted differently to some things. He illustrated this when he told the researcher that “women dwell on problems and I have to be careful being too upfront with them” (Personal communication, NZ team coach, 22.3.97). The video analysis, therefore, provided a means of sharing negative impressions about the match in conjunction with tactical suggestions for making improvements. Thus the video analysis had become a valuable tool in enabling the provision of feedback in a positive manner.

Over the time they had worked together, the head coach and assistant coach had developed a statistical video analysis technique. The assistant coach was very competent at using the \$8,000 analysis machine (that they shared with the New Zealand men’s team) and the team had become dependent on the use of video clips for feedback and analysis of games and for team talks to explain teaching points.

New Zealand team video analysis session (Field Notes, 22.3.98)

11:00 p.m. The two coaches select appropriate clips from the test match and edit them to create “a story”, built around certain themes, for presentation to the team. They work in unison; collating statistics and identifying clips for use. The assistant coach is in charge of the equipment and technical work while the head coach marks his especially prepared statistical sheets with various successes and failures of on-field manouvers. The two coaches believe they will be up until 1:00 a.m.

Having returned to my unit at in the early hours of Monday morning, I had more of an idea about the tremendous workload of an international coach. The video and statistical analysis needed great powers of concentration and when this was combined with the late hour of the day, I personally would find the process extremely exhausting. Combining this with travel and the effects of jet lag, the process may be too much for many people. I wonder if the high level of technical skills possessed by the current assistant coach would be a prerequisite for future contenders? None of the provincial coaches were using

anything so advanced and, if they are to progress to international level, this factor may need to be addressed.

This raises issues for me such as sexist views on women's use of technology and lack of training in this area of elite coach development. Can women achieve this level of expertise? Is it really necessary? (Researcher's Notebook, 23.3.98).

Team analysis was also undertaken at a small group level. Groups were formed with people in the team who had similar roles; for example, the defensive unit comprised the two goalkeepers and the players who played in defensive roles. The following extract is taken from a small group meeting of the inside forwards' group in their analysis of their USA test series in March 1998. The players met in the coaches' hotel room on the afternoon prior to the beginning of a test series against Argentina.

New Zealand team small group meetings (Field Notes, 21.3.98)

2:30 p.m. The inside forwards arrive at the coaches' hotel room, straight from the team meeting. The coaches enter the room first and began to clear the floor and bed of clothes and papers. They hurriedly undertake a general tidy-up so the players would have room to sit down. The room was small but neatly furnished with two single beds, a chair and a coffee table. The dressing table was covered in video equipment linked to the room's television set up on the wall.

Gilly is first in the door, grabs the only chair and apologises to Sara for taking it. Sara replies lightheartedly "It's okay, you're an old granny... I know you need the chair." Gilly laughs. The players present are Tracey, Sara, Emily, Gilly, and Kiri. When they are all seated, on the floor, chair, and beds, the coach explains that the key things about these group meetings is to spend more review time with the players, and give some feedback on what to focus on tactically and technically.

The head coach asks the players to watch a video clip taken from the second half of the USA game. Following a short discussion, the assistant coach continues with another clip that showed New Zealand scoring a goal. The head coach discusses some tactical aspects about the clips and then general points about the first and second USA matches: "In the first game they (USA) used the squeeze and the second game they used two centre halves... they had an extra person in the mid field." The coach explains a strategic point to Sara. Kiri bursts out with a comment after she had viewed a situation on the field she did not like "Oh, I hate that... there are two players behind the defence that are not marked". The assistant coach agrees with her and suggests a solution "That's where the forwards need to help, in the second line of players". Sara and Tracey then add comments on the same topic. The coach asks AC to clip that part of the video for further reference.

2:45 p.m. The coach asks the players “What are the key emphases that we should focus on?” Gilly thinks it should be the “use of space”. The coach nods and suggests “another little thing is three touches. We take an extra touch. We should take two touches”. Emily makes an inaudible comment. The coach raises the two-touch point again “Ideally we should two-touch. Get our feet in the right position”. AC makes a point related directly to the phase of play they had just watched “In watching that play the key thing was...the ball moved on quickly... trap and pass... receive and then give.” Kiri adds her own thoughts, which the coach rephrases by stating “What you’re saying is... moving into space - pulls others with us and creates space for others.”

Sara supports these comments by saying that “When we did.. we worked better together”. The coach questions this point “So you are coming back and getting in front of defenders?” Sara adds that she felt the USA weren’t so aggressive in that game. The coach begins. “I think...” but he is interrupted by AC who makes his presence felt saying “We could have created a bit more space. Do you feel sometimes we try and turn really quickly and it gets under our feet?” The team verbally agree and several players nod their heads.

The coach begins to sum up the session. “The key emphasis is setting up the wings, working and talking.” He reminds them they must understand three important things. “Firstly, where to pass the ball; secondly, what are we trying to read; and thirdly, know what the others are thinking.” The coach explains that the inside forwards’ key role is to throw telling passes to the front runners and added that they needed to improve the inner/striker combinations. He goes on to explain that such telling passes require understanding and talking and adds “we could be devastatingly good, it’s down to point one of a second, we need subtle deception.”

The coaches show more clips and discuss the defensive roles of the inside forwards. The meeting broke up at 3:00 p.m. The front runners were waiting outside and the change over was quick. Emily stayed for the next meeting as well as she sometimes played a strike forward.

My reflections on the small group meetings included several areas of possible interest. The coaches replied spontaneously and honestly to questions asked by the players. This demonstrated, in my opinion, an excellent depth of knowledge and a sense of shared vision. They resolved issues of dispute immediately or decided to give the issue more thought before making a more considered response. However, I wondered if the head coach, who had a slight tendency to answer his own questions, could have deflected the problem solving on to other players, by asking “What do you think, Sara?” or “How would you answer that, Tui?”

Surprisingly, the players did not single out other players for criticism and if they did talk about another person, they apologised and said “I don’t normally do this but...”. I noted

the senior players (especially Sara, Gilly, Kiri and Kyla) spoke more often than the new players did. I noted that Lindy did not speak as much in the New Zealand team as she did with the Dawson team. Possibly the pecking order is different or perhaps she was quiet today.

In summary, I thought the meetings were conducted in a friendly, relaxed atmosphere, bathed in a sense of common purpose. The team was casually dressed in shorts and tee shirts and lounged on the beds or on the floor. The team genuinely seemed to care about each other, which I noted from small gestures such as asking someone else for their opinion, laughing at others' jokes, listening when other players were speaking and the complete lack of jibes and/or 'put downs'. Certainly the last few results would indicate that the New Zealand team have every right to be a happy team, considering they won the test series against a higher ranked USA team. In my experience, a winning team is often a happy team. (Researcher's Notebook, 22.3.98).

Player self-disclosure was observed frequently in the post-match settings, especially when the coach placed players in problem solving situations. In such a context, the coach agreed to liaise with personal trainers, and set up support groups within his team for players who were in need of extra help. The following extract from one team meeting illustrates these empowering and liaison roles.

New Zealand team meeting (Field Notes, 21.3.98)

The head coach asks the team to split into left and right side groups in order to discuss "what you're trying to do on the field." He asks them to concentrate on the five or six categories they had identified on an earlier occasion. He suggests a time frame of ten minutes.

AC wheels in a second whiteboard from the corridor, and observes the right side group discussion. The head coach spends the next few minutes with the goalkeepers. Sara stands at the other white board and facilitates the left side group. The discussion appears to empower the players in that they appear to be thinking about both their own roles and team roles and although the coaches are present, the buzz of conversation is player centred.

The head coach asks the newest goalkeeper how her training is going and she replies "I haven't really done much of anything.... but I have got the base". The coach asks the senior keeper to help her out with training ideas and promises to liaise with a goalkeeper coach from her province to ensure a suitable training programme is organised.

The head coach assures the new keeper “the big thing I want is technique. I’ll talk to your trainer. I know things have been a bit rushed since you joined. Before you go, make sure you let me know who your trainer is and we’ll get you on the same sort of finishing programme as the others. I’ll get someone to have a yarn to him.”

The coach handles this conversation with real diplomacy, he does not say discouraging things but quietly reassures the keeper about her ability. Having just made the decision to include this keeper, he is fully aware of what she has or hasn’t done and is comfortable with her level of fitness. I am impressed with the level of trust she feels towards the coach - she is honest about where she is at, and is probably aware of how she rates against the first string keeper.

Coach player relationships seemed to be cordial and honest, illustrated by the fact that the players appeared comfortable with self-disclosure like that shown today by the new keeper. The team and group meetings were relaxed and friendly. The overall atmosphere was one of a ‘professional business’ approach to the job at hand - the analysis of the current test series - which reflected the tight schedule (Researcher’s Notebook, 21.3.98).

5.3.5 Phase 5: Training sessions

The New Zealand team trained together when they attended training camps or when they were together for a test series against another country. When they were not together, a regional training scheme had been established which involved experienced coaches in the main centres running skills and fitness sessions in accordance with the national coaches’ overall plan. Attendance at the New Zealand team training together was, therefore, seen as an important opportunity to observe elite coach roles and qualities in action.

The following field observation was taken from one such training session of the New Zealand women’s hockey team and has been included, in its extended version, because it is indicative of many of the roles and qualities enacted by an elite coach during a single session.

New Zealand team training session (Field Notes, 21.3.98)

10:05 a.m. The team leaves for their warm-up run and then completes a set drill based around cones previously set out by the head coach. At the coach’s signal the team begins a game in which the right side players oppose the left side. The head coach adopts the role of umpire. The teams were in different coloured shirts; one team wearing blue, the other in white. The players’ socks are also

colour coded, with one team in black and the other in white. Individual expression is evident in the fact that Lindy wears a pair of green socks, and Tui wears one of each colour.

The assistant coach plays on the “white” team to make up numbers. The manager tells me they arrived at training at 9:30 a.m. There had been a communication breakdown with the academy men who understood their training went on until 10:00 a.m. and the New Zealand women had waited until the men finished.

My sensitivity to gender issues has become such that I am constantly aware of small issues such as the turf double booking that occurred at this morning’s training session. Would the New Zealand men’s team have waited for the academy women? I suspect not. (Researcher’s Notebook, 21.3.98).

The players are practising their on-field communication and call out loudly in order to signal that they are available for a pass. The session appears to be set up with the aim of practising sideline hits, long corners, 16-yard hits and other set plays. At 10:10a.m the assistant coach leaves the field of play, observes from the sideline, and throws on balls to speed up the play and reduce the delay. The head coach controls the game, and often asks the players to repeat failed tactical moves. He also urges the team to improve their performance by making accurate passes and traps. For example, he calls “Tighten it up... it’s a bit loose.... tighten it up. Make it hard for them.” The head coach is focused intently on the play and continues to walk up and down the sideline.

The coach maintains his encouraging banter “Good ball. Hard luck (in response to an unsuccessful but potentially ‘telling pass’)... Okay, tidy it up. Okay, well done. Keep it going...” He moves towards the half way and says to AC “Yes, there’s a couple of signs there ” (he gives a slight smile). He focuses back on the players and regains his commentary that consisted of both general and specific feedback “Okay, ...on the side, Denise, watch the ball for those traps. Keep low.... good ... good.. a good feed.” For example, he calls “good ball” when Tui made a successful pass to another player on her team. At other times he calls out instructions to her so she knew what to do. “Okay Tui, from there, make this the last run. Tui, take it again ..more from there”. One team of players string together several passes in a row. The assistant coach joins in the encouragement “Way to go.. good pass.. yeah, yeah, well done... good move.” The coach adds more praise “Great attacking move by both teams.”

The head coach starts to change the drill but AC interrupts with “Drinks first.” The head coach continues with the next drill’s instructions but some of the players were not within earshot. The physiotherapist looks up and calls “Hey, what about drinks?” The head coach realises his mistake and agrees that drinks are important. He uses the time to talk to the goalkeepers, consults with AC and then collects extra balls from the side of the pitch and looks at his watch to check the time (conveying a sense of urgency).

10:20 a.m. The players drink. The coach gives the team a warning about the turf's slipperiness and explains this is a factor with the potential to impact on the test match. Two groups of players were still engaged in conversation and others talked to the physiotherapist. The coach realises he does not have full attention and waits (he shifts his weight from foot to foot in a signal of impatience). "Okay, the defenders come across to the right far corner with me.. attack will go with AC". He does not explain what each group would be doing.

When the defenders reach the corner of the turf, the coach stands facing the semicircular group. The coach explains the purpose of the exercise which is to get the feel of the turf (it is a brand new, week old, water surface) and get used to being under pressure. He names the exercise 'five on two' and explains that the two players in the middle should try to intercept the ball from passes between the other five who are trying to maintain possession. He realises the drill will be physically tiring and tells the players to stop for rests, if needed, rather than slow it down. He numerically outlines key aspects as "one, keep the ball moving quickly, two, work on perception, three, when under pressure know where the other players are".

He instructs Denise and Pat to start in the middle. "You've got the donkey's work." Tracey is told to go to the outside. The coach recaps the main points and asks them to concentrate on giving early ball and to hold the ball if "they did not have an option". He proceeds to add a cautionary note to this statement by saying "The moment you hold it you're in trouble, so give it early." He holds a spare ball to enable fast replacement should the ball be lost outside the square, in order to keep up the drill's intensity. The coach attempts to guide the players by calling instructions, for example "Gilly, switch with Clare" or "Clare, there's such a big hole". One player calls out "shit" as she mistraps a ball. The coach alters the exercise slightly because they appear to be finding it very hard, and the success rate was not high enough.

10:25 a.m. The coach stops the exercise. He asks them to "come in closer" and gives them verbal feedback on the drill. "That's good, but you must know where the passes are before you get the ball." He reminds them to give early ball and concentrate because he sees they are "getting a bit sloppy". He also changes the rules of the exercise to make it more competitive.

The coach reminds them that bad passes are unacceptable, and emphasises with the aid of a demonstration, the importance of body perception. The coach then adds that the team needs to be proactive in the formation of gaps because "that aspect of our game is not particularly strong." The exercise continues and the coach resumes his positive commentary: "Pat, that's good, good shoulder (position) good ball good... much better... bad luck, Gilly.... defenders can shift and leave gaps deliberately... good, Denise, good body... good shoulder... it's cat and mouse stuff."

The coach stops the drill again and asks the players "when you make two or three mistakes in a row, in a hockey game, ask yourself, what am I going to do when that happens?" (He paused for a response that was not forthcoming). The coach answered the question himself. "Slow it down.. make sure of the easy passes. It's exactly the same in a hockey game. That's what we would do." The

players resume the drill and a high ball from Gilly drops Tui to the ground. The coach checks the injured knee and sympathetically pats her on the back. He walks Tui over to the physiotherapist.

The coach continues his commentary reinforcing aspects of the play he was happy with as well as those that needed improving. He urges players to be self-critical of their mistakes. After one excellent period of play, while the team pauses for breath, the coach asks “What’s the difference?” Gilly answers “Patience”. The coach reiterates “It’s just about patience. Better timing and giving the passes that time. Good.”

10:40 a.m. The coach changes the rules of the drill by restricting the players to hitting the ball. He then checks his notes and calls “hold for a breather... again, be a bit self-critical. Watch the angle of the stick, Gilly.” He gives them a final effort incentive by calling “last minute.” The players encourage each other. The coach then singles out one player for praise “Well done, Pat. It’s a while since you’ve been there, isn’t it? Okay. Okay, I’ll hold it there.”

The training session illustrated the empowering nature of the head coach’s style, in that it appeared that the coach wanted the players to think about what they were doing and why. I recalled the incident when he encouraged Gilly to correct her stick angle and reminded her to be self-critical of that mistake. This comment appears to underscore the coach’s belief that the players need to be self-critical or self-reflective (Researcher’s Notebook, 21.3.98).

10:50 a.m. The coach tells the group that they would do another drill while the forwards finish off their work with AC at the other end of the turf. He sets up cones to mark the boundaries and explains these options are intended to be similar to opportunities in a game for a counter attack. The coach assures them “two goes each and that is all.” He watches Clare and approaches her with a verbal reminder “We sometimes gets a bit square”... and mentions balance. He then demonstrates the correct body position. (The coach used to be an international full back and demonstrates the position with ease). “Okay, Denise stay there and tackle a couple. Good tackle, well done!” Denise does six tackles in total.

The head coach was very sensitive in his dealing with a player’s feelings. His criticisms were often empathetically couched in terms of “we” rather than “you” as in the example where he explained to Clare about her tackling. This may make it easier on the player as the coach was in effect sharing some of the responsibility and letting players know he understood their feelings (Researcher’s Notebook, 21.3.98).

Gilly switches with Denise and executes a successful block tackle followed by an immediate outlet pass. The coach highlights her excellent performance. “Good, Gilly, that’s the absolute ideal turnover, if we can achieve that. She has taken the tackle on her stick and got rid of it.” He calls the

drill to an end by stating “Okay, stop there.” The coach asked the players to pick up any spare balls and grab a drink while he again reinforces the main point of this exercise by reminding them “we want to make it automatic .. perception and thinking.” The training session continues for another hour while the team practise penalty corner options.

Further reflection of the training session highlighted the fact that the coach encouraged the players to be competitive and play at game pace. The full-on pace of the penalty corner practice and tackle box drills were proof that a high level of competition existed at New Zealand training sessions. A comparison with the provincial training sessions leads me to the conclusion that their pace is a level below international level, despite the fact that provincial teams may contain many international players. I noted too, the tendency for the coach to include physically demanding drills, tagged with an added proviso that only a certain number would be completed. In my experience as a player, I recalled that my coaches often said we would do a set number of tackles in the “sweat box” and on most occasions we ended up doing far more than they had intended (Researcher’s Notebook, 21.3.98).

During training sessions, the head coach illustrated good pedagogical and people management skills, as reflected in his high level of preparation and ability to “think on his feet”. He appeared to be comfortable with a high level of player input but was clearly viewed as “the boss”. In general, the training session data suggested both coaches possessed good active listening skills, as shown by the paraphrased examples in the field notes. However, player answers were often preempted by the coaches themselves.

5.3.6 World Cup observations

In May and June 1998 the New Zealand women’s hockey team attended the combined women and men’s Fédération International de Hockey World Cup tournament in Utrecht, Holland. Although the researcher felt saturation had been reached by this stage, additional information was collected throughout the tournament. Observations undertaken in this most elite World Cup setting provided an opportunity to view the coaches in a land where hockey was a mainstream sport and factors such as the huge crowd and the perceived importance of outcome rankings may impact on the participants.

The researcher noted, from the tournament programme, that males were the head coaches of nearly every international side, with the exception of the English women’s hockey team. The programme also revealed the number of support personnel assisting the teams was of

possible importance for this study, given that the majority of teams had five, six or seven extra people in their management teams. Under half of the women's teams, including New Zealand, had four support people, typically listed as a head coach, assistant coach, manager and medic. Apparently, cost prohibited New Zealand sending more people with the team as the FIH paid for only four support personnel and any extras would be at the expense of the New Zealand Hockey Federation (Personal communication, New Zealand coach, May 31, 1998).

The New Zealand team began the tournament in style. They were one goal up against Holland at half-time in their first game but finally lost the match. However, the results showed the team how far they had come and one player told the researcher that the team had begun to think "success was possible". The second game, however, was a real disaster for the team. They played Korea and were four goals ahead with 12 minutes until full time but then New Zealand's defence collapsed, Korea scored five goals in quick succession, and snatched the victory. The coaches and team appeared to be emotionally shattered at the end of the game.

The assistant coach admitted that the Korean incident had caused real unrest in the team and that the coaches found it very difficult to deal with the situation. One insider told the researcher that the team had been extremely close to breaking (she used a pinch action between thumb and forefinger to demonstrate just how close this was). The head coach later confirmed these accounts and told the researcher that the Korean game was the most difficult situation he had ever faced during his coaching career. He managed to make it through this difficult patch with "some real soul-searching" and support from inside and outside the team (Personal communication, New Zealand coach, June 2, 1998).

The Korean incident reinforced the impression of the assistant coach that women were different from men in terms of communication. The assistant coach told me that he found "women difficult to deal with over these types of things. They were not upfront, but sent delegations in to the coaches' allocated room to say what they were thinking. We had to be sensitive towards people's feelings but they were not upfront in what they were actually feeling, anyway" (Personal communication, New Zealand assistant coach, 27.5.98).

Other incidents that highlighted gender issues were noted during the tournament. In the presentations after the final game, one of the New Zealand players received the "best

personality” trophy, but the consensus was that the player, later described by the press as the New Zealand team’s “pin-up”(de Vries, 1999, p.43), had won the prize for “the best legs”. No such prize was awarded to the male equivalent.

The party, following the prize giving ceremony, was also noteworthy for aspects pertaining to gender. Following the final game, the team was officially disbanded, and the majority of players began to celebrate by drinking alcohol. The researcher noted the freedom given to the women and, in comparison with the “chaperone” mentality recalled from previous tours, the women were treated as people, no differently from the men on the following night. The following extract from the researcher’s notebook illustrates possible issues, particularly in regard to ethics and safety, for consideration.

I was not surprised by the “off duty” attitude of the management team. The end of tournaments are notorious for drinking, and team management often avoided associating themselves with partying players lest they become involved in unpleasant incidents. At least two of the players were under the influence of alcohol, and one fell to the ground and was rescued by her mother who rushed her off for some food. I wondered what would have happened to her if she didn’t have her mother on hand? I remembered a similar situation occurred when I was the captain of a team who had won the national title. I spent the entire last evening helping young women who were very drunk and I would not relish that task as part of the World Cup management job.

Before the end of the evening, I began chatting to Janet who had spent much of the tournament on the bench. While we were discussing the last match, she suddenly started sobbing on my shoulder. I comforted her the best I could, acutely aware that everyone was watching. Fortunately Gilly, one of the senior players, whisked her away to have a good cry away from the public view. When they returned, Janet had composed herself but Gilly remained at her side, protecting her from anyone who might take advantage of a young woman in a state of mild intoxication. This incident reinforced the importance of experienced senior players who, though not being part of the official team leadership, had an important role to play nonetheless.

The freedom of the female players from the responsibility of the management committee did convey a sense of gender equality absent from tours I had previously attended as a player. My own memory and those of older players, recalled incidents from overseas tours

tours when female players were chaperoned by a manager who imposed a curfew while male players had freedom to end the tournament in any way they chose. However, I wonder how the coaches and manager make the distinction between freedom and safety issues and imagine the lines between the two often become blurred (Researcher's Notebook, 31.5.98).

Further observations, of particular interest in terms of gender, were noted during the international tournament. The women's final was played the day before the men's, which could be interpreted as the women's game acting as a curtain raiser for the final main event – the men's game.

Other incidents of note were the South African women's hockey team who had chosen the song "Oh, you sexy thing" as their theme song which was played whenever they scored a goal. Sex appeal was also discussed in reference to the Australian women's hockey team who wore a new type of one-piece figure-hugging lycra suit. This same Australian team later referred to the New Zealand team at the 1998 Commonwealth Games, as "frumpy" because "their uniform was likened to those of prissy school-girls" (de Vries, 1999, p. 43).

The English team had also been embroiled in a gender incident before leaving Britain. In an alleged effort to widen the game's appeal, the English Hockey Association (EHA) chose to show 18-year-old Lucilla Wright, England's youngest World Cup player, lying in seductive pose, draped in a black dress and wearing red lipstick, with the caption "8.30pm. My Place" (World Cup Bulletin, 24.5.98). Newspapers also apparently reported Monica Pickersgill, the president of the England Hockey Association, saying: "We want to show that normal, sexy, boy-interested girls play hockey and you don't have to look like a horse" (World Cup Bulletin, 24.5.98).

If Monica Pickersgill had indeed made that statement, it could have further implications for the coach of the English team, in that lesbian players may have felt uncomfortable with comments on preferred good looks and sexuality. Given the importance of self-esteem to the player's psychological wellbeing, I wonder if the elite coach should enter the critical debate surrounding the sensitive sexuality issue. Certainly the two New Zealand coaches had never, at any time in my presence, made reference to a player's good looks or matters of sexuality (Researcher's Notebook, 24.5.98).

5.4 PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION: CATEGORIES AND PROPERTIES

5.4.1 Categories and properties

Coach roles and qualities, and the impact of gender on the portrayal of such roles and qualities, were the focus of observations in the main settings (pre-match team talk, the warm-up, the match, and training sessions) portrayed in this chapter. These participant observations progressively generated, through the grounded theory process discussed in Chapter Four, a range of categories and properties that lie at the heart of the present study. Inherent in the generation of these categories and properties were the underlying principles of: continual reworking and revision of data, the importance of challenging assumptions, and the necessary balance of the researcher's reflection and critical thinking associated with grounded theory deduction of this nature.

It appeared to the researcher that saturation had been reached by the end of the national team observations, in the sense that each of the five phases of observations were now being duplicated in the field notes and little that was new was being recorded. However, the opportunity that arose to attend the FIH World Cup tournament presented an unexpected range of observations of a national team at this elite competition level. Significant among the data recorded in this elite setting were gender considerations, including male-female communication differences, and sexist attitudes of some elite hockey administrators. These data were considered critically when the following groupings of categories and properties were developed.

This results chapter now outlines the categories and properties of coach roles, qualities and gender considerations that emerged from the full set of participant observations field notebooks as developed by the researcher. A number of these categories and properties are illustrated in the abbreviated notes that have formed a major part of the present chapter.

The categories, at this stage of the research project were perceived as falling into three groupings: coach roles, coach qualities, and coaching women.

CATEGORIES	PROPERTIES	POTENTIAL PROPOSITIONS
1. COACH ROLES	1.1 Selector	Selects players
		Selects captain(s)
		Consults with other elite coaches
		Observes matches for selection purposes
		Selects the starting line-up
		Selects player's for set play roles
	Selects player's roles at training	
	1.2 Planner	Prepares the season's match programme
		Prepares the season's training programme
		Prepares the session plans
		Approves the player's fitness plans
		Plans the timing of the match day
	1.3 Leader	Leads the management team
		Has a vision for the team
		Enacts a coaching philosophy
		Sets goals
		Makes decisions
		Empowers players
		Influences team culture
	1.4 Manager	Liaises with administrators
		Liaises with match officials
		Produces a team booklet
		Is well organised
		Organises team meetings
		Organises support staff
		Organises transport/drivers
		Manages time
		Designs job descriptions for captain
		Designs management team roles
		Records attendance
Delegates responsibility to team members		
1.5 Analyser		Analyses own team and individuals
	Analyses opposition	
	Uses opposition analysis system	
	Reviews critical feedback	
	Undertakes video analysis	
1.6 Communicator	Analyses statistical information	
	Analyses skills	
	Presents strategy/tactics	

		Communicates selection matters
		Listens actively
		Questions
		Uses a range of feedback techniques
		Celebrates goals scored
		Facilitates group/team discussions
		Communicates with individuals
		Communicates with the captain
		Communicates with the media
	1.7 Pre-match preparer	Writes the team talk
		Motivates
		Prioritises goals
		Designs of strategy and tactics
		Designs of set plays
		Liaises with on-field leaders
	1.8 Orchestrator - warm-up	Sets out drills
		Talks with individuals (one-on-one)
		Organises warm-up timing
		Reiterates main points before game
	1.9 Controller - match	Designs match strategy and tactics
		Observes the match
		Provides feedback and sideline instructions
		Organises of substitutions
		Talks at half-time
	1.10 Trainer	Chooses drills
		Controls timing
		Motivates / pushes
		Sets goals for the session
		Encourages player input at training
		Assigns roles to players at training
		Organises helpers
		Relates training to the game
		Umpires
	1.11 Teacher	Teaches new skills and strategies
		Relates familiar drills/skills to new drills/skills
		Reviews previously taught skills
	1.12 Role modeller	Demonstrates a professional attitude
		Exhibits a fair play attitude
		Has a sporting attitude
		Cares for the team and individuals

		Demonstrates skills/positions/play
	1.13 Equipment controller	Is responsible for the equipment
		Retrieves and counts balls
		Arranges cones
		Places video equipment
		Uses walkie-talkie radios
		Uses stopwatch and whistle
	1.14 Advisor	Advises on technical aspects
		Advises on strategic aspects
		Advises on physiological aspects
		Advises on psychological aspects
		Advises players on a personal level
	1.15 Socialising agent	Socialises with players after the game
		Exchanges personal information
		Expresses interest in players
		Retains a little social distance
	1.16 Team conscience	Reminds players of social standards
	1.17 Seeker of support	Has a supportive partner
		Seeks support from players
	1.18 Creator of representative pathways	Relates to higher level coaches and selectors
		Understands the requirements of NZ levels

2. COACH QUALITIES	2.1 Communication skills	Demonstrates presentation skills
		Facilitates group discussions
		Communicates with individuals
		Communicates empathetically
		Encourages player contributions
		Uses non-verbal communication
		Uses hockey terminology
		Has an awareness of cultural aspects of communication
		Controls emotions
		Uses non-gender-specific vocabulary
	2.2 Leadership skills	Has vision and goals
		Has a philosophy
		Possesses integrity
		Respects followers
		Possesses empathy
		Helps to instill pride in the team
	2.3 Knowledge	Understands hockey specific skills/strategies

		Understands the laws of the game
		Has physiological, psychological and technological knowledge
		Understands sport pedagogy
	2.4 Managerial skills	Uses motivation skills
		Co-ordinates the team
		Plans
		Possesses flexibility
		Possesses time management skills
		Relates well to support staff
		Shows effective interpersonal skills
		Manages change
		Enjoys working with people
	2.5 Personal qualities	Is honest
		Is self-confident
		Encourages
		Has good manners
		Has a sense of humour
		Is fair
		Respects the opposition
		Displays a sensitivity towards women
		Is diplomatic
		Inspires
		Solves problems
		Accepts diversity
	2.6 Attitudes	Is positive
		Plays fair
		Accepts family
		Accepts different cultures / sexualities
		Is professional
		Behaves ethically
		Accepts alcohol at after match functions
		Has a winning attitude
	2.7 Technical skills	Demonstrates a high level of playing skills
		Operates video and computer equipment

3. COACHING WOMEN	3.1 Gendered beliefs	Power differentials
		Coach perception of players' physicality
		Sharing power and empowering behaviour
		Use of gendered actions

		Perception of male player's abilities
		Putting responsibility on the players
	3.2 Communication issues	Avoidance of one-on-one confrontations
		Control emotions
		The need for patient communication
		Understanding women's sensitivity to feedback
		Balancing the attention given to players
	3.3 Social values	Use of gendered language
		Exhibition of gendered actions
		Expressed beliefs e.g. gender equality
		Acceptance of individuality
		Use of a female manager
	3.4 Essential knowledge	Knowledge of women's hockey
		Understanding women
	3.5 Gender differences	Pre-match toilet habits
		Player's responsibility for dependents
		Lack of attendance by partners
		Afternoon tea responsibility
		Child-care
		Scheduling of women's games
		Physical appearance and dress
		Media coverage
		Attitudes to alcohol consumption
		Spectator numbers at women's games
	3.6 Sex/Sexuality	Lesbianism
		Respect for players privacy
		Players uniforms
		Sexuality and self-esteem
		Sex appeal for marketing
	3.7 Development of coaches	Liaison with sources of support
		Job descriptions and expectations
		Coaching pathway
		Thank-you's at season/series end
	3.8 The coach	Time availability
		Being thanked
		Family commitments
	3.9 Players	Self-expectations
		Perceptions of the coach

Figure 5.1. Participant observation: categories and properties.

5.4.2 Research question

What are the roles and qualities of elite women's field hockey coaches and to what extent are these moderated by the impact of gender?

The researcher approached the participant observation phase somewhat tentatively, despite the fact that she had trialled her methodology as outlined in Chapter Four. This feeling was quickly allayed and the full range of observations progressively revealed insights into the roles and qualities of elite women hockey coaching. An understanding of the answers to the research question became clearer towards the end of the study, with saturation of data being reached, and categories and properties being unfurled with confidence.

5.5 SUMMARY AND REVIEW

The participant observation methodology generated a range of categories and properties arising from the provincial and national team's elite women's hockey settings. These categories and properties, noted in the present chapter, contribute in turn to the master list eventually developed after the full consideration of all research phases and outlined at the end of Chapter Seven. The participant observation stages provided significant insights for the researcher and extracts from the field notes that contributed to these insights, and her own reflections upon the data have been supplied in this chapter.

This chapter has provided evidence that the head coach was, in all cases, seen by participants as the undisputed team leader and, as such, responsible for selection of team members and the allocation of roles and job descriptions for all members of the team, including players and management. The head coach was also responsible for the major decisions regarding team tactics and strategy and thus ultimately responsible for the result. Fulfillment of all roles to the satisfaction of the coach was not always possible which was a source of frustration and led to occasional compromises of main priorities and goals.

Participant observation data collected from within settings of elite women's hockey teams suggested coach roles are many and varied. Results from this chapter suggest that key roles for the coach include those of: selector; planner; leader; manager; communicator; analyst; role model; advisor; and friend. The coach, at both the provincial and national

level, also had important roles in controlling and organising training sessions and associated match-related functions such as the pre-match team talk and the warm-up phase. The responsibility for equipment, and the time associated with arranging cones and collecting and counting hockey balls, was noted in both settings.

Participant observations in the national team setting provided evidence of the coaches' high level technical analysis of both individual and teams and, in particular, the use of statistical analysis and video taped evidence. The national coach's assistant was proficient at video and computer technology, and enabled a highly sophisticated level of analysis to occur. The assistant coach also provided much needed support and was a valuable additional knowledge source.

The coaches of the provincial and national teams essentially carried out the same roles at each level but the live-in situations of the national team provided more time for analytical team meetings and small group encounters. Coaches, in this current study, differed in their approaches to the opportunity given for player input and once again this occurred more frequently in the national team settings. Some coaches appeared to be more comfortable with a facilitator role than others and attempted to encourage player contributions and extended debate.

The key coach qualities revealed by the investigation were those of communication, leadership and managerial skills. Knowledge of women's hockey including strategic, tactical and technical understanding was demonstrated. Personal qualities differed between the coaches but all displayed a caring, friendly attitude including the ability to enact fair play principles and ethical behaviours, such as respect for the opposition.

The impact of gender on the settings was rarely obvious. The national head coach, in particular, displayed an empowering style of coaching and demonstrated his ability to make players think for themselves and take responsibility for their own actions. However, this elite setting did reveal the tendency for coaches to believe women needed a soft glove approach when communications involved critical feedback. More obvious gender differences did occur, for example, with player's dependants, female perceptions of male hockey players, pre-match toilet habits, and the male coaches' sensitivity when entering the female players' changing rooms. Finally, the research provided data which suggested

coaches' social values impact on the coaching role, particularly in terms of language and actions.

The researcher did not encounter any problematic ethical issues in this phase of the research. On one occasion, the researcher voluntarily withdrew from observations after an on-field incident necessitated a disciplinary hearing. At all other times, the friendly attitude and seeming openness of the subjects was very much appreciated as it facilitated the fullest possible state of observational recording.

The present study now moves to result chapters that build upon the participant observation information by outlining the data gathered from provincial coach interviews and player surveys. These phases of the research will, in turn, add to and modify the categories and properties, relevant to the research question noted above, that were initially framed as a result of the participation observation phase.

CHAPTER SIX

ELITE COACH INTERVIEW RESULTS

This chapter, outlining results of interviews with elite women's field hockey coaches, examines subjects' perspectives of coach roles and qualities, as well as perceptions about the impact of gender on coaching experiences. The chapter also examines the coaches' beliefs about their own knowledge in terms of coaching women specifically. The chapter notes coach ideas for retention and recruitment of elite coaches, and outlines categories and properties focused and generated by this interview data. The summary and review provides reflections upon this phase of this study.

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Demographic information
- 6.3 Gendered coaching
 - 6.3.1 First experiences with women's teams
 - 6.3.2 Preference for men's or women's teams
 - 6.3.3 Impact of gender differences
 - 6.3.4 Coaching roles and gender
 - 6.3.5 Coaching qualities and gender
- 6.4 Women's issues in coaching
 - 6.4.1 Physiology
 - 6.4.2 Psychology
 - 6.4.3 Pedagogy
 - 6.4.4 Women's health
 - 6.4.5 Coaches' self-perceptions of women's issues
- 6.5 Development of elite women's hockey coaches
 - 6.5.1 Coach experience
 - 6.5.2 Coach support mechanisms
 - 6.5.3 Coach development
- 6.6 Coach interviews: Categories and properties
- 6.7 Summary and review

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results from semi-structured interviews with provincial women's hockey coaches. Twelve of these elite level provincial coaches were interviewed for this phase of the research project in an attempt to elicit perceived participant realities that provided a further critical shaping of the elite landscape painted in the previous results chapter.

The focus of the in-depth interviews was to capture the elite field hockey coaches' perspectives of their essential roles and qualities, and to uncover their ideas on the impact of gender in this setting. Interview questions had been formulated from issues raised in the literature reviews and as a result of prior participant observation. Questions included the

following main areas of focus: demographic information; first impressions of coaching women; preference for coaching men or women; views on the impact of gender differences; perceptions of essential coaching roles and qualities; and consideration of women's issues in coaching (see Appendix I.1 for the specific interview questions). Coaches were also given the opportunity to critically consider their own coaching knowledge, in terms of women's issues, in order to enable a comparison with their own players' perceptions of this knowledge, especially that pertaining to gender issues. The interviews also sought to elicit the coaches' use of, and faith in, various support mechanisms mooted in the literature, such as mentoring and networking. Finally, provincial coaches were asked for their views on coach education and development schemes.

6.2 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Twelve provincial coaches were interviewed for this stage of the research. New Zealand's top provincial women's hockey sides met once a year for a national tournament and this opportunity provided the researcher with access to elite coaches for a short time period. All thirteen coaches attending the 1997 NZHF national women's hockey tournament were given the opportunity to be interviewed and twelve agreed to take part in the study. This sample size was acceptable for this present study as the interviewees were, arguably, the most discrete group of elite women's field hockey coaches in New Zealand. The national provincial tournament is the highest level of competition for women hockey players, apart from selection in the national team. The provincial coach interviews aimed to add a depth of personal perspectives to the participant observation data reported in Chapter Five, a process supported by a range of commentators on field research (see, for example, Page and Meyer, 2000). This small population of coaches was, however, gender-skewed, as only three coaches were women while nine were men.

Each of the semi-structured interviews began with an introduction followed by questions related to demographic information. The average age, as reported by the provincial coaches, was 41 years with a range between 37 and 50 years.

Coaches tended to be family members, illustrated by the nine out of twelve coaches who indicated they had a partner. The coaches, with one exception, had children, with the

average number being 3.4 dependents. Two of the three female coaches had three children under the age of eleven, and the other female coach had two teenage children. This factor was noted because a lack of child-care facilities has been suggested as a barrier to female coaches.

Coach Occupations	Number
Secondary teaching	3
Lecturing	1
Company manager	3
Company director	1
Shop assistant	1
Trade	2
Self employed	1

Figure 6.1. Interviewee occupations (n=12).

Coach occupations are shown in Figure 6.1. One-third of the coaches were employed as teachers (either secondary or tertiary), while another third worked in management positions (company managers or directors). The other coaches were employed in a range of trades and sales occupations. All the female coaches were in full time employment at the time of interview.

6.3 GENDERED COACHING

The literature highlighted the problematic issues surrounding the increasingly common tendency for men to coach women's teams at the elite level in the sport of field hockey. The interview phase of the present research aimed to elicit and elucidate perceived realities of cross-gendered coaching, particularly in describing male coach impressions of coaching females, coaches' preferences for coaching males or females, and coach perceptions of differences between male and female athletes, if any. Coaches were also asked to rank a provided list of essential roles and qualities for coaching women at the elite level. (See Appendix I.1).

In this chapter's outline of the coaches' interview responses, the coaches are denoted by a number. Pseudonyms were not adopted as the researcher felt most names are gendered, and as only three women were interviewed, it was decided that the use of numbers to label coaches would best help conceal their identities.

6.3.1 First experiences with women's teams

"Tell me about the first time you coached a women's team."

Coaches were asked to recount the first time they coached a women's team. All three female coaches explained to the researcher that they lacked the comparative experience to provide insight into this matter, as they had only coached women's teams at the elite level. One of these women shared her opinion on this question: I've no comparison... no experience at coaching men... I've done some boy's stuff at primary level, but never men. The women's teams have always been really appreciative of my input, and I didn't really notice much difference, between club and provincial players, except for... they knew a lot more and really wanted to train a lot harder.

Male coach responses on this issue were varied, and every single male coach expressed at least one negative recollection of his first experience coaching women. Only one male coach noted a positive perception of female players from his first experience at coaching.

The most common negative recollection about the first encounter at coaching across the gender divide was in regard to communication problems. Four coaches felt they had difficulty with aspects of communication, such as having to be mindful about what they said to players. The sense that they could not communicate with women as freely or as forcefully as they could with men, was expressed by Coach 6: "The differences were probably in terms of communication. Like there were more problems dealing with players individually" while another coach stated "It was hard at first because I had to watch what I said". Coach 3 explained that his whole communication approach changed because he was not as familiar with the players and that he "used to swear and yahoo, and I'm pretty demanding I suppose, and I don't have any problems with the men's team doing that but probably it's because I have a better rapport with them and I know them better as people".

Coaches perceived poor attitudes by women players when recalling their first time experiences coaching women. Coach 3 shared his opinion of an annoying female trait that he recalled from his first session with women:

Things that I noticed straight away that really annoyed me as a coach were that the women were really slack in terms of time..... late arrivals and getting ready and things like that. I suppose I set

standards in the club side where the guys know that if they are late they are going to “get it”. But the girls, even in a game situation, are still chatting about last night... a television programme or something like that. That really pisses me off.

Lack of motivation, “slack attitudes to training”, lack of commitment, and poor focus were all listed amongst perceived first experiences of elite women players, as noted by the coaches. For example, one coach shared his experience:

Province P ladies were the first ones I got involved with. Yeah, I struggled a lot. You’ve got to learn the physiology a lot and that sort of stuff. I was unimpressed with their attitude. Switching on and off and things like that. I’m finding with this group for example, we went down to the ground yesterday for our game, and we had our warm-up set out and about five or ten minutes before we’re due to start, they are out on the field with a hackie sack, kicking it around, laughing and yahooping. I was standing outside with my gut sort of knotted and that sort of stuff. But when the time came, they just went off and switched on. That really impressed me, but it scared the hell out of me prior to that!

Another coach described his belief that lack of attention, rather than a lack of commitment, led to an unfocused approach by women players’:

Having been involved in men’s rep teams as well, with the likes of Province M and so on, I still don’t believe that the women’s representative teams are the same... they are probably as committed, but they just don’t have that same focus. There are other things that have their attention. They’re not totally focused on what they are doing.

Poor skills in women players were another factor noted by male coaches. Coach 10 noted the speed of the women’s game was different from that in the men’s game. He recalled “the thing that struck me was how slow it was. How the skill level was a long way below the men’s. The vivid recollection was in fact going and watching the men’s final, and I was just blown away by the speed”. Lack of skills, speed and effort were all gender factors commented upon by the male coaches in this study. One coach explained how he believed, from his first impression, women did not put enough physical effort into the game:

It was probably what I expected, in fact. They were good players. Most of them had played at a reasonable level of hockey anyway. My perception was that they were a bunch of wowzers... the way they played. They just went through the motions and never really tried hard.

The most poignant recollection of coaching women came from one coach who shared his feelings about his first cross-gendered coaching role.

This sounds horrible saying it right now but I’ll be honest with you. It was very egotistical and it was very easy, and now in retrospect... I got into coaching probably for all the wrong reasons... that it was

fun, we had a very good side. I lapped up the result of winning and the whole image that that gave. Coaching in that first year and a half was great, it's even better now, but it was great for the wrong reasons. Here's a guy who's coaching all these women and your mates are giving you a hard time. As I said, looking back on it, it was bizarre, but that was how I felt.

I got asked to coach a women's team. It stroked my ego and winning was easy, so this coaching game was easy. But half way through my second year my philosophy changed, even though we were still winning. I had one or two options. If I carried on with the same philosophy my success as a long term coach would have died - or I had to really get some foundation as to why I am coaching. Particularly women. A male coaching women is ... a very short-term gain is the fact you're a male and they are female ... but they are athletes, it was a woman's hockey team. Yeah, I went through that first learning curve quite quickly.

In contrast to all the difficulties posed in the majority of first encounters with women's teams, one positive perception was provided by male Coach 11 who simply stated: "The women were very keen to learn".

6.3.2 Preference for men's or women's teams

"Do you have a preference for coaching men or women?"

The female interview subjects were all committed to coaching women's hockey. The majority of men, on the other hand, were not as committed to women's hockey. One female coach had contemplated making the switch to coaching men at club level but decided "there are still huge barriers there, and there is the extra energy that will be needed to break them. I don't know if I've got the time to do it. I think I could do it... but I'm not sure if, at this stage I would want to head that way". The one male who admitted a preference for coaching women explained that women were "more attentive" and therefore more enjoyable to coach.

Two other male coaches were undecided about whether they had a preference and felt they needed more time coaching women to decide. Four coaches held the opinion that it was hockey coaching they were interested in and the gender of the team was irrelevant. However, these comments were often tinged with additional reasons why they remained as women's coaches. For example, Coach 10 responded that he did not have a preference for men or women's teams but added the following comment, suggesting women were something of a challenge:

I think that it's interesting coaching women. There's a lot more emotion in a women's game, in terms of coaching them, in that they take things to heart a lot more, so you've got to be a hell of a lot more careful about what you say. I mean, typically, I'll get comments like "If you're going to tell me that

I've done something that's not right, then I'll want you to tell me something I've done right before you tell me I've done something wrong".....that sort of thing. Often they don't see criticism as constructive, they see criticism as destructive and almost as a personal attack. So you've got to be a lot subtler about the way you approach it. They're a bit more fragile, maybe that's just a perception, just something that I think.....

Two of the nine male coaches stated a preference for coaching men's teams. One such coach had coached women for a considerable period and explained that his frustrations with women's teams had built up to the point where he felt he needed a change:

I'd have to say I am starting to sway more towards men, to be honest. It's really been in the last couple of years that the frustrations of coaching women have made me decide that I'd rather focus on coaching men than the women. Now I've got a comparison it's basically reinforced my thoughts.... I was getting really frustrated because I don't believe that the team or the players were giving the same commitment that I was giving and that I required from them.

The other male coach (7), was more tentative in his leaning towards the male subjects of the game, with the following comment:

Probably, men in a sense. Yeah I suppose.... you can be a little bit harder on them, and get out and demonstrate what you want. Sometimes I feel that women ask me to be a psychologist, sometimes to get the best out of them. They all react a little bit differently. With men I can say "That's what I want" and perhaps you don't have to coax it out of them quite so much.

6.3.3 Impact of gender differences

"If there is a gender difference between yourself and your team, does this impact upon any dimension of the player-coach setting?"

The viewpoints of male interviewees were sought on possible perceptions of their gender impacting on any dimension of the coach-player setting, and were prompted if necessary with reference to consideration of such domains, as the use of changing rooms, language, and humour.

The changing room was the most common gender factor cited in response to this question. Field hockey teams normally hold pre-match team talks in the changing rooms and the male coaches expressed their care in entering the women's changing room. One coach held his talks elsewhere in response to this gender difference. Two coaches simply gave the team a set time and then entered the room calling out with a pre-arranged signal from the door, such as, "Is everyone ready?" All the other coaches sent someone in to check that everyone was indeed ready, and took the matter seriously, as expressed by Coach 7:

I always have someone go in to make sure the changing rooms are absolutely clear, although again I think that one ...of the ladies from Riversdale, told me to just go in if you told them you wanted them at two o'clock as they must learn to meet pre-match requirements. That's not me, someone goes in and checks.

The female manager of the women's team was the person most likely to check out the team's readiness for the coach's entry and, in this regard, one coach expressed his opinion that having a female manager was essential for teams that had a male coach. (Each of the women's teams at the national tournament in this research project had a female manager).

Physical touching was a factor of consideration raised by six of the nine male coaches. Two coaches told the interviewer that they did touch players in a friendly manner, just as they would with men. Coach 9 explained that touching in certain circumstances was acceptable... "I mean, as with Karina today, she tried so hard to score a couple of goals. I walked up and put my arm around her shoulders, and I haven't got a problem with that, and I do that with the guys.... so it's no different". Similarly, the following extract from the interview with Coach 8 illustrates his paternalistic attitude towards shoulder touching:

Interviewer: What about physical contact? Would you touch female players?

Interviewee: It's something I never really think about. Yeah, I suppose I touch them touch them on the shoulder.

Interviewer: So, touching them is not a problem?

Interviewee: I try to treat it as a parental thing. I feel like I am old enough to be their father and I just feel like it's a parental thing, anyway.

Another coach (7) did not feel as comfortable with touching and expressed a very different sentiment from his male peers when he told the interviewer: "I try to be very aware of it and try to avoid any physical contact at all". Similar sentiments were expressed by Coach 5, who had become aware through work environments of possible sexual harassment factors, and stated "I am very very conscious of that in what I am doing", but had recently relaxed his attitude, due to the friendly nature of his current team.

Language and, in particular, swearing was another expressed gender difference highlighted in the testimonies of six of the nine male coaches. The concept that the coach should not swear in front of elite female players was predominant. Coach 3 admitted he had "certainly toned it down a bit", Coach 10 agreed he watched his language, and Coach 7 curbed the way he spoke: "I don't change a lot, apart from trying not to swear too much". Coach 11 said he did nothing different in terms of gender, except "I don't swear". Coach 5 added an interesting counter to these gendered perceptions when he exposed the fact that

his girls “probably swear more than I do” with the added proviso that the swearing did not take place in a game and if it did, he would remonstrate with “growling”. The consequences of these gendered perceptions of appropriate language will be examined in the discussion section of this thesis.

The final difference highlighted was also from the realm of communication. Coach 10 believed that the gender differences posed problems for communication within the team. For example he confessed:

I probably struggle with the communication a bit with men you just do it and you don't have to explain why you take players off ... you just take them off and that's it. Women want chapter and verse about why you've taken them off and some of them get angry about it... I think my communication with the women is poor, and it's something that I try to work on but it's difficult.

I found it extremely valuable to talk with the tournament coaches and record their perceptions that cross-gendered coaching does appear to have associated difficulties, particularly in areas of communication. The participant observations confirmed the views, shared in the interview phase, that some female players appeared to require a different approach to that used by elite coaches with males. (Researcher's Notebook, 9.10.97).

6.3.4 Coaching roles and gender

Coaches were each asked to rank, from a list of six roles, the most important roles of a coach at the elite level for a hypothetical women's team (in ideal conditions), with number one being given to the most important rank and number five given to the least important rank. The roles had been identified from themes in the literature review about elite coaching roles. Coaches found this exercise to be very difficult, and three could not separate rankings clearly, choosing to award equal first and second places. Many coaches thought about these roles for a considerable amount of time and felt it was an impossible task to rank them as situations often dictated which role was primary. One coach expressed his frustration with this activity by stating:

It's the combination of roles, the balance, and constant swapping of roles that makes an elite coach a step ahead of the rest. For example, when I'm selecting a team, I put every ounce of energy and effort into getting that part right. But when that's over, the communication stuff and getting on with people aspect becomes the priority. And of course, technical advice and game planning occurs in practice and game situations.

This opinion is supported by information from participant observations and will be discussed more fully in the discussion chapter.

COACH ROLE	AVERAGE RANK	OVERALL PLACING
Selector	3.6	4
Game planner	2.6	2=
Technical coach	4.3	5
Motivator and communicator	2.1	1
Relating to players	2.6	2=
Fitness development	5.0	6

Figure 6.2. Coaches' rankings of elite coaching roles (n=12).

With the perceived difficulty of this ranking in mind, the coach role-ranking list as shown in Figure 6.2 is presented to provide a general guide to coaches' perceptions of elite coach roles. The role most highly ranked by the coaches was that of *motivator and communicator*. This was closely followed by the second and equally ranked roles of *game planner* and *relating to players*. *Selector* and *technical coach* roles were ranked fourth and fifth respectively, while *fitness development* was viewed as the least important elite coach role.

On their respective completion of the ranking activity, each coach was asked to consider how the order might change if they were considering the roles in their applicability to a men's team. Only one coach thought the order would change, and he believed that *relating to players* would become a less important role.

In the interviews, coaches were also asked to consider, in the context of elite coaching roles, whether one gender put more demands upon them than the other gender. Three coaches declined to answer this question as they had only experienced coaching one gender. Two coaches felt there were no differences between men and women that impacted on their coaching roles. Seven coaches thought the realities of coaching men and women put different emphases on certain roles of a coach, particularly in the areas of communication and relating to players.

Communication differences were further illustrated by Coach 8:

I think [elite female players] are different, not necessarily harder or easier. They are just different. To qualify that statement, I think women are probably more open and tell you or ask you things...they will be a little bit more direct about it... but I also think that they don't take criticism as well as men.

Coach 9 agreed that women were different, in terms of communication, and offered an example of one situation where women provided better feedback in terms of communication:

Most women will look at you and they give you more obvious signals that they understand what's been said, whereas guys tend to be a lot more laid back. And if you weren't aware of that you could get quite frustrated giving a team-talk to men.

Coach 10 however provided evidence that communication differences between the genders could, indeed, be problematic:

The communication aspect is very difficult and it's something I struggle to come to terms with. Last year was very good because I had a player who was exceptional, in terms of being able to sit down and talk clearly to each other, and we could almost, between us, then be able to get the point through to the other players. This year is a bit more difficult because I haven't got that sort of player in the team, but we're getting there.

Two gender difference issues were raised in terms of game plans. Firstly, one coach believed that female players were not as flexible in their thinking about changing game plans.

Men tend to be a little bit more flexible in their thinking. This women's team tend to have a little bit of tunnel vision really. They are slow to respond to different things. They need to think outside the square. Let's try some different things.

I'm not quite sure whether they think about the game as much as men... it's been vindicated with some of what's happened this year .. with my club side (men) we're playing a game and someone will identify a problem like "I am being beaten on the fore stick side three times in a row". They will say "I've got to adjust my line or my footwork is not right", or whatever, but they'll do that themselves, whereas, I don't think the women in our side would do that. They'll recognise there is a problem but they don't identify any way of solving the problem... during the game. At half-time, if I say "You are being beaten on your fore stick side three times in a row", and they will say "That's been happening but I didn't know why or how to solve it".

In contrast, another coach commented positively on the fact that women tended to stick more closely to his game plan, especially when the "going got tough":

I've always said that another difference is that women are far more, from my experience, team orientated. If you have a plan and you have a situation where it is two all (*score*) with five minutes to go, women will stick to that plan. Whereas, the males will not. There's some strain in men, in that one

or two of them will break away and they will “can” the plan. I see this as a strength of women and a weakness in men. Though the guys will think otherwise, they start to break away from the game plan and they try to win it on their own. The women ... as it gets tougher, they bond a lot stronger as a team, in my experience- they get stronger as a team whereas if it gets tougher with men, they become more individualised.

Another issue raised in regard to gender differences and perceptions of their impact on coaching roles was the level of direction and the amount of “pushing” that players were perceived as needing to achieve their goals. Two coaches felt female players needed to be pushed. One of these coaches had begun coaching women with the idea embedded in his mind that women should be treated “softly”. He had concluded, after five years of provincial coaching, that this was not the case and told the researcher “You can be as tough with the women as you can with the men... there’s no doubt about that”.

In contrast, one coach (9) expounded the capabilities of women in terms of taking control of their own game and believed men were not as used to being empowered as were women.

I think the sooner a male coach learns that women feed off taking responsibility the better. For example, I just need to set a scene and pose a question and the women will solve it. I’ve got my answer written down on a bit of paper but they love [the process].

However, this same coach did add a cautionary note in regard to gender differences centred on relationships between men and women:

One of my skills is as a people person but you have to remain quite objective and remote with a women’s team. With the guys, because you’re the same gender, you don’t have an issue but with the women you’ve got to watch that you don’t let little cliques develop. It’s really important because women are so team orientated ...all they ask is a level playing field ... that’s really important. Whereas guys, they consider you’re the coach, and they are the players. They’ll respect you but they don’t get quite as attached to you. The male coach has got to watch... those connectors to attachment... they have got to be very level otherwise you can dig yourself a wee hole if you are not aware of some of the signals.

Selection of players seemed to present a problem for some female players. This idea was best captured by Coach 6 who described women as wanting to own a position, in contrast to men who would play anywhere on the field and “still give it their best shot”:

For example, if a player was not playing one game as opposed to another. In a guys’ team, you could select a player into that position because they had special skills. There seems to be no problem. It’s just the natural solution to the problem. It doesn’t down-play the person who has been left out at all...

But with the girls they are a little bit more emotionally tied to that role. I think it's hard to say to the girls "in this particular game, the style of play that this girl utilises against the other players may be more successful than your style". With a girls' team I think we have had to be more careful at handling those situations.

One of our things we've been trying to work on all season is to break them of the tenet "This is my position". Whereas, with a guy, if you chuck him up on left wing or fullback, as long as he is on the pitch he'll give it his best shot.... the girls have tended to be spooked by that.... they need to know where they are playing and need definite lines of demarcation...

Clearly, gender does impact on role realities for the coaches of women's teams and Chapter Eight will discuss the implications of such differences. However, the extent to which this impact occurs, varies according to situational variables such as team dynamics and coach qualities.

6.3.5 Coaching qualities and gender

Interviewee coaches' opinions on coaching qualities were sought through a series of questions aimed at eliciting their perceptions. Coaches were asked to explain their opinions as to the most important coaching qualities for elite women and men's hockey teams. They were then shown a comprehensive list of coaching qualities and asked to decide which of these was essential for the coach and captain of elite women teams. Finally, coaches were asked if there were any other qualities that should have been included in the list. (See Appendix I.1).

Game-related qualities were the most commonly volunteered qualities. Two coaches believed that "game skills", such as the ability to analyse their own team and the opposition, were important qualities. For example, Coach 4 believed that "being able to work out situations that arise during a game and being able to resolve those situations for [the team]" was an essential quality. Related to this was the ability to formulate a game plan, as suggested by five of the elite coaches. The possession of good technical skills, as an elite coaching quality, was suggested by two male coaches who believed the diagnosis of technical problems and one-on-one coaching were important attributes.

The possession of communication skills was another quality suggested by the interviewees as having particular relevance for elite coaching. Coach 3 expressed the belief that

coaches needed to be able to understand how to communicate with women in a clear manner:

Being able to really articulate very clearly exactly what it is you want to achieve in training or that exercise or game situation. One thing I've noticed is that I can say something to the girls who are a little bit shy or whatever ... and say "Did everyone understand that?" Then I go out on the turf and put it into practice and it's obvious that hardly anyone did understand it. For example, I've been using terminology that perhaps is more specific to men's hockey. I thought it was specific to all hockey, but it's not! For example take a phrase like "Open it out" ... the women don't know what you're talking about... so I've had to clarify specific things like that. Hopefully, in an international team, they would have the confidence to say "I'm not quite sure about this".

Interpersonal skills were thought to be particularly important by three of the twelve coaches. People skills such as "relating to players", "understanding how each individual works", "enjoying working with people", were commonly stated as being important interpersonal skills. Personal characteristics such as honesty were integral to interpersonal skills deemed necessary by Coach 9, who thought that:

Interpersonal skills are really important, openness, honesty, role model consistency in terms of your own personal standards, even right down to the way you carry yourself. Being a communicator, and the ability to empower, motivate but more importantly to empower players to want to achieve.

The support dimension of interpersonal skills was singled out by one female coach as a quality that was more necessary for coaches of women's teams. Other coaches, both male and female, felt that the ability to exhibit a caring attitude towards players was necessary, regardless of player gender. Coach 3 believed that having an understanding of women and the "way women think" was an essential quality, and he stressed the importance of having "a good understanding of women's psyche" but qualified this statement when he added "how you get that I am not quite sure, other than being a woman yourself". Coach 11, also a male, was strongly in favour of women coaching women's teams:

For a guy, you've got to know how to handle a women's side as well. I believe it would be easier for a woman to coach a women's team. It would be better if a woman was coach of a women's side I think. Mainly, because they understand women. That's the way I feel.

Coordination of the team was viewed as an important coaching quality. Coach 3 described this attribute as "being able to handle the difficult personalities and being able to gel it together as a unit". Coach 10 explained his team philosophy as one where "everyone gets an input but the coach has the final say, because you can't have ten players doing one thing and one player doing another or, worse, having eight players doing one thing and three

players trying to do another thing!” This highlighted the importance of the coach having the ability to coordinate the various inputs.

Despite the body of literature on sport and team leadership, no coach mentioned leadership qualities as being necessary for coaching at the elite level.

Essential coach qualities

Coaches were given a list of 62 coaching qualities and were asked to tick the ones they believed to be essential for the coach and captain. The same list was included in the player questionnaire (see Chapter Seven) in order to allow a comparison between coach and player perceived essential coaching qualities. Consideration of the list was not a simple matter for many of the coaches, and some may have found it difficult to complete this exercise, as indicated by the voluntary oral comments and the considerable time spent deciding whether the qualities were essential or merely important.

The difficulty, for me as interviewer, was how much time to leave for the coaches to decide on the essential qualities. I recalled a pilot interview, and remembered when I had asked the coach to think of essential coaching qualities. The coach paused for a long time (it felt like five minutes but was probably only 30 seconds). I felt embarrassed with the silence, and felt as if I had asked something too hard. I placed the list immediately in front of the coach and felt relieved that she had something to read. In the interviews proper, I have had to constantly watch my urge to fill silence spaces in order to fulfill my own intent to be supportive (Researcher's Notebook, 11.10.97).

Figure 6.3 lists the twenty most essential coaching qualities selected by provincial coaches (See Appendix K for a complete list). This list illustrates the large number of essential qualities that coaches perceived as needed to coach at the elite level. Twenty qualities were selected by eleven or twelve coaches, as the bracketed numbers indicate. Least popular choices have also been shown in the right hand column, in descending order, from least popular toward some qualities that were chosen by up to half of the participants.

MOST ESSENTIAL COACH QUALITIES (coach numbers in brackets)	LEAST ESSENTIAL COACH QUALITIES (coach numbers in brackets)
Communicates effectively (12)	Is good friends with players (0)
Analyses the game well (12)	Has charisma (1)
Has clear values and integrity (12)	Is orientated to winning (2)
Has clear goals (12)	Has formal coaching qualifications (2)
Is consistent (12)	Has a winning record (2)
Is respected by the players (12)	Is persuasive (3)
Develops a clear plan or strategy (12)	Is a good public speaker (3)
Motivates players to attain goals (11)	Has prior experience coaching women (3)
Involves the players in goal setting (11)	Has an excellent understanding of female physiology (3)
Maintains a positive approach in adversity (11)	Understands women well (4)
Attends nearly all games and practices (11)	Is highly competitive (5)
Treats players with respect (11)	Has a high level of coaching experience (5)
Has the conviction of their own beliefs (11)	Has (had) a high level of personal playing skills (5)
Has a high organisational ability (11)	Has a friendly recognition of players' families (5)
Makes clear decisions (11)	Has a high level of skills and hockey techniques (6)
Is loyal to the team (11)	Is sensitive to different sexual orientations (6)
Gives clear feedback (11)	Is a very good role model (6)
Accepts responsibility for the team (11)	Has an optimistic outlook (6)
Understands others' feelings (11)	Relates well to administrators (6)
Knows the rules of hockey (11)	

Figure 6.3. Coaches' selections of essential elite coach qualities (n=12).

These results highlight the coaches' unanimous selections of communication as an essential coach quality. Concomitant with the ratings, the coaches highlighted the importance of leadership qualities such as developing game strategy, goal setting, and motivation. The importance of respect was rated highly in terms of both the team respecting the coach and the coach respecting team members. The ability to make clear decisions, accepting responsibility for the team, and being consistent, were other essential qualities rated highly by 11 or 12 of the coaches. In addition, personal qualities often associated with leaders were highly ranked on the list given to elite coaches, such as, the possession of clear values, integrity, empathy, having the conviction of one's beliefs, and maintaining a positive approach in adversity.

The concept of vision, normally an important element in any consideration of leadership, was only chosen by nine of the twelve coaches, while charisma, a concept linked to some

of the world's most famous leaders and often associated with transformation leadership, was only chosen by one of the twelve coaches.

Furthermore, coaching qualities with an organisational and management emphasis, such as effective communication and the provision of feedback, were also highly valued by the coaches. For example, qualities associated at the functional level of management were popular choices (selected by 11 out of 12 coaches) such as attendance at games and practices, knowing the rules of hockey, and having a high level of organisational ability.

The sense that an elite coach must be a firm and fair disciplinarian, and have the ability to give clear feedback, while fostering positive team training, was conveyed by the results of this stage of the research. Coaching qualities that centred on game skills, such as tactics, strategy and analysis, were also viewed as being essential by the large majority of coaches. Of note here was the popularity of all three goal-setting statements, indicating the importance of this aspect to the interviewee coaches and, in light of the literature review findings that goal setting was important for elite women's teams, this factor will be considered more fully in the discussion chapter (see Chapter Eight).

The least essential qualities were those chosen by under half the coaches, as can be seen in the bracketed figures in Figure 6.3. No coach viewed *being good friends with players* as an essential quality. Less popular choices also included *orientated to winning*, *having a winning record*, and *formal coaching qualifications*; qualities sometimes viewed as being important by administrators. In addition, only half the coaches believed it was essential to *[have] a high level of hockey skills and techniques*.

Of particular importance for this present study of gendered coaching is the result that few of these elite coaches believed there was a need to understand women well, understand female physiology, or to have had prior experience coaching women. This aspect of the interview findings is considered in the discussion of the present results, in Chapter Seven.

Coaches were asked if there were any other essential coaching qualities which were not included on the list provided. Seven coaches responded negatively. One coach stated that persistence should be included while another added knowledge of the game. Coach 6 felt that the ability to facilitate the group setting of codes of team values and ethos was an important coaching attribute. Coach 10 thought that selection of the right person to act as

a manager was a key quality of an elite coach. He explained the importance of having a female manager in terms of their ability to relate to the players:

Yes, I think choosing the manager is a critical thing that has to be thought about... I think you can have a woman as manager of a men's team but I don't believe you can have a male as manager of a women's team because the relationship that a manager has to have is more personal than the relationship with players the coach has to have.

Essential captain qualities

The researcher's experiential knowledge had indicated the value of the captain having a key role in the elite team and the limited range of literature on captaincy confirms this. In considering that the majority of elite teams at the national tournament had male coaches (9/12), it may be that the captain, being a female, may have an even more critical role in such a team environment than in a setting where the gender of coach and captain is the same. The elite level female captain may, arguably, be the key person in facilitating the implementation of the elite male coach's vision.

Coach perceptions of essential captain qualities were sought in order to provide understandings of elite coach views that may, or may not, generate considerations of this dimension of elite coaching. The most, and least, frequently selected captain qualities are presented in Figure 6.4. (The full list is presented in Appendix K).

MOST ESSENTIAL CAPTAIN QUALITIES	LEAST ESSENTIAL CAPTAIN QUALITIES
Is a very good role model (12)	Has a high level of coaching experience (0)
Treats players with respect (12)	Has a winning record (0)
Can change a game plan if necessary (during the game) (12)	Has prior experience coaching women (0)
Communicates effectively (11)	Has formal coaching qualifications (0)
Is respected by the players (11)	Understands women well (1)
Fosters team unity and spirit (11)	Is good friends with players (1)
Accepts decisions and results in a sporting manner (11)	Has an excellent understanding of female physiology (2)
Is in a good coach-captain relationship (11)	Has charisma (2)
Has clear values and integrity (11)	Makes trainings fun (2)
	Is part of the team socially but retains a little distance (2)

Figure 6.4. Coaches' selections of essential elite captain qualities (n=12).

The most essential qualities presented include those that had been chosen by 11 or more of the coach interviewees (see the numbers in the brackets). Leadership aspects were again popular choices with the elite coaches and included having clear values and integrity, and having mutual respect between the team and the captain. Most importantly, in this regard was the decision making ability for the captain to change the game plan if necessary (during the game) – a quality that was viewed as being essential by all elite coaches. Integral to these leadership qualities was the perception by the interviewees that the captain, as well as the coach (see Figure 6.3), must be able to communicate effectively.

Interviewees also viewed appropriate modeled behaviour as an essential part of being a captain. This quality, coupled with the ability to accept decisions and results in a sporting manner, and the ability to form a relationship with the coach, was deemed to be essential for a captain. The coach-captain relationship was seen by eleven interviewees to be essential for captains but only eight of the twelve viewed this quality as being essential for coaches. Conversely, the elite coaches perceived the ability to foster team unity and spirit as an essential element in the captain's role, but not so essential for the coach.

However, interpretation of interviewees' responses indicates the complexity of issues surrounding captaincy qualities. For example, least essential qualities for the captain included the statements *is good friends with players* and *is part of the team socially but retains a little distance*. Thus the interviewees' responses indicate the captain needs to be socially competent but does not need to be good friends with players. The researcher's experiential evidence as provincial captain suggests such a balance would require considerable social diplomacy, empathy, and personal maturity.

Comparison between the rankings of least essential coach qualities (Figure 6.3) and essential captain qualities (Figure 6.4) suggested that interviewees did not perceive prior experience with women, an understanding of women, or an understanding of women's physiology were important. Other qualities that were ranked lowly for both coach and captain as essential qualities were charisma, having a winning record, having formal coaching qualifications, and being good friends with players.

elite coaches' perceptions on essential coach and captain qualities demonstrated belief that coaches and captains may have different essential qualities, and that these issues were only considered by a few participants in terms of their importance.

6.4 WOMEN'S ISSUES IN COACHING

The literature review identified particular considerations within the coaching setting which may be important for coaching women, including a variety of physiological, psychological, pedagogical and health related issues. If, as the literature suggests, consideration should be given to characteristics of women being distinct from those of men in sport, how are these reflected in the everyday coaching situations faced by provincial coaches? Coaches in this present study were thus asked to respond to a series of questions aimed at eliciting role realities of women's issues in elite women's hockey. The interest in this part of the interviews focused on male and female coaches' awareness of gender issues and their practical application of this knowledge in the elite coaching situation.

6.4.1 Physiology

Are there any issues concerning physiology that you need to be aware of coaching females as opposed to males?

Physiological issues identified in the literature review (see Chapter Three) centred around male and female differences in a range of areas such as strength, lean body mass, maximal oxygen uptake, and fitness testing. Gender differences of a physiological nature were identified by coaches in this current study, in the areas of upper body strength, fitness, and speed.

Two coaches expressed the opinion that there was a general need to work on all of these aspects but time constraints and limited priorities dictated that they were more inclined to put their coaching efforts into other areas such as skills and elite match tactics. A large majority of coaches (10 of 12) believed they should work on upper body strength as a way of improving performance. One coach mentioned abdominal strength as being very poor in women and of concern "because it is a part that holds everything together".

Five coaches were currently using various upper body strength programmes, ranging from professionally designed gym based programmes to a do-it-yourself home circuit approach. For example, Coach 1 explained that "While we have got some women who can afford a gym subscription this year, we also have several women who are in positions where they cannot afford those sorts of things, and so one of our team members designed some home circuits that also incorporated the development of upper body strength". The other

coaches stated they would consider implementing upper body strength training programmes in their next season.

The connection between upper body strength and hockey skills was discussed by Coach 9 in terms of physiological aspects that may need to be considered particularly for female players. He stated:

I think particularly upper body strength.... you need to be aware of what women can and can't do. Particularly, what they can't do, in my opinion as a male coach and a male player. For example, dragging the ball out at corners, tackling, hitting the hockey ball. They are the skills that require, particularly, the upper body strength that women just don't have.

General fitness aspects and, more particularly, the amount of coach-driven fitness training, were mentioned by five coaches in regard to physiological issues for women. Coach 2 felt his previous practice, of leaving fitness work up to the players, was not successful and reported that:

Last year the responsibility was with the players and that was the deal.... "I'll coach you on the technical aspect of the game and the combinations, but you have to take responsibility for your own fitness because you know better than I do what you need in that department". I did that last year but we really struggled on the last two days, so this year I've been a lot harder and have done a lot more work on fitness.

Women's perceived "annoying lack of speed" was discussed by two coaches in the context of physiological differences. However, one of these coaches added that the range of speed in his team may have been as large as the differences between some men and women.

As I re-read the tape transcripts, I remembered one of my coaches who believed the players in his team were not strong enough. He made hand weights from recycled plastic milk bottle containers and created a wrist-strengthening device from an old brick suspended by rope from a smooth winding handle. He told us to make one at home and use it every day because "strong wrists meant harder hits". The interview tapes confirm that strength training is still an issue for women in hockey and one that coaches need to consider very carefully (Researcher's Notebook, 12.11.97).

6.4.2 Psychology

Are there any issues concerning psychology that you need to be aware of coaching females as opposed to males?

The literature review identified psychological issues that may be important considerations for coaches of women's teams. These included self-esteem, goal setting, attitudes toward homophobia and the effect of gender stereotypes. The coach interviews were constructed in part to uncover the coaches' views on the importance of psychological issues, in regard to coaching elite female players.

Psychological issues were highlighted by eight coaches out of the twelve interviewed in this study. One female coach was unsure about her ability to delineate psychological issues and three male coaches did not think women were any different from men in this regard. The remaining two-thirds of the interviewees (2 of 3 women and 6 of 9 men) believed psychological issues that they noted had an impact upon the coaching setting. The psychological issues raised by the coaches were varied and included such dimensions as self-esteem, body image, communication and feedback, motivation, goal-setting, homophobia, and women's perceptions of the place of psychological skills in elite hockey.

The issue of communication was raised in two different ways. One male coach commented that he needed to watch what he said as females often "took things the wrong way". Another male coach felt the emotional content of communication was different for women:

We did a lot of work trying to take the emotion out of things because I think that women are very easily upset... so we've tried to take the hockey out of the person and put them as two very separate things and I think it's worked. I listen to the men and they just yell at each other on the field and the coaches are on the side-line yelling... whereas the women say "Oh, if someone said that to me, that would be it".

I think we can learn a little bit from the way men communicate. I'm not saying that we start yelling at each other but, as I said, I think I could give clear direction to my team-mate that means I could help her and ultimately help me because we're in the same team. That is something we definitely need to look at - how we respond to things. If we can take the emotion out of some of it, I think we would be a lot better for it.

In addition, a female coach discussed the need for her team to be encouraged to use positive communication in regard to their own abilities and expertise. She stated:

Also giving positive specific feedback. Also getting them to acknowledge things that they are capable of, is difficult. At the beginning of the year, I handed out a skill assessment sheet and asked them to rate themselves on various skills used in practices and games. Some of my more accomplished players were much harder on themselves as to what they thought their skill ratings were. I went along to some of the games and I looked at their hitting, and their pushing, and hitting off the right foot, and I found that just about all of them played down their abilities. In some of them their hitting was just superb and I thought they would rate themselves as a "1" but they are too scared to say "I can actually hit a ball really well". If I said "Put up your hand all the people who could hit a ball really well"... they probably wouldn't put up their hand but they would identify another player and say "Cherie, you put up your hand. You can hit a ball really well". It was trying to get them to add to their bag of skills the ability to say "I'm really good at this, but I need more work on that".

The opinion that female players needed to develop their ability to verbalise strengths and recognise their own level of skills may be difficult, given the response of the female coach (Coach 1) who told the researcher that "women's self-esteem just takes a battering" when the men come down and watch:

The men think it's a yawn and a giggle. There is definitely a feeling that the women are not as skilful as the men and actually that is just not true. They may not be physically as strong, or physically as fast, but when it comes to skill... I know that some of my women in this team are just as skilled person-to-person as the men.

Support for the impact of gender factors on such psychological foundations as self-esteem came from a male coach of both men and women at the elite level who believed "The men still tend to be more self-confident and have a greater self-belief than the women do in a lot of cases". This same coach went on to outline the challenging dimensions of self-confidence, as illustrated by two of his players, Cathy and Beth:

Cathy really doubts her ability to be in the team. She doubts that she's up to it... I said to her "To be honest... if Peta is available for tournamentit looks like you may be one of the players I will have to consider dropping from the squad" and she said "Look I was going to come and have a chat to you because if you put me on the field against those top provinces, I wouldn't have the confidence to play" and I sort of took that into consideration and thought long and hard about it and thought perhaps it would be better to leave her home anyway..... and then I spoke to a few senior players about Peta and finally decided that I would leave Peta out. And then I said to Cathy that "You've just got to get your confidence up, because you are part of this team and you might have to play". She actually turned around quite significantly. It was a case of the doubts were gone...

Then Beth came to me and said "Oh, look I'm going to have trouble getting time off work" and there were a whole lot of issues that she threw in front of me... And I said "Beth, you are a key member of this team and you can play these positions and I think you're an excellent player".... and as soon as I said that, she changed "Oh, Okay, I can get time off work now" and now she's bubbly and happy and

confident, whereas previously she'd seemed really down in the dumps and at practices she was really critical of everything. It was quite amazing. She had to figure out that she was a key player. I've never experienced that before.

Body image was viewed as a factor closely linked to self-esteem, according to Coach 10. In particular, this coach stressed the impact of culture in this regard and stated that Maori women players, in his opinion, were far more body conscious than non-Maori women.

You've got to be really conscious of body image. The bulimia and the anorexia, and all that sort of stuff we're aware of. That is also where the cultural thing comes in...Maori women are far more sensitive about the body. They are far more body conscious, and far more reserved about being seen half-dressed or whatever .. so you've got to be very conscious of that. There's a real cultural difference between what's acceptable and what's not acceptable ... so you've got to be aware of that.

Teaching the players psychological skills was discussed in terms of benefit for three teams. One coach worked systematically on goal setting and positive communication, and found the results to be very positive in terms of performance and player satisfaction.

After the game we sat down and I went through one good thing that had happened for each player. Then I passed this responsibility on to the players.... a different player each week. So it became a really important thing and we ended our games and trainings on a really good note. Players found out what their team-mates really thought of them and what started to happen was that it had huge spin-offs. For example, one person would say "Oh Marnie, that was a great tackle". It had two spin-offs: one was that people started hearing really good things about themselves and started feeling really good and, secondly, they started looking at good things their team-mates were doing out on the field.

However, two male coaches indicated their frustration in getting players motivated to achieve their own goals and found they needed to be pushed into reaching their goals.

Coach 2 explained:

Again, I think that hardness is a major issue as setting out and reaching goals really comes back to mental discipline in a lot of cases. You know, I use the example of practices again where you have a specific exercise you want to work on for a while and it's almost I've got to be careful of what I say here because I don't know whether it's actually a case between genders or if it's the way different people have been brought up and cope... but again this year, it's been the women who want to be directed and it's got to be "You do this and you do that". Whereas with the guys you can tell them what they want to get out of it and they will almost do their own self-analysis and self-evaluation ... a lot more than what the women are doing.

Of note in the above quotation, is the coach's awareness that gender may be only one factor impacting upon such elite field hockey situations. Coach 8 also expressed this:

I don't think there is any difference between men and women.. I believe they are different but I believe you need the ability to try and read them anyway, whether they are male or female. There are some head case males like there are some head case females.

The final point, raised in regard to psychological wellbeing, was that of homophobia. The researcher's long hockey playing career had provided a wide range of anecdotal evidence to suggest that many lesbian women play the game of hockey and, given the literature's evidence that homophobia may directly affect a person's self-worth and self-confidence, coaches were asked to comment on this dimension of women's hockey.

One-quarter of coaches expressed the view that neither they, nor their team, were affected by the presence of lesbian women. Typical of such a response was Coach 5, who told the researcher "I wouldn't even know if there was one in the team. It doesn't affect me. I, personally, don't worry about it, although I suppose I would have a concern if it started affecting other players." Similarly, Coach 2 believed sexuality was not an issue.

I'm probably a little bit naive when it comes to this issue. To me, looking at the team, I don't see an issue between the lesbian women and the straight women, but having said that... it comes back to me via other people that there is an issue. So I don't see it. I haven't seen it and it doesn't seem to have impacted on the team.

Another coach stressed the importance of treating people as individuals and did not believe lesbians created any special problems: "I don't think it's any different having a lesbian in the team. I mean if I had a guy in the team who was the ultimate disruptive, trouble-making, loner.... I really don't think it's that different. You have to know the people, you've got to know them as good as you can".

The majority of coaches expressed the opinion that they were not, personally, averse to lesbians but were aware that it affected their teams. Two coaches also provided evidence that homophobia had affected some members of the team and, in one case, a player dropped-out of hockey because of the discrimination. Coach 7 recalled: "Well, there's nothing there at present, but we did have a player that was... that way, and there seemed to be a little bit of feeling against her. She gave up anyway, over that issue from reactions of the players themselves... but it certainly wouldn't concern me..."

Another coach felt that younger players often had the wrong impression of lesbian women and worried about unwanted sexual advances occurring in the elite hockey setting:

For some of the players, it is an issue. With the younger players it is an issue because I think they have conjured up all these big images of being “hit on” by older, more experienced, women at tournament and then they come to tournament and that doesn’t happen. When they get older, they learn to take that in their stride but young people have this image that hockey is full of “dykes” and “Look out when you go to tournament” which hasn’t been the case at all.....

Coach 9 provided more evidence that lesbian activity has impacted on his team in the past, especially when lesbian partners are in the same team.

It doesn’t impact on my approach as a coach and I’m obviously, most of the time, aware of the situation. It doesn’t bias or influence me in any way. I believe it’s not a major issue, but I have been let down a couple of times with the obvious misbehaviour of some people, particularly when they’ve got partners in the team. They’ve been a bit naughty in flaunting the situation... it can be disruptive and uncomfortable.

In contrast to all other views on lesbian issues, Coach 2, stated his preference for lesbian players and associated these women with powerful personalities and strength.

I actually get on better with the lesbian women in the team as a rule than I do with the non-lesbians. I wonder if it’s because they are women who are into everything ... like Petra, she’s good, she’s strong she knows where she is going, and she won’t take any shit from anyone, and her attitude is a lot like a man’s... she’s very single minded... But maybe it’s more the personality than the sexuality.

Two coaches noted the importance of the female manager’s role in dealing sensitively with matters of sexuality, especially in reassuring younger members of the team “who are a little conscious and a wee bit nervous, and so you’ve got to help them through that process” (Coach 8). Coach 10 related a player’s past difficulties in coming to terms with homosexuality and believed the manager could help educate other members of the team.

We’ve only got one [lesbian] in our team ... and I think in the past... she struggled with it because she was at a stage where she wasn’t sure where she was at. Since I’ve been involved, she is fine. Everyone knows her partner, in fact her partner is at tournament. She’s got a relaxed attitude about it and it doesn’t worry me but I think that some of the younger players are conscious of their situation, and you’ve got to be a bit careful about that. This is where a good manager is very important....

Sexual harassment issues also have the ability to impact on coaches and players in a team environment, especially given the increasing tendency for male coaches to control female teams. Exploitation of athletes by coaches in the setting of elite sport has been noted in the literature and may have effects ranging from temporary embarrassment or discomfort to serious, long term, implications for the athletes. The semi-formal interview provided the researcher with an opportunity to discover if sexual harassment had ever been a problem

for the male coaches in this study. The researcher also asked the following question, with a view to finding out if the coaches were approached for sex by the players: *Sometimes the coach may become an idealised figure who is looked upon as having special qualities. This may lead a player to view the coach as a person with whom they would like a closer relationship than the normal coach-player situation. Have you ever felt such a situation or potential situation as a coach?*

One coach shared his painful memory of a potentially damaging sexual accusation, faced in a previous season.

Yes. This has happened to me. One of my players told the association that I had had an affair with her ... the frustrating thing is that it was a player who didn't get a lot of time on the field. She wrote a letter to the association, after the season. The association handled it extremely well, they rang me, and asked me what I thought about it. I told them nothing had happened... and wrote them a letter and said this was all nonsense, and the girl who was on the other side of the accusation got a bit more upset than I did about it. Her parents got a bit more upset, and all that sort of thing and my wife wanted to get hold of this girl and... all those sorts of things. So yeah, I am conscious of it, but you've just got to work your way through that.

In terms of the sexual harassment issue, you've got to use your common sense. In regard to touching players, you've just got to be careful. I'm lucky in that I'm not a "touchy feely" sort of person anyway. Some people are, but I'm not one that grabs people by the arm and talks to them. Personal space is important.

Another coach reported that one of his players had wanted a sexual relationship with him. The researcher asked the coach how he felt about this and he replied: "Oh, I ... well, I was flattered and that was about it... and then just jumped on the whole thing... just shut the door on the lot".

Other coaches reported their tendency to be wary of one-to-one situations with female players. For example, Coach 7, explained his cautionary attitude:

Yeah, I think they have got to be aware of it... I would always be reluctant to even think about giving a young girl a ride home. At training I would say I'd take two of them home but I would be hesitant to take one on their own. I'm aware of potential compromising situations and I do think about it.

A couple of times players have asked for extra coaching and I've got another player or a group of them.. to go out and do it rather than try to get the one-on-one. We do have players who want extra training and, to avoid anything, I'll set it up on a night that we are training and I'll get one of the guys to go and work with them.

Five male coaches thought sexual harassment was a factor they needed to consider, especially around women's changing rooms or players' motel rooms at tournament. Such places were viewed as places needing special consideration in order to protect the privacy of the female players and avoid possible embarrassment for both parties.

Sexual harassment has got to be a consideration, there's no doubt about it. I mean, I married a hockey player but we didn't have a relationship while I was coaching her, in fact, we didn't get on when I was the coach! It's got to be an issue. I suppose I've been quite naive. With the junior girls, the manager said that a couple of them had crushes on me....

I never just walk into a room, and I won't knock on the door and just walk into a woman's room. I always wait until I am invited in. Even if they yell out "Yeah, who is it?" I wait. I don't just walk in.

Other coaches had never considered the consequences of sexual harassment. One coach said he was "too old to worry about all that sort of thing" while another, Coach 3, had given the matter no serious thought until the interview.

To be honest I should say that I have never considered it. But with you bringing it to my attention, I suppose, yeah, it should be considered in a team, particularly where you've got young kids it would be even more relevant. But yeah, I've never even thought about it. No. All that sort of stuff just goes over my head, I think.

Another coach expressed his opinion that if a relationship between a player and a coach developed, the coach should remove themselves from the team. "I think if that happened, I would be out of the role as coach of that particular group of people. For the benefit of the team, you either remove yourself or you agree to remove the player, otherwise it becomes very difficult for the team".

6.4.3 Pedagogy

Are there any issues concerning sport pedagogy (teaching sport skills) that you need to be aware of coaching females as opposed to males?

Results from the coach interviews showed that coaches' understandings of the importance of pedagogical dimensions of their roles appeared to be limited, unlike the effective coach portrayed by Cross (1999), who considered an understanding in this area as being integral to coach success. Ten out of twelve coaches felt that, in terms of coaching elite women's hockey, there were no pedagogical issues that they had particularly noticed. The replies to the interview question indicated broad or general understandings but rarely explicated details of pedagogical interactions that should underpin the elite coach-athlete interaction.

However, Coach 12 expressed her concern over limited contact time with her players and addressed her related concerns over the implications this had for individual player development.

I believe this is one area that women can benefit from added attention.... and I know I should be helping individuals on a one-to-one basis, but I can't even get through all the team set-plays in the time we have, let alone figure out the learning styles of individuals or worry about how to best teach skills to different players. If I had an assistant coach or a technical coach, I could do a better job.

One male coach shared his perceived lack of aptitude in the pedagogical area by stating:

Teaching the players new skills is an aspect I struggle with, to be honest. I can't do some of them anyway... I've never played on turf and it's all new to me... the lay down trap for example, I wouldn't have a clue... there's always someone who can do it in the team and I get them to demonstrate it... and then teach one or two others.

Thus, players were utilised as teachers within their own teams, which could have the flow-on effect of providing opportunities for such players to develop expertise in this important area of sport pedagogy.

6.4.4 Women's health

Are there any issues concerning women's health that you need to be aware of coaching females as opposed to males?

Female and male athletes have different needs and requirements in terms of nutritional intakes and differentiate in other areas of health such as menstruation and pregnancy. Given that links between body image and self-esteem may exist, and the increased concern over eating disorders in the realm of elite sport, the researcher saw this as a relevant domain for eliciting coaches' views on health considerations for female athletes.

The elite coaches in this study recognised the importance of nutrition, diet and body image as being key considerations when coaching women. Menstruation, pregnancy, and body image were also raised by them as health issues of concern for female players.

Nutrition, as a women's issue, was raised by half of the interviewees, and was viewed as being especially important by two coaches who referred to the need to monitor blood iron levels. Coach 1 reported her concerns over some players' low blood iron levels:

For example, with the nutrition, we had the women all blood tested. They were looking for their iron count but it was a couple of other things that came up as well that led us to then look at changes in diet, which was good. Whilst two of them weren't extremely anaemic, they were heading towards it

and their iron count was going down, deteriorating, because we had the players that were low done again. What I found too, was that a lot of the young women were finding it difficult to fit in working, training and eating well. We looked at their training schedules and their eating times, and gave them suggestions. We even got down to suggesting recipes and ideas like making muffins and sticking them in the freezer and eating one on the way to training, and stuff like that.

This fear over iron levels was confirmed by male Coach 2 who reported his concern about one of his players, who was not having regular periods. “I realised, when I was talking to Clare, how naive I am about women’s health issues. I was in a situation with her not having regular periods, and I know that impacts on the rest of the body, the bones and so on, and I’ve never considered it to be quite honest”.

Body image was another issue that coaches discussed in terms of women’s health. Three coaches believed that they needed to be guarded about nutritional advice as their players were very sensitive to body image. One coach noted the changing appearance types of the most elite players and reported player’s concerns over body types.

Body image is a huge issue and it came out again when we were watching the top sides yesterday. We have noticed quite major changes in the bodies of some of our top athletes. Some of them are looking extremely fined down and people were asking me, “Do you all need to be this slim and athletic looking?” I said “If someone was carrying a bit of weight and the performance was there, it would not be an issue for me. If the performance was below par, then I would look at their fitness, and their weight, but if the performance was up to scratch and they had some extra body weight, then I’d be happy”. So, for me, it’s the thing of different body types. Not everybody is this “trim tall thing” and there are some little short people around here doing extremely well.

Menstruation was considered to be an important issue for five coaches, and responses covered a range of factors, including mood disturbances, training difficulties and stomach pain. The following two extracts are from Coaches 1 and 2 respectively:

On menstruation we’ve had several discussions with players, especially in regards to how they are feeling during training time. At game time, people get through it a lot more easily than training time. It’s a definite cycle as to how they are feeling in their training times, unable to cope sometimes, and it appears to be a cyclic thing. We’ve had them peg it down and it does relate to period cycles, although not in all of them. Menstruation is a big issue for women, one that isn’t actually acknowledged in any way in coach courses.

We had a situation the other day when Miranda rang me and said “I’m not going to be able to make practice and I’m not too well”. I said “Oh what is it, is it a dose of the flu?” She said “Well, if you must know, I’ve got my period” ... and she was honest and she also said “Not to worry, it won’t have an impact on tournament”. I am certainly aware of having periods and how that can impact on her

wellbeing at any particular time and having to make allowances with that. I mean, we have to make allowances with the women, now and again. Yeah, so that's certainly an issue.

Concerns over pregnant players, and the lack of coach resources and information on safe training guidelines were discussed by three coaches, all of whom had made difficult decisions about pregnant players' fitness at previous tournaments. The lack of information is best illustrated by one of the female coaches who expressed her difficulties finding information on which to base her decisions.

Pregnancy... when I came to get information about weight training, or training for women who are pregnant, I came up against some huge blank walls. I found a woman general practitioner in my town who did some research for me. Basically, her advice was that a baby usually is safe from injury through falling, or being hit, but core body temperature and hydration are the two factors we need to look into. I find, as a coach, that it's a pretty scary decision to make and we left it over to the person. We stepped in and took her out of the team once we found out she was having twins but up until then, she felt she was going to be able to cope. She would have been twenty weeks pregnant by tournament and that, for me, was a pretty daunting decision.

I would have felt quite fearful, had anything happened during that pregnancy because, whilst I am highly competitive, I am also a mother and I think that a baby's wellbeing is a lot more important than a hockey game, so... I felt more fearful because I didn't have any reading or knowledge to gear it on. Remember, we are not talking about sick women here, we are talking about healthy women, they are just pregnant.

The final health issue raised by one coach was the fact that some of his team members smoked cigarettes and drank alcohol. As a coach and friend, he felt he should try to discourage this negative aspect of health but admitted it would be hard to make a difference as these factors were part of the player's social routines.

Naivety about women's health issues, was demonstrated by several interview respondents. One male coach told the researcher he didn't "know anything about that sort of thing". He apparently relied on his manager to deal with women's issues. Another coach, in his first year of coaching elite women, explained he didn't know a lot about women's health but had decided it was important and expressed a need to find out more information, if he continued in the role next year.

6.4.5 Coaches' perceptions of women's issues

The opportunity to interview elite coaches provided the researcher with a means of estimating coaches' perceptions of their own knowledge in terms of gender issues. Several

issues arising from the researcher's elite women's hockey experiences and the literature review, including physiological, psychological, and women's health, were selected for this last part of the elite coach interviews. Coaches were given a list of statements (see Appendix I.1) and were asked to estimate the depth of their own knowledge about the statement on a five point Likert scale. (One coach declined to answer this part of the interview, therefore the number of subjects for this section is eleven.) The results were collated and individual coaches had their own responses, along with summarised responses from their own teams, posted to them. Player comparisons with coach perceptions are discussed in Chapter Seven.

STATEMENTS	SA	A	N	D	SD
I advise each player about fitness	3	1	2	4	1
I encourage upper body strength	3	3	1	4	0
I ensure players are fat-tested	0	0	2	5	4
I ensure players are tested for fitness improvements	2	5	2	1	1
I help individuals to develop hockey skills	6	5	0	0	0
I understand the effects of pregnancy	3	1	6	0	1
I understand the effects of menstruation	2	2	4	2	1
I understand nutrition for women	3	1	4	2	1
I encourage individuals to have a positive body image	1	6	4	0	0
I am sensitive about each player's self esteem	5	5	1	0	0
I help each player with individual goal setting	4	5	2	0	0
I give each player specific positive feedback	5	6	0	0	0
I am accepting of lesbian players	6	4	1	0	0
I do not harass individuals in my team	8	3	0	0	0
I refer to positive female role models	1	5	4	1	0
I treat all players equally	4	6	1	0	0
I like the players as people	4	6	1	0	0
I prefer coaching women's hockey over men's	1	1	7	2	0
I encourage players to use training log books	1	2	4	3	1
I make time to talk with individuals	5	6	0	0	0

Figure 6.5. Coaches' self-perceptions of their coaching knowledge (n=11).
(SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= Neither Agree nor Disagree, D= Disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree).

Figure 6.5 indicates that the majority of coaches did not encourage upper body strength or advise players on fitness aspects, although the majority of coaches did ensure players were tested for fitness improvements. Only four coaches, out of the eleven who completed this section, perceived they understood nutrition for women but the majority felt they encouraged players to have a positive body image and did not use fat tests. Coaches' perceptions of their understanding of women's health issues appeared to be limited, with

the majority being neutral and disagreeing with statements regarding their understanding of menstruation and pregnancy.

In contrast, the coaches' perceptions of their understanding of factors that may impact on player's psychological wellbeing were positive. For example, the majority of coaches believed they were sensitive about players' self-esteem, accepting of lesbian players, treated players equally, made time to talk with players individually, and liked the players as people. However, the use of log-books appeared to be unpopular.

Just over half of the coaches in this study believed that they positively reinforced female role models. Given the belief expressed in the literature, that role modeling may impact on future aspirations to coach, this factor could be important. Similarly of note is the apparent coach neutrality in response to their coaching preference for men or women's hockey.

The coach interviews, as discussed in this section of Chapter Six, have provided a range of issues, which impact on the experience of coaching hockey at the elite level. Clearly, there are issues surrounding "being female" that the coaches have illustrated, particularly factors such as menstruation, pregnancy, nutritional factors and body image. The chapter now moves to present the coaches' impressions of their own opportunities for development as coaches of women's hockey.

6.5 DEVELOPMENT OF ELITE WOMEN'S HOCKEY COACHES

This section of the current chapter moves to present the results of coach interview questions that elicited understandings of participants' prior coaching experiences and support mechanisms used by the coaches during their careers. The interviews also sought to examine the respondents' unique perspectives on how they consider coaches should best be developed for elite women's hockey.

6.5.1 Coach experience

Could you outline your development as a coach up to our current position?

The elite coach interviews gave the researcher an opportunity to explore coach perceptions of pathways used to develop their coaching career. The female coaches had been

exclusively involved in coaching women's teams, although two had also been involved in coaching mixed sex junior teams while their children were playing. Two of the female coaches were former international players and had begun coaching as player-coaches of their provincial sides while still playing for New Zealand. One of these coaches described her constant involvement in coaching from her early days at university:

When I was at university, in the early seventies, and at training college, I was coaching secondary school teams and, as a teacher, coached secondary school teams. I player-coached my provincial team for several seasons when I was playing for New Zealand in the early 1980s. From then on, I have coached premier women's hockey again, also have coached secondary school, and now I'm coaching at the provincial and national age group levels, and mini hockey (with my children).

All of the female interviewees had begun coaching because of a combination of factors, including the common reason voiced by Coach 4, "somebody asked me and there was no one else around who knew much about the game at that stage". Similarly, the female coaches expressed the belief that they were asked to coach because people liked the way they had played at top level. One coach shared her association's viewpoint, and expressed it in her own words: "They sort of assumed that if I could play at that level, then I could coach at that level". The women did not actively seek the coaching appointments, except in cases where their children were involved in a team, as Coach 4 explained:

I volunteered to coach Collier trophy [under-13 New Zealand representative competition for girls] level and coached these girls right through to Under-15 level... but with this representative team... there is really no one else around and it's hard to let a team go to tournament without a coach.

Two women coached teams at the secondary school where they currently or previously taught. This role was viewed by the coaches, not as a required role of the teacher's job, but rather as an opportunity or highlight of the teaching position. This connection between secondary teaching and the progression to elite coaching was also highlighted by several of the male coaches who had taught at secondary school level and coached school teams.

All coaches had played hockey to premier club level and some had played at representative level, although only two women had played at international level. The trigger for the coaches making the transition from playing to coaching hockey was one of several factors: retirement from playing; injury leading to the inability to play; children playing the game; a job requirement (as in secondary teaching); or the fact that the person was asked to coach a team because they were a good player or because there was no one else to do the job.

The length of the elite coaching careers varied. One coach had coached for only five seasons. All the other coaches had been involved for over eight years at a variety of levels, with the average length of coaching experience being 18.6 years. Eight coaches, including two women, had been involved with coaching for a period of 20 years or longer, and as the average age of coach was 41 years, some of these people had been coaching for nearly half of their lifetimes. Coach 3, a male coach, illustrates a typical development story:

My coaching career started through necessity as a club coach, because there wasn't anybody else and I was coaching men. I began probably twenty years ago and progressed to coaching indoor hockey the same way... and I then took over coaching my province's men's indoor team. I did that for eight years and then went on to coach the New Zealand indoor team. While I was doing that, I actually coached my province's men's team for five years and then I had a couple of years off active coaching until this position came up when Coach LP pulled out. I didn't really have to apply for the job..... they just asked and I let it be known that I was available for it.

Similarly, there was variety in the reported previous experiences of coaching male and female players. The coaches were categorised into four groups (see Figure 6.6) indicating the gender of player they had been involved with throughout their career: exclusively women (and girls); mainly women and girls; mainly men; and exclusively men. The women had exclusively coached either junior hockey players (mixed), or girls and women. In contrast, the male coaches were more likely to have gained the majority of their coaching experience through coaching boys' or men's teams.

Coaching experience	Male Coaches (n=9)	Female Coaches (n=3)
Exclusively women/girls	1	3
Mainly women and girls	2	0
Mainly men	4	0
Exclusively men (to date)	2	0

Figure 6.6. Coaching experience of male and female coaches (n=12).

One male coach had coached girls and women exclusively, having begun coaching through involvement with his daughter's teams. Another had begun coaching premier women's club sides because he had been asked by friends whose team had no coach. These two men were reportedly focused on women's teams at the elite level as their main coaching priority but both had been offered higher men's teams coaching positions by the New Zealand Hockey Federation. The majority of male coaches had been involved in

coaching boys' and men's sides predominantly and, in two cases, exclusively so. Coach 8's track record illustrates his lack of previous contact with the female side of the game:

My first coaching role would have been about 1982, with a boy's school first XI, including some tours as well, and some groups a bit wider than just school. In 1986, I player-coached the men's club side because there was no one available to do that job, and this year I was with the women. I have coached age group kids and I am back coaching the first XI now... for three years I decided I wanted a change of scenery, I took a third form boy's team. Also I was involved in the Under-15 boys national squad for a while.

Three coaches recounted changes in their coaching careers due to job transfers. In every case, local hockey people (in their new location) were aware that a new coach or possible coach had entered the local scene and contacted the coach immediately they arrived in the new centre. For example, Coach 2 explains how he moved into coaching men's hockey because of such a transfer:

Then I was transferred to another city in 1992. In 1993 I was playing for Reds. Coach TW was away for a couple of games earlier in the season and I worked as player-coach and the guys actually asked me if I'd step in as coach when TW got another coaching job for much of the 1993 season. I also took the men's junior team that season. I originally asked to take the city's women because TW had been taking them for a long time and the development officer rang and said... "We don't have anyone for the Under-21 men and we know PL is keen to take the women again"... so I was comfortable with that. The next year was 1994 and they actually gave me the women's senior team and then I got transferred back to Buckville so I had to pull out before the season even started.

Only four coaches out of the twelve interviewed had applied for coaching positions. All the others had been asked and/or talked into the coaching roles, even at provincial representative level. Coach 7 was pleased that the coach jobs in his province were hotly contested. "In terms of the Under-18's in Riversdale, that's what I'm really pleased about. You have to apply for the job, put your name forward, and I applied for those. I also applied for higher positions and was appointed in those roles". This situation of contested roles was, however, an uncommon occurrence, with the normal practice being closer to that described by Coach 1 as "they were desperate". Asking coaches to get involved in coaching appeared to be critical in recruiting people into the elite coaching role.

One coach made it very clear she was keen to progress in her coaching career. However, she admitted that the combination of full-time professional career, her current coaching workload, and her sole-parent role might limit her future involvement in elite hockey.

6.5.2 Coach support mechanisms

Probing the existence of support mechanisms for elite coaches was another avenue of exploration for this current research topic. Networks, mentoring schemes, and educational opportunities have been discussed in the literature review (see Chapter Three) in terms of success for women in sport and coaching. The researcher questioned provincial coaches about their various support mechanisms, in particular their recollections of past mentors and/or role models, utilisation of informal or formal coaching support networks, opportunities for education, and partner support.

COACH NUMBER	Male or Female	Has partner support	Belongs to a formal support network	Belongs to an informal support network	Has (had) a role model coach	Has (had) a mentor coach	Attended formal coaching courses
1	F	x	x	√	x	x	√
4	F	x	x	x	x	x	x
12	F	√	x	x	x	x	√
2	M	√	x	x	√	x	√
3	M	x	x	√	√	x	x
5	M	x	x	x	x	x	√
6	M	√	x	√	√	x	√
7	M	√	√	√	√	x	√
8	M	√	x	√	√	x	√
9	M	√	x	√	√	x	√
10	M	√	x	√	x	x	√
11	M	√	x	x	x	x	x

Figure 6.7. Support mechanisms reported by the elite coach interviewees (n=12).

Figure 6.7 presents the results from interview questions pertaining to mechanisms of support available to the elite coach interviewees. In sum, this table shows that some coaches were better supported than others, in terms of networking, role modeling and educational opportunities. Three coaches in particular (Coaches 4, 5, and 11) were seen by the researcher to be in need of immediate support as they reported few, if any, supportive options. The majority of male coaches had role models, partner support and had attended educational coaching courses, although two coaches believed these to be of

limited support. Of particular note is the finding that the three female coaches, especially the two with no partner, appear to be poorly supported in terms of their coaching.

The research aimed to discover the support provided for elite coaches through networking. Only one coach out of the twelve interviewed believed they had an organised coach networking system in place to offer support (see Figure 6.7).

As a learning experience, I have worked a lot with the guys in town this year with the men's side, with the coach and with a couple of their top players. We played a lot of our Southern Hockey league together and we've gone through different things and discussed what worked and didn't work .. and in our own region that's something that we have just done...we met once a week after practice and looked at what had happened. These are senior players in the men's side.

Every other coach responded with a negative response to the question "Do you belong to a coaching support network?" For example, one of the women stated: "No, I don't. There's very little sharing of information at all". Another typical response to the question was: "No, not really, no structure whatsoever. There's nothing at all... you are taking it all on your own so that's why I welcome these sorts of tournaments... where you speak to other coaches because it helps". This statement has implications, addressed more fully later in this thesis, for women's hockey administrators, underscored by the recent move in 1999 towards a national league format for inter-provincial competitions with no tournaments .

Eight coaches expressed concerns over the lack of such network systems and one explained the difficulties of coaches supporting one another, as the game of hockey was a very competitive environment.

Coaches talk. We talk amongst ourselves. It's very competitive between coaches. It is important that we network and communicate but, having said that, the game of hockey is competitive, so I wouldn't ring other coaches about things but I would see them at the grounds. I've had other coaches ring me about practices. I'm quite open about that.

Another coach who added the dimension of players into the support equation illustrated the sense of a loosely framed informal network:

There's no formal network.... I chat to certain people I have time for ... in terms of what I think they can help me with. There are a couple of guys I phone and talk to about certain situations... I talk to the players a lot... I'll generally talk to players and ask them what they would do in certain situations and that gives a bit of input.

Two coaches mentioned informal support networks derived from courses such as the Olympic Solidarity coaching seminar as a support success, and suggested that similar seminars be conducted to allow coaches to talk hockey. Coaches 10 and 1 believed:

I thought the forum that we had at the Olympic Solidarity course was great. It would be good if you had overseas presenters but, even without the overseas presenters, if you could get a bunch of coaches in a room talking about hockey, that would be great. The courses need to be held over a couple of days. I don't think it needs to be a long time, a couple of days or a weekend where you threw around the ideas of hockey.

And I found doing the Olympic solidarity course and the Winning Women's mentoring programme run by NZHF helped with networking. I mean, I now talk to LK [another female provincial coach]. I had played with her but I didn't know her as a coachso now as a fellow coach, I could happily chat to her, and I have this week, and LK will give me her opinion on things.

Another coach discussed his inclusion as a New Zealand age-group coach in terms of the increased opportunity to network with other "hockey nuts" and gain support from those relationships.

One coach reminisced over the days before artificial surfaces became the vogue. He reminded the researcher of days gone by, at what used to be "the place" where players and coaches spent time together in a social atmosphere after the games. The fact that it was the main hockey venue in the city meant that, of necessity, many coaches would be in one place on a Saturday afternoon. The 1990s changes to city-wide turf bases and timing of matches may have influenced coaches' abilities to network to the same extent as they did in the 1970s and 1980s.

At our old ground we had the ability to sit down and talk with whomever. You certainly lose that now... and, to be honest, men tend to sit around after the game longer. I tend to talk more with the men about their game than I do after the women's games with the women. The only time we talk hockey with the women is in formal situations where we have a de-brief or something like that. It's not just with coaches, it's with players as well, because those players don't have the ability to analyse the game as well. It was a great advantage the old ground because you could talk to your heroes and analyse what happened in the game. Now players play and then they go straight home.

Coach 1, having stated she did not belong to a formal coach support network, outlined the informal network she operated in:

I find that TM, as coach of the men's team, will murmur reassuring things in my direction at times... if I need them. But there's no way I could talk to him about some things because it will be a one-way conversation. There are other coaches there like PB who's been really good. I find with PB because

he's taking the juniors, I could go and talk to him about the players who were in both... PB is a great analyst.... if I want anything analysed, then he would be the person I would go to... if I want other support for me as a person, I wouldn't go to him. You pick the people who have got the attribute of what you are looking for.

Mentoring has been shown to provide support for women in business and other areas of society, and the researcher examined the extent to which this practice was being used by elite coaches of women's hockey. Interview subjects were asked if any person (or persons) had influenced their development as a coach, in terms of a mentor type relationship.

Figure 6.7 shows that no coach felt they had a mentor. Ten coaches responded to this question with a "No, not really" type of answer. Instead they had people who offered them support in terms of advice, or positive reinforcement, or role models for what they believed to be appropriate behaviour. Past coaches were the most common people who provided a guiding influence for the elite coaches to follow. Coach 2 recounted three of his past great coaches and said "I've studied them and watched how they've coached and tried to implement the best things from what I've seen of them". Similarly, Coach 6 stated "I suppose if you're looking for role models... I have always held up the image of SA. He'd be the person that I respected most highly as a coach and as a person".

Some interviewees expressed the comfort of having local supporters, for example, one coach felt his two local supporters didn't help him with setting up structures or hockey advice, but helped him with positive reinforcement and friendly comments. For example, the supporters told him he was doing a "good job" and expressed positive reinforcement for the way he was working with the team.

Coach 8 believed his international players had a lot to offer in terms of role modeling, advice and support, though none could be described as mentor. "You have got to watch the tag *coach*, it's an interesting title. You get given the *title* coach, but you earn the *role* of coach. Particularly with the calibre of players I was involved with".

One of the women voiced her perceived need for a mentor coach.

I've never had a mentor coach. I would love to have a mentor but what I have found though, is that I've picked out other sports people. So, for me, the likes of KP [an ex-international netball coach], who is a friend, was probably my greatest person to reassure me that problems I encountered are quite

normal in any top-level sport". Other coaches mentioned All Black coaches and netball coaches as role models but felt they did not have a mentor.

Coach education courses may provide support for elite coaches in numerous ways, particularly in the sharing of knowledge and provision of opportunities to network. Thus, an exploration of educational opportunities seemed appropriate to include in the coach interviews. Five coaches were considered to be highly qualified in terms of coach education, having attended courses for NZHF levels 1, 2, and Olympic Solidarity. Four coaches had attended one or two of the lower level courses, and one of these indicated a keenness to attend further courses.

Three out of the twelve coaches had completed no training requirements. One of these was a qualified physical education instructor who had been instructed by administrators to attend the Level 1 course (basic club coaching course), before he would be considered for selection into the more advanced Level 2 course. He implied that the Level 1 course was not worth attending and told the researcher "I enrolled in Level 1 but, to be honest, I ended up taking half the course and didn't go the second day".

One coach expressed his dissatisfaction with the political input of administrators in deciding who was going to attend NZHF courses:

I've done a Level 1 course years ago, but it's expired and I refuse to do it again. With my experience, it's a whole political situation and, to get into Level 2, you've got to play hockey's political games. That's what pisses me off! The association told me they could only send one person. The association needs to look at how they are getting hold of people. They should have a database. I am more than happy to pay my own way.

Coaches were also asked to discuss their partner's perspective on their coaching activities. Of the nine coaches who had partners, eight believed their partners to be very supportive of their coaching. Two coaches reported that their partners were tolerant of the coaching because they had been involved in hockey before they met and, therefore, accepted coaching as part of the coach's lifestyle.

Three coaches indicated that their partners felt they were over-committed because they were involved in both club coaching and representative coaching during the same season. For example, Coach 10 observed that "our personal circumstances suddenly changed

during the year, and the coaching was too big a commitment. You can't keep that up with a family, so I think I will only do the provincial team next year".

One coach captured the sense of tension that built up through the season when the researcher asked how supportive his partner was:

Oh, you'd have to ask her that (laughter). Um... we've talked about it before, because of the time commitment. I met her through hockey, and I've always been coaching hockey in the time that we've been together, so nothing changed if you like. We've probably got more involved because of the level of teams I've been taking and I've always been focused on coaching so she understands and accepts that. At this time of the year, things get a little bit tense and I must admit I struggle with that... the kids do it hard as well because I'm constantly walking out the door to practices so that is a consideration. Over the last two or three weeks, I've hardly been home, one or two nights a week probably, and you see the kids for a couple of hours before they go to bed....

Other coaches described their partners as being "tolerant" of their coaching commitments, and four coaches reflected upon the types of tensions Coach 2 portrayed in the above quotation. Three main factors appeared to make hockey coaching tolerable to the coaches' partners: the partner also played hockey ("She's a hockey person"); the partner was a keen sports person or coached another sport ("She's been coaching four netball teams this year"); and, the coach was involved in hockey prior to the partnership developing ("I've been playing hockey long before we even met"). Such tolerance by partners should, however, be viewed with caution as one coach felt his previous relationship had suffered through his over-commitment to the sport. Coach 9 reflected: "As a lesson from my separation I'm trying to be a lot more aware that hockey is a part of my life, not my whole life."

Negative factors that coaches felt impinged on partner relationships were "lack of time at home" and "missing out on time with children". The two coaches who did not have partners were divorced but the part that hockey commitments possibly played in these broken relationships was not discussed as the researcher considered further exploration into such personal matters to be an intrusion.

Issues surrounding practical coach support are clearly multifaceted. Networking and mentoring are often discussed in the literature but were not features of coach development and support in this research project, with the exception of informal network interactions with other elite coaches and experienced team members. Although the amount of

perceived partner support varied markedly between subjects, it appeared essential for some elite hockey coaches.

6.5.3 Coach development

The elite coach interviews provided the researcher with an opportunity to probe these experienced coaches' thoughts on changes to the gender balance of elite hockey coaches and to uncover their beliefs on how coaches may best be developed for elite roles. Coaches were shown a graph (see Appendix C) illustrating the decline in women as coaches at the elite level and were asked why they thought this had happened.

Three of the nine male coaches reported that they had been approached to coach teams because, in their opinions, the provincial administrators and/or the players perceived male coaches to be better than females. For example, Coach 9 firstly suggested that women may not be encouraged or motivated to take up coaching positions and suggested this may be the result of gender bias:

The way I feel is, it's gender bias. There's an impression, rightly or wrongly, that men are better equipped to coach women, that the female players prefer the guys for a number of reasons. There is more respect for male coaches, they've been good hockey players, they're tougher, they can do all these things. Maybe those player attitudes are blocking women.

Coach 11 expressed the view that his team "had a preference for a man coach" while another coach believed the players wanted a male coach but admitted that he didn't know for sure, and did not feel such gender bias was an appropriate attitude.

I mean I was asked, because they felt they needed a male coach and I don't think that that's necessarily right. I don't think they considered a woman coach. I don't think it should be necessarily gender orientated. I think we need to think beyond the gender thing and I think we need to get the best coach.

The attitude of society towards women was considered by some coaches to be an important factor in the decline of women in coaching. This is best illustrated by one of the elite female coaches who discussed the coaching implications for working women and mothers:

I think too that, whilst we have come a long way in relationships, I don't think we have come as far as we think in that women still do the majority of the day-to-day programming and planning of running a house and dealing with children and whatever else. But what they are doing now, which they never used to do before, is having a career alongside doing all of that as well. I mean, I am divorced and

that impacts hugely on me, the financial side of things as well, babysitters every time I go out to training or a meeting. It's just horrific...

Even for "Lynne", who has a husband, she found it extremely hard to go away for five, six, or seven days, go home for two, and then go away for another three. Knowing she was leaving "Graeme" there, with the kids again. Women, as I say, we don't happily walk away from those situations.

I'm trying to think of all the women who I want to get into coaching in my province and, again, I have to find single women because they have got the time, whereas the women I really want are the married women who have come through the ranks. They have all the experience and knowledge, but for them to get out of the house is really difficult. Very, very difficult. And maybe, at this stage, we haven't got enough career single women with enough hockey experience behind them, to be taking on these top coaching jobs.

This same concern was raised by a male Coach 7 who had noticed women in his team struggling with the demands of triple roles such as player, partner and mother:

Yeah, I think I find with our women's side that women have more demands on their time than the guys have got... like the guys who, even though they are playing elite hockey, they work all day... they go home and their wife has probably got a meal cooked for them and then they are off to training. The woman works all day and she has got to go home and prepare the meal and look after the house and try to fit in all this! We've got a couple that are married with children and they have got to fit in all this and, therefore, they have nothing extra to give. That's it perhaps, they haven't got that extra bit of time to give that much time to the sport.

Other suggestions included the fact that women were not being asked to coach and that there were many other things available for women to do, which restricted their coaching time. One coach raised the possibility that women did not feel as confident at public speaking and this may impact upon their inclination to coach at the elite level.

When the coaches were asked if they felt the New Zealand Hockey Federation should develop women coaches, the responses could be clearly grouped into two categories: unconditional support for the concept of developing women and support for the concept of developing all coaches, men and women.

The three female coaches thought women should be developed for reasons such as those expressed by one of the female subjects (Coach 1):

I do actually. I think that there is a huge need to develop women because I've found that a lot of the men can't be bothered coaching women's sport. They just don't see it as competitive enough, or

strong enough, so you've got to have other people coming through who believe it is, otherwise we are sort of projecting the belief that it's a much lesser sport.

Male coach opinions on their female counterparts' suggestion were divided. Two were in unconditional favour of the idea with one coach suggesting positive discrimination was needed because of women's reluctance to coach at higher levels. The majority of other male coaches felt that development of coaches was imperative but the development should be for all coaches. Frequent expressions of such terms as "The best coaches need developing" and "We need a level playing field" and "Let's get everyone going in the same direction" was commonly mooted. Coach 3 expressed his fears about being discriminated against when he stated:

I think they should be promoting the best people as coaches. Not identifying a gender. I hate to think that if I carried on and was ambitious and wanted to set a career path.... I would hate to think I was restricted because I was a male.....

The interview structure allowed the elite coaches to volunteer suggestions on how coaches for women's hockey could be developed. They noted a wide range of considerations, including: increasing communication between coaches and administrators; providing more coaching courses and coaching clinics; providing more flexible alternatives to coaching courses; providing mentors; and creating a data base so that promising players could be tracked and contacted if needed.

One suggestion centred on the idea of improving women's problem-solving skill.

I think maybe it comes back to what I think is the basic difference in sport with women and men, and that is the problem-solving aspect. I might be wrong in that but I feel women identify problems and if the solution isn't there, then a frustration thing happens. Maybe they focus on the problem rather than the solution. The problem is thrown up and, if a lot of problems are thrown up, women coaches might need help in that area. Maybe they get swamped by the potential list of identifiable problems. I don't have enough training or experience in that area but that's certainly my impression.

Another highlighted the problematic area of technical coaching abilities. Giving women the opportunity to coach men's and boy's hockey was a suggestion from one male coach.

I actually think that it would be good to involve women in young men's hockey as well so that they get used to both. I think firstly they have to get technical help because I'm picking up players who have been coached by women at a lower level and by the time you get these players at age twenty and their techniques are poor, it's hard to change these so we need a lot of help on the technique and I think a development officer will help there..... but there is absolutely no reason why the likes of "Andrea" could not become the coach of a men's team.

Giving women the opportunity to observe international hockey coaches in action was another suggestion raised by four coaches. Coach 5, although not favouring “women-only” development, gave an impassioned plea for greater communication and information to be given to coaches from the NZHF:

I would love to see more higher level opportunity coaching. Not for women to necessarily coach at a higher level but to have the opportunity to see coaching at that level, and get the information. We have one Level 2 course in two years. How do you expect to increase our player base when you’re only getting the elite coaches together every two years?

The NZHF put a lot of emphasis on the structure and getting the information out to provincial associations, but they’ve got to realise that it just doesn’t work like that. It may cost them more to get it out to coaches but it would be a good return on their investment. They have got to tell us if they want us to feed the information back to the other players. It’s not the Federation’s fault or my provinces fault, it’s just a fault in the system. They need to get a coach database and work with it.

The database ideas received support from four coaches who were interested in the possibility of “keeping tabs on” past players who had left to have a family and/or for tracking hockey coaches, particularly in noting those who had dropped out of coaching. Similarly, the concept of emphasising hockey as a family sport to regain players who had left to start a family appealed to some coaches.

In summary, the coaches’ explanations for the perceived gender differential in elite hockey coaches were varied and included gender bias, player preferences for male coaches, societal expectations and multiple role realities for women. Similarly, suggestions for development of women in coaching ranged widely, and included educational opportunities, increased support at both the personal and administrative level, and increased opportunities to observe the “realities” of elite hockey.

6.6 COACH INTERVIEWS: CATEGORIES AND PROPERTIES

The following accumulated list of categories and properties was developed from participant observation and coach interview data. New categories and properties arising from data presented in Chapter Six are shown in italics. The full list of categories and properties arising from all three results chapters is shown in the master list at the end of Chapter Seven (p. 282).

Key changes included the creation of two new properties for the coach role category, although one of these was renamed. The property of *conscience* was renamed disciplinarian. The property of *learner* was added because of new dimensions arising from the elite coach interviews. One new property of coach qualities, *motivational skills*, was added from the interview material as the abilities in this regard appeared to be of importance for the subjects. Other existing properties of coach qualities were expanded, especially those pertaining to necessary personal qualities.

Properties arising from the interview phase dealing with coaching women were considerably expanded and consequently split into two categories: gender impact and coach development. The properties belonging to the gender impact category were reformulated under the following groupings: gendered beliefs and attitudes, physical myths and realities, confidence and competence, and sex and sexuality. The new coach development category contained several properties including recruitment factors, coach's background, personal circumstances of the coach, retainment factors, barrier jumpers and players.

CATEGORIES	PROPERTIES	POTENTIAL PROPOSITIONS	
1. COACH ROLES	1.1 Selector	<i>Selects manager</i>	
	1.2 Planner	<i>Prioritises coach roles</i>	
	1.3 Leader		<i>Is aware of differences in leading women's teams</i>
			<i>Pays attention to equity</i>
	1.4 Manager		
	1.5 Analyser		
	1.6 Communicator		
	1.7 Pre-match preparer		
	1.8 Orchestrator - warm-up		
	1.9 Controller - match		
	1.10 Trainer		
	1.11 Teacher		
	1.12 Learner		<i>Attends coaching clinics</i>
		<i>Learns by experience</i>	
		<i>Asks for help and advice</i>	
		<i>Needs appropriate training</i>	
1.13 Role modeller		<i>Believes in equity</i>	

	1.14 Equipment controller	
	1.15 Advisor	
	1.16 Socialising agent	<i>Retains a little social distance</i>
	1.17 Disciplinarian	<i>Reprimands players</i>
		<i>Insists on punctuality</i>
		<i>Demands focus</i>
		<i>Puts players under pressure</i>
	1.18 Developer of support network	<i>Seeks learned coaches/players</i>
		<i>Uses mentors/role models</i>
		<i>Maintains informal networks</i>
	1.19 Creator of representative pathways	

2. COACH QUALITIES	2.1 Communication skills	<i>Understands women's hockey terminology</i>
		<i>Communicates well with women</i>
	2.2 Leadership skills	
	2.3 Knowledge	<i>Understands the women's game</i>
		<i>Is aware of lesbian issues</i>
		<i>Develops sexual harassment policies</i>
		<i>Understands women's issues</i>
		<i>Knows the history of women's hockey</i>
	2.4 Managerial skills	<i>Works closely with women's manager</i>
		<i>Delegates</i>
	2.5 Personal qualities	<i>Is objective</i>
		<i>Makes personal sacrifices</i>
		<i>Accepts diversity</i>
		<i>Has high moral standards</i>
		<i>Consistency</i>
		<i>Openness</i>
		<i>Resists sexual advances</i>
		<i>Adaptability</i>
		<i>Confidence at public speaking</i>
	2.6 Attitudes	<i>Commitment to women's hockey</i>
		<i>Preference for coaching women</i>
		<i>Cares for players</i>
		<i>Believes in women's equality</i>
		<i>Avoidance of sexual stereotypes</i>
	2.7 Motivational skills	<i>Ability to motivate players</i>
		<i>Empowers players to motivate themselves</i>
	2.8 Technical skills	

<i>3. GENDER IMPACT</i>	<i>3.1 Gender beliefs and attitudes</i>	<i>Perceived family responsibilities</i>
		<i>Understanding personal gender biases</i>
		<i>Uses gendered words, e.g. lesbian</i>
	<i>3.2 Physical myths and realities</i>	<i>Fragility myths</i>
		<i>Perceptions of upper body strength</i>
		<i>Development of strength training programmes</i>
		<i>Women viewed as slow</i>
		<i>Fitness training</i>
		<i>Weight loss</i>
		<i>Menstruation</i>
		<i>Pregnancy</i>
	<i>3.3 Confidence and competence</i>	<i>Women's ownership of field positions</i>
		<i>Learning styles</i>
		<i>Women's appreciation of help</i>
		<i>Women's motivation to learn</i>
		<i>Women's pre-match focus</i>
		<i>Women's ability to follow game plan</i>
	<i>3.4 Sex/Sexuality</i>	<i>Women's need for sport psychologist</i>
		<i>Stereotypical perceptions of lesbians</i>

<i>4. DEVELOPMENT OF COACHES</i>	<i>4.1 Recruitment factors</i>	<i>Coach data-base</i>
		<i>Encouraging coaches to apply for jobs</i>
		<i>Benefits from coaching</i>
		<i>Job descriptions</i>
		<i>Selection processes</i>
		<i>Evaluation and feedback</i>
		<i>Coach preference for male or female teams</i>
	<i>4.2 Coach's background</i>	<i>Former playing ability</i>
		<i>Employment skills transfer</i>
		<i>Gender of previous coach</i>
		<i>Role models/mentors</i>
	<i>4.3 Personal circumstances of the coach</i>	<i>Partner status</i>
		<i>Employment status</i>
		<i>Coach age and health status</i>
	<i>4.4 Retainment factors</i>	<i>Formal education courses</i>
		<i>Manager training</i>

		<i>Informal coaching network</i>
		<i>Formal /informal mentoring schemes</i>
		<i>Elite coach observations</i>
	<i>4.5 Barrier jumpers</i>	<i>Experience with both sexes</i>
		<i>First experiences with women</i>
		<i>Potential mentors</i>
		<i>Child-care assistance</i>
		<i>Financial assistance</i>
	<i>4.6 Players</i>	<i>Utilising players as role models</i>

Figure 6.8. Accumulated list: categories and properties.

6.7 SUMMARY AND REVIEW

The coach interview phase of the research project was carried out with the intention of generating data for consideration in terms of elite women's hockey coaches. The impact of gender on the roles and qualities of women's hockey coaches was of special consideration. Interview questions were designed to reflect this interest and to elucidate coach experiences and beliefs emerging from the experience of, and reflections on, coaching women. Consideration of gender specific physiological, psychological and health issues were raised, as were more problematic issues arising from cross-gendered coaching such as sexual harassment, homosexuality and other morality factors.

The interviewees identified areas of cross-gendered coaching alluded to in the participant observation phase, but more fully exposed in the interview phase. Physical differences associated with men being present in women's changing rooms at team talk time was one area under discussion, as was concern over interpretations of physical touching. Communication was the other major factor identified by the elite coaches, as needing special considerations because of gender differences between coach and players.

Other topics discussed by the elite women's hockey coaches included coaching experience, mechanisms of support and suggestions for the development of coaches for women's teams at the elite level. Levels of support for the subjects, in terms of mentors, role models, coaching course attendance and networks were examined and provided evidence that low levels of support were available to many of the elite coaches.

The resultant data confirmed many categories and properties created by the participant observations and also generated the emergence of markedly different categories and properties emerging from the unique perspective of the elite team coach. Thus this chapter provided the researcher with the opportunity to substantiate and also question considerations of issues in regard to gender and coaching.

CHAPTER SEVEN**ELITE PLAYER QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS**

This chapter presents the results of a player questionnaire administered during one national New Zealand Hockey Federation tournament. Information presented illustrates the diverse nature of the population of elite team players attending national tournament and notes the high levels of achievement and experience reported by a large percentage of the players. Players' perceptions of elite coaching roles and qualities are presented. The chapter ends with an examination of players' perceptions of their own coach's knowledge, especially that pertaining to coaching female athletes.

- 7.1 Introduction
- 7.2 Elite player questionnaire: Background information
 - 7.2.1 Demographic information
 - 7.2.2 Prior experience
 - 7.2.3 Training and coaching hours
 - 7.2.4 Coach gender
- 7.3 Elite player questionnaire: Coaching perspectives
 - 7.3.1 Coaching roles
 - 7.3.2 Players' perceptions of gender
 - 7.3.3 Essential coach qualities
 - 7.3.4 Essential captain qualities
- 7.4 Elite players' perceptions of coach knowledge
- 7.5 Elite player questionnaire: Categories and properties
- 7.6 Summary and review

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Athletes and players are key figures in the elite coaching process (Lyle, 1999). Player perspectives on perceived coaching realities were viewed as an essential ingredient in this present study. The researcher sought to capture their insights on elite gendered coaching and to add a multiple-voiced richness to the data gained from participant observation and coach interviews. Although the focus of the questionnaire was on coach roles and qualities, questions were also asked in order to gain a wider understanding of the population of elite women hockey players who attend national tournament. As the New Zealand Hockey Federation has discontinued the week long format of national competition (1999 was the first of the National League style), these data will provide a valuable historical data base about the population of players who attended these tournaments and their perceptions of elite coaching.

Eleven teams at the 1997 NZHF national women's hockey tournament agreed to take part in a questionnaire survey (see Appendix J.1). In all, 140 players completed and returned questionnaires, which was a 79.5% response rate. The results are presented in four main sections. Firstly, the background information provides details of player ages, occupations, partner and dependent status, prior experience at tournaments and time commitment to hockey training and coaching during the season. Secondly, players' perceptions of coach roles and essential coach qualities are discussed. Thirdly, player perceptions of perceived differences between female and male coaches are presented and discussed. Finally, results are presented which illustrate player ratings of their 1997 coach's knowledge in areas identified in Chapter Three of the literature review as possibly being important for female athletes.

7.2 ELITE PLAYER QUESTIONNAIRE: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

7.2.1 Demographic information

The player questionnaire was the first research conducted during a national hockey tournament that would provide demographic information on the population of players attending such tournaments. Given the high response rate of 79.5%, it was expected that the data would provide an accurate picture of players' backgrounds, and their perceptions of coaching roles and qualities. Background information was valuable in establishing the ages, occupations, partner status, parenting status, playing experience, and training/playing hours of the women attending the tournament.

Players' ages ranged between 15 and 37 years. The average was 24 years, with the bulk of players falling between 19 and 26 years as can be seen on Figure 7.1. Of note, is the fact that eighteen respondents from this sample continued to play hockey at the elite level despite the fact that they were over 30 years old.

Fifty-four percent of player respondents were not in paid employment and the majority of these (47.9%) were students. Players who were in paid employment had a diverse range of occupations, and these are illustrated in Figure 7.2 which shows the percentages of players in nine major occupational groups based on the New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations (Statistics New Zealand, 1998). The most common occupational grouping

for elite female hockey players was that of *professional* and of those who selected this category, 12.1% were employed as educators.

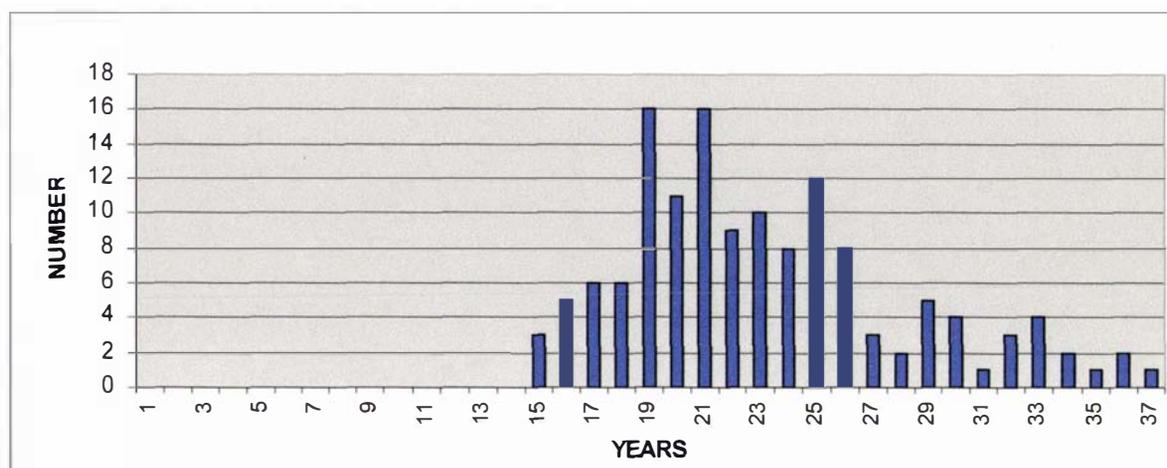


Figure 7.1. Elite players' age distribution.

Waged occupational groups	Percentage of players
Legislators, administrators and managers	7.1
Professionals	21.4
Technicians and associate professionals	5.7
Clerks	2.9
Service and sales workers	4.2
Agriculture and fishery workers	1.4
Trades workers	2.8
Plant and machinery operators and assemblers	0
Elementary occupations	0
No occupation / unpaid work	
Currently unemployed	2.9
House executive / mother	3.7
Students	47.9

Figure 7.2. Elite players' occupation status.

The majority of players (57%) did not have a partner at the time of national tournament as illustrated in Figure 7.3. Given the young ages of many respondents, it may be surprising to note that 40 percent of players recorded themselves as having a partner, a fact that may have an impact on factors such as time and money available for hockey. Three percent of players did not answer this question. Although 40% of players indicated that they had a

partner, only a minority of players had children. Of the 140 players who responded to this question, only 16 women had dependants (11.4%) and the majority of these had one or two children. Figure 7.4 illustrates graphically the small number of women who had one, two, three or four children.

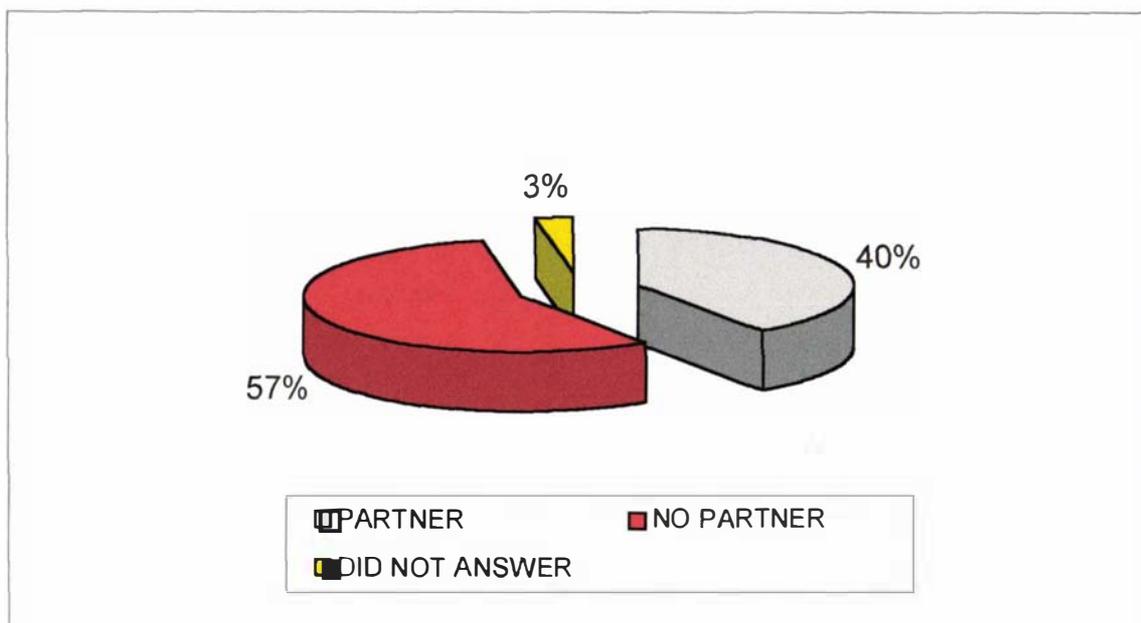


Figure 7.3. Elite players' partner status.

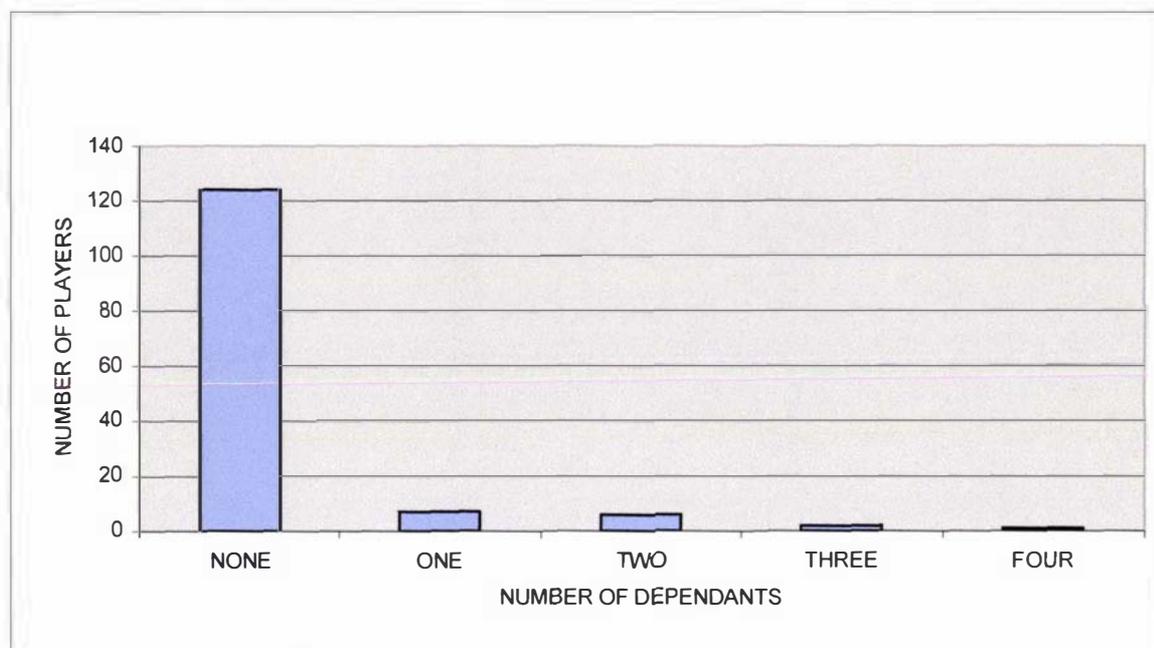


Figure 7.4. Elite players' dependant status.

7.2.2 Prior experience

Players were asked to record the number of national tournaments previously attended. The responses ranged from none to 16, with the average per player being 5.3 tournaments. Figure 7.5 shows that twenty-two players were first time attendees at the researched national tournament. Forty-three players were grouped into the inexperienced category, having attended between one and four national tournaments previously. However, over half of the respondents had attended five or more national tournaments. Of these experienced players, 18.7% were categorised as *very experienced* or *veteran*, having attended over 10 or 15 tournaments respectively. The category *veteran*, as used in this illustration, is not intended to signify a player's age but rather portray the vast experience accrued through many years of competing at this top level of the sport.

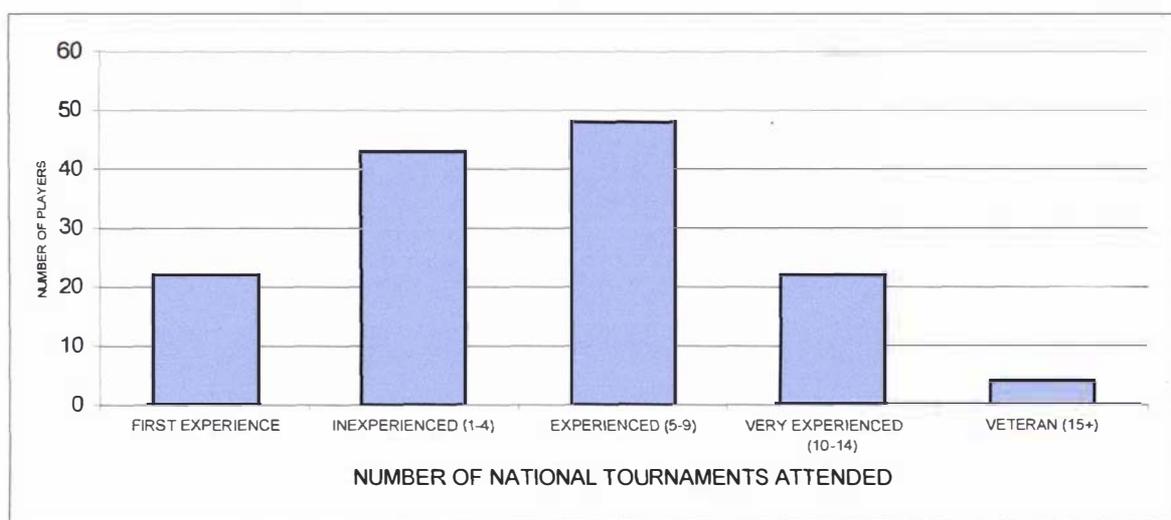


Figure 7.5. Number of national tournaments attended by elite players.

In addition, players were asked to record the highest level of hockey achievement they had reached in their career. Results have been tabulated and illustrated in a pie graph, as shown in Figure 7.6, according to four categories: New Zealand Seniors (New Zealand women's teams); other New Zealand selections (including the academy teams, New Zealand Maori teams, New Zealand trialists, and New Zealand Universities); New Zealand age group teams (New Zealand Under 18 years teams and Under 21 years teams); and provincial teams. Fifty percent of players at this tournament indicated that representing their province was the highest level of hockey they had achieved. Arguably, being selected for some of the larger city provinces could represent a higher level of hockey

achievement than perhaps a New Zealand age group team, but this debate should not detract from the data which clearly shows that the top two categories, New Zealand Seniors and other New Zealand representatives, account for one third of the respondents.

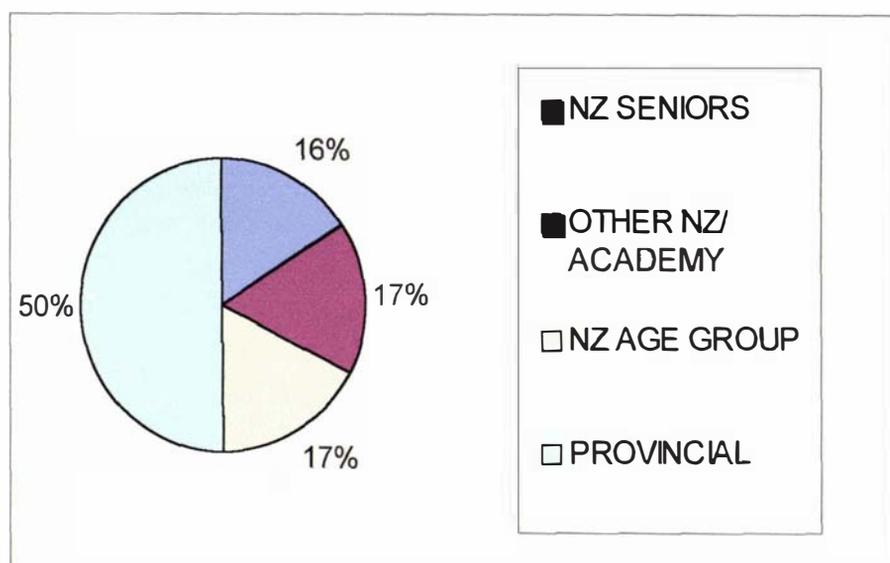


Figure 7.6. Elite players' top playing level.

Thus a large proportion of the population of players represented in this survey are experienced at national tournaments and/or have reached a high level of expertise in the sport. (This suggests the researcher may be justified in having a degree of confidence in the results from this player survey.)

7.2.3 Training and coaching hours

Players were asked to estimate the number of hours each week they spent playing and/or training for hockey. They were also asked to estimate the number of hours a week they spent coaching hockey. It appeared in most cases, as can be seen in Figure 7.7, that the players spent more time training and playing the game than coaching in the sport. The range of individual estimates of training and playing hours was between three and twenty hours. On average, the players spent 9.4 hours training a week. The fact that nearly 50% of the players trained and/or played for over ten hours a week is significant in terms of commitment to the sport. Averaged team estimates ranged from 13.4 hours, being the highest average number of training hours per province, to 6.4 hours, being the lowest estimate. Teams based in New Zealand's major cities typically trained for an average of over 10 hours a week.

I have spent this evening going over the questionnaire results. The high number of hours spent in training each week appears to support Phillips' (1999) view that historical changes have allowed women to participate in an increasingly higher number of hours per week on sporting activities. Given results from a previous study (Edwards, 1993) which highlighted "lack of time" as one factor preventing women coaching hockey, this reportedly large number of hours spent on hockey each week is encouraging. The time spent on hockey in this current study is similar to McConnell's (1996) results which showed elite rugby players typically spent between six and ten hours training, with only six players reportedly spending between eleven and fifteen hours a week (Researcher's Notebook, 11.11.97).

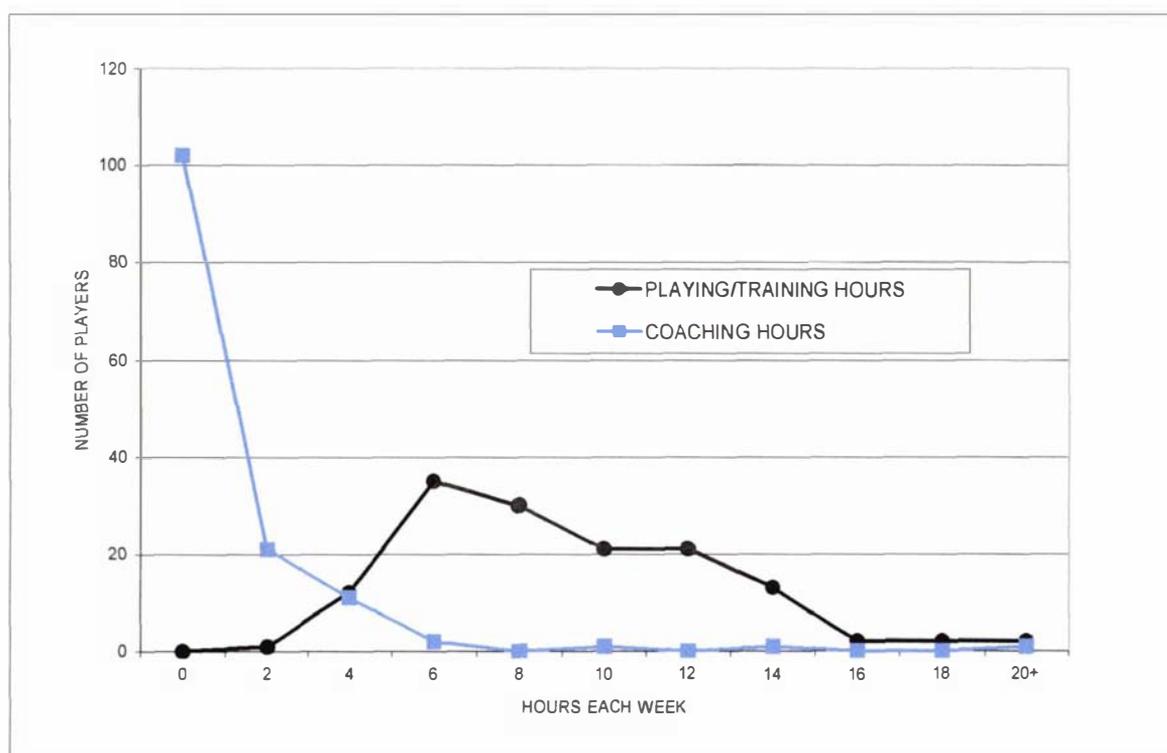


Figure 7.7. Number of hours spent on hockey activities each week by elite players.

In contrast, the average number of hours the players spent coaching each week was significantly lower than the number of hours they spent playing or training. The average playing or training time for teams ranged from 3.9 hours to 0.2 hours. The average coaching time per player was only 1.2 hours, which was considerably less than that spent training or playing hockey each week. In fact, only one player appeared to be intensively

involved in hockey coaching for over 20 hours each week, and further examination of that particular response sheet showed hockey coaching was part of her profession. Of more importance, were the data generated from the graph of coaching hours which showed that 62.6% of players at the national women's hockey tournament did not coach at all. Given the high levels of experience and playing levels professed by players in this sample (see Figures 7.5 and 7.6), the comparatively low number of coaching hours, per player, may be of concern to hockey administrators and this issue is discussed in the following chapter along with all the other important results of this phase of the research.

It is clear that players who are training for large numbers of hours a week, like those from the major city teams, could not easily afford to contribute similar hours to coaching the sport. However, there appears to be no simple correlation between the number of hours coaching and playing. For example, if the student responses to the questionnaire are examined, they have low training hours and low playing hours, suggesting other factors such as occupation and age may impact on this factor. The intention of the questions regarding weekly time allocation was to provide a guide to the number of hours available for hockey in the player's lives, in order to assess the potential number of hours available for the sport once the players retired from elite level hockey.

7.2.4 Coach gender

Players were asked to reflect upon the gender of people who had coached them at the elite level and make a judgement about the proportion of men and women in that sample. Players had a choice of five categories, as indicated in Figure 7.8. Figure 7.8 graphically illustrates the fact that only a small minority of players (2.92%) had been coached exclusively by women compared to 13.13% who had been exclusively coached by men. Similarly, the percentage of players who recalled having a majority of male coaches was higher than players who remembered having more female coaches.

Of note is the fact that nearly one-third of respondents indicated that they had been coached by equal numbers of males and females at the elite level. These results are important because they provide concrete evidence that women are actively involved in elite coaching in New Zealand hockey, an encouraging result given the small numbers of women actually coaching at national tournaments, such as that in 1997. However, experiential evidence suggests (and there is no comparable data to substantiate this hypothesis) that if the respondents were male players, the percentages claiming to have

had exclusively male coaches would have been extremely high. This is an area that should be identified as having potential for further research.

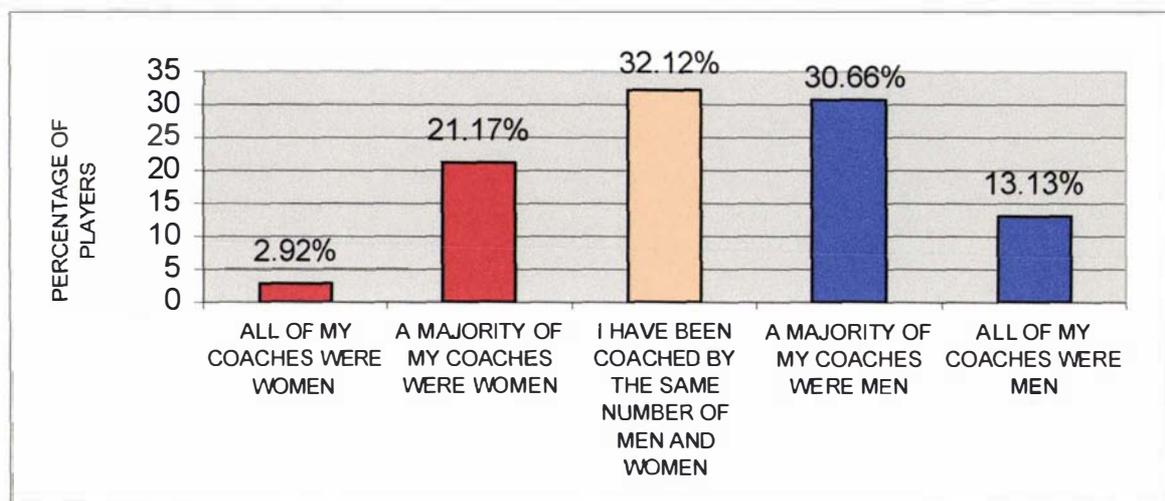


Figure 7.8. Gender of elite players' previous elite coaches.

Consideration needs to be given to the consequences of having approximately 44% of elite women players being coached by males. If, as some authors suggest (see Acosta and Carpenter, 1985b; Greendorfer, 1977; Hart et al. 1986; Lovett and Lowry, 1988), the lack of female role models is a barrier to women's retention and recruitment in coaching, the numbers of female players coached predominantly by males reported in this study may be problematic. Similarly, concerns voiced by critics of cross-gendered mentoring schemes (Segerman-Peck, 1991), may have relevance for female players who are being coached by men, particularly in terms of sexual harassment (Researcher's Notebook, 11.11.97).

7.3 ELITE PLAYER QUESTIONNAIRE: COACHING PERSPECTIVES

Given the importance of players as part of the coaching process, the research sought to uncover player perceptions of coaching roles and qualities and their beliefs about the impact of gender on these factors (see Appendix J.1). It was expected that player perspectives would provide further data to consider with the categories and properties created from consideration of participant observation and coach interviews presented in the preceding chapters.

7.3.1. Coaching roles

The questionnaire provided players with the opportunity to rank the important roles of the coach, in an identical fashion as that presented to coaches in the semi-structured interviews (see Chapter Three). Ten players did not complete this question which lowered the sample number to 130.

The players' choices of essential coach roles are presented in Figure 7.9 below. The players' most popular choice for number one ranked role was that of *motivator and communicator*. Second ranked was *game planner*, followed by *relating to players*, *technical coach*, and *selector*. Players rated *fitness development* as the least important elite coach role.

COACH ROLE	AVERAGE RANK	OVERALL PLACING
Selector	4.4	5
Game planner	2.4	2
Technical coach	3.25	4
Motivator and communicator	2.37	1
Relating to players	3.08	3
Fitness development	5.33	6

Figure 7.9. Elite players' rankings of elite coaching roles (n=130).

The addition of an open ended question inviting players to list other important elite coaching roles provided an opportunity for player perceptions to be further explored. Only nine players listed other roles and these were: organiser, media figure-head, sport psychologist, leader (2 players), delegator, experienced person, role model, and creator of pathways to New Zealand representation.

7.3.2. Players' perceptions of gender

Players were asked if they felt there were any differences between having a male coach and a female coach at the elite level. One hundred and four players responded to this question. Figure 7.10 summarised the players' responses to this question. Fifty-one players indicated that there were no differences between having a male and female coach and/or that gender was not an issue.

<u>Player responses</u>	<u>Number of players</u>	<u>% of Players</u>
Unanswered	39	28%
No gender differences	49	35%
Yes gender differences	52	37%

Figure 7.10. Elite players' perceptions of differences between male and female coaches (n=140).

Players' positive perceptions of male coaches	No. of responses
Communication	
Male coaches give more critical feedback/ more direct	3
Relationships	
Male coaches are harder on players and/or more disciplined	9
Male coaches are less emotional / keep their distance	8
Male coaches are more respected	4
Male coaches relate better to female players	1
Game/training related	
Male coaches are better at the technical aspects of the game	4
Male coaches are better at the tactical/skills aspects of the game	2
Male coaches make practices more physical	2
Total	33
Players' negative perceptions of male coaches	
Communication	
Male coaches find it hard to communicate	9
Male coaches find it hard to motivate women	1
Relationships	
Male coaches do not relate well to female players	2
Male coaches have favourites	2
Male coaches are too soft	2
Game/training related	
Male coaches make players play the male style of game	3
Male coaches over focus on the smaller aspects of the game	1
Male coaches have a win-at-all-costs attitude	1
Total	21

Figure 7.11. Elite players' perceptions of male coaches.

An illustration of player attitudes to gender was given by one player who stated:

I haven't experienced any great differences between men and women coaches – just their personalities and individual skills. I think that both men and women players want to be treated with fairness and quality within a team situation – by a male or female coach.

Similarly, another player commented “I like both and have respect for both if they warrant it. For example, if they are prepared, give accurate information, and if they are knowledgeable and fair etc.”

Three players (2%) added written notes on the questionnaire to explain they were unsure of how to respond about gender differences as they had only experienced male coaches. The following player quote illustrates this type of response: “I haven't had much to do with female coaches so I couldn't make a valid judgement”.

Figure 7.11 categorises the differences reported about male coaches by the players. The responses are divided into two categories representing positive and negative responses to male coaches.

Player perceptions about gender and the qualities associated with particular coach genders are an important part of this research study. Although relatively low numbers of players responded with written explanations as to their perceptions of coaches, valuable perceptions and stereotypical beliefs were expressed in player comments. The most common theme emerging from the data, about why a male coach was “better” than a female, was in regard to the male coach being “harder” on the women in terms of both physical and mental expectations of achievement and feedback. One player explained “Males tend to be more focused and push players harder which is good” while another simply stated “A male is tougher and, through my experience, is likely to give you more critical feedback”.

The detachment of the male coach from the team was seen by the player respondents as the other most common positive perception emerging from the data. Several players discussed the idea that a man could stay on the outside of the team and therefore avoid the “bitchy” troubles females were perceived to encounter. For example, one player wrote “A male can be more removed from the team. I feel this can be an advantage as younger players tend to back chat less” while another explained that male coaches “are less emotionally driven”.

The most common negative theme to be expressed by players was the tendency for male coaches to have problems with communication. Communication difficulties were associated with two problems. Firstly, a group of players (not from the same team) held the opinion that male coaches “don’t know how to say what needs to be said” and that males are “vague and generalise too much”. Secondly, players expressed sentiments that men worried too much about upsetting the female players with what they said. A player who believed “Men felt that they had to watch what they said to some players” illustrated this negative aspect of male coach communications.

Players’ comments on female coaches were less common than those written about men, and these are summarised in Figure 7.12. The major perception of positive difference was the belief that female coaches related to female players better than men, that they seemed to treat the player as a whole person and take account of family matters to a greater extent.

Five players believed female coaches had better communication skills and, if this is added to the number who believed men have a problem with communication, the difference is accentuated. Female coaches may be able to take advantage of the players’ positive beliefs in their communication ability, especially given the importance of this quality.

Players’ positive perceptions of female coaches	No. of responses
Communication	
Female coaches communicate better than men	5
Female coaches are better at one-on-one communication	1
Relationships	
Female coaches relate better to female players	9
Female coaches are better at team cohesion and motivation	2
Female coaches understand family commitments better	2
Female coaches empower players / ownership	1
Total	20
Players’ negative perceptions of female coaches	
Relationships	
Female coaches are too soft on players / not as demanding	6
Female coaches are too close to the team	2
Female coaches more ‘bitchy’	1
Game/training related	
Female coaches have less technical understanding	1
Total	10

Figure 7.12. Elite players’ perceptions of female coaches.

The negative aspects of female coaches were mainly seen in regard to the coach's relationship with players and the team. Some players appeared to think that some women were "too soft". Again, if this is added to previously discussed positive perceptions that men are hard, and push players to achieve, this aspect of an elite coach's role should be examined more closely. Two players thought female coaches allowed themselves to get too close to the team and one described female coaches as having a tendency to be "bitchy". Only one negative comment was made regarding elite female coaches in the game or training arena, and this was in regard to lack of technical skill, a factor alluded to previously by four players as a positive perception of male coaches.

In summary, over one-third of elite women hockey players perceived differences between male and female coaches. These differences were, in all cases, in regard to coach qualities (and related roles), the players liked or disliked in their coaches. The personal insights illustrated through player's voices in this section provide a player's perspective on coaching roles and qualities in elite women's hockey. The next part of this chapter turns to examine the coaching qualities that players believe are essential for coaches at the elite level.

7.3.3. Essential coach qualities

Players were presented with a list of sixty-one qualities and were asked to place a tick beside the qualities they believed were essential for an elite coach (see Appendix J.1). The list of qualities was adapted from McConnell's (1996) study with elite rugby teams but modified in regard to the sport of hockey and considerations of coach gender as raised by the two literature reviews. The results were compiled by totalling the number of responses and presenting these in a table (Figure 7.13), indicative of the frequency of quality.

COACH QUALITIES	NUMBER	RANK
Communicates effectively	138	1
Analyses game well	135	2
Attends nearly all games and practices	134	3
Treats players with respect	133	4
Makes clear decisions	131	5
Is respected by the players	127	6
Has a high organisational ability	126	7=
Develops a clear team plan or strategy	126	7=
Gives clear feedback	125	9=
Knows the rules of hockey	125	9=
Is loyal to the team	123	11
Is in a good coach-captain relationship	121	12

Is consistent	120	13=
Fosters positive team training	120	13=
Maintains a positive approach in adversity	118	15=
Has enthusiasm	118	15=
Motivates players to attain goals	118	15=
Involves players in goal setting	117	18
Takes pride in player achievement	112	19
Possesses self confidence	111	20=
Has clear goals	111	20=
Is a firm and fair disciplinarian	108	22
Can change a game plan if necessary (during game)	107	23=
Fosters team unity and spirit	107	23=
Has a sense of vision	106	25
Accepts decisions and results in a sporting manner	101	26=
Has a high level of coaching experience	101	26=
Is an able problem solver	100	28
Has an optimistic outlook	98	29
Is emotionally stable	96	30=
Works well with others	96	30=
Possesses a willingness to work hard	92	32=
Is willing to take considered risks	92	32=
Understands others' feelings (empathy)	90	34=
Has clear values and integrity	90	34=
Represents the team well in public	85	36
Is part of the team socially but retains a little distance	82	37=
Accepts responsibility for the team	82	37=
Makes training fun	82	37=
Relates well to administrators	81	40=
Is orientated to winning	81	40=
Is intelligent	79	42
Is a good role model	74	43
Is sensitive to cultural/ethnic considerations	73	44
Is highly competitive	70	45
Has conviction of their own beliefs	69	46=
Understands women well	69	46=
Has imagination	65	48
Has a high level of hockey skills and techniques	62	49
Appreciates hockey's values and traditions	60	50
Is sensitive to different sexual orientations	58	51
Has charisma	49	52
Has imagination	43	53=
Is persuasive	43	53=
Has formal coaching qualifications	42	55
Has a friendly recognition of players' families	38	56
Has (had) a high level of personal playing skills	32	57
Has prior experience coaching women	30	58
Has an excellent understanding of female physiology	26	59
Is good friends with players	25	60
Has a winning record	15	61

Figure 7.13. Elite player's selection of essential coach qualities (n=139).

The most frequently chosen coach quality was *communicates effectively*, which was selected as an essential quality by all players who completed this section of the questionnaire, bar one. Other qualities most commonly chosen were: *analyses the game well*, *attends nearly all games and practices*, *treats the players with respect* and *makes*

clear decisions. Qualities falling to the bottom of the frequency list were: *has a winning record*, *is good friends with players*, *has an excellent understanding of female physiology*, *has prior experience coaching women* and *has (had) a high level of personal playing skills*.

Ranking the qualities in frequency order had the advantage of quickly identifying the top choices but focusing on the ranking alone poses some interpretive problems. For example, player perceptions in regard to the importance of gendered knowledge was tested with the inclusion of a quality called *understands women well*. This quality was ranked only 46th out of 61, but was perceived as being essential, by 49.6% of the players who ticked that particular quality. In contrast, other lowly ranked qualities were more unpopular choices, for example *prior experience coaching women* and *an excellent understanding of female physiology* were chosen as essential qualities by only 21.5% and 18.7% of players respectively.

Overall the high numbers of ticks clearly indicated the players' perception that a large number of qualities were essential for an elite coach. Even the most infrequently chosen quality *has a winning record* was chosen by fifteen of the 138 players who completed this section (10.9%). It should be noted that negative qualities reportedly displayed by coaches at the elite level, such as verbal abuse, were not included in the list. Rather the list was designed to represent qualities which research and literature reviews had suggested may have been important (Edwards, 1993; McConnell, 1996).

7.3.4. Essential captain qualities

An examination of player perceptions of essential captain qualities was included in this study for one main reason. Captains have been shown to have key roles in leading (both on field and off), implementing the game plan, leading by example, role modeling, linking coaches and players, catalysing team development, implementing coaching directions, and reinforcing team discipline (McConnell, 1996; Mosher and Roberts, 1981; Patterson, 1981; Weese and Nichols, 1987). Given that these roles are different from many of the coaching roles discussed in Chapter Three, what qualities do players perceive to be required by coaches and captains?

CAPTAIN QUALITIES	NUMBER	RANK
Is respected by the players	136	1
Is loyal to the team	133	2=
Communicates effectively	133	2=
Is a very good role model	130	4
Attends nearly all games and practices	128	5
Possesses self confidence	124	6=
Treats players with respect	124	6=
Has enthusiasm	124	6=
Fosters team unity and spirit	124	6=
Maintains a positive approach in adversity	120	10=
Works well with others	120	10=
Is in a good coach-captain relationship	120	10=
Knows the rules of hockey	115	13
Can change a game plan if necessary (during the game)	112	14
Accepts decisions and results in a sporting manner	111	15
Represents the team well in public	109	16
Makes clear decisions	108	17
Understands others feelings (empathy)	105	18=
Possesses a willingness to work hard	105	18=
Is emotionally stable	97	20=
Fosters positive team training	97	20=
Analyses the game well	96	22
Has a high level of hockey skills and techniques	94	23
Is consistent	92	24
Has an optimistic outlook	88	25
Motivates players to attain goals	87	26
Takes pride in player achievement	86	27
Is highly competitive	85	28
Has a sense of vision	83	29
Has (had) a high level of personal playing skills	80	30
Is an able problem solver	77	31
Accepts responsibility for the team	76	32
Has clear goals	75	33
Is good friends with players	74	34
Has clear values and integrity	73	35
Is intelligent	70	36
Gives clear feedback	66	37=
Is sensitive to cultural/ethnic considerations	66	37=
Is oriented to winning	65	39
Is willing to take considered risks	64	40
Involves the players in goal setting	60	41
Is a good public speaker	58	42
Is sensitive to different sexual orientations	55	43
Has charisma	53	44
Relates well to administrators	52	45
Is a firm and fair disciplinarian	51	46=
Has the conviction of their own beliefs	51	46=
Understands women well	48	48
Appreciates hockey's values and traditions	46	49=
Has a high organisational ability	46	49=
Has imagination	39	51
Is persuasive	34	52
Develops a clear team plan or strategy	32	53
Has a friendly recognition of players' families	25	54
Makes trainings fun	22	55
Is part of the team socially but retains a little distance	11	56
Has a winning record	10	57
Has an excellent understanding of female physiology	9	58
Has a high level of coaching experience	3	59

Has prior experience coaching women	1	60=
Has formal coaching qualifications	1	60=

Figure 7.14. Elite players' selection of essential captain qualities (n=139).

As with the coach qualities previously discussed, player perceptions of essential captain qualities were ranked in order of frequency, and can be viewed in Figure 7.14. Highest support was given to the following qualities: *is respected by the players, is loyal to the team, communicates effectively, is a very good role model, and attends nearly all games and practices*. Few players (less than 10 people) gave support to the lowest ranked qualities that were: *has a winning record, has an excellent understanding of female physiology, has a high level of coaching experience, has prior experience coaching women, and has formal coaching qualifications*.

Six qualities were found in the top twelve rankings of both coach and captain. These were the ability to communicate effectively, regular attendance at nearly all games and practices, the ability to be respected and in turn respect others, the need to show team loyalty, and finally to be in a good captain-coach relationship.

At the other end of the scale were five qualities which were: being persuasive, having a winning record, possessing formal coaching qualifications, having an excellent understanding of female physiology, and having a friendly recognition of players' families.

Several qualities were seen as more essential for the coach including the ability to develop a clear team plan or strategy, give clear feedback, possess a high organisational ability, and a high level of coaching experience. Other abilities were regarded as more essential for captains including: being a good role model, having a high level of personal playing skills, and a high level of hockey skills and techniques.

Results such as these may be important because captains who possess coaching qualities valued by players should be well placed to make the transition from playing to coaching ranks. Further research could determine whether captains who display such essential qualities as effective communication, game analysis skills and the ability to develop a clear team plan or strategy, would be suited to join the pool of potential coaches. In addition other team members who possess essential coach qualities but who do not possess more

captain-orientated skills (such as enthusiasm and the ability to foster team unity and spirit) could well be targeted as potential coaches.

7.4 ELITE PLAYERS' PERCEPTIONS OF COACH KNOWLEDGE

Players were asked to rate their own coach's knowledge of gender specific issues, including physiological, pedagogical, psychological, and health issues raised for consideration in Chapter Three of this thesis. The intention here was also to rate the players' perceptions of coach knowledge and then compare this with the coaches' perception of their own knowledge on the same issues. This provided individual feedback for the provincial coaches on players' perceptions of their knowledge and actions in certain areas of coaching. Although ethical considerations prevent the presentation of individual coach and team comparisons in this chapter, it is hoped that the generalised data can provide information relevant for coach educators and have possible implications for enhancing coach efficacy as discussed in Chapter Eight.

Players were asked to read the statement and then decide on their agreement with the statement using a five point Likert scale with the following categories: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neither agree nor disagree (N), Disagree (D), or Strongly Disagree (SD). Player results (n=132) were combined and the results are displayed in percentages in Figures 7.15 to 7.19 below.

Physiological differences between the sexes which have been shown to be important for women's performances in hockey were addressed using the statements in this section of the player questionnaire. Fitness testing has been identified as a method of monitoring physical fitness. Coaches, as reported by players in this study, appeared to vary greatly in the amount of advice they gave to players in regard to physical fitness. Players' perceptions of physiological statements are shown in Figure 7.15 and are in keeping with the players' responses from the first part of the questionnaire, which indicated fitness to be the least favoured coaching role. However, a large number of players (45% strongly agreed or agreed) perceived that their coach did ensure they were tested for fitness, despite the indication that they did not advise on aspects of this role. Nearly one-quarter of players strongly disagreed that their coach ensured they were tested for fitness improvements. It would appear that, at the elite level, this coaching role is either being

ignored or transferred to a specialist fitness trainer's role. Participant observation results from Chapter Five also provide evidence that the responsibility for physiological fitness is a role commonly offloaded from the elite coach to specialist trainers.

The literature review identified research which reported a significant difference in the upper body strength of men and women (Freedson, 1994, Lewis et al., 1986; Parkin, 1991) and concluded that this was one area for potential improvement in female hockey players. Consequently, this question was seen as a valid inclusion in this questionnaire. Only 25% of players in this study strongly agreed or agreed that their coach encouraged upper body strength work. In contrast to coaches' views (see Figure 6.5) fifty two percent of players indicated that they were not encouraged to work on upper body strength. Clearly these results show one area for improved coaching goals.

PHYSIOLOGICAL STATEMENTS	SA	A	N	D	SD
Coach advises me about fitness training	14	24	23	23	16
Coach encourages upper body strength	8	17	23	21	31
Coach ensures I am tested for fitness improvements	19	26	23	8	24

Figure 7.15. Percentage of elite players' responses to physiological statements (n=132).

A comparison with the coaches' own beliefs, expressed in Chapter Six, and players opinions shown in this present chapter produced disparate opinions in regard to encouragement of upper body strength. Over half of the coaches felt they encouraged upper body strength but 52% of players believed this to be untrue. However, players did confirm coach views that they were not tested for body fat.

In terms of pedagogical coaching issues, players' perceptions are illustrated in Figure 7.16, and show the majority of players (66%) believed the coaches helped them develop individual hockey skills thus confirming coach beliefs expressed in Figure 6.5 (p. 237). Given the restrictions on training time observed with the teams, the fact that coaches are working on individual skills as well as team moves is positive for the players. Similarly, high numbers of players perceived that the coach gave them specific positive feedback, although 17% believed they were given little help in this regard and a further 18% were undecided. This type of feedback has been identified by Weiss (1993) as providing

information used by women to judge gains in competence and as such, these results reflect favourably upon two thirds of the coaches in this study.

PEDAGOGICAL STATEMENTS	SA	A	N	D	SD
Coach helps me develop individual hockey skills	23	43	15	12	7
Coach gives me specific positive feedback	20	45	18	13	4

Figure 7.16. Percentage of elite players' responses to pedagogical statements (n=132).

Players' perceptions of women's health issues are shown in Figure 7.17 below. The majority of coaches did not fat test their players, which is in accordance with views expressed in the literature review that fat calipers should be thrown away. Furthermore, these results show that very few provincial players (10%) are encouraged by their coach to have a positive body image. Of concern is the response of 23% of players who disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement *coach encourages me to have a positive body image*. Comparison between player and coach responses to this statement appeared to be incongruous as no coach disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement on body image.

The majority of players were neutral (they neither agreed nor disagreed) about their coach's understanding of the effects of pregnancy or menstruation. It is possible that these types of issues have never been raised and therefore players do not know what their coach knows about these topics. However, as most of the females in the team presumably menstruate on a regular basis, the fact that this topic is ignored may be of concern to the players and/or coaches and is discussed further in Chapter Eight.

The players' rating of coach knowledge on nutrition was more positive, given that dietary factors (such as fat, iron and calcium content) have been shown to have importance for female athletes, and the previously discussed perception that coaches do not encourage players to have a positive body image. Forty nine percent of players strongly agreed or agreed that their coach understood nutrition for women as opposed to the eleven percent who disagreed or strongly disagreed. However, large numbers of players (40%) did indicate that they were not sure how to respond and, therefore, it can be assumed that discussions on nutritional advice are not commonplace.

WOMEN'S HEALTH STATEMENTS	SA	A	N	D	SD
Coach ensures players are fat-tested	0	3	10	19	68
Coach encourages me to have a positive body image	5	5	67	10	13
Coach understands the effects of pregnancy	14	17	58	2	9
Coach understands the effects of menstruation	14	16	63	2	5
Coach understands nutrition for women	16	33	40	6	5

Figure 7.17. Percentage of elite players' responses to women's health statements (n=132).

Many of the factors included in the questionnaire were based on psychological aspects of coach behaviour or knowledge. Goal setting has been shown to improve performance and may be especially important for female athletes. Players' responses to this question indicate that less than half of the players (43%) strongly agreed or agreed that their coach helped them with goal setting. The coach interviews confirmed that all but two elite coaches strongly agreed or agreed that they helped players to set goals. Once again, player and coach responses appear to be in conflict. The literature also suggests that athlete goal setting may be helped by the use of training logs and personal playing diaries, but according to the results shown in Figure 7.18 few players in this study were encouraged to use such goal monitoring devices. (This was confirmed by coach interview responses in Figure 6.5).

PSYCHOLOGICAL STATEMENTS	SA	A	N	D	SD
Coach helps me with individual goal setting	14	29	25	23	9
Coach encourages players to use training log books	8	15	31	21	25
Coach is sensitive about my self-esteem	10	35	37	14	4
Coach does not harass me	56	27	13	2	2
Coach makes time to talk with me	24	44	17	8	7
Coach likes me as a person	22	48	30	0	0
Coach is accepting of lesbian players	21	20	57	0	2
Coach treats all players equally	31	24	20	20	5

Figure 7.18. Percentage of elite players' responses to psychological statements (n=132).

Self-esteem is another psychological factor linked to positive performance in sport. Provincial coaches appeared to be sensitive to a player's self-esteem, according to 45% of the players. Although only 18% of players indicated that their coach is not sensitive to their self-esteem, the importance of this factor in terms of performance will be addressed in Chapter Eight.

Harassment by sports coaches is another factor linked to self-esteem. The majority of players (83%) were in agreement that their coach did not harass them. Thirteen percent of players were unsure of their response to this statement (they did not agree with, or disagree with the statement). Four percent of players indicated that they disagreed with this statement and, therefore, felt that the coach did harass them.

Other factors impacting upon a player's self-esteem include the availability of talking time with the coach, the impression that the coach likes the player and the sense that they are accepted. In the three statements pertaining to these factors, the coaches were rated very highly. For example, 68% of players believed the coaches made time to talk to them, a factor that has been shown by McConnell (1996) to be important in coach-athlete relationships and leadership. Of note, is the response to the statement *coach likes me as a person*. Thirty percent of the players seemed unable to decide if their coach liked them, but the overwhelming majority (70%) agreed that their coach liked them as a person. No player disagreed with this statement.

The majority of players (57%) responded neutrally concerning their coach's acceptance of lesbian players. The statement was included because of the possibility that homophobia can impact upon personal enjoyment in the sport of hockey, as has been shown in previous research (Edwards, 1993). Four players indicated their disapproval of this statement in the questionnaire and wrote comments, for example "I don't see what relevance this has to hockey". Two percent of players strongly disagreed with the statement, indicating that their coach was not supportive of lesbian players. At the opposite end of the spectrum, 41% strongly agreed or agreed that their coach was accepting of lesbians, and all but one coach had indicated such acceptance in the interviews. The results suggest that communication of messages regarding homosexuality may not be clear.

Such acceptance of lesbian women is in accordance with coaching philosophies of treating all players equally. The players' perception of coaches in this regard was favourable. Fifty five percent of players agreed with the statement "coach treats all players equally" compared to 25% who believed this was not the case. Coach responses had showed that the majority believed they did treat players fairly (see Figure 6.5).

One statement was included to examine the extent to which coaches used female role models, given the importance of this as discussed in the literature review. Forty-nine percent of players agreed that coaches used female role models, a positive result confirming coach views expressed in Chapter Six. This may have implications for player self-esteem and recruitment and retention of females into elite coaching roles.

GENDERED STATEMENTS	SA	A	N	D	SD
Coach refers to positive female role models	17	32	36	12	3
Coach prefers coaching women's hockey over men's	11	8	73	6	2

Figure 7.19. Percentage of elite players' responses to gendered statements (n=132).

A large majority of players were unsure if their coach preferred coaching women's hockey rather than men's, which may show such a consideration has never been raised by the teams or individuals or may indicate that players are aware of their coaches' indecision about such matters (see Figure 6.5).

7.5 ELITE PLAYER QUESTIONNAIRE: CATEGORIES AND PROPERTIES

Data from the elite player questionnaire, confirmed categories derived from participant observation and coach interviews in the two preceding result chapters of this study. New categories and properties that emerged from the elite player questionnaire responses, as discussed above, have been incorporated into the master list of categories and properties as presented below.

Of note are changes to coach role categories to include the responsibility of the elite coach in helping players reach higher representative honours. *Media figurehead* has been added to the property of communication. In terms of coach qualities category, although no

properties were added, confirmation of the importance of specific personal qualities was clearly indicated by players' responses.

CATEGORIES	PROPERTIES	POTENTIAL PROPOSITIONS
1. COACH ROLES	1.1 Selector	
	1.2 Planner	
	1.3 Leader	
	1.4 Manager	
	1.5 Analyser	
	1.6 Communicator	<i>Media figurehead</i>
	1.7 Pre-match preparer	
	1.8 Orchestrator - warm-up	
	1.9 Controller - match	
	1.10 Trainer	
	1.11 Teacher	
	1.12 Learner	
	1.13 Role modeller	
	1.14 Equipment controller	
	1.15 Advisor	
	1.16 Socialising agent	
	1.17 Disciplinarian	
	1.18 Developer of support network	
	1.19 Creator of representative pathways	<i>Helps players' personal representation goals</i>
		<i>Designs progressive pathways for individuals to progress to higher honours</i>

2. COACH QUALITIES	2.1 Communication skills	<i>Gets the message across</i>
		<i>Avoids mixed messages</i>
	2.2 Leadership skills	
	2.3 Knowledge	
	2.4 Managerial skills	
	2.5 Personal qualities	
	2.6 Attitudes	<i>Has a win at all costs attitude</i>
		<i>Appreciated family support</i>
	2.7 Motivational skills	<i>Understands player's personal motivations</i>
	<i>Understands players' individual goals</i>	
	2.8 Technical skills	

3. GENDER IMPACT	3.1 Gender beliefs and attitudes	<i>Understands players' perceptions and expectations of elite women's hockey coaches</i>
		<i>Understands preferred leadership styles and qualities</i>
		<i>Understands players' self-expectations</i>
	3.2 Physical myths and realities	
	3.3 Confidence and competence	<i>Develops women's self-esteem</i>
	3.4 Sex/Sexuality	<i>Avoids homophobic attitudes</i>

4. DEVELOPMENT OF COACHES	4.1 Recruitment factors	
	4.2 Coach's background	
	4.3 Personal circumstances of the coach	
	4.4 Retainment factors	
	4.5 Barrier jumpers	<i>Player preference for a male coach</i>
	4.6 Players	<i>Perceptions of stereotypical behaviour</i>
		<i>Gender of players' previous coaches</i>
		<i>Development of self-monitoring techniques</i>
		<i>Number of players involved in coaching</i>

Figure 7.20. Master list: categories and properties.

7.6 SUMMARY AND REVIEW

Data emerging from this chapter were subjected to critical review and analysis by means of grounded theory to generate categories and properties emerging from elite player's perceptions of elite coach roles and qualities and the impact of gender on such coaching domains.

The high response rate to the elite player questionnaire enabled the researcher to present the results of this chapter with a high degree of confidence. The elite player population contained many top-level players who had vast experience at many previous national tournaments, therefore, the players' perceptions of elite coaching roles and qualities added valuable perspectives to this current study.

The results suggest that elite women hockey players spend considerable time each week training and playing the game, yet they spend little time involved in coaching players at

any level. The majority of elite players had been coached by males to a greater extent than females, although most had experiences with both sexes of coach.

Elite players typically chose a large number of essential coach qualities confirming elite coach perceptions of essential qualities expressed in Chapter Six. Players' ranking of both roles and qualities of coaches reflected coach interview results from Chapter Six, suggesting qualities related to communication and leadership roles were perceived as being of paramount importance. Similarly, players' perceptions of coaching quality differences between male and female coaches included aspects of communication, game related skills and coach player relationships. Players' assessment of their own coach's knowledge in terms of gender specific issues highlighted several areas of difference between players' and coaches' perceptions of coaching knowledge, a finding that will be examined more fully in the Chapter Eight discussion.

CHAPTER EIGHT**DISCUSSION: FROM DATA TO THEORY**

This chapter presents the theoretical propositions arising from the three major phases of research into elite women's hockey, including participant observation, coach interviews and player questionnaires. These yielded data that were consequently grouped into categories and properties through the application of grounded theory. Theoretical propositions arising from consideration of the master list of categories and properties are then critically discussed before the chapter considers a model explicating the impact of gender in the setting of elite women's hockey.

- 8.1 Revisiting the setting
- 8.2 Elite women's hockey coaching: Theoretical propositions
- 8.3 Discussion
 - 8.3.1 Coach roles
 - 8.3.2 Coach qualities
 - 8.3.3 The impact of gender
 - 8.3.4 Coach development issues
- 8.4 Summary and review

8.1 REVISITING THE SETTING

As an elite player with a strong sense of hockey's continuity and development, and as a researcher with an awareness of sport being set against a historical backdrop paradoxically characterised by both tradition and change, I began the present study with an historical overview of the game. Initially hockey was an informal game, which became codified and institutionalised in Britain late in the nineteenth century. The game spread to New Zealand and, before the first decade of the twentieth century had ended, hockey was the focus of Saturday activity for many women, and men, in provincial towns and cities as overviewed in Chapter Two of this thesis. Although men were involved in women's hockey as managers, coaches and administrators from its inception, the gender balance was to swing towards women as the century moved into the 1950s. Indeed, during that era, the women's hockey international governing body, the IFWHA, prided itself on having women exclusively in roles as leaders, coaches and managers (Grant, 1984).

Changes to the historical New Zealand setting, including the move to artificial turf hockey, the increased need for greater funding associated with increased international competition and the associated trend towards a more professional sporting era, led to the fusion of women's and men's administrations in the late 1980s. These amalgamations, in turn,

coincided with other changes within women's hockey, which were noted particularly by women observers. These changes were investigated by the author (Edwards, 1993, 1997) and included the increasing trend for men to coach elite women's hockey, especially at the international level. Moving into the beginning of the year 2000, the decline of women in such roles is especially marked, with only two female coaches operating at the national league level of competition. Out of the six women's teams in the year 2000 competition, only one woman acted as head coach and another shared responsibilities as co-coach in partnership with a male (NZHF, 2000). Of the six men's teams, all had male coaches at the helm. Furthermore, it appeared that the trend towards men taking elite women's coaching roles was widespread in global terms, with few women coaching at Olympic or World Cup hockey tournaments.

Given my personal interest in hockey and in the development of women as coaches and players, I perceived a need for an investigation into the impact of such New Zealand hockey changes. My proposed inquiry into elite women's hockey coaching needed to more fully examine the role realities and essential qualities of elite level women's hockey coaches. The coaching literature did provide an outline of elite roles and qualities, based largely on male sporting environments, and provided an awareness of issues with potential to impact exclusively upon women in the elite sport setting. However, the literature review did not inform the researcher on the impact of men coaching women, or of the way male coaches and female players perceived each other, and how, in the absence of any research information, decisions about opportunities and development of women as elite coaches may be thoroughly considered.

Consideration of material in the literature review thus provided further impetus to conduct field research with the aim of answering the research question: *What are the roles and qualities of elite women's field hockey coaches and to what extent are these moderated by the impact of gender?*

The data-gathering phases of the research were chosen specifically to highlight participants' perceived realities, especially those of coaches, in the elite women's field hockey setting. The first and most extensive research phase included participant observation of elite women's hockey coaches working at the provincial and, to a limited degree, international level. Chapter Four provides a full discussion of data-gathering techniques, and the methodological factors to be considered when using grounded theory

and qualitative data. Further research phases included provincial coach interviews and provincial player questionnaires.

The field research results, presented in Chapters Five to Seven, generated categories and properties (see Chapter Four) as a result of the analysis of data using grounded theory. At all stages of the research, such critical analysis was combined with methodical self-reflections upon such data by the researcher, along with further review by key participants and the project's chief supervisor in order to maximise research accuracy, analysis and rigour.

8.2 THEORETICAL PROPOSITIONS

Each major phase of the present research generated categories and properties generated from the data were created through the application of grounded theory techniques. This discussion section is based upon the resultant master list of categories and properties, as shown in Chapter Seven (see p. 282). Thus, this master list provided the basis for the generation of theoretical propositions, as discussed in the methodology chapter (see Strauss & Corbin, 1994).

The participant observation of coaches in their roles with elite women's hockey teams over three hockey seasons, with data from coach interviews and elite player questionnaires, provided the basis for the following propositions that draw together the report's findings. The weight of the data was a deciding factor in the generation of categories and properties and their subsequent inclusion in the propositions. Not all properties were observed in every coach and not all factors were universal in applicability, but they are representative of those derived from significant evidence in this particular setting, across all phases of the research. It is in - and through - the theoretical propositions that the researcher's theory of gendered coaching emerges.

1. COACH ROLES

In carrying out the role of an elite women's hockey coach, the coach.....

1.1 Selector

- 1.1.1 Has sole or primary responsibility for selection of the final team.
- 1.1.2 Has the major task of selecting the captain or captains.
- 1.1.3 Consults with other coaches at the pre-elite or elite level about players' strengths and weaknesses.
- 1.1.4 Observes other elite or pre-elite level matches for selection purposes.
- 1.1.5 Has the responsibility for selection and naming of the starting line-up.
- 1.1.6 Decides on the key game roles each player will be assigned in training and at matches.
- 1.1.7 Identifies assistant personnel including a manager and/or assistant coach.

1.2 Planner

- 1.2.1 Is responsible for assessing and prioritising coach roles.
- 1.2.2 Is responsible for preparation of the season's match programme in conjunction with hockey administrators.
- 1.2.3 Is responsible for preparation of the season's training programme in conjunction with hockey administrators.
- 1.2.4 Plans each training session in accordance with the season's programme.
- 1.2.5 Approves players' individual fitness programmes.
- 1.2.6 Decides on time schedules for match and training days.

1.3 Leader

- 1.3.1 Leads the elite team, including the manager, assistant coach, captain, vice-captain, and players.
- 1.3.2 Has a clearly communicated vision for the team.
- 1.3.3 Has a coaching philosophy and style congruent with the vision.
- 1.3.4 Influences the team culture in keeping with the coach's vision and goals.
- 1.3.5 Sets goals for the team with input from other team members.
- 1.3.6 Makes decisions on behalf of the team.
- 1.3.7 Empowers players (helping them to think for themselves) and encourages players' input into goal setting and decision making.
- 1.3.8 Is aware of differences in leading women's elite hockey teams compared to men's.
- 1.3.9 Attempts to give equal attention to members of the team.

1.4 Manager

- 1.4.1 Is well organised
- 1.4.2 Organises group and team meetings.

- 1.4.3 Organises appropriate tasks for assistant in meetings and training sessions.
- 1.4.4 Has the responsibility for organising travel arrangements and occasionally providing transport for players.
- 1.4.5 Produces team documentation for players including: philosophies, visions, goals, match and training programmes, and team contact lists.
- 1.4.6 Is responsible for managing time schedules and encouraging team members to adhere to these.
- 1.4.7 Produces and explains job descriptions to captains and other support staff including managers.
- 1.4.8 Gives the players, with support, clearly defined areas of responsibility.
- 1.4.9 Records attendance of players at games and training sessions.
- 1.4.10 Liaises with hockey administrators on a regular basis.
- 1.4.11 Liaises with diverse sources of support within and outside hockey.
- 1.4.12 Liaises with match officials including umpires and ground staff.

1.5 Analyser

- 1.5.1 Analyses how the team functions, and notes the strengths and weaknesses of individual players.
- 1.5.2 Analyses opposition teams and individual players.
- 1.5.3 Organises a systematic approach to observing, recording, and analysing changes within elite women's hockey.
- 1.5.4 Is responsible for critical review of feedback received from players and other sources.
- 1.5.5 Undertakes video analysis of their own and other women's hockey teams to gain independent evidence for comparison with coach and player perceptions of match play.
- 1.5.6 Utilises match statistics to aid analysis and provide critical feedback.
- 1.5.7 Analyses individual player's hockey skills and provides appropriate feedback and advice on identified strengths and weaknesses.

1.6 Communicator

- 1.6.1 Communicates selection matters with team members.
- 1.6.2 Presents team strategies and tactics for the match.
- 1.6.3 Listens to responses from team members and others, for possible consideration.
- 1.6.4 Uses questions to check clear understandings of strategies, tactics, and individual player roles.
- 1.6.5 Gives feedback on strategies, perceived player efforts, skills and match outcomes.
- 1.6.6 Utilises a range of feedback techniques including positive reinforcement and instructions, to help players improve.
- 1.6.7 Joins the team in verbal celebrations when goals are achieved.

- 1.6.8 Facilitates group discussions, including summarising key points, providing concluding statements, and moderating arguments and occasional outbursts.
- 1.6.9 Encourages all players to contribute to discussions on team matters.
- 1.6.10 Conducts one-to-one talks with players on individual and team-related aspects of the game.
- 1.6.11 Has the responsibility to speak to the media.
- 1.6.12 Communicates openly with the captain.

1.7 Pre-match preparer

- 1.7.1 Has the sole responsibility to prepare the pre-match team talk.
- 1.7.2 Provides motivational information in the team talk and reminds players of their team and individual visions and goals.
- 1.7.3 Uses the team talk to prioritise goals for the particular match at hand.
- 1.7.4 Designs effective strategies and tactics for the match.
- 1.7.5 Designs set plays relevant to their selected, and opposition, players.
- 1.7.6 Reminds on-field controllers of their set play responsibilities.

1.8 Orchestrator of the warm-up

- 1.8.1 Designs, explains and sets up equipment for warm-up drills.
- 1.8.2 Talks with individuals to reaffirm pre-match talks about on-field responsibilities and roles.
- 1.8.3 Calls the timing of each stage of the warm-up drills.
- 1.8.4 Reiterates the main points of the pre-match team talk immediately prior to the game.

1.9 Controller of the match

- 1.9.1 Designs the match strategy and tactics.
- 1.9.2 Observes the match with intense concentration and makes match notes.
- 1.9.3 Provides sideline calls aimed at providing feedback and/or instructions to field players.
- 1.9.4 Has the sole responsibility for organising positional changes and/or making substitutions, as well as motivating on-bench players to watch the game and physically warm up if necessary.
- 1.9.5 Prepares the half-time talk and prioritises on-field changes.

1.10 Trainer

- 1.10.1 Designs the training session and instructional goals.
- 1.10.2 Allocates appropriate times to each portion of the session.
- 1.10.3 Motivates and encourages players in new or difficult drills or strategic plays.
- 1.10.4 Sets goals for the session and each part of the session and reminds players of these at regular intervals.
- 1.10.5 Encourages player input into the training session.

- 1.10.6 Directs assistants to carry out specific tasks in each session.
- 1.10.7 Demonstrates skills and techniques to a high degree of proficiency.
- 1.10.8 Relates training aspects to match-related realities.
- 1.10.9 Umpires small games.

1.11 Teacher

- 1.11.1 Teaches new skills and strategies.
- 1.11.2 Relates familiar skills to new drills and skills.
- 1.11.3 Reviews previously learnt drills and skills.

1.12 Learner

- 1.12.1 Attends coaching clinics to learn new aspects of the game.
- 1.12.2 Tries new strategies and learns by experience.
- 1.12.3 Asks for help and advice from other people.
- 1.12.4 Recognises the need for appropriate training and seeks out opportunities for learning.

1.13 Role modeller

- 1.13.1 Enacts a professional approach to the role of coach.
- 1.13.2 Demonstrates a belief in fair play attitudes.
- 1.13.3 Accepts losses with equanimity.
- 1.13.4 Shows a caring attitude towards members of their own and opposition teams.
- 1.13.5 Uses the ability to demonstrate hockey skills, positional attributes and tactics with confidence.
- 1.13.6 Espouses equitable gender beliefs.

1.14 Equipment controller

- 1.14.1 Has the responsibility for team equipment.
- 1.14.2 Retrieves balls from the pitch and counts them at the end of the session.
- 1.14.3 Arranges cones to correctly delimit areas or provide a course for the practice of drills and strategies.
- 1.14.4 Sets up and operates the video equipment.
- 1.14.5 Uses long range communication equipment at the national team level.
- 1.14.6 Uses a stop-watch for accurate match time-keeping and whistle in case umpiring is necessary.

1.15 Advisor

- 1.15.1 Advises players on technical aspects of new or established skills and tactics.
- 1.15.2 Advises players on strategic moves and relates these to the team philosophies.
- 1.15.3 Advises players on physiological requirements of the game.
- 1.15.4 Advises players on psychological aspects of the game.

1.16 Socialising agent

- 1.16.1 Socialises with players after matches.
- 1.16.2 Exchanges personal information with players in social settings.
- 1.16.3 Expresses interest in each player as a person.
- 1.16.4 Has the ability to retain social distance when appropriate.

1.17 Disciplinarian

- 1.17.1 Reprimands players who disobey team philosophy or deliberately ignore instructions.
- 1.17.2 Reminds players of the importance of punctuality.
- 1.17.3 Demands and enforces total focus from players.
- 1.17.4 Pressures players to achieve goals in the matches and at training.
- 1.17.5 Reminds players of acceptable social standards associated with elite women's hockey.

1.18 Developer of support network

- 1.18.1 Seeks other elite coaches and players for discussions on women's hockey.
- 1.18.2 Makes an effort to find personal coach mentors and/or role models.
- 1.18.3 Brings own partner into the support role and uses their support.
- 1.18.4 Develops informal networks within women's elite sport, including linkages with other codes.
- 1.18.5 Creates new ways of interacting with other elite coaches.

1.19 Creator of representative pathways

- 1.19.1 Helps players identify personal representation goals.
- 1.19.2 Helps to design progressive pathways for individual players to progress to higher representative honours.
- 1.19.3 Understands the individual requirements of success at higher levels.
- 1.19.4 Maintains a cordial relationship with higher level coaches and selectors.

2. COACH QUALITIES

In carrying out the role of elite team coach, the coach's essential qualities include.....

2.1 Communication skills

- 2.1.1 Communicating effectively in a group setting.
- 2.1.2 Using high levels of facilitation and presentation skills.
- 2.1.3 Communicating effectively with individuals.
- 2.1.4 Encouraging player contributions and questions on all aspects of play.
- 2.1.5 Understanding empathetic communication.
- 2.1.6 Using non-verbal communication skills.

- 2.1.7 Being familiar with women's hockey terminology.
- 2.1.8 Communicating effectively with women and people from diverse cultural backgrounds.
- 2.1.9 Giving consistent verbal and non-verbal messages.
- 2.1.10 Using non-gender-specific language.
- 2.1.11 Controlling the emotional component of communication.

2.2 Leadership skills

- 2.2.1 Having a clear vision for the team
- 2.2.2 Having a strong philosophy for the elite team which the team accepts.
- 2.2.3 Setting goals in accord with the philosophy and relating directly to the vision.
- 2.2.4 Having a high level of personal integrity.
- 2.2.5 Respecting team members.
- 2.2.6 Empathising with players.
- 2.2.7 Helping to instil pride in the team.

2.3 Knowledge

- 2.3.1 Thoroughly understanding hockey skills and strategies.
- 2.3.2 Understanding the laws of the game in-depth.
- 2.3.3 Understanding physiological, psychological and health safety issues.
- 2.3.4 Understanding pedagogical principles and differing learning styles.
- 2.3.5 Knowing the historical and social context of elite women's field hockey.
- 2.3.6 Understanding women's issues in wider societal contexts.
- 2.3.7 Understanding lesbian issues including homophobic discrimination and stereotypical personal and societal beliefs.
- 2.3.8 Knowing the sport administration's sexual harassment policies.

2.4 Managerial skills

- 2.4.1 Co-ordinating input from all team members and delegating or sharing roles.
- 2.4.2 Planning effectively.
- 2.4.3 Managing change.
- 2.4.4 Using time management skills.
- 2.4.5 Employing effective interpersonal skills.
- 2.4.6 Enjoying working with people.
- 2.4.7 Relating positively to the team manager.
- 2.4.8 Being flexible.

2.5 Personal qualities

- 2.5.1 Exhibiting affirmative personal qualities such as honesty, openness, politeness, an outwardly friendly disposition, an encouraging demeanour, and a sense of humour.
- 2.5.2 Treating team members fairly and consistently.

- 2.5.3 Being adaptable and quick to problem solve.
- 2.5.4 Possessing a high level of self-confidence.
- 2.5.5 Being confident and competent at public speaking.
- 2.5.6 Making personal sacrifices for the team.
- 2.5.7 Being diplomatic.
- 2.5.8 Treating certain situations with objectivity.
- 2.5.9 Being inspirational.
- 2.5.10 Having high moral standards.
- 2.5.11 Avoiding sexual harassment/ relationships with team members.
- 2.5.12 Recognising and accepting diversity among team members.

2.6 Attitudes

- 2.6.1 Embodying a positive attitude at all times.
- 2.6.2 Displaying a fair play attitude and treating members of the opposition teams with respect.
- 2.6.3 Demonstrating a professional attitude towards all aspects of the role of elite coach.
- 2.6.4 Being committed to women's hockey.
- 2.6.5 Having a preference for coaching women rather than men.
- 2.6.6 Showing a caring attitude towards team members.
- 2.6.7 Exhibiting high moral/ethical standards in the women's team setting.
- 2.6.8 Accepting sexual diversity within the team.
- 2.6.9 Accepting individuals from all cultures and backgrounds.
- 2.6.10 Avoiding sexually stereotypical behaviour.
- 2.6.11 Publicly expressing beliefs about the equality of women in society.
- 2.6.12 Accepting the importance of family matters in players' lives.
- 2.6.13 Exhibiting a strong goal orientation towards winning.
- 2.6.14 Including wider social concerns for group discussions, such as team attitudes to the consumption of alcohol.

2.7 Motivational skills

- 2.7.1 Motivating self and team members.
- 2.7.2 Understanding individual player's motivations.
- 2.7.3 Understanding player's individual goals and achievement of these within team culture.
- 2.7.4 Facilitating players to empower themselves.

2.8 Technical skills

- 2.8.1 Possessing a high level of hockey skills.
- 2.4.9 Operating video and computer equipment.

3. GENDER IMPACT

Gender impacts on the elite women's hockey team in terms of.....

3.1 Gendered beliefs and attitudes

- 3.1.1 Coach's perceptions and expectations of elite women hockey players.
- 3.1.2 Players' perceptions and expectations of elite women's hockey coaches.
- 3.1.3 Players' self-expectations.
- 3.1.4 Preferred leadership qualities and styles.
- 3.1.5 Coach-player power differentials and interpretations of power.
- 3.1.6 Cross-gendered communication issues.
 - 3.1.6.1 Female team manager roles in communicating with women players.
 - 3.1.6.2 Women having different ways of giving and receiving match feedback.
 - 3.1.6.3 Using lesbian friendly terminology.
- 3.1.7 Perceived family/ social responsibilities
 - 3.1.7.1 Women having less sideline support from partners than do their male counterparts.
 - 3.1.7.2 Women bringing children to the matches.

3.2 Physical myths and realities

- 3.4.6 Confronting fragility myths.
 - 3.4.6.1 Perceptions of women's upper body strength.
 - 3.4.6.2 Perceptions of women's speed.
 - 3.4.6.3 Perceptions of "women's game".
 - 3.4.6.4 Perceptions of female player aerobic fitness levels.
- 3.4.7 Coach and player perceptions of physical effort in training sessions and games.
- 3.4.8 Women needing toilet availability before a match.
- 3.4.9 Weight loss or gain and player adherence to safe nutritional guidelines.
- 3.4.10 Menstruation and its effect on some players.
- 3.4.11 Pregnancy as an issue for some players and coaches.
- 3.4.12 The need for coaches to understand and share responsibility for female players' physiological training and development

3.3 Confidence and competence

- 3.3.1 External indicators
 - 3.3.1.1 The scheduling of women's matches as curtain raisers to men's matches.
 - 3.3.1.2 Women's matches having fewer spectators in attendance.
 - 3.3.1.3 Women's games having less media coverage than men's games.
 - 3.3.1.4 Women providing their own after-match hospitality.
- 3.3.2 Internal indicators
 - 3.3.2.1 Women's self-esteem development.

- 3.3.2.2 Women's sensitivity to body image.
- 3.3.2.3 Selection into the starting line-up
- 3.3.2.4 Ownership of certain field positions.
- 3.3.2.5 Length of time on the playing field.
- 3.3.2.6 Allocation of key roles in match plays.
- 3.3.3 Learning styles
 - 3.3.3.1 Women's motivation to learn and appreciation of individual help.
 - 3.3.3.2 Women being receptive to new ideas, tactics, and skills.
 - 3.3.3.3 Women's attentiveness in team meetings.
 - 3.3.3.4 Women exhibiting different types of pre-match focus from men.
 - 3.3.3.5 Women's ability to follow the game plan more reliably than men.
- 3.3.4 Women's need for sport psychologists.

3.4 Sex and sexuality

- 3.4.1 Acceptance of lesbianism in elite women's hockey.
- 3.4.2 Stereotypical perceptions of lesbians.
- 3.4.3 Sexuality and self-esteem.
- 3.4.4 Homophobic attitudes of coaches and players.
- 3.4.5 The possibility of sexual relationships occurring between coach and players.
- 3.4.6 Awareness of sexual harassment issues.
- 3.4.7 Respect for players' privacy.
- 3.4.8 Players' attitudes towards wearing tight fitting and/or revealing uniforms.
- 3.4.9 The use of sex appeal to market or promote the game.

4. DEVELOPING COACHES FOR ELITE WOMEN'S HOCKEY TEAMS

The factors that need to be considered when recruiting and developing coaches for elite women's hockey are.....

4.1 Recruitment

- 4.1.1 Creating and maintaining an elite coach database.
- 4.1.2 Asking/encouraging coaches to apply for positions.
- 4.1.3 Presenting a strong case outlining the benefits of the coaching role.
- 4.1.4 Developing suitable job descriptions, coaching pathways, and appropriate mechanisms of feedback.
- 4.1.5 Linking the job description to the expectations of administrators.
- 4.1.6 Developing appropriate coach selection processes.
- 4.1.7 Establishing mechanisms to evaluate coaches and providing appropriate feedback.
- 4.1.8 Aligning the coaching job with the coach's preference for coaching men or women.

4.2 Coach's background

- 4.2.1 The level of former playing ability.
- 4.2.2 The transfer of skills from paid employment.
- 4.2.3 Prior coaching experience (level and gender).
- 4.2.4 The gender and perceived abilities of previous coaches.
- 4.2.5 Previous role models/mentors

4.3 Personal circumstances of the coach

- 4.3.1 The coach's current partner status.
- 4.3.2 The coach's employment status.
- 4.3.3 The coach's time availability.
- 4.3.4 The coach's family commitments, including their number of children.
- 4.3.5 The coach's age and health status.

4.4 Retention

- 4.4.1 Developing formal educational coaching courses.
- 4.4.2 Developing formal educational manager courses.
- 4.4.3 Encouraging coaches to join informal coaching networks.
- 4.4.4 Enrolling coaches on formal coaching pathways.
- 4.4.5 Initiating or continuing formal or informal mentoring schemes.
- 4.4.6 Encouraging elite coach-coach observations.
- 4.4.7 Encouraging administrators and players to thank the coach.

4.5 Barrier jumpers

- 4.5.1 Focusing on challenge as a positive experience.
- 4.5.2 Being aware of perceived player preference for a male coach.
- 4.5.3 Understanding the competitive nature of relationships between coaches.
- 4.5.4 Helping coaches to gain experience with female and male players.
- 4.5.5 Providing guidelines for first coach experiences with women's teams.
- 4.5.6 Identifying potential mentors.
- 4.5.7 Establishing elite coaching networks.
- 4.5.8 Providing child-care assistance.
- 4.5.9 Providing financial assistance.

4.6 Players

- 4.6.1 Being aware of perceptions of sexually stereotypical behaviour.
- 4.6.2 Encouraging players to coach during and after their playing careers.
- 4.6.3 Encouraging players to contribute to coaching discussions.
- 4.6.4 Helping players to use self-monitoring techniques.
- 4.6.5 Utilising players as role models.

8.3 DISCUSSION

The fundamental research question guiding this present study aimed to discover the essential roles and qualities of an elite women's field hockey coach and examine the impact of gender in that environment. The present chapter will critically reflect upon the theoretical propositions from the three main phases of this study (participant observations, elite coach interviews and elite player questionnaires). Literature on elite coaching reviewed in this present thesis will be drawn upon to place the findings in the broader context of coaching and expand the coaching research nexus.

This study represents the first time an elite women's team sport in Australasia has been subjected to participant research, enabling an *in vivo* critical examination of gender and sport dimensions previously ignored, and complements the research of Theberge (1995a, 1997) in her examinations of an elite women's ice hockey team. This current study has ascertained perspectives of male and female coaches of women's teams, as well as eliciting perspectives of the elite players themselves. This inductive process has given the researcher an understanding of the two-dimensional aspects of gender in this particular sport setting. The present thesis allows a better understanding of factors which intersect socially constructed concepts of gender and elite sport.

Critical reflection on the theoretical propositions provides a sense that there are important implications arising from this study for those who develop coaches for elite women's hockey teams. It appears from the present study that men need to develop a greater understanding of women in terms of some coaching roles and qualities and that in order to maximise the coaching experience and reach team goals, consideration of such needs may be important. It also appears, given the small number of women coaching at the elite level and the perspectives of the study's participants, that more could be done to support women who coach at this level.

This study now reflects on the roles delineated in the theoretical propositions, and then discusses the other categories arising from the results: coach qualities, the impact of gender, and coach development issues.

8.3.1 Coach roles

Essential coach roles determined from this current study are congruent with results from previous elite studies (McConnell, 1996; Salmela, 1994a, 1994b) and those noted in general coaching literature (Cross & Lyle, 1999; Martens, 1997; Pyke, 1997). Key roles included selection, planning, management, leadership, analysis and communication. The emergence of practical roles of the coach such as trainer, and controlling warm-ups, matches and post match phases of the game, was also noted in this current research.

Thus the present research reflected the broad pattern of literature on elite coach roles, with field data and embedded perspectives found in the cross-gendered coaching sphere of elite women's hockey.

It may be significant that, within the context of elite women's sport, numerous questions arose throughout the research process about the efficacy of males coaching females at the elite level in terms of certain categories of roles, namely men's understanding of women's communication styles. These, in turn, have implications for the development of men who coach elite women's teams. Conversely, the research also threw up questions, as seen earlier in this chapter, on the perceived lack of women coaches available at the elite level.

The coach roles in selection of the team and selection of the starting line-up were critical in the elite women's hockey setting. The ability for a coach to select the best players, concomitant with the coach's vision, and in congruence with mutual goals of the team and coach, is integral to this. Additionally, selection of the captain and manager were also important considerations for the coach at an elite level. Cross-gendered situations, where a male coach leads a female team, made the selections of an appropriate manager an even more important priority. Coach 5 described his reliance on his female manager who "handled all the women's stuff, menstruation and that type of thing". Appropriate identification, selection, appointment, and training of female managers for elite women's hockey should, therefore, be an administrative priority, given the recent decline of women in elite coaching roles.

Talent identification has been included in numerous texts discussing roles of the coach. Lyle (1999a) highlighted the importance of talent identification in terms of performance planning, and also notes that "this apparently simplistic process, masks a range of issues of selection, poaching, partiality, buying, timing and equity" (p. 245). One incident of talent

identification in action was observed from the provincial perspective of scouting for future team members but did not strongly appear in subsequent field research. For example, Larry carefully watched a rival province's B team on one occasion, specifically because he had been told by one of his team members that a "feisty young goal scorer" was moving to his home town for tertiary education purposes.

Selection issues were also seen from the national coach viewpoint as New Zealand selectors were observed at the provincial games. Whereas national coaches were up-front in watching up-and-coming hockey talent, the provincial coaches were more covert in their approaches to outsiders and on another occasion a coach was overheard asking a senior player to "scout for talent". It is possible that the coaches of provincial teams believed they needed to engage in searching for potential players whereas the national coach had all provincial teams leading into the New Zealand eleven.

Leadership of the team, and the ability to provide a realistic and communicable vision for the team, was a key role of coaches noted in the literature (see, for example, Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978, 1980; Cross, 1999; McConnell, 1996, 1999). Coach-facilitated team meetings, coach-led discussions, and the use of external expertise provided the coach with settings to focus upon appropriate visions and goals. The input of experienced players, such as the captain and vice captain, appeared to be crucial to this process in some teams, but not in all cases. The manager's input to such goals was also dependent on the coach/manager relationship and the perceived roles of both parties.

Coaches attempted to use their close relationships with teams and individuals to move the group towards realisation of their visions and goals, by carrying out coaching roles in accordance with coach and team philosophies. The main objective of the coaches who were subjects in the participation observation phase of research was to have a successful outcome both in terms of winning and improvement of important aspects of the game. Although this dual objective was not always achieved, because the teams did not always win the match, aspects of improvement or individual success were referred to in the subsequent post-match evaluations. Other dimensions of the leadership role, such as the empowerment of women players and the peculiarities of men leading women's teams were noted, and are highlighted more fully later in this discussion.

Communication was seen as a crucial role of the elite women's hockey coach, which reflects ideas portrayed in previous elite coach research (Bloom, Schinke, Salmela, 1997; McConnell, 1996), general coaching literature (Martens, 1997; Pyke, 1997; Woodman, 1993), and the New Zealand Hockey Federation's national coach job description (NZHF, 1997c), suggesting that such responsibilities are paramount. Players and coaches in this current study rated the coach role of communicator and the possession of communication skills, as critical factors in the elite team environment. Furthermore, this study provides evidence that perceived gender differences in communication may impact on the elite coaching environment in women's hockey, especially given the belief by some players that male coaches were "poor communicators", and the belief by coaches that some female players did not like critical feedback and avoided one-on-one sessions in favour of group feedback.

Participant observations provided evidence of this coach-player communication confusion. For example, one provincial coach, Larry, spent several minutes during one pre-match team talk explaining "the squeeze" and having received an affirmative answer to his query "Do you understand?" assumed the players had grasped the concept clearly. The researcher's question, to one key player, after the team-talk, indicated her confusion about when and how to apply the strategy in the forthcoming game.

Communication difficulties appeared to be present on both sides of the coach-player equation and included incidents such as that recalled by the national assistant coach, describing the "delegation" that appeared in the coaches' room to discuss player dissatisfaction after the New Zealand team's loss to a lower ranked opponent at the 1998 World Cup. Other examples of communication difficulties will be discussed more fully later in this discussion during the examination of gender perceptions of coaches and players.

Gender differences were also described in terms of language, and recorded hockey terminology, which differed between the women and men's games. Men who move across coaching's gender divide, between their own experientially familiar men's hockey to the women's side of the game, should be made aware of these female players' perceptions about communication factors.

Teaching and advising are elite team coach roles shown to be very important for the progressive improvement of skills and tactical awareness by elite sport researchers (Bloom, 1996; Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997; Kane, 1997; McConnell, 1996), and hockey writers (Glencross, 1984; Wein, 1973, 1981), but only rarely observed in this current study's research observations of elite hockey settings. The teaching role was demonstrated in the match and training session settings, but the attention given to individual player differences was less than that expected when one takes into account the wider coaching literature (see McConnell, 1996). No coaches were observed to consider different learning styles of players and yet several coaches, during the interviews, made criticisms of women's ability to problem solve and inability to accept a flexible "think outside the square" approach. It appeared male coaches tried to treat women the same as they would treat men but were frustrated with the inability of women in certain areas, especially women players' perceived lack of "trying hard" and putting in "one hundred percent physical effort".

Evidence of friendships between coaches and players were recorded during elite coach observations and confirmed by coach interviews. Coach Larry freely admitted he liked his two captains and thought of them as friends, and the three were seen to share each other's company in a social setting after matches. Larry expressed his belief, during an interview, that friendship with the players was linked to positive perceptions about the role of coach, and he felt he managed to "move between being a friend and a coach without a problem". Contrasting evidence is provided by Canadian researcher Marion Lay (1993b) who suggests elite female players may find it difficult to step outside the team and become "the coach" due to the sudden change in friendship linkages associated with the move from insider (player) to outsider (coach). This link between friendship and recruitment of females into coaching positions may therefore require further research.

The provincial coaches carried out the majority of their roles alone and unaided. Some of the coaching roles elicited from provincial coaches in the current study were managerial in nature and not reflected in McConnell's (1996) elite team rugby coaching roles. Managerial type roles for example, overseeing the organisation of transport or social arrangements, were often the responsibility of the coaches and not the managers as might have been expected in coaching literature (see Chu & Hadfield, 1997, for example). The consequences of enacting such an expanded elite coaching role with managerial duties, for

a woman who is the sole caregiver for a family and/or full time worker, may prevent women being recruited into elite team coaching ranks.

In contrast, the national coaches in this study appeared to be part of an integrated and experienced management team, which included a manager responsible for completing managerial type roles, and a physiotherapist. Despite this help from extra staff, national level coaches undertook added responsibilities, including detailed video analysis of the matches, co-ordination of outside specialists, and increased contact with the media. For example, the national team employed the services of a sports psychologist and, although contact was only occasional, the importance of psychological issues to many aspects of elite hockey suggests the relationships with professional sports specialists may be crucial in terms of added benefits for elite hockey competitors.

Participant observation data provided evidence for the large number of roles that coaches undertook during the season. Discussion in the literature highlights problematic issues such as role conflict (Hart et al., 1986) and burnout (Dale & Weinberg, 1989; Edwards, 1993; Lovett & Lowry, 1988; Pastore & Judd, 1993). Role conflicts were a constant battle for many of the elite coaches under observation, and were highlighted by Moana, who was observed on many occasions simultaneously carrying out the roles of driver, manager, mother, and coach. These sorts of pressures raise considerations of the recruitment and retention of female coaches especially, given the fact that elite players may become aware of possible role conflicts and be discouraged from taking up the role of coach in the future.

Further discussions of such a finding from this study may centre on whether such an extensive list of coach roles is too many for one person, and whether some of the roles should be off-loaded to the captain or other leaders within the team, or given to the manager. Participant observations highlighted in Chapter Five illustrate the huge daily work output completed by the head and assistant national coaches during an international test series. The day began early with team meetings over breakfast and ended in the small hours of the next day while video analysis was completed. The need for further personnel and/or specialised technological help should be considered in order to reduce the large number of coach roles at the elite level.

Given the limited time that women's teams are together for a field hockey test series, the ability to organise and appropriately manage time is an important consideration for the role of the elite coach. In this regard, it should be noted that the collection, arrangement and counting of equipment was an especially time consuming role for the elite coach, and one observed in all cases of participant observation, including the national level. Given the time pressure that coaches appeared to be under, and given the lack of one-on-one communication with players, this aspect should be considered as another role in action that should be delegated to another person. It may be beneficial to delegate the control of expensive balls and other equipment to an assistant with sole responsibility for this role. A learner or intern coach may well be able to fulfil this type of role and gain valuable elite hockey experience at the same time.

Assistants may also be developed in conjunction with other categories of the elite coach role, for example in talent identification and career advice for players who have strong aspirations towards higher representative honours. Similarly, the role of the captain may need to be expanded to assist the coach in a variety of ways, particularly when the gender of the players and their captain is different from that of the coach. None of the coaches volunteered any particular development plan for the captain. Indeed only one coach saw the captain as an informant on particular aspects such as women's physiology or other concerns raised in the coach interviews. Captains have been shown to be key people in elite teams (McConnell, 1996) and yet the coaches in this study have not volunteered or demonstrated fully their ability to utilise these people effectively.

Given the large number of coaching roles identified in this study, the ability to prioritise these and effectively move into each role as required appears to be an important coach quality. Participant observations suggested that moves from roles such as friend, to advisor, to disciplinarian occur over short time periods and, therefore, success at the elite level could be influenced by the coach's ability to recognise the appropriate role for particular team situations (see Chelladurai, 1990; McConnell, 1999). This finding supports Dick's (1997) concept of the coach as a "transformer"; in effect, a lead coordinator of many helpers and advisors, with each being aligned to the athlete's goals.

8.3.2 Coach qualities

As with coach roles, the qualities that emerged from this current study appeared to be reflective of those outlined by earlier research studies (Hastie & Hanrahan, 1993; Madden, 1994; McConnell, 1996). Key qualities that emerged from the data were those underpinning the main roles, and included communication and leadership skills, the possession of useful knowledge, suitable attitudes, technical abilities, a large number of personal qualities, and many related skills in the areas of communication, leadership, and management.

Communication skills were identified through all phases of the research as being an essential elite coach quality. Participant observations offered numerous examples of verbal explanations of complicated strategic plans, especially those in player terminology known as the "squeeze". The failure of many players to fully understand such tactics, as determined by their inability to carry out on-field roles, illustrated the importance of communication pathways.

Leadership qualities, such as the development of a team vision and philosophy, along with the ability to motivate players to accept this vision, were critical aspects drawn from the analysis of data. Interviews with provincial coaches indicated their belief that leadership qualities were among the most essential (see p. 221) and yet the NZHF (1997c) job description for the national coach position did not mention such qualities. Furthermore, observations of many cases of debate and discussion between players and coaches, in regard to tactics and strategy, confirmed the existence of empowering behaviour alluded to by sport psychologist Brian Miller (as cited in Taggart, 1991). Consultative behaviour by elite coaches was noted in coach interviews in the present research, which provided evidence suggesting coach-player relationships were reciprocally empowering processes in many teams.

It may be argued that personal qualities consistent with high moral values are extremely important for male coaches of female sportswomen, given the findings in this study. Two male coaches reported occasions where sexually motivated incidents had occurred, one had been approached for sex by a player in his team, and the other had been reported to the association by a player who alleged a sexual liaison had taken place between herself and her elite coach. Furthermore, four players strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement "Coach does not harass me" and despite the extremely small numbers of such

negative responses, the fact that any player feels they are harassed is worthy of note. Although the term "sexual" was not added to the harassment statement, the possibility that coaches may sexually harass players has been reported in many elite New Zealand sports where cross-gendered coaching relationships exist, including athletics (Perrott, 2000) and field hockey ("Tom Leigh dies," 1999).

Although no incidences of harassment were observed during the participant observation phase of research, the fact that three out of twelve provincial coach interviewees reported incidents involving sexual "crushes", sexual intercourse allegations or invitations, suggests further consideration of this factor may be advisable. Administrators may need to consider the implementation of coach and player safeguards, such as including discussions on appropriate coach-player relationships in coach development courses, and supporting further research in this area.

Coach attitudes, as deduced from the data in this study, indicated the importance of the coach being positive, having a fair play attitude, and exemplifying positive attitudes towards coaching women, women's hockey, and women in the wider context of New Zealand society. One example of a male coach's understanding of the importance of family matters was provided in an elite setting when a player brought her twin babies to national tournament. In this instance the coach willingly accepted this situation and in doing so, acknowledged the multiplicity of roles women in elite sport often undertake.

In contrast, many coaches showed they had little understanding of women's issues in society. This may be one area where female captains may be able to help the male coach. The importance of choosing team captains, who possess appropriate personal skills and a good sense of moral responsibility, is reinforced by the apparent vulnerability of some male coaches. Certainly the essential qualities chosen by large numbers of coaches and players indicate such qualities as communication skills, leadership skills, and personal values are highly rated.

The final comment on this study's findings, in terms of coach and captain roles and qualities, is concern over the level of awareness about these two concepts (see also, Iversen, 1997). Coaches need to be made aware of the elite coach's essential roles as related to, but distinct from, the essential qualities they need to develop in order to carry out those roles more effectively.

8.3.3 The impact of gender

The coach roles and qualities complemented and reinforced existing research findings, and provided additional context-specific considerations on cross-gendered coaching. However, the gender results were not as readily available in the literature. Gender impact and its resultant properties and theoretical propositions revealed, arguably, a more significant range of considerations for sports administrators, researchers and theorists.

The dominance of male appointments to elite women's hockey coach positions has been noted throughout this current study. Recent national team coaching appointments, in women's rugby, cricket, softball, and the New Zealand women's hockey team, have led to an increased awareness of problematic issues surrounding gendered coaching (Cameron, 2000), arising increasingly since the amalgamation of women's and men's hockey more than a decade ago (Edwards, 1993). Images of men in elite coaching roles have also been examined by academic writers from other cultures (see, for example, Doupona & Bon 1999; Lay, 1993b; McCallum, 1991; White & Brackenridge, 1984).

Despite these examples being apparent in the literature, it appears that implicit warnings about the dominance of men are not considered by practitioners in the field of elite sport. It would appear that the full ramifications of gender amalgamations for women in elite coaching positions need to be considered by other New Zealand sports, and yet examples of what may prove to be naïve attitudes towards such amalgamations are still occurring. Lawn bowls is one example of a sport that has encouraged their gender separate international bodies to follow their "path finding role in bringing together men and women" (Maddaford, 2000), apparently without a full consideration of possible long-term consequences for women in leadership positions such as that of coach.

Feminists may consider amalgamation of women and men's associations to be counterproductive in terms of power differentials shown to impact on women's traditional experiences in sport. Indeed socio-historical examinations of gender, in particular the recent research on the conditions and experiences of embodiment in society, are viewed by some to be "of central importance to sport historians for understanding difference, domination and subversion" (Vertinsky, 1999, p. 25). That women have encountered such discriminatory understandings of masculinity and femininity is pungently illustrated by one reporter who wrote: "One can pretty well gather from the pages of the press and the frankly expressed opinions one hears in society what the things are that men most strongly

object to in girls of today. The opinion is pretty unanimous against the masculine girl" ("Masculine girls," 2000, p. A3).

This study has produced evidence that socially constructed concepts of gender are still very much extant in the realm of women's hockey where they impact on participants' perceptions about roles and qualities of elite coaches. Women's hockey, like all sport, is thus socially constructed and feels the impact of such archetypal beliefs.

Gender impacts and the archetypal model

The impact of gender, as theorised from data collation in this current study, is shown diagrammatically in Figure 8.1 as an "archetype" described by Sinclair (1998) as a "powerful image or understanding which exists in the collective unconscious of groups of people" (p. 30). At the risk of oversimplification, this diagram outlines the researcher's perceptions of such a "gender archetype" in terms of New Zealand society, that is the beliefs, practices, and images constructed within New Zealand society on the basis of gender.

Having been immersed in the field for a considerable period, the researcher suggests that the gender archetype arises from a wide range of femininity concepts constructed in our society, and acts to moderate interactions occurring between males and females. Rosener (1997, p. 211) explains this phenomena as "sexual static" which acts like "snow on the television set or noise on the radio – it causes interference with messages being communicated" and is created by gender differences deeply rooted in cultural and societal factors.

The researcher also perceives the model proposed in Figure 8.1 in three dimensional terms in which the model could be made up of real objects and illustrated using such icons as lipstick, stockings, Barbie dolls, and diet pills. Alternatively, the gender archetype could be construed as a representation of intangible values assigned to the meanings that women have in a gendered society (Daley & Montgomerie, 1999). For example, this could bring to mind gender inequality issues such as: the expectations New Zealand has for girls and women; sexuality stereotypes; limitations on women's achievements; society's unwritten rules for female behaviour; gendered dress codes; the lack of media coverage of women's sport. It is proposed that any issues which differentiate people on the basis of their gender contribute to the archetype.

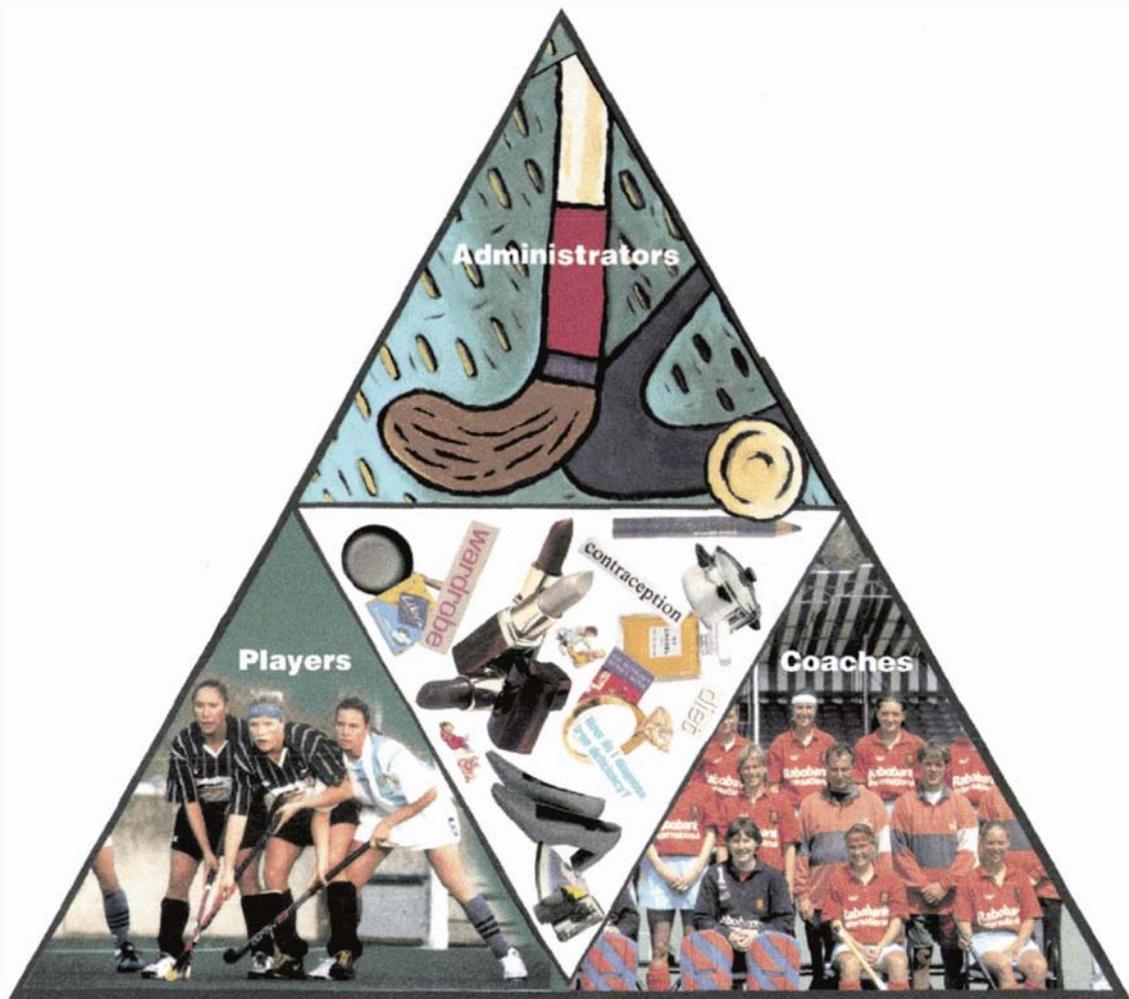


Figure 8.2. The gender archetype in the context of elite women's field hockey.

Critical reflection upon the gender archetype in terms of elite women's hockey has helped the researcher to express considerations in a diagrammatic form, and especially to indicate the two significant dimensions of archetype impact. The first is the macro level of impact bearing the full range of societal values and complexities of gender relationships within the society wider than that of elite women's field hockey. The extent to which this societal gender archetype exists is depicted diagrammatically by the density of material inside the archetype.

The second factor for consideration is the path through the archetype of individual perceptions, whether enlightened and understanding of gender issues and perceived realities, or stereotypical beliefs, of which a number were noted in the present study. It is believed that the personal dimensions from all realms of the interactions determine the breadth of gender bias encountered. Thus coach and player interactions, in any given situation, reflect the balance between both parties' perceptions of gender. It is suggested that the path through the archetype varies in the breadth of gender archetype encountered as the interactions occur. When the interactions between coaches and players were clear, non-gendered and conducted with respect for the person, only a narrow part of the archetype triangle was encountered. Conversely, if the individuals have strong gender beliefs and gendered attitudes, this increases the amount of gender archetype thus changing the levels and types of interactions encountered throughout the coaching process.

Perceptions of gender divisions in New Zealand society have been critically considered by an array of New Zealand authors (see for example, Daley & Montgomerie, 1999; James & Saville-Smith, 1989) who repeatedly note the different status of women in our society. Research undertaken in education (Blackmore, 1999) and business leadership (Cox, 1996; Rosener, 1997; Sinclair, 1998), further demonstrates that women are commonly perceived to be secondary to men. More importantly, critical examinations in the areas of sport such as those by Hargreaves (1994), Vertinsky (1994a, 1994b), Cameron (1996), McKay (1997) and Kew (1997) highlight such gender inequities resulting in a dominant male sporting culture. Indeed, Cameron (2000) believes that the "difficulties women face in challenging assumptions about their roles in sport reflect a masculine hegemony which is still alive and well in New Zealand" (p. 172).

Evidence of such hegemonic culture was provided by the participant observation phase of this study and provides support for the existence of gender inequities alluded to in the literature reviews. For example, the researcher's field notes recorded all of the following incidents; women's games scheduled as curtain raisers to men's games; provincial male players entered the official bench area of the New Zealand women's team before the end of a match; the non-attendance of female players' partners at provincial games; female players taking children to the games and/ or tournaments; and the fact that responsibility for providing the after-match food often rested with the female players instead of supporters, as traditionally occurs with men's teams.

Such broad examples were noted throughout and should help the reader contextualise images of the coach and player in the overall picture of elite women's hockey. Additionally, they also help to realistically illustrate the setting within which interactions, interpretations, and relationships occur on a daily basis in women's lives (Collins & Waddington, 2000; Theberge, 1995a, 1995b).

Furthermore, observations and reflections carried out within the broader gendered settings of New Zealand society and elite women's hockey provided evidence that individual gender biases existed and further impacted upon the interpretations and negotiation of coaching roles and qualities in this elite sport environment. According to the model in Figure 8.2, these individual perceptions, beliefs and actions help determine the breadth of gender debris individuals will pass through during their interactions.

Given that gender beliefs are social constructs based on stereotypical assumptions about characteristics of femininity and masculinity (Hearn & Parkin, 1987; James & Saville-Smith, 1989; Sinclair, 1998), they have the ability to impact upon the elite coach setting. Stereotypical gender beliefs by coaches and players have been shown to exist in this current study, and were illustrated in all phases of the research process. Participant observations revealed a wide range of incidents, ranging from administrative biases to individual perceptions of typical female roles, which indicated gender was a factor in the setting of elite women's hockey and lead us into a consideration of the archetype as a visual representation of such constructs and assumptions.

Evidence of individual interpretations of gender impacting on coach-player interactions has been provided by this current study's results. The origins of such gender perceptions, (for example, the question of *when did coaches first form these perceptions?*), were not the primary focus of this research. This aspect of gender and its impact is, however, recommended for further study as such investigation may reveal influences on gender identity that shape later role enactment. An examination of the gender literature suggests a complex array of causal factors including parental influence, early childhood experiences, previous role models, significant others, historical factors, and societal influences may be involved (Gill, 1993; Sinclair, 1998; Tilly, 1989).

The researcher's story of elite women's hockey can be told and retold and each time the telling peels back another layer of perceived realities. Beyond the time constraints and the

study's limitations, further illustrations of gendered belief and attitudes, physicality myths and realities, confidence and competence, and sex and sexuality, can be shared. The research noted such important and on-going narratives symbolic of the gender archetype, and these are expanded in the text that follows as each story informs us about women's lives within the gendered confines of elite women's hockey.

Gendered beliefs and attitudes

This current study's results provide examples of stereotypical gender beliefs and attitudes and indicate two considerations, which may impact on both the enactment of coaching roles at the elite level as well as the recruitment of women into coaching. Firstly, some players were seen to have a gender bias in their preference for coaches and secondly, some coaches were seen to exhibit stereotypical gender perceptions about female players.

Sinclair's (1998) discussion on leadership provides support for consideration of perceptions coming from both sides of coach-player relationships. Her conception of leadership is that:

Leadership and authority are constructed by audiences, by subordinates and superiors, by followers and peers. Because of a range of psychological, cultural and historical factors, starting with our experience of the first leader in our lives - our mothers - followers have been reluctant to imbue women with leadership qualities, even when they exhibit the same characteristics as men (pp. 16-17).

Similarly Shein, Mueller, Lituchy and Lui (1996) argue not that men and women manage or lead differently but that they are perceived differently. They named this theory "think manager-think male". This study also appears to support research by LeDrew and Zimmerman (1994) who reported players perceived female and male coaches differently.

The findings of this current study have provided evidence to suggest players may conceptualise men and women differently in the coaching role. Several examples of gender-biased player perceptions were provided in the responses to the elite player questionnaire. For example, one player wrote "I listen to male coaches with more respect (bad isn't it!)" and another recorded her belief that "Males tend to be more authoritative". This type of response mirrored gender-biased opinions previously reported by Edwards (1993, p. 67) and illustrated by a player belief that "Males are more competitive, firm, demand excellence, and get the best out of the players". Some participants' thinking thus reflects Shein et al.'s (1996) premise, although interpreted differently for the purpose at hand, which may be expressed as "think coach-think male".

Implications of such stereotypically gendered perceptions of females and males were raised in a recent critique questioning constructs of feminine leadership (Billing & Alvesson, 2000). These could include the possibility that administrators will formulate coach "ideals" in terms of feminine and masculine styles, instead of using non-gendered terms such as transformational, co-operative, interactive, directive, and authoritarian to describe various approaches. Billing and Alvesson argue strongly that such perceived differences should be treated as "traits or forms of subjectivities (orientations in thinking, feeling and valuing) that are potentially present in all persons, men as well as women, although to different degrees" (2000, p. 152).

The need for this argument to be considered fully by all participants in women's field hockey is further illustrated by perceptions of gender that emerged out of field data. For example, some of the research results indicated that players liked the direct critical feedback and "harder", "no-nonsense" approach used by men, while others appeared to believe that male coaches were "too soft" and echoed findings of an earlier study (Edwards, 1993). For example, player FP wrote:

The last three male coaches I've had were all too soft. They were weak men and I find it frustrating that they are not authoritative. There are too many coaches who want to be, or try to be, sensitive and fair to the point where players don't, in fact, respect them because they don't necessarily demand or dominate. Sport is now a business and coaches have many demands and need a lot of different skills.

This apparent disappointment, with "weak" male coaches, was refuted by another player:

As I stated, I haven't had a female coach for quite a while. Although this is a shame, I thoroughly enjoy having male coaches as I find they are honest, can be less involved, especially emotionally. They have all been stable men, with strong self-beliefs and confidence (most). It is frustrating to have a coach that hasn't got these attributes, whether female or male.

Such player perceptions amplify the critical importance of the coach's personal qualities in terms of coaching in the elite women's hockey environment, especially in relation to qualities rated highly by the players themselves, and those rated highly by coach selectors.

Personal qualities, in turn, impact upon interpretations of power in the setting of elite women's hockey. Kanter (1977) developed a theory that suggested power was a key structural determinant in women's ability to perform and advance in a corporate environment, and this may be true for female hockey players. Unmistakably, the elite

hockey coach wields power over the players in terms of team and starting line-up selection, assignment of on-field responsibilities, access to knowledge and organisational hierarchies, and this is to be expected in relationships between leaders and followers, to a certain extent (Kanter, 1977; Knoppers, 1987). However, field observations recorded during this study raised questions over the submissive behaviour of certain female players as recorded in the participant observation field notes and associated researcher's reflections.

Players "going through the motions", not taking responsibility for their own actions, and not contributing to debates about tactic or strategic plays were seen in several provincial training sessions. The players' apparent willingness to let their coach do their thinking was noted on several occasions, including the incident where the key players responsible for the penalty corner bracket set themselves up in the wrong positions (despite having perfected the placements on many previous occasions), and needed to be reminded by the coach to move into better positions.

I wonder if the heavy rain affected the players' casual attitude at this point of the practice. I am amazed at how quiet the players were. There was little direct feedback to the coach, positive or negative. It appeared that they are just going through the motions of the drills and rather meekly accepting all that the coach said (Researcher's Notebook, 11.8.97). These reflections indicate the need for players to take responsibility for their actions. This is possibly linked to gendered perceptions of femininity or masculinity, although factors other than socialisation may have contributed to the apparent meekness.

Coaches were also perceived as having gender-biased perceptions about female players. One male coach told the researcher that his female players had a "slack attitude" while another male coach did not believe his female players were giving the same commitment to the team as male players would. Similarly, the impressions of male coaches about the first time they coached women's teams reinforced sexual stereotypes, as in the instance when one male coach remarked on the "ponderous" game women played, while another commented on women's lack of focus and commitment to the game.

Reading the transcripts, over and over again, makes me realise the complexity of the issues surrounding coaching women. Some coaches seem to believe that women were different from men, in certain aspects, for example communication, while others recognise

the contribution of individuality at work. I wonder if such gender-biased perceptions, impact on coach-player interactions? (Researcher's Notebook, 12.11.97).

Given the importance of coach-player interactions in the team setting, a closer examination of the impact of gender on communication is important for two reasons. Firstly, the importance of communication in the coaching process (Cross & Lyle, 1999; Kidman, 1994; McConnell, 1996; Martens, 1997) is well documented and coach communication roles and skills are seen to be of critical importance in the interactions between coach and players. Secondly, communication can provide an in-depth example of how the gender archetype model works in reality in the setting of elite women's hockey.

Communication differences between the women and men were referred to in the male coaches' accounts of men's first experiences coaching women. This was illustrated by one coach who explained he "had to watch what I said" and another who struggled with trying to avoid swear words. Language differences were also observed, and in some cases they were simply the difference between men's and women's hockey terminology, for example the term "through pass", while other language differences such as Larry's constant use of the term "ladies" is seen by feminist sports writers as sexist and inappropriate usage (Cameron, 1992; Rosener, 1997). Larry's use of the term "ladies" may have been more acceptable if he used the term "gentlemen" when addressing men's teams but he was noted as using the term "guys".

Another communicative contrast was provided by Moana, who used the term "guys" when she collectively addressed her female team. In contrast, Larry rarely referred to his team as "guys" but this was illustrated in one after match speech, when he praised his team highly for their excellent effort (see page 160). This suggested that Larry used "guys" in closer, more intimate, circumstances than "ladies" which may have been used to signal a more formal separation of coach and player.

Communication with female players also presented some problems for male coaches in terms of their perception of the need for "subtle" messages and sensitivity in providing critical feedback. Although 65% of players were in agreement with the fact that their coach gave them specific positive feedback, there were many instances where confusion over feedback was recorded in the participant observations. For example, one provincial player became extremely upset after her coach told her she would not be in the starting

line-up. According to the player, the coach had voiced his praise for both her speed and tenacity in her last game and she was "now confused as to what he [was] thinking" as her exclusion was seen to be incompatible with the coach's prior feedback to her.

Indeed, many coaches provided evidence, during interviews with the researcher, that critical feedback was a problematic area of communication. For example, Coach 10 found it difficult to come to terms with his perceived belief that "women want chapter and verse about why you have taken them off and some of them get angry about it". The assistant national coach expressed his opinion that women were not always "up-front about what they were feeling" and this made interpersonal communication more difficult. The success of cross-gendered communication is even more important when considering that coach interview and player questionnaire responses highlighted communication, both the role and the quality, as being of critical importance in the elite women's hockey setting.

Despite interview results suggesting coach-player communication was of concern for many elite coaches of women's field hockey teams, the two provincial coaches, who formed the main subjects of participant observation, Larry and Moana, were observed to have well developed listening skills and the necessary abilities to successfully facilitate group discussions. The national team coaches also made excellent use of formal team-talks, small group talks, and informal "chats" with individuals to further their communication with players. Both national coaches adopted an empathetic communication style and this was illustrated most clearly in the discussion between the head coach and a new goal keeper where she shared her lack of preparation, and the coach, having listened carefully to her needs, went on to reassure her in a relaxed and friendly manner.

Player responses on the topic of communication were not favourable to their elite coaches. Thirty-seven percent of players felt there were gender differences that should be recognised in communication between female and male coaches, and nine of the negative responses voiced the opinion that men found it hard to communicate adequately.

Another area where gender impacts on women's lives within elite sport is within family commitments. The literature suggests family considerations may impact on women's participation in sport (Doherty & Casey, 1996; Pastore, 1991). Family intrusions into elite field hockey, although rare, were encountered in this research. Participant observation

field notes recorded evidence of an occasion when an international player left the half-time talk during a test match to attend to her crying child. The male coach, on this occasion, subsequently noted to the researcher that he had no problem accepting the incident and fully understood the "fuzzy boundaries" between being a mother and international player. Contrasting evidence of male coach support for family matters was, however, expressed by one elite player's response to the research questionnaire, who expressed the opinion that a female coach was more sympathetic to "family matters" than was a male coach. Although the participant observation results suggest family matters are not major impediments to either elite players or coaches, one coach's assertion that women "lacked focus" because "there are other things that have their attention" suggests further research in this area is necessary.

This discussion confirms the proposed archetype and argues against the assertion that female and male hockey players should be treated identically. The belief that the coaching of a male team simply requires transference of coaching techniques to a women's team is noted in Saunders (1998, p. B11) who reported on the appointment of coach Jan Borren (male) to the New Zealand women's hockey team: "The national team will be his first experience at the helm of a women's side. He doesn't expect any problems saying, as with men's hockey, he will adapt his style depending on the different individuals". Similarly, two provincial coaches in the present study, who had coached both males and females, expressed their beliefs that they treated females and males identically.

Physical myths and realities

Physical myths have long been the focus of feminist sport researchers (see for example Lenskyji, 1986; Vertinsky, 1994a, 1994b). Historical changes have seen women as increasingly likely to participate in competitive sport and yet perceptions of women's physical capabilities, as being notably less than men's, can still be demonstrated in New Zealand field hockey at the beginning of the twenty-first century, in the findings of the data in the present study.

For example, physiological aspects such as lack of upper body strength, level of aerobic fitness, and "annoying lack of speed" were issues discussed as being gender related by elite women's hockey coaches during the interview phase of research. One player reported her displeasure at having a coach who expected his female team to play the "male style of game" as she felt that women could not hit the ball hard enough to do so. This gendered

aspect of the game needs to be explored more fully by researchers as it raises questions such as "Is there a female style of the game"? If so, what are the differences between men's and women's hockey? To what extent is hockey framed within a gendered construction, such as that provided through the eyes of a male coach, or defined in terms of male expectations of physical criteria?

Similar questions, in regard to the construction of a female game within a framework that positions the male equivalent as the "real" game, have been addressed by Theberge (1997) in her ice hockey study in Canada. She concluded that "While women's [ice] hockey provides a clear and compelling refutation of the myth of female fragility, the potential of the sport to challenge traditional ideologies of gender is diminished by its construction as a milder version of the sport that 'really counts'" (p. 84). The possibility that elite coaches believe the female game is a milder version, added to their apparent stereotypical perceptions of female physical attributes, raises further questions about the coaches' competence to coach women at the elite level.

The results of this research provided elite player and coach perspectives of the physiological differences reported by Wells (1991), Parkin (1991), and Freedson (1994) and noted the lack of coach intervention to change perceived weaknesses despite their criticisms of these. Although some male coaches in this present study highlighted a lack of player fitness as a concern, a minority of players believed they were tested for improvements. This finding has clear implications for hockey administrators to peel back superficial meanings ascribed to physical myths and realities and raises questions about the efficacy of coach monitoring of player fitness conditioning and strength building, and the viability of non-testing approaches in this area of player development.

Further evidence that coaches of elite women's teams exhibited a perception that many women had inferior skills compared with male players in the game is illustrated in field notes recording the large amount of attention given to developing simple basic skills at the New Zealand women's hockey team training sessions. Similarly, some provincial coaches believed that many female players did not have a high enough level of basic hockey skills. However, the use of training diaries or personal log books, as suggested in the literature as being of benefit for women (Weiss, 1993) appeared to be unpopular.

Weight control has long been a topic of relevance for women generally in our society as well as for elite sporting women, although more typically the latter has occurred in those sports requiring aesthetic female figures (Crossen & Raymore, 1997; Lenskyj, 1992). Three out of twelve elite coach interviewees in the present study believed that this was a topic that needed increased recognition. Coach 1 reported her players' concerns over what they perceived to be the acceptance of certain "athletic looking" body types into national teams, while Coach 10 noted that weight issues were affected by a cultural dimension in that Maori women "are far more body conscious" than Pakeha women.

The researcher's own playing days encompass a senior player's admission of her struggle with anorexia nervosa triggered, in her opinion, by a male coach's comments in regard to her unfavourable body weight. This current research provides evidence that weight control is an important issue for women in elite women's hockey, and lends support to Lenskyj (1992) and Harris (2000) who plead for coach knowledge to be increased in the area of weight management and its possible negative consequences. Concern over body image was confirmed in the participation observation phase when one coach was seen to comfort players over their new "short and sexy" uniforms. In one incident, several players were observed to pull down on their back hemline in a vain attempt to lengthen their skirts.

Other gender-specific health related issues, noted in the results chapter, were iron deficiency, pregnancy, and menstruation. Iron deficiency has been shown to impact on female athletes in other elite sports (Bennell et al., 1997; Eisenman et al., 1990) and such an issue was also raised by two provincial coaches who reported concerns over iron levels and the possibility that players' health may be at risk. Menstruation was also considered to be an important issue by five provincial coaches, in terms of elite player mood disturbances, pain, and occasional absences from training. Of more concern was one coach's admission that one of his players suffered from amenorrhea, a finding which, given the osteoporosis warnings sounded by Lenskyj (1986), Taggart (1991) and Highet (1993), needed to be considered further.

Tennant and Brooke (1998, p.179) believe that "menstruation is a topic that many regard as intensely private" and one that women spend much of their lives concealing, due to a variety of factors such as women's "own repugnance" of bodily wastes, and the existence of a "taboo of silence" (see Crawford, 1981). The results from this current study provide evidence that menstruation, although a health issue with the potential to impact on the elite

sport setting, is rarely discussed by any coach of elite women's field hockey teams, either female or male.

I recall that the only time periods were discussed at hockey was in terms of a joke about somebody's bad mood. It didn't seem to make a difference if the coach was a male or female - it wasn't a topic. I knew a couple of players who struggled and one in particular who needed to go on the pill so she could guarantee not to get her period at tournament. This raised the question; if the coaches aren't going to discuss this issue, whose job is it? (Researcher's Notebook, 17.11.97).

Pregnancy in players was another issue shown to impact on the elite women's hockey team. Coach 1, in an interview, reported her fear for a player and baby's safety during the physically intensive build up for tournament.

I would have felt quite fearful, had anything happened during that pregnancy because, whilst I am highly competitive, I am also a mother and I think that a baby's wellbeing is a lot more important so... I felt more fearful because I didn't have any reading or knowledge to gear it on. Remember, we are not talking about sick women here, we are talking about healthy women. They are just pregnant.

Such lack of resources about pregnancy is not a new state for players and coaches of elite women's hockey. Few resources have been developed, over the last decade, by administrators for coaches of the female game, as illustrated by the following playing days recollection from the researchers' notebook. *I am very aware of the painful decisions associated with pregnancy and sport. In 1989, I was asked to captain my provincial side, capping off a hockey career spanning ten years with my province. I unexpectedly fell pregnant during the build up to tournament and ignored my doctor's advice to withdraw from the team. My biggest regret was completing the 15 minute time trial when I was twelve weeks pregnant, not because I scored a lower than optimum score, but because I feared this may have damaged my baby. I didn't tell anyone associated with the team, not the coach, selectors or anyone. I believed the information would have influenced the way I was perceived as a player. Fortunately, as captain, I was a part of the playing selection panel and made sure I did not end up in the physically demanding centre-half role as had been suggested by the coach and selectors.*

The burden of my secret became quite unbearable and I often wondered if I was letting the team down by continuing. I was acutely aware of my dishonesty and, although we won the

final match, I kept the secret until the tournament was a more distant memory (Researcher's Notebook, 21.10.97).

Confidence and competence

Psychological research has shown that gender influences expectations and attributions (Deaux, 1984; Deaux & Major, 1987), and these in turn influence the development of a player's self-confidence and perceived competency (see also Lenney, Browning & Mitchell, 1980). Research into issues of confidence and competence has followed a variety of approaches including research on individual male/female differences (such as personality or gender role orientations) and more situational analyses like that of Wallston and O'Leary (1981). Throughout the 1980s and into the 1990s academic interest has focused on gender as a social category, on "social context, socialisation, and socially developed cognitive frameworks" (see Gill, 1993, p. 268, for an overview).

This current study has provided examples of the impact of gender on self-confidence and competency judgements, and this evidence supports the model depicted in Figure 8.1 which highlights the importance of individual and sociological dimensions in critical considerations of the impact of gender in elite women's field hockey.

Results indicated that coaches made little use of recommended techniques or psychological methods to build confidence and competency, given the literature which suggests women need more help in this area (Lenskyj, 1986; White, 1994; Browne, 1993). For example, although Weiss (1993), Martens (1987) and Orlick (1980, 1986) make various connections between the use of log-books and the concepts of goal setting, self-esteem, and perceived competency, few coaches from this current study, with the exception of the national team coaches who employed the services of a professional sport psychologist, implemented a systematic team goal setting programme. Rather, the goal setting was more typically achieved, with one initial team meeting, and then on a more casual basis with coaches giving players advice only when asked.

I am struck on re-reading the questionnaires by the belief that coaches, as described by some players, would benefit from some education on psychological aspects, especially goal setting techniques utilising self-reflective diaries. They would also benefit from information on the connections between self-esteem, body image, and sound nutritional principles (Researcher's Notebook, 13.11.97).

Players used the starting line-up selection as one arbiter of their own competencies in hockey. Failure to make this line-up indicated they were not good enough to win their favoured, or indeed any, position on the field. Many coaches, such as Larry in the present study, chose to announce the start team at the beginning of the team talk immediately before the game. This had the effect of players having to deal with the shock of not being named, while still trying to listen to the motivational talk that typically followed. Prior experience in elite teams allowed the researcher to recall incidents where some coaches named the start team the day before match, occasionally speaking directly to substitute players with platitudes such as "I'll keep you on the bench with me tomorrow". Other coaches in a tournament situation waited until they thought players were asleep and then posted the starting team list under the player's door, not realising some players could not sleep until they knew their assigned game position and actually waited up, often until 1:00 a.m., for the familiar sound of shuffling paper.

Moana, the Gooder provincial coach, insisted her start line-up was nothing special, and her complex "subbing pattern" aimed to utilise all members of the team. This practice was supposed to be identical to the "no bench" policy of Ric Charlesworth, coach of the successful Australian women's hockey team (Gilson, Pratt, Roberts, & Weymes, 2000). Charlesworth explains the reason behind this:

Every time I had a bench, implicitly, or explicitly I was saying, 'You are not good enough to start.' Players start to believe that. If I say to them, you are all going to play, then those people believe that they are good enough *and* they surprise you *and* they play with more skill *and* better than they did before (Gilson et al., 2000, p. 125).

Unfortunately, in the Gooder team the substitutes appeared to know they were not "key players". This was illustrated by one player's upset response (see p. 155) after she was informed she would come on as the "break player" in the second spell of the game. Such coach-player interchanges serve to illustrate and underline the importance of communication as a critical role and communication skills as essential qualities in the elite setting of women's hockey.

Other situations where gender impacted on the elite women's hockey setting occurred when the Dawson team played one men's side and female players subsequently expressed their perceptions about the men's greater speed. Such gender comparisons may have implications, as noted by Weiss (1993), in terms of developing perceptions of competence.

This then raises the question: if a player thinks a male player and/or coach is better at certain aspects of the game or has more appropriate coaching qualities, will they themselves be reluctant to take on the role in the future? This gender bias is further complicated by the findings of LeDrew and Zimmerman (1994) who showed that women felt coaching was more difficult than did prospective male coaches.

Two factors may be important to consider in regard to these types of observations. Firstly, the players themselves may be adopting a passive, subservient role, reflecting Lenskyj's (1986) premise that females are socialised to please males. Secondly, the coaches themselves may be encouraging the expression of different behaviours, as in the findings of Young's (1986) study, which illustrated that "men coaching girls found that they should be less demanding, more supportive, and less critical with the female players than they would with boys" (p. 231). A repetition of Young's (1986) study at the elite level may help unravel these factors. Whatever the combination of factors influencing player behaviours, it is clear that in women's field hockey gender does have an impact on the elite coaching setting:

Gender has a big impact. I think that women cooperate and men compete... and sometimes women can lose themselves by cooperating too much. I struggle to find a selfish woman, most women are very unselfish to the point where it's to their own detriment at times (Coach 1).

In regard to confidence and competency the present study revealed players' perceptions that favouritism was enacted by coaches. Edwards (1993, p. 31) found that some female players disliked female coaches because they "tended to be cliquey with certain players" or had favourites. Results from the player questionnaire in this current study showed that some elite players thought male coaches had favourites, for example, one player wrote "some players have the male coach twisted around their fingers". Indeed, observations confirmed the existence of what appeared to be increased attention by coach Larry to one player (see p. 165) because of her newness to the team, but in a manner that could be interpreted by some other players as preferential treatment. An awareness of how these actions may be interpreted in a cross-gendered sense should be useful to coaches, who could consider this in gaining the correct balance between helping a new player quickly become assimilated into the team and being perceived as having a favourite.

Sex and sexuality

The impact of gender on sex and sexuality issues was noted by elite women's coaches and by their players. The findings of researchers from other spheres of management, such as Hearn and Parkin (1987) who examined sex at work, and Sinclair (1998), who unraveled the intersections between sexuality and leadership concepts, provided key nodes of critical reflection. Caudwell's (1999) conclusions on lesbianism in women's football in the United Kingdom and the findings of this current study suggest that sex and sexuality are not merely off-shoots, incidental to elite women's sport, but rather central to the interactions occurring between coach and players in the coaching process.

Another issue with the potential to impact upon player's self-worth is homophobia (the hatred or fear of homosexual people), noted in the literature review because of its potential to impact on psychological aspects such as self esteem and the expression of self confidence (see for example, Caudwell, 1999; Cotton & Jackson, 1992; Griffin & Genasci, 1990; Lenskyj, 1986; Rogers, 1994). Daley and Montgomerie (1999) note that "the absence of essays on homosexuality, lesbianism and trans-sexuality reflects the fact that these issues are only slowly being researched historically" (pp. 12-13). This propensity to ignore lesbian histories is partly explained by Griffin (1998) who discusses the social taboo surrounding homosexuality, which may in turn lead to a reluctance to examine this topic in elite sport.

Anecdotal evidence gathered in the researcher's role as a presenter at an elite level coaching course, and through discussions with elite male players and coaches, suggested that homosexuality is rarely considered as a topic of discussion in men's hockey. In contrast, this study has shown that while some coach interviews provided perspectives that denied lesbianism impacted on the elite women's hockey setting, other coaches thought it had some degree of influence on their teams.

The majority of coaches told me that they were comfortable having lesbians in their teams and yet I noted that many of them avoided saying the word *lesbian* and instead used terms such as "that way" or "one of them". Some coaches failed to exhibit sensitivity in regard to the possible psychological stress of being a lesbian (see Griffin & Genasci, 1990), such as the coach who told me "I wouldn't know one anyway".

Furthermore, participant observations and the researcher's critical self-reflection upon these provide evidence to support Griffin's (1998, p.58) belief that some heterosexual women and men have concerns about having unsolicited advances made by lesbian women:

According to this stereotype, lesbians coerce innocent, young, weak, and unwilling heterosexual women into unnatural sexual liaisons. In a workshop I was leading, a male coach stated with firm authority that his objection to lesbian athletes was that he had heard about a team where lesbians forced younger teammates to have sex with them in some kind of team initiation rite. When I pressed for more information, it became apparent that he had no specific information about this team. He had heard it from someone who had heard about it from someone else, who.... The point is that people are often predisposed to believe the most outrageous stories about the assumed sexual predatory nature of lesbians.

Indeed, observations at the world cup post-final celebrations recorded one senior player's concerted effort to protect an apparently intoxicated player from assumed predatory lesbians and one provincial coach expressed his concern for younger players in regard to being sensitive about lesbian activity. This then raises questions such as those mooted in the Researcher's Notebook (15.11.97): *What role should the coach play in influencing or reacting to interrelationships in the team? If, as some coaches alluded, young players feel nervous or at risk from sexual advances, should the coach intervene?* Such beliefs may relate to Griffin's (1998) assertion that "out" lesbians are somehow more "immoral" than heterosexual women. In an additional complexity a further stereotypical belief was uncovered when one interviewee expressed his penchant for lesbian players because of their perceived strong, determined, masculine attitudes.

Certainly, on the basis of field research from the present study, an elite coach would benefit from an increased awareness of the wider society's gender stereotypes and homophobic attitudes. This is important from two perspectives. Firstly, players and coaches may be suffering from the "toll on self-esteem, spontaneity and openness that the closet exacts from its inhabitants" (Griffin, 1998, p. 145). Secondly, an awareness of possible trauma associated with special life events, such as "coming out" may be of benefit to all participants. *Recollections from my playing days of the traumatic times associated with a lesbian player's "coming out" included: parental rejection, public emotional outbursts, and loss of friendships. All of these types of trauma provided anecdotal evidence to support Cotton and Jackson's (1992) and Schwartz's (1994) views that*

homophobia can have a detrimental effect on performance (Researcher's Notebook, 15.11.97).

The findings of this study provide support for Cotton and Jackson's (1992) belief that education on such matters is crucial for coaches and that the development of a policy for dealing with these issues is a matter of some importance. This perspective is shared by the researcher as a result of the current investigation. Griffin and Genasci (1990), Griffin (1998), and McLeod and Nola (1998), urge administrators to adopt transformational strategies affirming lesbians in all realms of sport, including educational and resource development. The present study indicates that such an advance in sexual equity has not been observed in the roles in action of elite women's field hockey and urges administrators to consider the implementation of anti-homophobic strategies (such as the inclusion of partners, as well as husbands, in social invitations). The inclusion of sexuality discussions in a coaching setting, reflects the attitude expressed by Sinclair (1998) who believed that "this enables us to bring to the surface the link between an assumed sexuality and hegemony in leadership theory and practice, and to reveal the suppression of other sexualities" (p. 158).

Sexual harassment, noted in the literature review of the present study, must be considered very carefully when cross-gendered coaching arrangements are entered into. The need for high standards of moral behaviour from the elite coach is especially important, given the reported long-term effects that inappropriate relationships can have on young women, and the large power differential that exists between the subjects (Hearn & Parkin, 1987; Perrott, 2000; Sinclair, 1998). This type of power differential does exist in elite sport and is clearly illustrated by one Australian women's hockey player who stated "You would lie down and die for him [coach] if that enabled someone to score a goal for us" (Gilson et al., 2000, p. 123). (No suggestion of coach impropriety is suggested in the Hockeyroos case. It is used here to highlight the existence of an emotional coach-player power differential).

Sexual relationships may also develop between lesbian coaches and female players in their teams, and this should also be a consideration for administrators of the sport. This study reinforces Lenskyj's (1992) belief that unequivocal guidelines need to be developed to recommend acceptable behaviours and outline unacceptable behaviours in regard to sex in the elite sport arena. Similarly, recommendations to deal with alleged sexual harassment

need to be drawn up, in conjunction with critical input from players and coaches at the elite level, in regard to sexuality and sex.

Re-reading Coach 6's interview transcript reminded me clearly of a coach who was having a relationship with a player in my team. Some other players were not comfortable about the situation and constantly perceived the coach's partner as being a "favoured" member of the team, although this matter was never raised with the coach for fear of non-selection or worse, sitting on the bench. (Researcher's Notebook, 17.11.97).

Reflections on the impact of gender

Discussions on the impact of gender arose from grounded theory analysis of the field data generated in this current study and highlighted the impact of gender in the elite coaching environment. In sum, gender was a critical factor in this setting. Cross-gendered situations, whereby a male coach leads a team of women, brings with them a range of considerations previously unexplored at the elite team level. Currently, men are highly active in the elite coaching roles of women's hockey and yet their knowledge of women's issues is often questionable. Paradoxically, this highlights a need for those men who are presently in a position of coaching influence in women's hockey to develop a better understanding of gender and its relevance to day-to-day realities of the coaching environment. Postmodern feminists, however, may argue that there appears to be an even greater need for the sports administrators to develop only women in elite coaching roles, given the shortfall of women in such roles. It is to this domain of developing coaches that this chapter now turns.

8.3.4 Coach development issues

Given understandings of the coach roles and qualities generated by the research in the present study and with the understanding of gender's impact in the elite hockey coaching setting, there is arguably an implicit question - what can best be done to develop coaches in elite women's field hockey?

The literature review provided an overview of work by Acosta and Carpenter (1985a, 1992) whose longitudinal examination of the decline of women in coaching has been at the forefront of studies in this area. Concerns over the decline of women in coaching has also been the focus of New Zealand and Australian researchers (see Edwards, 1993; McCallum,

1991; Reynolds, Otago, Plaisted & Randell, 1992) although few, with the exception of Skilton (1994), Edwards (1997), Cameron (1996), and Blake and McKelvey (1999), have focused on the decline of women at the elite level. Key components in these documented declines of women in coaching are firstly, the inability to recruit women into elite coaching roles and secondly, failure to retain them in the roles long enough to ensure they have the opportunity for growth and development.

The results from this New Zealand study indicate that elite women hockey players are most commonly coached by men (see Fig 7.8, p. 265). Consequences of such a lack of women in elite roles may be far reaching: female players will not be exposed to female role models in elite coaching positions and may, therefore, fail to enter such roles in the future (see Acosta & Carpenter, 1985a; Greendorfer, 1977; Hart et al., 1986; Lovett & Lowry, 1988). Opportunities for "increasing one's leadership and personal skills, and travelling the globe" as described by one elite netball coach (V. Hearfield, personal communication, September 13, 1999) as the benefits of international coaching, are not available to women to the same extent as men.

Other consequences arise from hypothetical extensions of this study's results. There is possibly a lack of realised team potential, for example, if the male coach does not fully understand the emotional and physical states of women. In such cases it is possible he is not going to see that team reach their potential for individual growth and team competition success.

Any discussion of change, especially that involving strategic concepts of change, needs firstly to address the epistemological viewpoints available to potential strategists. Liberal feminists advocate affirmative actions such as the removal of barriers associated with women in elite coaching which, in turn, implies the need for understanding what barriers exist, what form these take, and what affirmative action would be most effective in evoking change. For example, lack of successful networks has been shown to be a real barrier for elite women coaches in this study. Given the political and personal benefits associated with networking espoused by Lay (1993c) and Segerman-Peck (1991), the lack of networking opportunities available to coaches in this study is problematic in terms of effective progression along the elite coaching pathway.

Another barrier preventing women from entering the coaching profession, frequently described as gender discrimination against female coaches, is that of perceptions of women having inferior ability (Everhart & Chelladurai, 1998; Knoppers, 1987; LeDrew & Zimmerman, 1994; Lovett & Lowry, 1994; Parkhouse & Williams, 1986; Snyder, 1990; Wallston & O'Leary, 1981; Weinberg, Reveles, & Jackson, 1984; Williams & Parkhouse, 1988). Elite level evidence of such bias in New Zealand sport was provided by Skilton (1994) and Blake and McKelvey (1999) who confirmed elite female coach views that administrator bias, in favour of men, was evident during coach selection processes. The results of this current study lend support to this earlier research.

Consequences of such gender biases, as previously highlighted in this discussion, may be far-reaching and may impact on recruitment and retention of women in elite coaching roles, particularly in terms of lack of female role models (Hillary Commission, 2000b). If women do not believe their sex has "what it takes" to coach at the elite level, they may not take up such roles in the future (Greendorfer, 1977; Lovett & Lowry, 1988; White, 1987). The possibility also exists that the impact of gender may lead to male coaches treating female players differently, which then influences the players' learning of skills and behaviours (Lay, 1993c). Everhart and Chelladurai's (1998) results, which indicated that female players who were coached by women perceived less discrimination and had an increased likelihood of joining the coaching ranks in the future, reinforces tentative findings of the current study and needs to be researched further in a wider range of sports.

"Lack of time" has also been reported as a barrier preventing women entering coaching (Acosta & Carpenter, 1988; Pastore, 1991; Edwards, 1993; Skilton, 1994; Blake & McKelvey, 1999). Results from this current study suggest the elite coach undertook numerous roles, several of which were time consuming. For example, the large amount of time spent collecting and counting hockey balls illustrated a less than satisfactory use of coaching expertise. However, this action is necessary for the efficient functioning of the team as lost hockey balls lead to increased expenditure, and fewer resources being available for training purposes.

Such time-wasting factors could be reduced with a more prudent use of coaching assistants and captains. It may be advantageous if job descriptions are drawn up so all parties, including players, were aware of important responsibilities. Another relevant response would be for a team to effectively delineate key roles for team members and to actively

assist them in understanding and enacting these roles. The New Zealand team's use of an assistant coach is well recorded in the participant observations (see Chapter Five) as his role was clearly defined and its enactment demonstrated the capacity to split the elite coaching responsibilities into discrete sections.

Consideration of time management is important, given the belief expressed by coaching experts such as Woodman (1993) that coaches must make time for individuals (Cross & Lyle, 1999). Although results from the player questionnaire (see Figure 7.18) showed that the majority of players believed that the coach made time to talk to them, and liked them as people, participant observations provided contrasting evidence. The field records noted the tendency for provincial coaches to act unilaterally and ignore individual skill tuition or goal setting. Participant observation evidence in the present study also noted that coaches did spend time with individual female players, including one-on-one training sessions, social occasions, and individual talks before and during matches. Of particular note, however, was the expressed belief of some male provincial coaches - that they avoided one-on-one sessions with female players and took great care to keep themselves at a distance because of fears over sexual harassment issues.

Given the literature (see Cross, 1999) that notes the value of individual attention, such male coaches would appear to lack this important one-on-one dimension of the coaching role in action. This, in turn, compounds the difficulty of establishing effective coach-player interactions and development of positive interpersonal relations.

Liberal feminist suggestions, for example those of Weiss and Stevens (1993), recommending time management courses for female coaches with an emphasis on prioritisation and delegation of tasks should be considered. Support for this suggestion has already been provided by Edwards (1993) in her study which showed that six out of seven ex-representative players did not coach, and reported that a lack of time had been a major factor in this decision. Consideration of the fact that all provincial and national coaches in this study were employed fulltime, and that coaching at the elite level was done voluntarily, makes these factors all the more important. In related studies, there is evidence that "women are being put off leadership, not only because of unreasonable demands on time and energy, but the contradictions arising out of the ethical and moral dilemmas of formal leadership in a performative state" (Blackmore, 1999, p. 210). Further

research examining coaches' utilisation of time is recommended, especially in the realm of elite sport.

A further finding of this current study, in terms of time considerations, is that elite female players spend, on average, 9.4 hours a week training or playing hockey compared to only 1.2 hours a week coaching the sport. Experiential evidence and research results other than those of the present study (Edwards, 1993) provide the researcher with an appreciation of the time pressures faced by elite hockey players, and prompt the suggestion that the end of a player's elite career may be the best time to recruit her into coaching roles. Such a player would arguably have fewer time demands placed upon her as a coach than as an elite player.

When the player is engaged in active coaching, it may be that an understanding of the skills and tactics of the sport is developed to a greater degree than would have been gained by non-participation in the coaching process. Player experience as a coach allows for example: cognitive rehearsals of different match related scenarios; a greater understanding of tactics and strategy; an appreciation of problem solving and coach-player relationships; the development of communication and interpersonal skills; and broadly a basal understanding of the whole gamut of coach roles and processes. Consequently, concern is noted at the high number of players (62.6%) who reported they were not involved in any coaching during the season. There exists also the possibility that the involvement of elite players in junior coaching roles may encourage them to move into elite coach roles at some later time. Ways in which such potential female coaches could be facilitated are worthy of consideration by field hockey administrators.

The problematic area of elite female coach recruitment is closely linked with another critical factor: the retention of women who are already in elite coaching roles. The present study yields evidence for the argument that the large number of coach roles may lead to the possibility of stress and burnout (Dale & Weinberg, 1989; Lovett & Lowry, 1988; Pastore & Judd, 1993). Caccese and Mayerberg (1984) reported higher levels of burnout among female college coaches and discussed many factors associated with burnout including the ability to handle competition and stress. Stressful situations did arise during participant observations, including incidents where a poor match result ended in a team "nearly blowing apart" during a major tournament situation. The ability for a coach to deal

with such stress is, therefore, not only an important personal quality but may also be a central determinant in a coach's decision to stay in elite coaching or not.

Related to ideas on stress and burnout were the availability of rewards and the provision of assessment and feedback to the elite coach (Kidman, 1994). Participant observation results of this present study indicate elite women's hockey coaches do not receive critical feedback and assessment. For example, although the national coaches were given performance targets in terms of international rankings, no evidence of systematic assessment and review of coaching performance occurred during the observation period. At the international level, the head and assistant coach undertook self-reviews as part of their everyday routines, to evaluate both the team and their own performance, and expected to undergo a comprehensive review by their administrative body (NZHF) at the end of the World Cup series.

The assessment and review of the elite coach in women's field hockey must be carefully considered by administrators. The present study provides evidence of the detailed data yielded by systematic observation. Such a mode of peer assessment is not routinely utilised in current elite coach review despite the richness of information it provides on that coach. Other tools of investigation used in the present study such as player questionnaires and semi-structured interviews yielded a valuable range of triangulating data that deepened the researcher's understanding of the coach-in-action, as distinct from espoused coaching behaviour. It is important for administrators responsible for coach selection and development to consider utilising the full range of support and evaluation measures in order to most effectively support coach growth and promotion. Underpinning this present study was a combination of research modes used to capture an image of coaches in their everyday duties; this same variety of modes could, ironically, be used by administrators to assist their development.

An important component in the evaluation processes, utilised by some elite women's hockey coaches, was the input of senior players. Evidence for such input was seen in the participant observation results and confirmed by the coach interviews. In certain teams senior players provided support for their coach by critiquing tactics, debating selections, challenging ideas, showing friendship, and providing social support. Integral to this process was the empowering attitude of many elite coaches, mirroring that of the Australian women's hockey coach, Rick Charlesworth (Gilson et al., 2000). The

provincial coach, Larry, showed an increasing tendency to involve players in decision-making and game analysis over the participant observation period, while another provincial coach, Moana, similarly allowed frank debate over set-play issues and tactical options.

Empowerment, as it was perceived in this study, was viewed as a means of women gaining increased "voice and choice" in the coaching process. However, writers from other disciplines have provided a warning note in response to research lauding empowerment as the way forward in terms of equity issues. For example, Waitere-Ang (1999), in her discussion of Maori women in education, asks the question "Who's empowering whom?" (p. 84). Delgado-Gaitan (1990), similarly, makes the observation that the term empowerment has been used to show people how to work within a system from the perspective of the people in power. In this regard women's hockey is no exception. In fact, empowerment as portrayed in participant observations and coach interviews, went beyond the notion of a coach providing "voice and choice" for the players. This study showed clearly that senior experienced players are providing an essential support mechanism for the elite coach, like the co-worker support described by Taormina (1997). Emotional sustenance, such as verbal encouragement was given to the coach as noted in the following paragraph from field notes:

Larry sat with the Dawson players in the bar after the game and sipped at his beer. He appeared relaxed and calm, despite the game's result (3-2 win) which was not as one-sided as he had hoped. After several members of the team had left, one player sat beside Larry on the couch and offered some friendly encouragement about the game and praised Larry for being "so positive". She then put forward her ideas on a new front runner combination. Larry nodded and responded that he may try that idea, but he needed to give it some more thought and ask the right wing what she thought about her change in role. One week later Larry tried the new formation (Field notes, 24.8.96).

Such findings from the field research may indicate a valuable tool for helping potential female coaches develop their understanding of the key elements of the game. This interactive and close relationship between senior players and the coach may be important as it raises the possibility that senior player are gaining valuable coaching experience, while they are playing at the elite level. This then raises further questions, not answered by this current study, about the impact of player empowerment, as described above, on the likelihood of future coaching recruitment and the removal of cited barriers such as lack of support (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985b; Knoppers, 1987).

The literature review provided a broad range of evidence that a lack of networks presents a barrier to women's development in coaching (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985b; Knoppers, 1987; Lovett & Lowry, 1994; White, 1994) which has subsequently been confirmed by two New Zealand studies (Cameron, 1996; Skilton, 1994). This present study has highlighted the lack of coaching networks successfully operating in elite coaching circles of women's hockey. The researcher's recording of exceptional occurrences of informal meetings, such as an after-match "drink at the bar" or an informal telephone conversation with a friend who had coaching experience (although not necessarily at the elite level or in the sport of hockey), may be indicative that the elite women's hockey coaches lacked effective networks of personal support.

Similarly, a lack of mentors has been identified as being problematic by New Zealand coaches (Skilton, 1994) and sports leaders (Cameron, 1996). Salmela (1994a), Iversen (1997), and Bloom, Durand-Bush and Salmela (1998) provided evidence that expert coaches believe mentors would enhance coach education. Despite resounding support from the realm of management for the concept of developmental support through mentoring relationships (Coley, 1996; Veale & Wachtel, 1996), no coach in this study believed they had a mentor. Although six out of the nine male interviewees named men they viewed as being coaching role models, none of the female elite women's hockey coaches could indicate such a key person in their career path.

This raises considerations for further study, such as the increasingly likely possibility that men may have to act as role models for elite women's hockey coaches, due in part to the lack of women currently operating at the elite level within the sport of field hockey. The ramifications of such cross-gender role model relationships, as examined in the environments of education and occupation (Gilbert and Rossman, 1992), are recommended for further study in the area of sport coaching.

If hockey administrators were to adopt a formal mentor type programme, like that of the "learning leader model" suggested by Kaye and Jacobson (1995, 1996), several problematic areas would need to be addressed. Firstly hockey is an amateur sport and, as such, it has profound differences from a typical business or for example, the likelihood of a "learning leader" coach having power within the organisation or control of resources is remote. Another difficulty that arises if elite coaches were to be targeted in leader or

learner roles is that they might be geographically spread throughout New Zealand, posing difficulties in regular contact and communication.

One example, beyond the realm of sport, which may have relevance for this discussion on support for women in coaching, is the adoption of telementoring schemes. For example, the "Telementoring young women in science, engineering and computing" project (Connolly, 1991, p. 6), provides on-line resources for mentors, students, parents, and teachers and may be a useful model to employ in coaching support. Similarly, MentorNet, developed by the Women in Engineering programme, is a North American electronic industrial mentoring network for women in science engineering and mathematics. This enables electronic communication between mentor and protege allowing the exchange of support, advice, encouragement, and access to professional networks (Muller, 1998). Possibilities for a move to e-mentoring, including the provision of an internet discussion board as suggested by the Hillary Commission (2000a), should be pursued by hockey administrators whose role is the provision of coaching development opportunities.

Another challenge for the creators of networking and mentoring schemes to encourage women into elite coaching is the cautionary note sounded by Hargreaves (1994) and Blackmore (1999) in regard to the representative balance of women from different class and ethnic backgrounds in network groups. This sentiment was adopted, in a Canadian context, by one pro-women group who made a commitment to bring together women of different religious practices, sexual orientations, ethnicities, regions, race, abilities and ideologies in order to provide a foundation to a particular networking philosophy (Lay, 1993c). Similarly, Brooks (1997) and Abney and Richey (1991) also raise issues of difference and diversity discussed by some of their subjects in regard to mentorship. Recognition of such diversity should be considered by hockey administrators in setting up such support schemes.

The bicultural nature of the New Zealand population provides one example of the need to recognise mentoring flexibility. In this regard, perhaps consideration should be given to renaming mentoring schemes using Maori concepts such as *tiaki*, proposed by Smith (1999) as a mentoring model involving authoritative Maori acting as guides and sponsors for non-indigenous researchers working in Maori communities. Another suitable concept may be *awhina*, which conjures up suitable images of guidance and friendship. Such

renaming would also remove the problematic term, mentoring, which many feminists view as patriarchal and, therefore, open to criticism (Segerman-Peck, 1991).

Regardless of the naming issues surrounding such mentoring schemes, the results of the present study have shown that many coaches do not have access to formal expert-coach mentors, e-mentors, learning leaders, or elite coach networks. There is a need according to Thorngren (1990), to help elite coaches develop the type of personal support networks discussed by one female coach in this study whereby she used several different people to offer support in different areas.

The importance of developing personal support networks has also been recommended by Knoppers (1987) and Lay (1993a; 1993b) who highlighted the importance of identifying people with the right types of knowledge and competencies. Support networks could also be valuable in helping coaches "come into contact with power-holders" (Kanter, 1977, p. 279). Again, the lack of Maori holding administrative power or coaching at the elite level in women's hockey should be considered by critics who might otherwise question the usefulness of cross-cultural relationships of this nature (Smith, 1999).

Despite the encouraging results showing some coaches were designing flexible types of support systems, results from this study showed that some elite coaches were slow to seek other forms of support such as educational opportunities. Coaches, at the provincial level, did not appear to have the dedication to improvement described by Bloom (1996, p. 127) who demonstrated that "expert coaches were fervently devoted to their involvement in sport as exemplified by their commitment to hard work and their search for improvement in their coaching knowledge". This is illustrated by the fact that only five of the twelve provincial coach interviewees had attended higher level courses, viewed by administrators as a source of valuable information and networks for elite level coaching. Coaches did not specify other methods of training or development such as observing and evaluating expert hockey coaches or coaches from other elite sports, apart from two women who were involved in the NZHF Winning Women's Programme (see Appendix G).

The Winning Women's Programme allowed selected coaches to have opportunities to observe international teams under test match conditions, attend pre-match team meetings, observe training and match evaluations sessions with national and academy teams, and be evaluated in a one-on-one session by an experienced mentor coach. The continuance and

expansion of such an elite coach development programme would be beneficial to coaches, both male and female, at the elite level in women's hockey, especially given that observations of effective coaches have been shown to be critical factors in the development of expert coaches in Canada (Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1998) and in Australia where coaching internships exist (Hesse & Combs, 1999; Schembri, 1994; Tasmanian Department of Sport and Recreation, 1989).

In contrast to the *laissez-faire* attitude of some provincial coaches others were highly motivated and dedicated to the coaching role. Typically, these coaches were looking for promotion and applying for both provincial and international positions. In these cases, the elucidation of future prospects and existence of realistic coaching pathways may become the key ingredient in retaining these people in elite positions. This is especially true, given research which shows future prospects and opportunities are critical factors in determining people's willingness to leave an organisation (Kanter, 1977; Kirschenbaum & Weisberg, 1990; Taormina, 1997). Furthermore, the small size of New Zealand's hockey playing population means that only small numbers of elite coaching positions are available at any given time.

Concern over lack of future prospects was exemplified by one female provincial coach who stated:

I really could not believe it when I saw the list of coaches. I thought we were doing better than that. I was disgusted and almost gave up when New Zealand hockey appointed a male coach who had coached male teams as the new coach of the national women's team (Maddaford, 1999, B8).

Stories of such disappointment are increasingly common in the literature on women in coaching and would suggest that more research in the areas of future prospects and coaching rewards needs to be carried out, incorporating evidence from fields such as organisational psychology, organisational sociology, and human resources.

Furthermore, reported coach beliefs that "being an Olympian" and "being part of the in-group" are necessary qualifications for elite coaching roles need to be dispelled. Implementation of realistic coaching pathways may, therefore, be a crucial element in the selection and recruitment of coaches at the elite level. In this regard the NZHF must resist temptations to bypass the official coaching pathways and repeatedly allow "standout coaches" entry to the top level coaching positions (NZHF, 1996, p. 7).

8.4 SUMMARY AND REVIEW

The discussion chapter had one central objective. This was to critically focus upon perceived realities of elite women's hockey coaching expressed through the results of the present thesis. In meeting this objective, the key coach roles and qualities were elaborated and clarified and were found to be in congruence with previous research, with communication and leadership roles and qualities being pivotal. Indeed the range of roles undertaken by coaches in the present study was a major concern for the researcher especially as a number of such roles would have been the responsibility of a team manager when located in other sporting codes (see McConnell, 1996).

Critical issues were also raised in terms of coach and player perceptions about masculinity and femininity as observed in the hockey setting. Gender impacted across a wide range of settings including team training sessions and match environments, personal and family situations, and administrative perspectives. The impact of gender was diagrammatically represented with a triangular model (see Fig 8.2) reflecting the three critical realms of elite women's field hockey - that of the coach, players, and administrators. A gender archetype was placed at the central intersection between these realms and is seen as a key element through which all interactions take place. In turn, these interactions are further moderated by both societal and personal dimensions, influenced by macro and micro level understandings of gender, which act simultaneously to determine the density and breadth of gender archetype encountered. The researcher has found the visual representation of these relationships to be a central stimulus for her critical reflections on the issues described in this chapter. Further, it may be argued that the archetype may be unique for every coach, player and setting within elite women's field hockey. The model may also be a valuable tool to help others critically understand the impact of societal forces of gender construction in New Zealand society and within the sport specific environment of elite women's field hockey.

Critical gender issues were also raised in terms of men coaching women at the elite level, especially in the areas of gendered beliefs and attitudes, physical myths and realities, confidence and competence, and sex and sexuality. This underscores the need for coaches operating in such settings to have a broad and cohesive understanding of the gendered setting.

In terms of the development of elite women's hockey coaches, the lack of support mechanisms available to coaches was noted. Few of the coaches in this study had role models and none had mentors. Educational opportunities were only occasionally available and some interviewees had not attended any coaching courses. The variable level of coaching knowledge in terms of women's issues was highlighted and it was suggested that male coaches operating in this setting should be more informed on women's issues and make a definite commitment to women's hockey over men's.

Given the results and critical reflection upon these, certain conclusions have resulted from the present study. These gendered coaching issues which, in the researcher's opinion, demand consideration by women's field hockey administrators provide the essential content of, and form the basis for, the following chapter.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter revisits the aims and intentions of the study and reiterates the critical, systematic and reflective nature of the research process. Conclusions and recommendations are presented and implications of these for researchers and practitioners are suggested. Reflections on the current research project are also included in this final chapter.

- 9.1 The research question
- 9.2 Conclusions
- 9.3 Implications of the conclusions
 - 9.3.1 Recommendations for elite women's field hockey
 - 9.3.2 Recommendations for researchers
- 9.4 Reflections on the research process
- 9.5 Concluding statement

9.1 THE RESEARCH QUESTION

This current study began with the construction of an historical backcloth upon which an initial layer of participant realities was projected. This highlighted the increasingly common practice of men coaching women's teams at the elite level in hockey and helped to generate the main research question: *What are the roles and qualities of elite women's field hockey coaches and to what extent are these moderated by the impact of gender?* The answer to this question was sought through the three main phases of research, which included participant observations, coach interviews, and player questionnaires. These, in turn, generated further considerations, allowing perceived images of elite women's hockey to become focussed with more certainty until, finally, a clearer depiction of the actors and setting emerged. Throughout the study, systematic critical reflection provided a valuable check that the data were validly grounded in the setting of elite women's field hockey, that theoretical propositions arose directly from these data, and that the generated theory provided a logical basis for practical recommendations for participants in this sport.

The research question underpinning this thesis has been addressed and answered in the present study as a consequence of the research process. The study has informed the reader on the main roles and qualities of the coaches of elite women's hockey teams and these are fully outlined in the discussion chapter (see pp. 298-306). These roles and qualities are

moderated by the impact of gender, which appears to be a fundamental archetype located at the centre of the elite women's hockey nexus, as illustrated in Figure 8.2, with the interface of coaching, playing and administrative realms. Interactions occurring between these sectors are moderated by two main dimensions of the gender archetype: the macro-societal level determining the density of the archetype encountered, and the micro-individual level determining the breadth of the archetype encountered. Thus, the impact of gender is moderated through individual and societal understandings of femininity and masculinity, and is therefore unique to any given situation. The research revealed this was a strong feature in the elite women's hockey setting.

The broader objectives of the thesis, those of contributing to ethnographic sport research and providing recommendations for sport practitioners, were also met. It is hoped that readers new to the game of women's hockey, will have gained an insider's perspective of the elite environment previously beyond their experiences. Such a perspective, along with the research conclusions and further implications as outlined in the following section, should prompt changes to coach development, although this depends, in part, on the willingness of administrators to adopt and critically revise proposed recommendations.

9.2 CONCLUSIONS

Chapters Five, Six and Seven of this study revealed a range of results which nonetheless generated, upon critical reflection, clear sets of categories and properties as a result of the grounded theory process. In turn, these provided the foundation for the theoretical propositions that, in effect, state the researcher's theory of gendered coaching within elite women's field hockey.

The present study was not entered into solely as a research project to generate theory for the academic gratification of the researcher. From its inception, as noted in Chapter One, the researcher was aware of taking a canvas upon which elite sports scenes had rarely been painted by insiders, and held the clear self-expectation that the project's successful completion would generate a greater understanding of the cross-gendered setting of elite sport. Considerations of the findings would have the potential of enhancing women's participation in elite coaching roles in women's field hockey and, by implication, other

sports in which males dominate the coaching roles of female teams. In summary the present project has generated a set of conclusions which - upon critical reflection by researchers, administrators, and those seeking greater equity in sport participation and governance - could provide a focus for further action.

- 1 Within elite women's field hockey in New Zealand there is an over-dominance of male coaches. Despite historical evidence highlighting New Zealand women's success in international competition under female coaching leadership, changes during the 1980s and 1990s, including the amalgamation of women's and men's administrations, have resulted in situational determinants which favour the appointment of males to these positions.
- 2 Key roles for elite coaches of women's field hockey were found to be those of selector, planner, leader, manager, analyser and communicator. In addition, what might be regarded as more practical roles such as the pre-match preparation, warm-up orchestration, match control, and training, also demanded the attention of the majority of these coaches. The large number of coaching roles undertaken by elite coaches was identified as a potential source of stress and burnout. This was especially important at the provincial level where coaches were responsible for many tasks, often considered in other sport settings as being the responsibility of a manager or captain. In contrast, international coaches were more likely to be part of a well-developed management team that allowed a greater sharing of roles and responsibilities with other support staff.
- 3 A large number of coaching qualities were viewed by coaches and players as being essential for a coach working at the elite level in women's hockey. These included communication, leadership, managerial, motivational, and technical skills. Having a high level of integrity and morality were among the large number of personal qualities and attributes identified as being particularly important in this setting. The possession of game-related knowledge in terms of on-field strategies and tactics, and of field hockey's linkages with wider societal issues and contexts, were seen as necessary coaching qualities in this study.
- 4 Without exception, all coaches observed in this present study, were committed to the team's vision of competitive success, and yet many were largely unsupported in their

endeavours, in terms of networks, mentors, funding, expert sport science assistance, opportunities for growth, development, and future prospects.

- 5 Administrators must consider possible modes of development of women as future elite hockey coaches. The impact of administrative decisions on the elite women's hockey setting was clearly illustrated, for example, in coach selections, development of training programmes, funding decisions, and lack of consultation with elite players on the desired roles and qualities of elite coaches. Administrative initiatives, such as those provided by the Winning Women's Programme, have made a positive impact on elite women coaches interviewed for this study.
- 6 Gender has a marked impact in the elite women's hockey environment and is portrayed as a central archetype, moderating the interactions between players, coaches, and administrators. The impact of gender depends upon societal and individual constructs of femininity and masculinity that exist in this elite sport setting, and its manifestation invariably had characteristics that were unique to a particular team or interaction. Despite the individuality of each setting, however, common factors were progressively perceived through the course of this study. Consequently, the impact of gender was grouped into four main areas for further consideration: gendered beliefs and attitudes, physical myths and realities, confidence and competence, and sex and sexuality.
- 7 Potential coaches at the elite level are facilitated by: their personal circumstances; their own successful background in the sport of hockey; prior experience with women's teams; elite level experience; and ongoing educational opportunities. Critical in coach development is the provision of appropriate support mechanisms, including, for example, senior player advisors, elite coaches from other sports, and past elite coaches. Critical factors in coach retention are the identification of suitable mentors, the development of coach networks, and the opportunity for learning opportunities such as those provided by high-level coach observations. Furthermore, the study provided evidence that financial support and the provision of child-care influenced the potential commitment of some women in elite coaching roles.
- 8 Recruitment of potential female coaches at the elite level is hindered by some female players' stereotypically gendered attitudes, reflected, for example, in the belief that

female coaches will not provide the “hardness” or directional drive that male coaches offer to their teams. The possible attainment of an elite coaching position is also hindered by female players’ failure to actively coach, or assist coaches, during their playing careers. It is an inescapable conclusion that the culture of expectation must be shifted in elite hockey in order that administrators and players more readily encourage and accept women as elite coaches. Such women should be encouraged to coach throughout their careers in order to counter the dearth of female coach role models.

- 9 The perceived realities exhibited in the present study indicate that an increase of women in elite coach roles is unlikely to occur unless such coaches are reassured about the realistic application of the NZHA coaching pathway and the equity of coach selection processes currently employed by elite women’s hockey administrators. In terms of career progression, existing methods of elite coach assessment and evaluation may be in need of review, as they were unobserved in the course of the research, and coaches did not mention them as being an effective tool in their own self-improvement.
- 10 It is clear from participant observations and player perceptions in the present study that the construct of a preferred elite women’s field hockey coach is essentially one built around characteristics normally assigned to male leaders. Characteristics traditionally associated with the legendary men’s hockey coach, Cyril Walter, for example, being analytical, demanding, goal oriented, and decisive, along with the possession of a high level of technical skills, and having a respect for hard physical training, were all qualities positively associated with male coaches in this setting. Observations in the present study on male coaches operating in elite women’s hockey did provide evidence that caring, consultative, co-operative, and empowering behaviours were sometimes exhibited by male coaches. Accordingly, the researcher cautions against the stereotypical judgements of male coaches in the elite female setting.
- 11 The research data indicates that elite male coaches who commit themselves to a pathway of female hockey coaching positions must be assisted to understand the environment and nuances, such as those posed by language, sexuality, and cultural differences, that are often features of the women’s game.

- 12 The research data strongly indicate that elite women hockey players perceive female coaches as having a greater ability to communicate with the players and, given the primary importance of communication skills as ranked by the players, this is a key finding of the current study. Coupled with this ability to interact successfully with players is the negative perception of women coaches as being too soft. Given that the results chapters provided evidence of women undertaking the full range of coaching roles, and of women utilising the most essential elite coach qualities, it is concluded that female coaches have the necessary attributes to operate effectively in the elite women's hockey environment.
- 13 There is a need for all coaches at the elite women's level to understand the characteristics of elite female players including the wide range of physiological, psychological, pedagogical, and health factors that have relevance for this elite sport setting. In particular, coaches should respect individuals and acknowledge the diversity amongst women attracted to the game.
- 14 Captains, in elite women's field hockey, are under-utilised as team leaders. Little or no training goes into their development despite the need, recorded in field notebooks, for enhancing the coach-captain relationship. The study also drew a clear conclusion that captains, as with team managers, were sometimes called upon to undertake support tasks because, unlike the coach, they were the same gender as the rest of the team.

9.3 IMPLICATIONS OF THE CONCLUSIONS

The present study's conclusions clearly imply that change is required. For administrators, change is required in the ways that they address the current imbalance of male and female coaches, and critically consider factors that influence these processes, particularly those outlined in the conclusions.

This study carried an underlying expectation (see p. 134) that its resultant recommendations would aid considerations of gender and coaching in elite women's field

hockey – and these, in turn, could reveal factors pertinent to the recruitment and retention of female coaches in this setting. That such changes are needed is clearly signalled in the present research. For these to occur, changes would need to be fostered by a majority of participants, across all competitive levels of women's hockey in New Zealand.

9.3.1 Recommendations for elite women's field hockey

Administrators should implement structures and actions to ensure an increase in number of female coaches at the provincial level. If funding was linked to achieving target numbers of women coaching at representative level, such incentives may help to initiate change. Performance objectives should be established for increasing the number of women in elite coaching roles and these should be revised each year, just as outcome goals are routinely applied to performance objectives within elite teams.

Administrators must also consider developing a coach recruitment and retention scheme with two parallel objectives: firstly, to develop and retain coaches (women and men) who are committed to women's hockey; and, secondly, to recruit women as coaches for women's hockey positions. The scheme could involve initiating and maintaining a coach database to track current and retired coaches, as well as current and past players with essential coaching qualities. Critical to such a recruitment drive is the identification of players with the potential to coach, and the provision of support to elite players who are currently coaching.

The reworking of elite coaching job descriptions is another task facing field hockey. Job descriptions should be amended to highlight the critical place of communication and leadership roles and qualities. Selection panels must become familiar with essential coaching roles, and qualities, especially given the importance of personal qualities including ethical and moral behaviour. It is critical that such panels have an understanding of the essential roles and qualities of elite women's field hockey.

Measures should be taken to reduce the workload of elite level coaches, especially those operating at the international level. The inclusion of especially trained assistant coaches, managers, video technicians, and other support staff in such teams, is recommended. Providing training for managers, who can take on the full range of responsibilities, especially in cases where men are coaching women's teams, is also viewed as an important consideration.

The need to develop elite coach evaluation and assessment schemes must be addressed. The provision of immediate, specific, and positive feedback to coaches is seen as an area of weakness in the current system. Reward systems should be initiated for coaches in accordance with evaluative measures.

Administrators should provide support mechanisms for elite coaches in terms of the initiation and maintenance of coach networks within elite hockey, and within wider coaching networks in New Zealand. Aligned with these support mechanisms is the maintenance of the current mentoring scheme, or its possible amendment to the model in Appendix L. Support mechanisms need to be defined and enhanced for each individual coach. There appears to be a need to ask each coach – “What is it that you require in terms of support?” For example, some coaches need support with childcare arrangements, while others may appreciate financial assistance.

Coaches also should consider identifying and developing all avenues of support for their coaching activities. Critical to this support is the identification and selection of the team manager, and assistant coach. The coach should seek out informal and/or formal coaching networks, including electronic communication networks, and identify potential advisors, mentors, experienced players, and coaches from other sporting fields. Improving coach education opportunities, including a critical examination of societal and individual understandings of gender, is essential across all realms of elite hockey.

Coaches need to identify and conquer barriers to their advancement in the coaching ranks. This may include learning strategies and techniques such as: self-evaluation; self-confidence building; self-assessment and feedback; and time management. Potential women coaches at the elite level must be encouraged to take responsibility for their own coaching careers and be prepared to apply for elite level positions as they arise.

Coaches should familiarise themselves with the different dimensions of the gender archetype and examine their own beliefs and attitudes about femininity and masculinity and the influence of these on coaching interactions, especially in the areas of empowerment, leadership styles, and coach-athlete communication.

Coaches need to seek opportunities for learning and advancement of knowledge. It may be particularly helpful for coaches of women's hockey to explore the history of women's hockey and follow developments in the women's game in order to fully appreciate the changes brought on by amalgamations of women's and men's associations, or wider societal shifts, such as the advent of Sunday trading on women's availability for sport. Coaches should aim for a commitment to the "women's game" and try to keep abreast of relevant technological, pedagogical, and strategic developments. Hockey administrators may wish to consider initiating effective coach newsletters or providing updates of relevant research information to elite coaches.

Coaches need to have an understanding of the essential coach roles and qualities required for an elite coaching position in women's hockey so they can fully utilise their time with the elite team and consequently maximise the impact of their coaching in the elite setting. Such an understanding may help them prioritise their actions and planning of important coaching periods, for example, the tournament week. Other benefits for the coach may include an awareness of their own strengths and weaknesses as compared to essential roles and qualities, and perhaps, lead towards a greater appreciation of the coach characteristics to which players will most easily respond.

Administrators should encourage players to undertake player-coach roles, assistant coach roles, coaching of lower teams, while they are still active players. This may allow players to experiment with coaching strategies and provide them with a greater understanding about when and why coaches use particular tactics. It would also be an enjoyable experience, which could give them an understanding, with lower level teams, of the coach experience, and with higher level teams, of the coach roles and qualities, without them carrying the full responsibility for the team. This may also give them a greater understanding of women's issues in coaching and allow them to examine their own perceptions on gender and its impact on coaching interactions.

9.3.2 Recommendations for researchers

This present study is the first multifaceted attempt to explore role realities of elite women's field hockey coaches and examine the impact of gender, in this setting. Field hockey as a sport has rarely been the subject of in-depth research and this current research aimed to give voice to participants' perceptions in a way few observers have attempted before. As with McConnell's (1996) in-depth analysis of coach and captain leadership in the elite

strata of New Zealand rugby, the research assumptions, and methodology in this present study have been recorded fully in order to ensure an "audit trail for subsequent researchers" (p. 409).

This study revealed a rich image of elite women's field hockey but the fine lines and subtle brush strokes evident from the field are necessarily delineated in a relatively pragmatic list of categories and properties. Each of these, being revealed for the first time as a key component of cross-gendered coaching in elite women's field hockey, is worthy of further examination. In such considerations a subsequent researcher may find the following reflections on possible starting points to be valuable.

There appears to be an immediate need to capture a larger number of voices of women in sport as these are often missing from the current literature (Duquin, 1994; Spender, 1988) and are, therefore, not necessarily heard in decision-making circles within their sports. Alternatively, it is rare in sport research to locate the singular voices of women expressing in-depth, and at some length, their day-to-day, season-by-season, role-by-role, perceptions of the realities of their sport. In this context it is significant that one such woman was the subject of participant observation, in her capacity as an elite coach. The lack of women in elite sporting roles, whether coaching or administration was further illustrated in the present study by the three women coaches who comprised only one-quarter of the provincial coaches interviewed. Given that the voices of these women have now been heard, and were complemented by elite female players' perceptions, it is strongly recommended that further research should be considered by researchers in other countries, seeking to air the voices of the gendered minority in sport.

Women's stories are also missing largely from historically based examinations of sport (Vertinsky, 1999). In seeking women's perspectives, researchers could well move into a descriptive overview such as that provided in Chapter Two of this study and explore through this a more critical analysis of historical factors combined with an evocative portrayal of women's participation in all realms of sport. The historical voices of such field hockey participants may well illuminate new fields and add to our understandings of the whole participation of one gender in this sport. Indeed, such research may well provide a realistic basis for the creation of ethnographic fiction, as described by Sparkes (1997) in his attempts at describing gay issues in physical education.

Alternatively, further research might focus on one particular era and ask, perhaps: What factors contributed to the success of women coached teams from the 1960s and 1970s in New Zealand field hockey? Or what were the stances espoused by women in the 1980s and 1990s that led them to either accept, or not respond to, the male takeover of the women's sport under what proved to be the illusory banner of gender equity?

Given the findings of the present research, there is a real need to explore dimensions of elite women players who choose not to coach, after the end of their playing career, as suggested previously by Edwards (1993). Longitudinal study over several provincial captains' final seasons, leading up to retirement, may provide further understandings of those potentially elite hockey coaches. Researchers interested in this area may ask; if experienced players do not move into coaching positions, what are the long-term consequences for the sport? Or, are there women achievers, as captains, senior players or long term hockey players, who perceive facilitating or inhibiting factors in terms of their own possible coaching careers?

Comparative work, in two areas, is a further possibility for extending this current study. Firstly, participant observation with men's teams could provide a comparative setting with the environment of elite women's hockey. Observation of male coaches who work with both women and men's teams could help researchers explore the possibility of behavioural changes occurring between gender settings.

A second type of comparative study, with another elite team sport, such as netball, may provide interesting contrasts between a co-gendered sport such as hockey and a largely female sport such as netball. The recent attempts by some men to coach netball in provincial competitions, and increasing male participation in this traditionally female sport, may be worthy of deeper academic interest. Such focus by a researcher may prevent the takeover of women's netball by male leadership, and circumvent male coach ascendancy, as has occurred in international women's hockey.

Another finding generated by this study that has implications for possible research was the assumption by female players and male coaches that a "women's game" exists. Furthermore, the possibility that scientifically based comparisons between men and women's hockey could possibly quantify perceived differences reported in this current study should be considered by researchers. This may help determine if, in fact, the men's

game is faster, and if men are more effective in the execution of particular skills or tactical areas of the game than are women. Such knowledge may then lead to an enhancement of coaching programmes, the development of coaches, and beneficial developments in women's tactical play because a more detailed understanding of the technical aspects of the game, and consequently a more definitive targeting of coaching techniques would be gained through such an exercise.

Within the present study a number of issues signalled themselves for further attention by the researcher or her academic colleagues. Illustrative of this is the expression by some players (female) of feelings of harassment by their coaches (male). This is worthy of further analysis as it raises ethical considerations that must be resolved. Firstly, harassed players may not remain in the sport if the situation does not change. Secondly, there may well be a lack of attention to harassment issues and appropriate coach-player relationships in development courses in elite women's field hockey. Thirdly, administrators may be unaware that harassment issues exist and may have obviated any administrative actions to help male coaches understand potential situations of perceived harassment. Similarly, voices of minority groups like those from culturally diverse backgrounds (Taylor and Toohey, 1999) and lesbian participants (Caudwell, 1999) should be explored more fully through interview and focus groups in order to explore the full range of factors impacting upon this setting.

The elite coach, whether in a cross-gendered or pair-gendered setting, is in a leadership role (Chelladurai, 1990; McConnell, 1996, 1999). In the present study there was clear evidence of leadership actions illustrated by the inclusion of leadership in the categories of coach roles and qualities. Aspects of leadership could be explored more fully in the elite sport setting as suggested by Sinclair (1998, p. 175):

Work in the areas of gender and sexualities has the capacity to give us new and radical ways of understanding patterns we have come to take for granted. It is precisely constructs like leadership, about which we assume so much has been done that nothing new can be said, where a gender perspective can offer rich and deep insights.

Finally, it is suggested that career focused research be undertaken with a group of women who operate at the elite coach level. Qualitative research in the area of managerial careers mirroring the type of work by Inkson (1995) and Parker and Inkson (1999) could be adapted for use in the field of coaching leadership, especially if this work was carried out over a longitudinal period of five years or more. Such a study could indicate, for example,

what factors coaches most valued in terms of support mechanisms, or alternatively, what barriers they perceived and what actions were most effective in terms of career advancement.

9.4 REFLECTIONS ON THE RESEARCH PROCESS

It seems appropriate at this stage to reflect the researcher's concern, given that the administrators of hockey are tied inexorably to male guardians of sport's purse strings, that little action may follow this exploratory study exposing participant perceptions of elite coaching in women's hockey. Researchers in other disciplines have commented on this. For example, prominent Maori education researcher, Smith (1999, p. 3), provided a warning that "taking apart the story, revealing underlying texts, and giving voice to things that are often known intuitively does not help people to improve their current conditions". Nonetheless, I have confidence in my own ability and those of my sport research colleagues to promote the findings of this research and to argue in the various forums of sports' political corridors that these women's voices be heard, acknowledged and acted upon.

Within this context, women who play hockey, along with those who partially provide the game's leadership, will need to take responsibility for developing new strategies that reflect their own ways of thinking and living. In other words, women need to participate in their own active struggle aimed at overcoming the present imbalance of women in elite coaching. This is the promise of a liberatory praxis – it cannot be delivered from outside or even from someone sitting beside one's self (Shor and Freire, 1987).

Overall, I was happy with the study's progress and believe the experience has improved my coaching knowledge immeasurably. The inductive nature of grounded theory was at first a source of some uncertainty before the categories and properties emerged as the study progressed. The study developed a relatively small number of categories but it developed these in-depth and, within each category the emergence of a detailed range of properties mirrored the systematic and assiduous application of critical reflection and thematic analysis used by the researcher when continually revising the data. The data were seen by the researcher to emerge into four broadly cohesive groups and, given the thematic integration within each perceived group, the researcher made the conscious

decision to accept the small number of categories because each was seen by her to be marked with consistency and depth.

The pilot study was valuable as it provided a source of reassurance about the research process but, more than this, confirmed the efficacy of the methodology with which I had chosen to examine this setting. Despite the confidence I felt, the experience gained in trial interviews and in-depth reading on such procedures did not fully prepare me for the emotional content of some interview situations. The willingness of the coaches to share personal accounts of their lives and coaching situations was a moving experience and one I will be mindful of, in terms of confidentiality, when creating a picture of these scenes. I had the strong feeling, backed up through informal feedback about the interviews, that coaches were rarely given the opportunity to talk about coaching in such depth. The sensitivity of some information left me feeling privileged to have been given an opportunity to talk to the coaches on such a personal level and to gain a new level of insight into their elite sporting experiences.

9.5 CONCLUDING STATEMENT

It may be argued that coaching in elite women's hockey has come full circle from the sport's early development in the strictly gendered environment of nineteenth century England to its current gendered environment of twenty-first century sport in New Zealand. Men typically coached women in the early days of women's hockey and they typically coach them now, especially at provincial and international levels. The opportunities to carry out elite coaching and, more importantly, to develop essential coaching roles and qualities has been lost to many women in the currently shaped form of field hockey.

There is nothing to suggest, according to data uncovered in this current research, that women are unable to carry out any particular roles or lack any coaching qualities necessary at the elite level of competition. The research evidence points to the existence of a gender archetype of societal and individual dimensions, each having a moderating impact on the individual perceptions and interactions occurring across the coaching process. It would appear that gender impacts upon the elite women's hockey administrative-coaching-playing nexus, through a variety of factors including: gendered beliefs and attitudes, physicality myths and realities, confidence and competence, and sex and sexuality.

The qualitative approach to this project aimed to capture the voices of participants and illustrate the setting like that of a painter capturing a lifelike image. The clarity of the picture depended in part on the tools and skills utilised by the researcher, especially as questioner, observer, listener, analyser, reflector and finally, as theorist. The resultant picture, as woven throughout this thesis, is one which emerged from the everyday lives of coaches who work within elite women's hockey. The images which have unfolded have been subjected to critical reflection at all stages of the research, and it is therefore hoped that the reader will gain an enriched insight into participant realities in this domain.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SHINNEY, HURLING AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLE'S GAMES

Two games developed before the sixteenth century deserve closer examination because of their remarkable resemblance to the modern game of hockey. These are the Native American game of shinny and the Irish game of hurling. These games are played by two opposing teams with the main aim of hitting a small ball into a marked goal area with a curved stick, in order to beat the opponent by scoring more goals.

Native American Indians throughout the continent played a game called shinny which has been described as a "hockey-like team ball game" (Cheska, 1982, p.21). The game was possibly played originally as a ceremonial game but later for amusement (Brasch, 1986; Cheska, 1982), by women and men in different tribes in a variety of combinations. In some tribes, shinny was played only by men and in others men and women played separately. In many tribes men and women played in mixed teams, or in the case of the Crow tribe (Lowrie, 1954), shinny was played by women against men.

Shinny goals were often marked out with two poles or sticks at each end of the field, though blankets spread along the end lines were reportedly used as goals by the Crow (Cheska, 1982). Native Americans used either stuffed buckskin on the east coast or wooden balls on the west coast, which were propelled with sticks bent by heat if naturally curved sticks were unavailable (Buchner, 1935). The games were controlled by an umpire, often a medicine man, with one point being awarded for every goal.

Other peoples to have played this shinny type game include the Aborigines of southwestern Australia, who played the game with a bent stick (mollock with a root) and a wooden ball (Howell, 1996). Howell records research on similar games from Melanesia:

A team game resembling the modern sport of field hockey was played in the Torres Strait Island, the New Hebrides, and Fly River in New Guinea. The game involved hitting a wooden ball with a stick, often of bamboo, and was played on the beach. Few rules existed and the object appears to have been ball possession rather than scoring goals. However, the game was highly competitive and created considerable excitement (1996. p. 1087).

Considerations of ancient field hockey and the significant similarity of certain indigenous peoples' games to this sport do not appear to be valid for New Zealand Maori, who did not

appear to have any stick and ball game similar to shinny. A search of literature regarding games and pastimes of early Maori suggest that no such game existed, (see Best, 1976; Metge, 1976) despite the seeming abundance of sticks and balls such as poi, within their culture.

Broadly contemporaneous with the Native Americans playing shinny, and an ocean away, the Irish were also hitting balls with bent sticks in a game called hurling. Brasch (1986) suggests that the true ancestry of modern hockey lies in this ancient game of hurling which was, according to tradition, being played in pre-Christian times long before the coming of St Patrick, circa A.D. 432. Ditchfield (1891) describes hurling as a fast and furious game played with sticks and ball. The object of a game played between two parishes, for example, was to drive the ball from some central spot to one or other village “over hills, dales, hedges, and ditches until at length the wished-for goal was gained” (Ditchfield, 1891, p. 23).

Brasch (1986, p. 175) suggests that “hurling crossed the sea from Erin to England to be assimilated into the English way of life and eventually, to become hockey”. It was this early version of hockey that came to be known as bandy, a rough, dangerous and vigorous game uninhibited by any twentieth century safety rules. Women’s involvement in crude forms of hockey was limited but in the Fens (England) in the 1860s women played a type of bandy on ice using a “rather thinner stick and lighter ball” (Wymer, 1949, p. 195). Over a considerable period of time, bandy became tamed by rules such as the ban on raising sticks above the shoulder and suspension of players who struck other players with the stick or hand.

APPENDIX B

OTHER ELITE HOCKEY COMPETITIONS

B.1 ELITE AGE RESTRICTED HOCKEY COMPETITIONS

B.2 ELITE MAORI HOCKEY COMPETITIONS

APPENDIX B.1

ELITE AGE-RESTRICTED HOCKEY COMPETITIONS

Development of national hockey competitions, for younger age groups, began with the presentation of the Hatch Cup in 1919 as a challenge trophy for primary schoolboys of New Zealand, and the Rankin cup presented (1923) as the equivalent secondary schoolboys competition (Todd, 1966). The Hatch cup is now played as a regional competition, while the Rankin cup became a tournament competition between individual schools, since 1936.

The quest for a primary schoolgirls' tournament was initiated when The Whangarei Hockey Association began negotiations with the NZWHA in 1964. Permission was granted to conduct such a tournament with the proviso that it would not be recognised as a national tournament and that no trophy be awarded. The first tournament was held in 1966 at Whangarei, the home association's A team being the winner out of six teams ("The Story of New Zealand Primary Schoolgirls' Hockey", 1985). In 1967 a Hawera firm donated a hockey stick which, in lieu of a trophy, was used as a "Diary of Winners" recording that Whangarei first held this honour in 1966. The tenth anniversary of the tournament (1975) was again held in Whangarei and it was on this occasion that the Collier Trophy, donated by Mr and Mrs L.C. Collier, was presented to the winners.

In 1984, the formation of a New Zealand Secondary Schoolgirls' Hockey Advisory Board superseded the North and South Island advisory centres which previously organised regional school holiday competitions. Although these holiday competitions still exist for secondary schoolgirls, in 1992 a top section competing for the Leigh Trophy (renamed as the Federation Cup in 1995 because of criminal charges laid against the cup donor), was organised to determine the top secondary school girls team. Individual girls' schools were given an opportunity to compete for top hockey honours, fifty-six years after the boys inter school struggles had begun. Similarly, opportunities for girls to compete for trophies at regional competitions were achieved later than the boys; the first year that trophies were provided for girls in the regional secondary schoolgirls competitions was in 1996.

APPENDIX B.2

ELITE MAORI HOCKEY COMPETITIONS

Formation and Aims

In 1992 the first national representative tournament was held for Maori hockey players.

The aims of the Maori representative hockey tournament were as follows:

- ◆ To encourage Maori players to participate in the sport of hockey, and provide a focus for developing high levels of skill and fitness
- ◆ To enable Maori players to identify as Maori and experience the uniqueness of participating in Maori tournament
- ◆ To give Maori coaches, Managers, Umpires, and Administrators an opportunity to demonstrate and refine their skills
- ◆ To support and promote Tikanga Maori at an individual, roopu, and rohe level
- ◆ To develop awareness and pride in the abilities of other Maori in the sport
- ◆ To promote a healthy lifestyle
- ◆ To encourage whanau participation

Teams

Sixteen teams (eight women's and eight men's) took part in the Maori representative hockey tournaments. These were regional teams based on the Maori Land Court with the exception of Tamaki Makaurau (which was added and included Auckland and North Harbour regions). The eight regions were: Tai Tokerau, Waikato/Maniapoto, Waiariki, Tai Rawhiti, Takitimu, Aotea, Nga Hau e Wha, and Tamaki Makaurau.

The event was to have three basic rules:

1. Participants must have Maori ancestry
2. Participants must play for the rohe (region) in which they were registered
3. The event must be held out of the main hockey season – at Labour Weekend.

Coaches

The New Zealand Maori Women's team was coached by:

Shelley Hiha	1993-1999
Tina Bell-Kake	2000

Nga Taonga

Maori teams at the National tournaments competed for taonga carved by Milton Vercoe, for koha. The toanga were named by Nanny Chum Hungahunga, a kuia of Omahu marae, who was a staunch hockey supporter.

Wahine (Maori women) competed for Te Waka Huia (jewel box)

Te Ingoa: TUMANAKO (Rua te kau ma toru, Whiringa-a-Nuku, 1992)

Tane (Maori men) competed for Te Toki (an axe)

Te Ingoa: TAMAHOU ARIKINUI (Rua te kau ma toru, Whiringa-a-Nuku, 1992)

Sponsors

Auahi Kore "Smoke Free"

Hillary Commission

New Zealand Hockey Federation.

(Source: Margaret Hiha, personal communication, 22 November, 2000).

APPENDIX C

PARTICIPATION OF MEN AS COACHES OF WOMEN'S HOCKEY

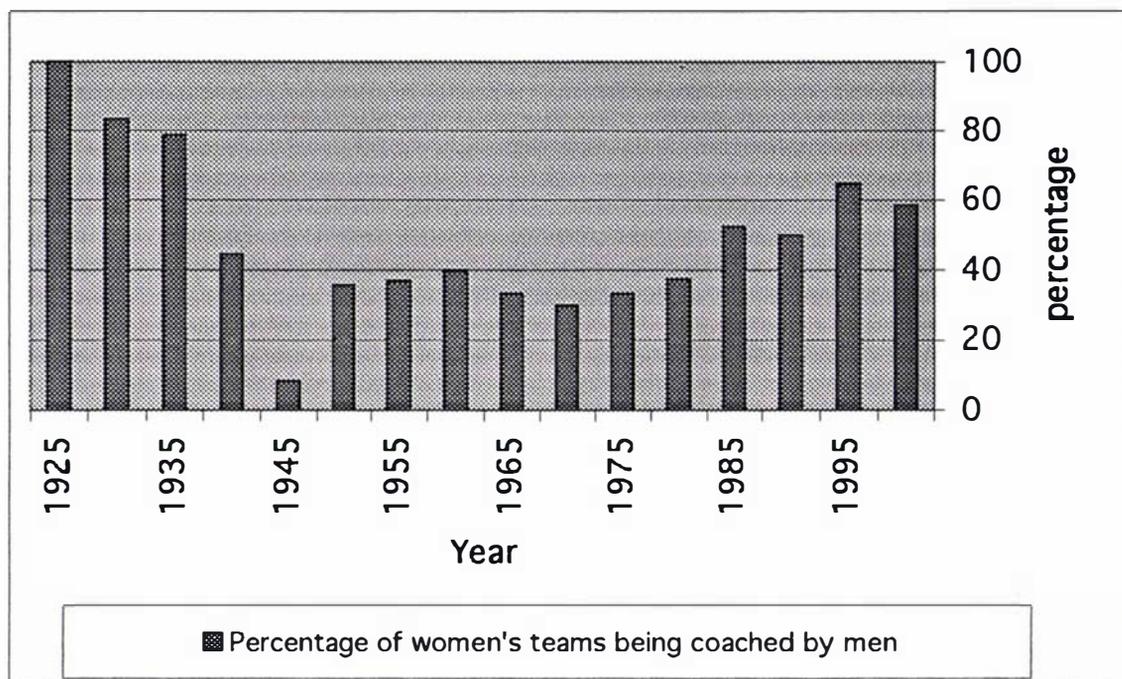


Figure C.1. Percentage of women's teams coached by men at national tournaments from 1925-2000 (Source: NZWHA and NZHF annual reports).

APPENDIX D

NUMBERS OF FEMALES PARTICIPATING IN HOCKEY

YEAR	NUMBER OF FEMALES
1975	16,566
1976	18,664
1977	22,345
1978	22,890
1979	22,408
1980	23,131
1981	23,248
1982	23,707
1983	24,423
1984	24,052
1985	23,410
1986	*
1987	22,527
1988	21,197
1989	*
1990	20,227
1991	18,027
1992	19,496
1993	18,890
1994	*
1995	19,796
1996	19,490
1997	19,853
1998	19,529
1999	19,912
2000	19,543

Table D.1. Numbers of women and girls playing hockey in New Zealand (Source NZWHA and NZHF Annual Reports). * Estimates for these years were not published in annual reports.

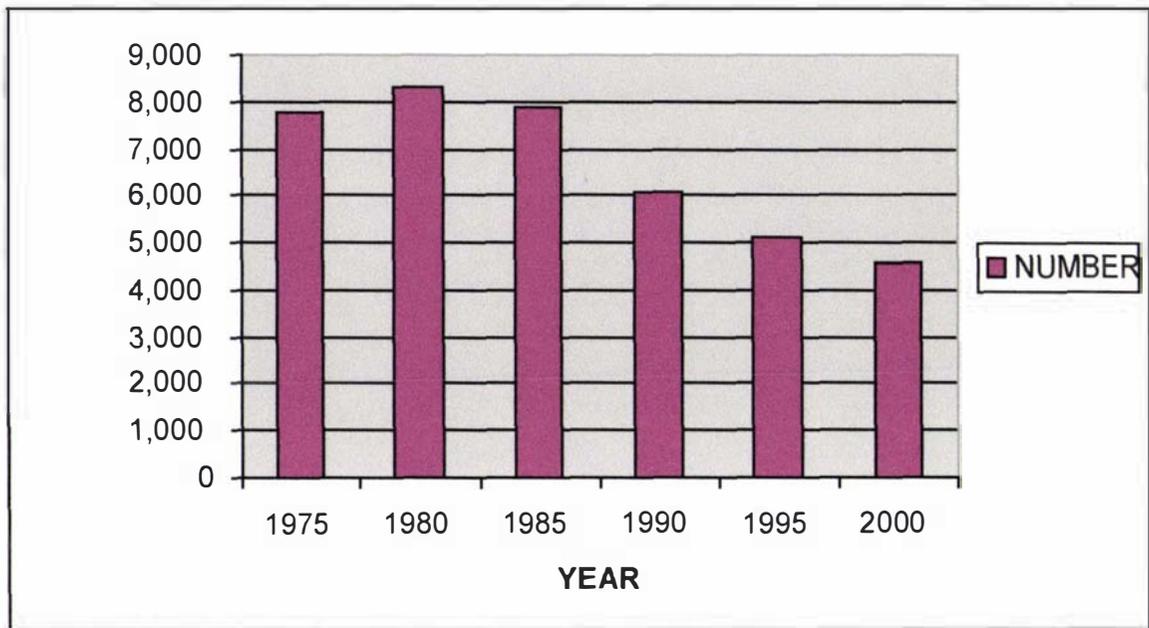


Figure D.2. Numbers of adult women playing hockey in New Zealand (Source NZWHA and NZHF Annual Reports).

APPENDIX E

HISTORICAL TIMELINE: 4000 YEARS OF HOCKEY

DATE	HOCKEY EVENTS
2000 BC	Mural in Tomb no. 16 Beni Hasan Egypt showing "Bully off"
514-499 BC	Bas-relief in Athens built by Themistocles depicting 6 men in "hockey" like game
1174	Balle playe bandy type game
1333	Silver altar flask depicting the game
1360	Gloucester cathedral stained glass window depicts hockey
1363	Cambuca 'crooked stick and wooden ball' described in book
15th C	Irish Hurling
1527	Earliest mention of hockie "the horlinge of litill balle with stickes or slaves"
16th Century	Scottish Shinty
17th Century	Hocquet, jeu de mail- France, Het Kolven- Holland, Kolbe - Germany, Bandy - England, Mapache - Chile, Cheuca - Argentina
17 th Century	Native American Hockey - Whicita, Sioux
1775	Camp-Ball (cambuca, cammock, comocke) type of bandy in London
1785	Cowper mentions hockey in a letter
1840	Blackheath Club formed in England
1842	Water colour from Sydney's Hyde Park shows a game of "hockey"
1862	Hockey rules drawn up
1868	Hockey rules in the Eton College chronicle
1875	Teddington Hockey Association formed from Cricket club (smooth ball)
1875	Association formed for men (lasted only 7 years)
1883	Wimbledon Hockey Association 'standardised the rules'
1886	British Hockey Association formed
1887	East Molesley - first Ladies hockey club
1887	Hockey at Lady Margaret Hall and Somerville at Oxford
1889	Wimbledon women's club formed (oldest surviving women's hockey club in the world)
1889	5321 formation was played
1890	Women started at Newnham College Cambridge
1892	The top of the goal was joined
1894	Formation of the Irish Ladies Hockey Union in Dublin
1895	Rev Mathias formed Kaiapoi club in NZ
1895	First men's international Irish v Welsh
1895	Men's international England (3) v Ireland (0)
1895	English Ladies hockey Association (ELHA) formed
1896	Rev Mathias founded women's Hinemoa club in Kaiapoi (first played 1897)
1896	ELHA change name to All England women's association
1897	Men's club called Tinwald just south of Ashburton
1897	Women's hockey games at Kaiapoi, (Hinemoa, ChCh girls hockey club)
1897	Reports of women's hockey games in Nelson
1898	First Canterbury men's team selected
1899	Wapiti club for women formed in Auckland NZ
1900	Kotiro and University women's clubs played hockey in Auckland
1900	Ladies North Island v South Island game held at tournament in Wellington
1900	Men's International Rules Board (formed by England)
1900	Hockey played at Olympics in Paris (Demonstration competition)
1902	New Zealand Hockey Association (men's) formed in Christchurch
1903	Auckland Hockey Association (men's) affiliated to NZHA
1903	Auckland Ladies Hockey Association formed
1903	Representative ladies match played in Wellington
1903	NZ men's first inter-island match in Christchurch (draw 1-1)
1903	Auckland men v Canterbury men game (Cant 2, Ak, 1)
1907	NZHA presented Challenge Shield (awarded to Auckland)
1908	New Zealand Ladies Hockey Association formed in Wellington (Sept 7th)

1908	Izard cup presented for first Dominion tournament in Days Bay Wellington, NZ
1908	Men's hockey competition played at the Olympic Games (6 teams)
1908	First women's state association formed in Australia
1910	Formation of the All Australian Women's Hockey Association
1910	First Australian interstate tournament
1914	All Australian women's team played England on its way to NZ
1914	English women's tour to New Zealand
1919	Hatch cup presented for Primary schoolboys competition
1920	Olympic Games Antwerp (4 men's teams)
1921-1922	United States Field hockey Association founded (women)
1922	NZ men's first test match versus Australia (won 5-4)
1923	Addington club presented Rankin cup (secondary schoolboys competition)
1923	NZ men's team on first overseas tour to Australia
1924	International Hockey Federation (men's) founded in Paris (7 nations: Australia, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Hungary, Spain, Switzerland)
1924	K cup presented by Mr S. Kirkpatrick of Nelson to replace Izard cup
1925	Australian Hockey Association (men's) formed at Melbourne
1927	International Federation of Women's Hockey Associations founded (8 nations: Australia, Denmark, England, Ireland, Scotland, South Africa, USA, Wales)
1928	Olympic Games Amsterdam (10 men's teams)
1930s	Taira-whiti Maori Hockey Association formed
1930	Men's field hockey association of America founded
1930	1st IFWHA conference in Geneva (two exhibition matches played)
1929	NZ women's team chosen to play in South Africa (did not tour)
1932	NZLHA changed name to NZ Women's Hockey Association
1932	Olympic Games Los Angeles (3 men's teams)
1933	2nd IFWHA conference in Copenhagen (6/8 member nations)
1934	NZWHA formed umpires sub-committee
1935	NZ women 1st international tour to Australia (NZ won 13/14 games, beat Australia 2-1 in the test match)
1936	Fijian women toured NZ and played one test (NZ won 4-0)
1936	Olympic Games Berlin
1936	3rd IFWHA conference in Philadelphia (6 teams)
1937	Auckland Women's Umpires Association formed
1938	English women toured NZ (NZ lost 3 tests. Coach Mr G. Hamilton)
1939	NZWHA affiliated to IFWHA just before outbreak of war
1939	IFWHA conference cancelled in England due to World war II outbreak
1948	Australian men played NZ (Australia won 2-1)
1948	NZ Women's umpires Association formed (affiliated to NZWHA)
1948	Olympic Games London
1948-49	Continental countries joined IFWHA
1950	Radius of goal shooting circle increased
1950	4th IFWHA conference in South Africa (6 teams)
1950	32 member nations in women's hockey
1952	Olympic Games Helsinki
1953	"American" corner rule adopted at 5th IFWHA conference in England
1953	5th IFWHA in Folkstone England (16 teams, NZ wins 16/20 matches at tournament and subsequent tour of England, Scotland and Holland. Managers Mrs E. Moore and Miss C.M Wilkins)
1953	Two NZ women umpires gained international status (Gooder and Jensen)
1955	Fijian women toured NZ
1956	6th IFWHA conference in Sydney (10 teams, NZ wins 20/22 matches. Managers Mrs H. Poulter, Mrs A. Gooder)
1956	Netherlands, Scotland and USA women's teams visited NZ
1956	Olympic Games Melbourne (NZ men's team placed 6th)
1959	7th IFWHA conference in Amsterdam (15 teams, NZ won 4/9 test matches. Managers Mrs A. Gooder, Mrs C.A. Scott)
1959-1963	Pearl Dawson (NZ) elected Vice president of IFWHA
1960	Olympic Games Rome
1963	8th IFWHA conference in Maryland (17 teams sent, NZ won all 6 test matches. Managers

	Mrs I.J. McGregor, Miss M Sparks)
1963	Penalty stroke rule introduced
1964	Olympic Games Tokyo
1964	NZWHA ran residential coaching school (Trentham military camp)
1960s	IFWHA reaches 50 member nations (one million players)
Mid 60s	NZWHA primary schoolgirls tournaments began
1966	Silver Fern hockey circle set up in New Zealand
1967	9th IFWHA conference in Leverkusen Germany (19 teams sent, NZ won 4/7 matches. Managers E. M. Love, E.J. Pearson)
1967-1971	Aileen Gooder (NZ) elected President of IFWHA
1967-1971	Jessie Smith (NZ) IFWHA tournament secretary
1967-68	Autonomous Women's International Hockey Rules Board (WIHRB) set up
1968	Olympic Games Mexico City
1969	NZWHA minor sections representative team toured Australia (Manager, E.E. Blackie)
1970	First schoolgirl international (Scotland v Wales)
1971	First FIH World Cup for men
1971	IFWHA conference and tournament held in Auckland New Zealand (16 teams, South Africa withdrew. NZ won 3/6. Manager-Coach Mrs J.M. Crossen)
1972	Olympic Games Munich
1973	NZ women to tournament in Holland (NZ 3 rd , winners of the Silver Tulip Trophy. Coach and assistant manager E.H.Lush)
1973	NZ women tour South Africa on the last leg of world tour
1973	International women's under 21 tournament Bangour
1974	1st FIH women's world cup Mandelieu, French Riviera (10 teams)
1975	IFWHA conference and World Championship in Edinburgh (22 teams, NZ 3rd. Winner presented with Scottish quach in sterling silver – later to be world cup. Coach Mrs M. Jenkins)
1975	First FIH common rule book drawn up for men and women
1975	NZWHA set up North Island secondary schoolgirls advisory centre
1976	2nd FIH women's world cup Berlin Germany (11 teams)
1976	Olympic Games Montreal (New Zealand men, gold medal)
1978	NZ women play series against Canada and Australia (won 4/4 matches. Coach Mrs S. Eddy)
1978	3rd FIH women's world cup Madrid Spain (10 teams)
1979-1983	IFWHA absorbed by FIH
1979	IFWHA world tournament in Canada (NZ 9 th . Coach Mrs S. Eddy)
1979	NZ women beat Australia in test at Hamilton (score 3-1)
1980	FIH created Hockey Rules Board with male and female appointees
1980	1st Olympic Games for women in Moscow (8 teams, Zimbabwe women won gold, NZ team boycotted these games)
1981	Asian Ladies Hockey Association formed
1982	FIH requested Asian Ladies HA be dissolved and affiliate to Asian HA
1981	4th FIH women's world cup Buenos Aires, Argentina (12 teams)
1983	5th FIH/IFWHA world cup, K.L. Malaysia (12 teams, NZ 7 th . Coach Mrs M. Hiha)
1984	NZ's first artificial surface laid in Wellington
1984	Olympic Games Los Angeles (6 teams, NZ women 6 th . Coach Mr W. Boyd)
1986	6 th FIH Women's World Cup Amstelveen Holland (12 teams, NZ 4 th . Coach Mr W. Boyd, Assist Coach Ms P. Barwick)
1987	1st Women's Champions Trophy tournament Amstelveen Holland (NZ placed 6/6)
1988	NZWHA and NZHA amalgamate to form NZHF
1988	Olympic Games Seoul (NZ women not present)
1989	FIH Women's champion trophy (6 teams, NZ women not present)
1990	7th FIH women's world cup Sydney (12 teams, NZ 7th. Coach Ms P. Barwick, Assist coach Mrs A. McKenna)
1991	FIH Women's champion trophy (6 teams, NZ not present)
1991	Olympic Qualifying Tournament Auckland, NZ (12 teams, NZ 2 nd . Coach Ms P. Barwick, Assist coach Mrs A McKenna)
1992	Olympic Games Barcelona (8 teams, NZ women 8th. Coach Ms P. Barwick, Assist Coach Mrs A McKenna)
1992	Maori representative annual tournament reestablished

1993	4 th Intercontinental cup in Philadelphia (NZ Coach Mr P. Ackerley)
1996	No offside rule introduced experimentally
1996	9 th Preliminary World Cup qualifying tournament in Trinidad and Tobago (NZ 1 st , Coach P. Ackerley, Assist coach Mr A. Innes)
1996	Olympic Games Atlanta (NZ women did not qualify)
1996	Formation of Te Kaunihera Haupoi Maori O Aotearoa (Maori Hockey Council)
1997	9 th FIH World Cup qualifying tournament in Harare Zimbabwe (NZ 2 nd , Coach P. Ackerley, Assist coach Mr A. Innes)
1998	9 th FIH World Cup Utrecht Holland (12 teams, NZ women 6 th . Coach Mr P. Ackerley, Assist coach Mr A. Innes)
1998	No offside rule became mandatory
1998	Commonwealth Games Kuala Lumpur (NZ women bronze medal. Coaches Mr P. Ackerley, Mr A. Innes)
1999	FIH Champions Trophy in Brisbane (NZ team 5 th . Coach Mr J. Borren)
2000	Olympic Qualifying tournament Milton Keynes England (NZ 1 st , Coach Mr J. Borren, Assist coach Mr S. Maister)
2000	Women's champions trophy in Amstelveen Holland (6 teams, NZ 6 th . Coach Mr J. Borren, Assist coach Mr C. Leslie)
2000	Olympic Games Sydney (10 teams, NZ women 6th. Coach Mr J. Borren, Assist coach Mr S. Maister,)

Figure E.1. Historical timeline tracing the development of New Zealand women's hockey from ancient to modern times. (Note: Important events, from the perspective of this current thesis, have been highlighted in bold).

APPENDIX F

NEW ZEALAND HOCKEY FEDERATION PATHWAY FOR COACHES

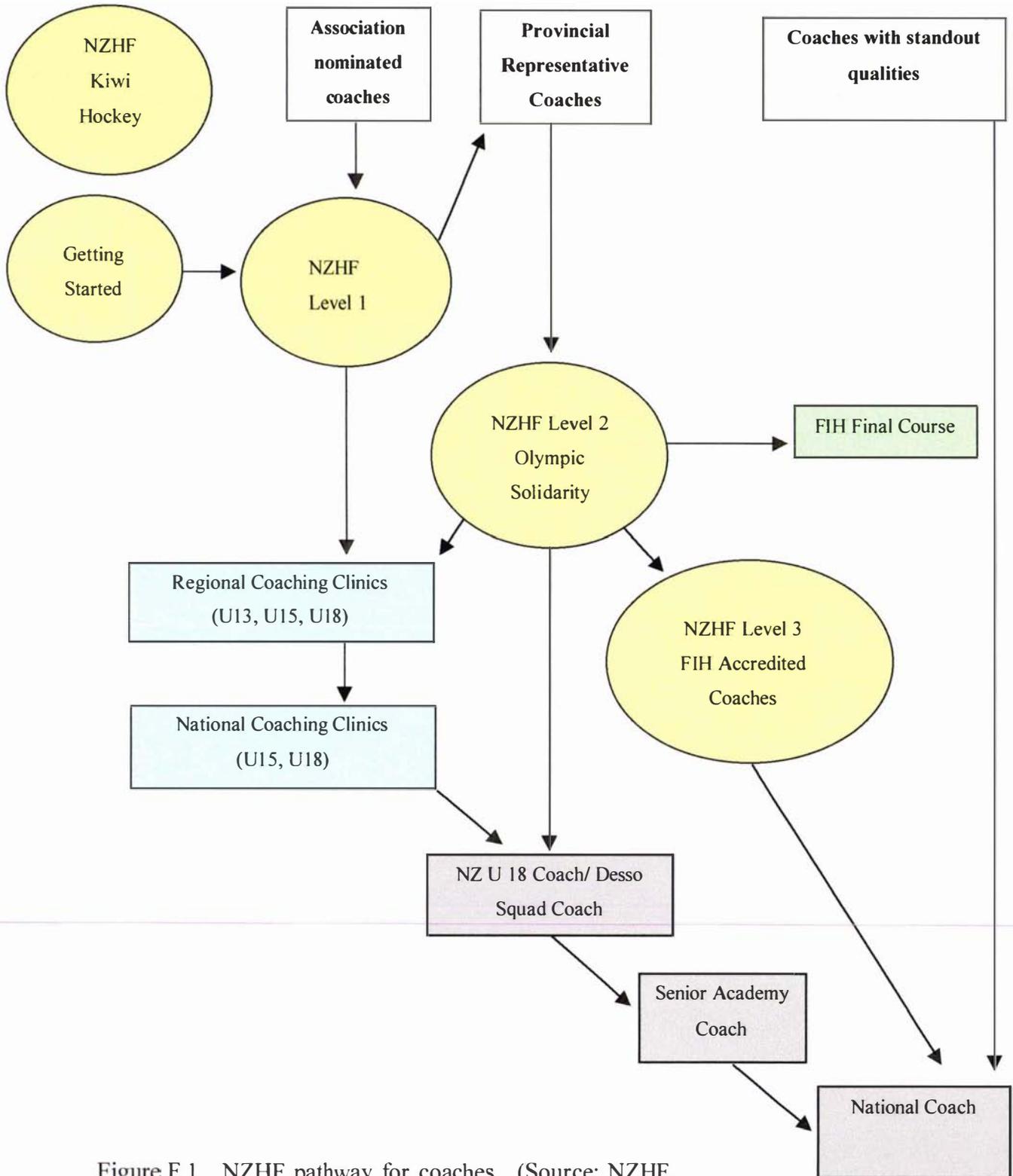


Figure F.1. NZHF pathway for coaches. (Source: NZHF, 1996, p. 7).

APPENDIX G

NEW ZEALAND HOCKEY FEDERATION WINNING WOMEN'S PROGRAMME

In 1995, the New Zealand Hockey Federation, with financial support from the Hillary Commission for Sport, Fitness and Leisure began the "Winning Women's Programme", with the specific aim of targeting promising women coaches and giving them increased opportunity to learn at elite level. The winning women's coaches were teamed with New Zealand's FIH qualified female coach, who acted as mentor and role model.

As a participant in that programme, I will outline the structure and opportunities from my own perspective.

In the first year, four "learner" coaches (of whom the present researcher was one) were selected for a pilot scheme to be run in the Auckland region. The scheme was designed as a group model with one female coach appointed by the NZHF to act as mentor. The mentor coach was an ex New Zealand captain and coach with many years experience at provincial and international level. She was, at the time, the most highly qualified FIH coach in New Zealand. The mentor was also an employee of the NZHF and Canterbury Hockey Associations and, therefore, had a working knowledge of the organisation's structure including experience of the selection processes for coaching positions in the Federation.

Initially, the group met at an international series of games where hockey-specific tasks were set for the women with verbal feedback being given by the mentor. The importance of feedback and appraisal for coaches has been discussed widely in popular coaching texts (see Kidman & Hanrahan, 1997; Martens, 1997). Sage (1975) maintains that the lack of academic training in coaching per se requires that most occupational socialisation and training will occur on the job. Thus, informal feedback by the mentor coach was seen as vital to this process. Group feedback was augmented by the mentor coach who took the opportunity, over the course of the year, to watch each learner coach in action with their own teams and provide specific verbal feedback during a one-on-one session.

Opportunities were also provided for the learner coaches to discuss a broad range of coaching topics ranging from practical hockey tactics to the barriers preventing women coaching at elite levels. The women were also given the opportunity to meet with the executive director of NZHF and discuss the "pathway for coaches", a flow diagram illustrating an idealised coaching progression toward the national coaching job (NZHF, 1996, p. 7).

In addition the women coaches were invited to observe test match team talks, half-time talks and post game analysis with the New Zealand women's team. A further opportunity to meet and talk with the 1995 New Zealand men's coach was extended to the group. Some women also participated as observers at the New Zealand men's academy training weekend (including pre-match talks, half time talks and post game analysis).

The programme was extended in 1996 to include another two women, this time from outside the Auckland region, who applied to the scheme through applications forms available through the provincial hockey associations. Generally women remained on the scheme for one or two years, allowing the scheme to expand and countering accusations of elitism which have arisen in other select mentor schemes (Gunn, 1995). In 1996, 1997 and 1998 the number of applications outnumbered available places on the mentor scheme and employees of the NZHF, in conjunction with the mentor coach, selected the candidates.

The mentor scheme, by 1997, had become more flexible, in response to the programme evaluation after the first two years, allowing candidates to choose the activities that would benefit them the most. For example in 1997, one coach chose to be an observer/helper at an Academy weekend camp while another chose to attend the Level 3 NZHF coaching course. In this way the network spread and allowed other highly experienced coaches, such as those running the Olympic academies, to become involved with the mentor and/or role model positions.

The winning women's programme in 1998, focused on opportunities for the learner coaches to observe the New Zealand women's team during a test series against Argentina, and the men's academy side during a series against the New Zealand Maori team and Japan. Learner coaches attended pre-match team talks, half-time talks and post match evaluations. Two women were given a further opportunity to observe the New Zealand

coach and assistant coach conducting small group tactic discussions and video analysis sessions aimed at statistical evaluation of individual players and team performance.

Successes of the scheme reported by NZHF to the Hillary Commission included: the appointment of two women, alternatively, as assistant coach of the NZ under 18 team; appointment of a women to head coach and assistant coach of the Desso women's squad (elite NZ Under-15 training squad); appointment of two woman to provincial coaching; the appointment of a specialist goalkeeping coach for elite women (A. Lints, personal communication, 13 May 1997). During 1998, one of the women on the scheme acted as head coach of the New Zealand women's academy squad during a tour to Australia and subsequently applied for the job of assistant coach of the New Zealand women's team. Another success of the scheme was that it provided an atmosphere which encouraged networking between the learner coaches, therefore increasing opportunities for peer review and feedback.

Evaluation of the scheme was also undertaken by tracking the coaching progress of the participants. Only one coach, out of nine, who had progressed through the winning women's scheme from its inception, was not coaching in 1998. Two learner coaches remained active in coaching girls in the sport but did not progress to higher levels, while another two retained previously held elite coaching roles within women's hockey. The success of the scheme was based on the fact that four learner coaches applied for and received elite coaching roles within the NZHF. This was explained by one learner coach who reported that she applied for a provincial coaching job because of increased self-confidence she had gained during her two years on the scheme. Close contact with the mentor coach was cited as a key factor in her coaching progress.

Future developments include the intention to expand the scheme by asking coaches leaving the scheme to mentor other female coaches in their own geographical area. However, initial attempts at spreading the mentor network have failed due to difficulties in matching women leaving the scheme with a compatible learner coach in their area. Another difficulty still to be resolved is the dual role of the mentor coach, who has become involved in coach selections for higher coaching roles by the NZHF. This may create difficulties for both mentor and learner coaches in terms of confidentiality and honesty in their relationship (Geiger-DuMond & Boyle, 1995; Mathieson, 1997). In addition the use

of mainly one person as the mentor coach posed problems in that the amount of time and work required for this voluntary position was unrealistically high.

Other difficulties arose with the women who left the mentoring programme. They had built up a strong relationship with the mentor but she was now busy with a new group of coaches. No link had been provided to any experienced coach in their own association and no contact remained between the NZHF and the coaches. This problem was illustrated by the comments of one learner coach who told the researcher that the moment she returned to her own coaching environment she felt totally isolated and unappreciated by her association (Coach "Shevaun", personal communication, Feb 16, 1998). Finding local support was viewed by this coach as a vital ingredient to her continued input at the elite level.

Since the winning women's programme began other initiatives to encourage women within the organisation have taken place. The NZHF specifically requested a female FIH presenter to attend the Olympic Solidarity coaching course in 1997 which, according to the Dutch coach who was chosen, was a very uncommon situation (Benninga personal communication, 18 June 1997), in that most countries refuse to have a women presenter. Other gender-friendly initiatives include: having female presenters and an equal gender ratio of participants all NZHF coaching courses; asking Association to accept the "Winning Women's Charter" to encourage equity in sport (Hillary Commission for Sport, Fitness and Leisure, 1995); and providing financial support for research including women in coaching.

APPENDIX H

ELITE HOCKEY COACH OBSERVATIONS

H.1 ELITE HOCKEY COACH OBSERVATIONS INFORMATION SHEET

H.2 ELITE HOCKEY COACH OBSERVATIONS CONSENT FORM

APPENDIX H.1

ELITE HOCKEY COACH OBSERVATIONS INFORMATION SHEET

What is the study about?

The study has one main aim. To gather information about coaching women's hockey. This research will primarily involve investigation of the qualities and roles of the coaches, as perceived by the players and coaches, and the identification of gender factors which impact on the coaching experience.

Objectives

The objectives for this research are to:

1. Understand the role of a women's hockey coach.
2. Detail the experiences of men and women who coach women's hockey teams.
3. Identify gender factors which may influence the coaching process.

What will you have to do?

If you agree to participate in this study you will be observed personally by the researcher. The observations will take place during training sessions, team talks, competition games and informal team gatherings. The researcher is the only person who will be observing the coach.

Participant observation subjects have the right to review copies of the field note transcripts, and the opportunity to make corrections or additional comments if so desired.

The observer is interested in exactly what you do as a coach. The observer will try to record what you do, who you interact with, and what you say. The observer will record detailed notes which will then be typed up and provided for you to read if you wish. The researcher and the supervisors are the only people who will see the typed field notes. Your real name or the real names of the players will not be included in the typed notes.

Who is conducting the research?

The research is being carried out by Margot Edwards, a graduate student studying for a Doctor of Philosophy degree at Massey University, Albany. Margot has been involved in hockey in Auckland since 1977 and has represented Auckland and New Zealand. She has also been involved in coaching and administering the sport at many levels.

Margot's supervisors for this research are Dr Marilyn Waring in the Social Policy Department at Massey University, Albany and Dr Robin McConnell in the Management and International Business Department at Massey University, Albany. Contact information is as follows:

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Massey University, Albany
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Your rights

If you take part in the participant observation you have the right to:

1. Refuse to be observed, and to withdraw from the study at any time.
2. Agree or to not agree to field notes being taken. You may ask for note taking to stop at any time.
3. Ask any further questions about the study that occur to you before during or after your participation.
4. Provide information on the understanding that it is completely confidential to the researcher, that you will not be able to be identified in any reports that are prepared from the study.
5. Determine the disposal of field notes and transcripts of the observations.
6. Withdraw any information you have provided for this study (before data collection is complete), without having to provide reasons and without penalty of any sort.
7. Be given access to a summary of the findings from the study when it is concluded.

APPENDIX H.2**ELITE HOCKEY COACH OBSERVATIONS CONSENT FORM**

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

If I agree to participate, I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decline to answer any particular questions that the researcher may put to me.

I agree / do not agree to the observer taking detailed field notes. I understand I have the right to view the researchers typed observation transcripts.

I also understand that I have the right to ask for the observer to stop taking notes at any stage.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signed:

Name:

Date:

APPENDIX I**ELITE COACH INTERVIEWS**

- I.1 ELITE HOCKEY COACH INTERVIEW GUIDE**
- I.2 ELITE HOCKEY COACH INTERVIEW INFORMATION SHEET**
- I.3 ELITE HOCKEY COACH CONSENT FORM**

APPENDIX I.1

ELITE HOCKEY COACH INTERVIEW GUIDE

Date:

Place:

A. COACH PROFILE

Name: _____

Address: _____

D.O.B.: _____

Occupation: _____

Partner/ Dependants: _____

B. COACH DEVELOPMENT

1. Could you outline your development as a coach up to your current position? (team's, educational opportunities, courses...)
2. Was there a person (or people) that influenced your coach development? (In what ways were you influenced? Were any of these people mentors?)
3. If you have a partner, how would you describe their perspective on your coaching commitments?
4. Do you belong to a coach support network (formal or informal)? If so, what benefits are there in belonging?
5. Tell me about the first time you coached a women's team. (If you had previously coached males, were there any adjustments you had to make?)
6. Do you have a preference for coaching men or women? Please explain.
7. If there is a gender difference between yourself and your team, does this impact upon any dimension of the player-coach setting? (e.g. changing room, language, jokes, physical contact?)

C. COACH ROLE AND QUALITIES

1. Could you rank the importance of these roles of an elite women's hockey coach.

1= most important

6= least important

RANK	COACHROLE
	selector
	game planner
	technical coach
	motivator and communicator
	relating to players
	fitness development

2. Does this order of importance change if you coach men?
3. Some coaches find that coaching one gender places different demands upon them than coaching the other gender. How do you respond to this?
4. In your opinion what are the most important qualities of a coach of an elite women's hockey team? What are the most important qualities of a coach of an elite men's hockey team?

D. COACH AND CAPTAIN QUALITIES

1. Read through the qualities below. If you believe that any of these are **essential** for an elite women's hockey coach or captain could you please tick the relevant box.

Communicates effectively		
Has a high level of hockey skills and techniques		
Is highly competitive		
Possesses self confidence		
Attends nearly all games and practices		
Is good friends with players		
Makes trainings fun		
Is sensitive to different sexual orientations		
Has a high organisational ability		
Is a very good role model		
Has a high level of coaching experience		
Is intelligent		
Analyses the game well		
Maintains a positive approach in adversity		
Is oriented to winning		
Treats players with respect		
Has enthusiasm		
Has formal coaching qualifications		
Understands others feelings (empathy)		
Has clear values and integrity		
Makes clear decisions		
Has an optimistic outlook		
Has imagination		
Is persuasive		
Is a good public speaker		
Involves the players in goal setting		
Is consistent		
Motivates players to attain goals		
Has a winning record		
Takes pride in player achievement		
Is loyal to the team		
Can change a game plan if necessary (during the game)		

Works well with others		
Is sensitive to cultural/ethnic considerations		
Has a sense of vision		
Appreciates hockey's values and traditions		
Is a firm and fair disciplinarian		
Is respected by the players		
Fosters team unity and spirit		
Gives clear feedback		
Develops a clear team plan or strategy		
Has prior experience coaching women		
Has charisma		
Accepts responsibility for the team		
Has clear goals		
Possesses a willingness to work hard		
Is emotionally stable		
Is an able problem solver		
Represents the team well in public		
Accepts decisions and results in a sporting manner		
Is willing to take considered risks		
Is part of the team socially but retains a little distance		
Has (had) a high level of personal playing skills		
Has an excellent understanding of female physiology		
Has the conviction of their own beliefs		
Fosters positive team training		
Has a friendly recognition of players' families		
Knows the rules of hockey		
Understands women well		
Is in a good coach-captain relationship		
Relates well to administrators		

2. Are there any other qualities you think are essential for an elite women's hockey coach or captain, that have not been included in the above list? Please explain.

E. WOMEN'S ISSUES

1. Are there any issues concerning women's health that you need to be more aware of when coaching females? (pregnancy, menstruation, nutrition, body image)
2. Are there any issues concerning psychology that you need to be more aware of coaching females as opposed to males? (self esteem, goal setting, positive feedback)
3. Are there any issues concerning physiology that you need to be more aware of coaching females as opposed to males? (upper body strength, speed, fitness)
4. Are there any issues concerning sport pedagogy (teaching sport skills) you may need to be aware of coaching females as posed to males? (learning styles)
5. A number of lesbian women play hockey. Does this influence your approach as a coach? How has this impacted upon the team?
6. One of the issues that has been raised within sport, is that of coach-player relationships and concern over what is perceived as sexual harassment. Is this an aspect of women's sport that a coach should consider?

Could you explain your answer?

7. Sometimes the coach may become an idealised figure who is looked upon as having special qualities. This may lead a player to view the coach as a person with whom they would like a closer relationship than the normal coach-player situation. Have you ever felt such a situation or potential situation as a coach?
8. Are there any other aspects with regard to coaching elite women's hockey you would like to raise?

F. COACH ADVICE

1. Since the late 1980s the number of males coaching provincial women's teams has increased. (Show graph). Why do you think this has happened?
2. Do you perceive any particular need for the NZHF to develop women as coaches?
3. Do you have suggestions on how women could be developed as coaches?

G. 1997 PROVINCIAL COACH: SELF-PERCEPTIONS

1. With regard to your present role as coach of an elite women's hockey team please read the following statements and indicate your response to these statements by placing a tick in the appropriate column. Please remember that you will not be identified in this research.

- 1= strongly agree
 2= agree
 3= neither agree nor disagree
 4= disagree
 5= strongly disagree

STATEMENTS**1 2 3 4 5**

		1	2	3	4	5
1	I advise each player about fitness training					
2	I encourage upper body strength training					
3	I ensure players are fat-tested					
4	I ensure players are tested for fitness improvements					
5	I help individuals to develop hockey skills					
6	I understand the effects of pregnancy					
7	I understand the effects of menstruation					
8	I understand nutrition for women					
9	I encourage individuals to have a positive body image					
10	I am sensitive about each players self esteem					
11	I help each player with individual goal setting					
12	I give each player specific positive feedback					
13	I am accepting of lesbian players					
14	I do not harass individuals in my team					
15	I refer to positive female role models					
16	I treat all players equally					
17	I likes the players as people					
18	I prefer coaching women's hockey over men's					
19	I encourage players to use training log books					
20	I make time to talk with individuals					

H. 1997 PROVINCIAL COACH: IMAGINED PLAYER PERCEPTIONS

The players will be filling in a questionnaire about your qualities. Please read each statement below and then tick the box which you think most accurately illustrates your players' perceptions of you. *For example, if you think the players "agree" that you help develop hockey skills you would tick box 2.*

- 1= strongly agree
 2= agree
 3= neither agree nor disagree
 4= disagree
 5= strongly disagree

STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5
1 I advise each player about fitness training					
2 I encourage upper body strength training					
3 I ensure players are fat-tested					
4 I ensure players are tested for fitness improvements					
5 I help individuals to develop hockey skills					
6 I understand the effects of pregnancy					
7 I understand the effects of menstruation					
8 I understand nutrition for women					
9 I encourage individuals to have a positive body image					
10 I am sensitive about each players self esteem					
11 I help each player with individual goal setting					
12 I give each player specific positive feedback					
13 I am accepting of lesbian players					
14 I do not harass individuals in my team					
15 I refer to positive female role models					
16 I treat all players equally					
17 I likes the players as people					
18 I prefer coaching women's hockey over men's					
19 I encourage players to use training log books					
20 I make time to talk with individuals					

APPENDIX I.2

ELITE HOCKEY COACH INTERVIEW INFORMATION SHEET

What is the study about?

The study has one main aim. To gather information about coaching women's hockey.

Objectives

The objectives for this research are to:

1. Understand the factors influencing a coach to become involved in women's hockey.
2. Detail the experiences of men and women who coach women's hockey teams.
3. Identify gender factors which may influence the coaching process.

What will you have to do?

If you agree to participate in this study you will be interviewed personally by the researcher. The interview will take place at a time convenient to you, will be tape recorded and will normally be conducted in private. The researcher is the only person who will transcribe the tapes.

Interview subjects have the right to decline consent for the interviews to be tape recorded, to turn off the tape at any time, to review copies of the transcripts, and the opportunity to make corrections or additional comments if so desired.

The researcher will ask you about your involvement in coaching hockey. It will involve a discussion about why you have chosen to coach women. The interview will ask you about positive and negative aspects to coaching women's teams. The interview will also ask you about coach education and opportunities to advance in the sport.

Who is conducting the research?

The research is being carried out by Margot Edwards, a graduate student studying for a Doctor of Philosophy degree at Massey University, Albany. Margot has been involved in hockey in Auckland since 1977 and has represented Auckland and New Zealand. She has also been involved in coaching and administering the sport at many levels.

Margot's supervisors for this research are Dr Marilyn Waring in the Social Policy Department at Massey University, Albany and Dr Robin McConnell in the Management and International Business Department at Massey University, Albany. Contact information is as follows:

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North Shore Mail Centre
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Hm: 09) 523-1056

Your rights

If you take part in this interview you have the right to:

1. Refuse to answer any particular question, and to withdraw from the study at any time.
2. Agree or to not agree to the interview being taped. You may ask for the tape recorder to be turned off at any time.
3. Ask any further questions about the study that occur to you before during or after your participation.
4. Provide information on the understanding that it is completely confidential to the researcher, and that you will not be able to be identified in any reports that are prepared from the study.
5. Determine the disposal of interview tapes and transcripts of the interview.
6. Withdraw any information you have provided for this study (before data collection is complete), without having to provide reasons and without penalty of any sort.
7. Be given access to a summary of the findings from the study when it is concluded.

APPENDIX I.3**ELITE HOCKEY COACH INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM**

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

If I agree to participate, I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decline to answer any particular questions.

I agree / do not agree to the interview being audio taped.

I also understand that I have the right to ask for the audiotape to be turned off at any time during the interview.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signed:

Name:

Date:

Contact Address in Napier:

Contact phone number in Napier:

APPENDIX J**ELITE HOCKEY PLAYER QUESTIONNAIRE**

J.1 ELITE HOCKEY PLAYER QUESTIONNAIRE

J.2 ELITE HOCKEY PLAYER QUESTIONNAIRE INFORMATION SHEET

APPENDIX J.1

ELITE HOCKEY PLAYER QUESTIONNAIRE

A. PLAYER BACKGROUND

1. Age: _____ 2. Occupation: _____
3. Partner: Yes / No (please circle) 4. Number of Dependents (if any): _____
5. What is top level you have reached as a player in hockey? _____
6. How many national tournaments have you previously attended as a player? _____
7. On average, during the season, how many hours a week would you spend training for, or playing hockey? _____
How many hours would you spend coaching hockey? _____
8. Consider the people who have coached you at the **elite level** (ie. at the provincial, academy and New Zealand levels). Place a tick beside the words that best describes the proportion of women and men who filled those positions.

Tick

	All of my coaches were women
	A majority of my coaches were women
	I have been coached by the same number of men and women
	A majority of my coaches were men
	All of my coaches were men

B. COACH ROLE

1. An elite women's hockey coach has a number of roles as shown below. Can you rank them in importance. Rank (1=most important 6=least important)

	Selector
	Game planner
	Technical coach
	Motivator and communicator
	Relating to players
	Fitness development

2. Are there any other important roles which should be added to this list? Please list them.
3. In your opinion, are there any differences, between having a male coach and a female coach at the elite level? Please explain (Please use the back of this page).

C. COACH AND CAPTAIN QUALITIES

1. Read through the qualities below. If you believe that any of these are **essential** for an elite women's hockey coach or captain could you please tick the relevant box.

COACH CAPTAIN

1	Communicates effectively		
2	Has a high level of hockey skills and techniques		
3	Is highly competitive		
4	Possesses self confidence		
5	Attends nearly all games and practices		
6	Is good friends with players		
7	Makes trainings fun		
8	Is sensitive to different sexual orientations		
9	Has a high organisational ability		
10	Is a very good role model		
11	Has a high level of coaching experience		
12	Is intelligent		
13	Analyses the game well		
14	Maintains a positive approach in adversity		
15	Is oriented to winning		
16	Treats players with respect		
17	Has enthusiasm		
18	Has formal coaching qualifications		
19	Understands others feelings (empathy)		
20	Has clear values and integrity		
21	Makes clear decisions		
22	Has an optimistic outlook		
23	Has imagination		
24	Is persuasive		
25	Is a good public speaker		
26	Understands women well		
27	Involves the players in goal setting		
28	Is consistent		
29	Motivates players to attain goals		
30	Has a winning record		
31	Takes pride in player achievement		
32	Is loyal to the team		

33	Can change a game plan if necessary (during the game)		
34	Works well with others		
35	Is sensitive to cultural/ethnic considerations		
36	Has a sense of vision		
37	Appreciates hockey's values and traditions		
38	Is a firm and fair disciplinarian		
39	Is respected by the players		
40	Fosters team unity and spirit		
41	Gives clear feedback		
42	Develops a clear team plan or strategy		
43	Has prior experience coaching women		
44	Has charisma		
45	Accepts responsibility for the team		
46	Has clear goals		
47	Possesses a willingness to work hard		
48	Is emotionally stable		
49	Is an able problem solver		
50	Represents the team well in public		
51	Accepts decisions and results in a sporting manner		
52	Is willing to take considered risks		
53	Is part of the team socially but retains a little distance		
54	Has (had) a high level of personal playing skills		
55	Has an excellent understanding of female physiology		
56	Has the conviction of their own beliefs		
57	Fosters positive team training		
58	Has a friendly recognition of players' families		
59	Knows the rules of hockey		
60	Understands women well		
61	Is in a good coach-captain relationship		
62	Relates well to administrators		

2. Are there any other qualities you think are essential for an elite women's hockey coach, that have not been included in the above list? Please explain.

D. YOUR 1997 PROVINCIAL COACH

1. There are a number of statements below about the actions and knowledge of coaches. Tick the box which indicates how much you agree with the statement in terms of your current provincial coach. For example, in question 1, if you strongly agree that your current provincial coach does advise you on fitness training, you would tick box 1. If your coach infrequently advises you about fitness training you may choose box 4 because you disagree with the statement.

Please remember that neither you nor your coach is identified in this research.

1= strongly agree 2= agree 3= neither agree nor disagree 4= disagree 5=strongly disagree

STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5
1 Coach advises me about fitness training					
2 Coach encourages upper body strength training					
3 Coach ensures players are fat-tested					
4 Coach ensures I am tested for fitness improvements					
5 Coach helps me develop individual hockey skills					
6 Coach understands the effects of pregnancy					
7 Coach understands the effects of menstruation					
8 Coach understands nutrition for women					
9 Coach encourages me to have a positive body image					
10 Coach is sensitive about my self esteem					
11 Coach helps me with individual goal setting					
12 Coach gives me specific positive feedback					
13 Coach is accepting of lesbian players					
14 Coach does not harass me					
15 Coach refers to positive female role models					
16 Coach treats all players equally					
17 Coach likes me as a person					
18 Coach prefers coaching women's hockey over men's					
19 Coach encourages players to use training log books					
20 Coach makes time to talk with me					

2. Is your current provincial coach (or coaches) male or female (please circle)? F M
3. Your replies to this player questionnaire will be valuable in helping to develop coaches for women's hockey. Are there any other points you wish to make on the coaching of elite women's hockey? If so, please use the back of this page.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME. PLEASE POST THE FORM USING THE ENVELOPE SUPPLIED.

APPENDIX J.2

ELITE HOCKEY PLAYER QUESTIONNAIRE INFORMATION SHEET

What is the study about?

This study will gather information about players and coaches views on women's hockey in order to improve opportunities for players and coaches. The research goal is to provide a practical guide for this. Information from players and coaches is critical in giving a realistic picture of women's hockey and I really appreciate your time and effort in completing the questionnaire. If you would like to have a copy of the results summary please write to me at the address below.

What will you have to do?

If you agree to participate in this study you please fill out the four page questionnaire. You can fill this out in private and then post it to me in the pre-paid envelope. I will be the only person who will see the completed questionnaire.

I would appreciate your answering all questions but please do not feel compelled to do this if you do not wish to answer a particular question.

Please be assured that:

- (a) No individual player or coach will be identified in the research.
- (b) No player will be identified to any team official or member.
- (c) The player code on the return envelope (EPSA1) is simply to provide a check of player returns.
- (d) This research has the support of the New Zealand Hockey Federation.

Who is conducting the research?

The research is being carried out by Margot Edwards, a graduate student studying for a Doctor of Philosophy degree at Massey University, Albany. Margot has been involved in hockey in Auckland since 1977 and has represented Northland (U21) Auckland and New Zealand. She has also been involved in coaching and administering the sport at many levels.

Margot's supervisors for this research are Dr Marilyn Waring in the Social Policy Department at Massey University, Albany and Dr Robin McConnell in the Management and International Business Department at Massey University, Albany. Contact information is as follows:

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APPENDIX K

COACH INTERVIEW RESULTS: ELITE COACH PERCEPTIONS OF
ESSENTIAL COACH AND CAPTAIN QUALITIES (n=12)

ESSENTIAL QUALITIES	COACH	CAPTAIN
Communicates effectively	12	11
Has a high level of hockey skills and techniques	6	10
Is highly competitive	5	9
Possesses self confidence	10	9
Attends nearly all games and practices	11	10
Is good friends with players	0	1
Makes training fun	8	2
Is sensitive to different sexual orientations	6	4
Has a high organisational ability	11	4
Is a very good role model	6	12
Has a high level of coaching experience	5	0
Is intelligent	7	6
Analyses the game well	12	10
Maintains a positive approach in adversity	11	9
Is oriented to winning	3	5
Treats players with respect	11	12
Has enthusiasm	11	9
Has formal coaching qualifications	2	0
Understands others feelings (empathy)	11	10
Has clear values and integrity	12	11
Makes clear decisions	11	10
Has an optimistic outlook	6	3
Has imagination	10	4
Is persuasive	4	5
Is a good public speaker	3	4
Involves the players in goal setting	11	7
Is consistent	12	9
Motivates players to attain goals	11	7
Has a winning record	2	0
Takes pride in player achievement	9	7
Is loyal to the team	11	10

Can change a game plan if necessary (during the game)	10	12
Works well with others	10	9
Is sensitive to cultural/ethnic considerations	7	7
Has a sense of vision	9	5
Appreciates hockey's values and traditions	7	5
Is a firm and fair disciplinarian	10	4
Is respected by the players	12	11
Fosters team unity and spirit	10	11
Gives clear feedback	11	7
Develops a clear team plan or strategy	12	4
Has prior experience coaching women	3	0
Has charisma	1	2
Accepts responsibility for the team	11	6
Has clear goals	12	7
Possesses a willingness to work hard	10	8
Is emotionally stable	7	6
Is an able problem solver	8	7
Represents the team well in public	8	6
Accepts decisions and results in a sporting manner	8	10
Is willing to take considered risks	9	6
Is part of the team socially but retains a little distance	9	2
Has (had) a high level of personal playing skills	5	5
Has an excellent understanding of female physiology	3	2
Has the conviction of their own beliefs	11	6
Fosters positive team training	10	10
Has a friendly recognition of players' families	5	3
Knows the rules of hockey	11	9
Understands women well	1	1
Is in a good coach-captain relationship	8	11
Relates well to administrators	6	6

Figure J.1. Elite coach perceptions of essential coach and captain qualities (n=12).

APPENDIX L

PROPOSED MENTORING SCHEME

The success of the Winning Women's Programme as discussed in Appendix G (p. 415) was noted by the Hillary Commission for Sport Fitness and Leisure who produced a mentor scheme to encourage women into sport leadership positions (Hillary Commission, 2000a, 2000b). The findings of this current thesis suggest that such a mentoring scheme could follow the proposed model shown in Figure L.1 and L.2 below. Figure L.1 illustrates the hypothetical concept of coach progression through the coaching levels over time and portrays certain phases of slow or non-existent progress.

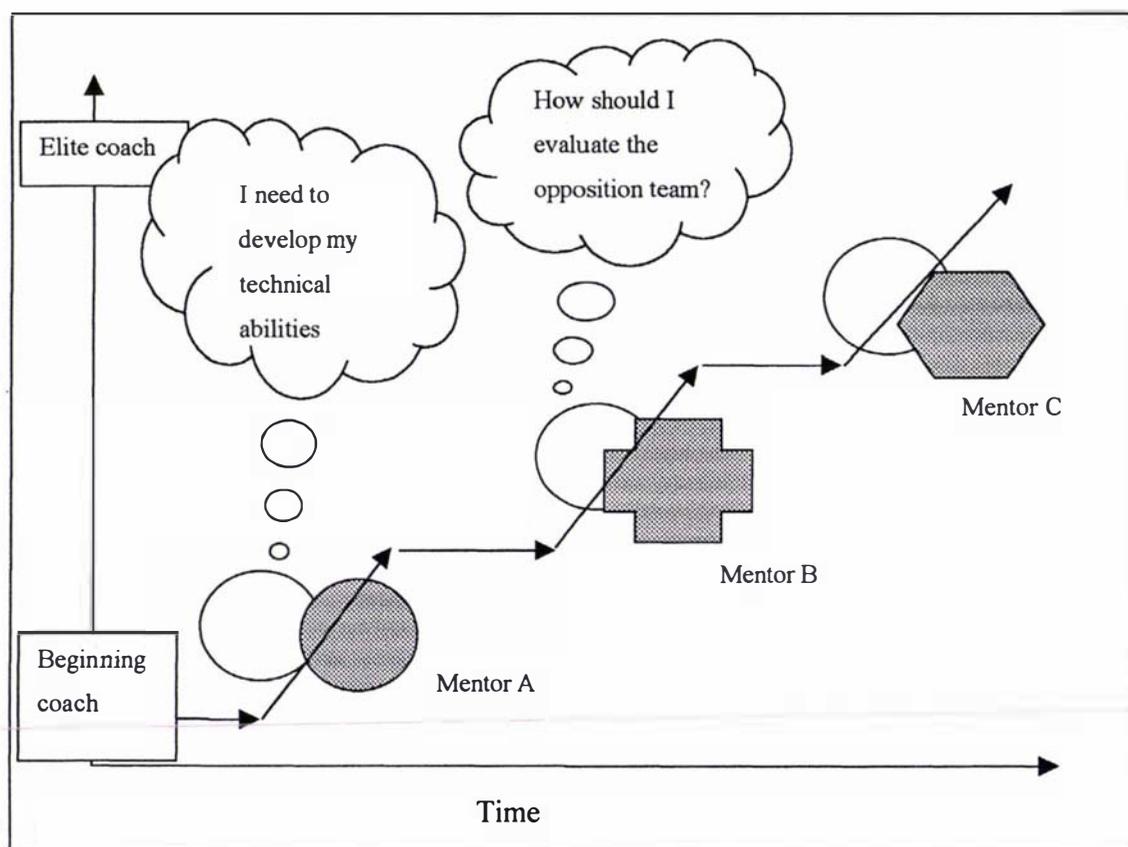


Figure L.1. Progressive personal mentoring model.

The diagram portrays an ideal coaching development environment where coach progress is aided by the support of an appropriate mentor who possess skills relevant to that particular coach's perceived barriers, and thus the coach's career continues more quickly towards the

elite level. It is conceivable that at certain stages of their careers, coaches may perceive barriers such as those identified in this current study, for example the inability to operate technologically advanced video analysis equipment, which could be overcome with the provision of a mentor who is technically capable.

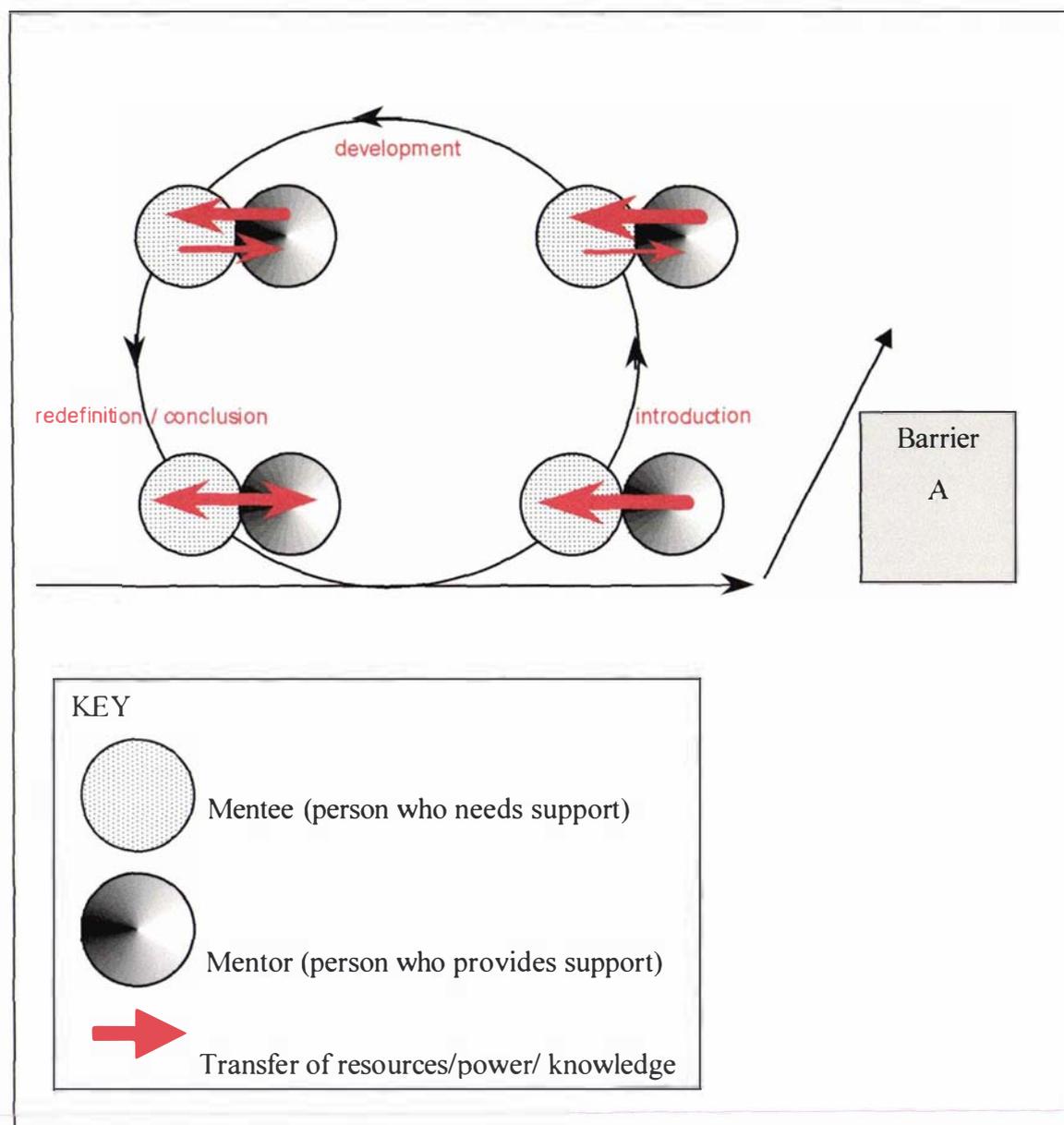


Figure L.2. Coach-mentor relationship cycle.

Critical to this coaching progression, is the closer examination of the actual mentoring relationship between coach and mentor coach, illustrated in Figure L.1 with the use of shaded shapes labelled Mentor A, Mentor B, and Mentor C. Figure L.2 is a model designed to illustrate such a coach-mentor relationship in more detail. The key phase of the model is the initial meeting and evaluation of the required elite coaching roles and

qualities, followed by an evaluation of both the learner and master coaches' level of knowledge and skills expertise. It is essential that both parties understand the progressive nature of the cycle and changes expected to occur at each phase. Depending on the expertise available within the particular hockey organisation, it may be advantageous to initiate phase one with an experienced facilitator, familiar with elite level coaching roles and essential qualities.

This type of proactive development programme is clearly required given that results from this study show that some elite coaches might be operating without a high degree of motivation for self-improvement. For example, some coaches indicated they only occasionally sought out opportunities to learn including attendance at coaching seminars. One female coach admitted she was doing the job because no one else would carry out the role and had not attended training courses or sought any involvement with networks or mentors. Another coach, formally educated in physical education, felt he knew more than the presenter at one NZHF coaching course he had previously attended and had forgone opportunities to attend further courses. The other extreme, where coaches come from provinces where competition for positions exists and applications are rigorously vetted, is a more desirable situation. However, as one interviewee stated, this may lead to increased competition between coaches and the consequential breakdown in communication between coaches causing increased isolation and reduced support for elite coaches in some regions.