Behaviour Management
Strategies of Beginning AFL Coaches

Brooke Elizabeth Harris-Reeves
Bachelor of Education
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Master of Education

Griffith Business School
Griffith University

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ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates the behaviour management practices used by beginning AFL coaches. It examines beginning coaches’ perceptions of their role, and whether they believe it is their responsibility to manage athlete behaviour. The nature of coaching is multifaceted requiring them to take on many responsibilities. Consequently, coaches can have both a positive and negative effect on the athletes they train. Negative effects range from athlete drop out, injuries, and loss of confidence. On the other hand, positive effects include engaged and motivated athletes, increased self esteem and low attrition rates. It is for this reason that coaches need to ensure they create positive environments for athletes.

A postmodern ethnographic approach was used to explore the experiences of AFL beginning coaching candidates. Data was collected via questionnaires, interviews and observations. Data analysis techniques were employed to identify themes and issues around beginning coach’s perceptions, strategies and practices in managing athlete behaviour. Analysis also included the use of a methodological tool that was developed, pilot tested and implemented as a mechanism for evaluating the effectiveness of behaviour management practices.

The research findings indicate that the majority of beginning coaches believe it is their responsibility to manage athlete behaviour. Despite this, strategies and techniques employed by beginning coaches were limited, and consequent strategies were the major focus of most athlete behaviour management. In response to the findings, a
Communicative Action Coaching Tool was developed to enable coaches and coach educators to reflect on their practices, identify strategies to improve behaviour management strategies, and assist in creating positive environments. Further, strategies and recommendations for managing athlete behaviour within the sport environment are provided.

It is suggested that future research should observe the behaviour management strategies adopted by a range of coaches in different sporting contexts, and with varying levels of experience and expertise. It is anticipated that this would highlight if effective behaviour management strategies are used by experienced coaches in different sporting contexts. It is also suggested that future research be conducted with coaches of elite athletes and coaches of individual compared to team sports, as findings may provide valuable insights which could be transferred into other coaching settings.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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I also acknowledge the previous research work of authors in the areas of study that relate to this research topic. Their work has contributed to body of knowledge contained in the literature review.
This work has not previously been submitted for a degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the thesis itself.

_____________________________________            Date:______________
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Problem

Although children have always engaged in play, the past century has seen a major increase in organised sporting programs for youth (Mechikoff & Estes, 2002). According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2009), 63% of children (1.7 million) participate in at least one organised sport outside school hours in Australia. When guided by caring sensitive and informed coaches, positive aspects of development occur when children choose to participate in organised sport programs (Weiss, Barber, Sisley, & Ebbeck, 1991).

Coaching research has not provided an explicit understanding of how coaches manage youth or elite athletes, nor how they develop expertise in managing the behaviour of athletes as they progress from beginning to elite coach. Research to date has focussed on specific coaching behaviours and various components of the coaching process. Despite this, there is still much to be revealed about the behaviour management procedures that underpin effective coaching, how to provide a supportive environment for athletes, how these behaviour management procedures are carried out in practice, and ways of evaluating the effectiveness of these behaviour management strategies.

The role of the coach has many facets including communicator, leader, nutritionist, and disciplinarian (Cross & Lyle, 1999; Weinberg, 2007). As a result of this multifaceted role, coaches can have a profound effect on the athletes they train, both
positive and/or negative in nature. Poor coaching can result in athlete’s dropping out of their sport, sustaining an injury, and losing confidence in themselves as individuals, which all lead to low self esteem (Salminen & Liukkonen, 1996). These possibilities are reduced however if the coach can develop athlete-perceived appropriate behaviours including greater interest in participation and increased confidence and self-esteem (Salminen & Liukkonen, 1996; Smith & Bar-Eli, 2007).

Despite the value of sports coaching to society, research exploring sport coaches and the coaching process has been intermittent. Much of the research conducted to date has endeavoured to identify and highlight specific behaviours or models of coaching behaviour (Chelladurai, 1993; Smith & Smoll, 1984). However as coaching involves many facets, research in this field should move beyond simple surface level analysis of coaching techniques and behaviours.

One aspect the coach is responsible for is being the disciplinarian. Behaviour problems are considered one of the major obstacles to successful teaching, and is also the case in sport coaching (Bos & Vaughn, 2002). The coaching environment, in which the space is open and the athletes are not constrained, creates more unique difficulties in managing inappropriate behaviour than in the classroom setting (Keegan, Spray, Harwood, & Lavallee, 2010; Vogler & Bishop, 1990). Coaches who implement inappropriate behaviour management strategies are at risk of negative consequences including athletes displaying inappropriate behaviours and limited performance outcomes. Therefore, creating a positive environment with effective behaviour
management strategies is a major responsibility of the beginning coach. Despite this, behaviour management literature in the field of sport coaching is limited, and with inadequate strategies and recommendations for coaches to include in their coaching practices. Behaviour management strategies need to be formulated and included in accreditation courses to increase the behaviour management skills of beginning coaches if junior athletes are to have positive sporting experiences.

In order to recognise how coaches develop behaviour management expertise and create supportive environments, coaches need to be questioned about their coaching practices. Specifically, coaches need to be asked “What”, “How” and “Why” they exhibit specific coaching strategies and athlete management techniques. Some researchers (Cote, Salmela, & Russell, 1995; Salmela, 1995) have conducted qualitative studies into coach development and coaching theories that provide deep understandings of the coaching process and essentially answer these questions. The importance of this type of research is apparent as it allows the coach as a respected informant to provide specific information about various components of the coaching process.

In the past when research has been conducted in this field, the coach is often viewed as an unreliable source of information when collecting research data. Specific studies conducted (Horne & Carron, 1985) in which coach self-reporting was used as a form of data, suggest that coaches have limited recall of their coaching behaviour and actions, resulting in unreliable data collection. In this research by exploring coaching issues
through questionnaires, interviews and observations provided further understanding of coaching behaviours as it enabled the coaches’ words and actions to be analysed. To ensure data were reliable in this study, methodological approaches were designed which provided coaches the opportunity to effectively justify and articulate their coaching practice, their beliefs, and their perceptions of coaching.

Despite a wide range of research conducted in the field of coaching, there has been no research that explores the general athlete behaviour management that underpins coaching. This thesis adds to the literature in this field in three ways. First, it examines the perceptions and coaching practices of beginning Australian Football League (AFL) coaches to identify the prevalence of athlete behaviour management in sport coaching. Second, a methodological tool is presented that can be implemented to allow sport coaches to identify techniques to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive and positive coaching environments. Finally, it provides beginning coaches with recommendations for improving behaviour management and for creating supportive coaching environments. Accordingly, the research aims and questions were designed to investigate the management strategies used by beginning coaches.

1.2 Research Question

The purpose of this study was to explore the perceptions and application of behaviour management strategies used by beginning AFL coaches and to develop a methodological tool by which coaches can evaluate their behaviour management
strategies. The guiding research question was: To determine if beginning coaches see behaviour management as part of their role as a coach. Within this broad parameter the specific research aims were to:

a) Investigate whether beginning coaches implement behaviour management in their coaching practice;

b) Develop a methodological tool that allows beginning coaches to identify techniques to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive coaching environments; and

c) Formulate recommendations to allow beginning coaches to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive environments.

1.3 Justification for Research

The sporting industry is a substantial industry that competes against an array of entertainment pastimes, especially in the youth arena. In order to attract athletes to become involved in sport, coaches need to provide environments in which the athletes feel encouraged, supported and motivated. Previous research (Butcher, Linder, & Johns, 2002) has found that low retention rates of youth athletes are the result of various reasons including boredom, dislike of the coach, and lack of fun. Sirard, Pfeiffer and Pate (2006) found that athletes of both genders identified coaching problems as a significant contributing factor to their attrition. In order to avoid losing athletes from the sporting realm, coaches need to be equipped with effective strategies that: engage, motivate and manage the athletes; create supportive
environments in which the coach remains positive; and, be conducive to the learning and development of the athlete.

The success of an athlete has also been found to be attributed to the environment created by the coach. Pensgaard (2002) investigated the effect of the motivational climate and found that an athlete’s achievement in their sporting realm, including factors such as improvement in skills and achieving set goals, is affected by the climate the coach creates.

An athlete’s self esteem has also been found to be directly related to the coach and the environment created by the coach. Coatsworth (2006) and Vazou (2006) identified that educating coaches in behavioural principles is an effective way to alter coach behaviour and enhance the athlete-coach relational context. Moreover, he suggests that this form of coach education is associated with gains in self-esteem for some athletes.

The management style and coaching approach adopted by coaches directly affects the athlete in a number of ways including retention rates. Coaches need to be equipped with effective behaviour management strategies and approaches to ensure the athlete is provided with a supportive, caring and positive environment that is conducive to athlete development. At present there is no method of evaluating the effectiveness of athlete management strategies used by coaches. One aim of this research was to construct a methodological tool that coaches can use to evaluate the effectiveness of
their athlete behaviour management strategies. In order to do this the perception of
beginning coaches was explored and their coaching practices investigated and this
information was then used to develop a methodological tool by which coaches can
track the effectiveness of their management techniques.

1.4 Methodological approach

This research aims to explore the nature of coaching and gain an understanding of the
complexities of behaviour management in sport coaching. A postmodern ethnographic
approach was used to explore the experiences of AFL beginning coaching candidates.
Postmodern ethnography was selected for this research for a number of reasons. It
employs local narratives instead of meta-narratives. For this purpose, the informants
were not specifically signified by the central discourses that are heard, and the central
disciplinary boundaries are dissected (Aronowitz & Giroux, 1991). Dominant to the
position of postmodern ethnography is the transfer from the values, practices and
beliefs upheld, to the articulation of marginal perspectives. A postmodern analysis of
the coaching process provided a framework to design a methodological tool by which
coaches can evaluate the effectiveness of their athlete behaviour management
strategies, and formulate recommendations to allow beginning coaches to improve
behaviour management strategies and create supportive environments. The
postmodern approach was supported by three principal data collection methods:
questionnaires, interviews, and observations.
During the initial step to understanding athlete management in the coaching process, it was necessary to establish the beginning coaches’ perceptions of their role as a coach. A number of coaches’ questionnaires were used as the initial method of data collection which ensured a wide range of data was obtained. The objective of the questionnaires was to identify and expose commonalities which would, in turn, allow for further investigation during the interview process.

The second phase of data collection was the interviewing of a group of coaching candidates via the use of semi-structured interview format. This style of interview allowed the researcher to probe the coaching candidates’ perceptions and understanding about the coaching role. A semi-structured approach was considered most suitable as it allowed the interviewer to focus specifically in the area of coaching and the behaviour management of athletes. In addition, it allowed the researcher to explore specific comments by requesting a more detailed description from the informant. This enabled the coaching candidates to provide in-depth information about their perceptions and understanding of the requirements of the coach.

All interviews were voice recorded and were approximately 30-40 minutes in length. The interviews were recorded to enable the researcher to interact with the participant and not have to attempt to write down the responses during the interview. As a result, the researcher was able to focus on the interview as it unfolded and pose further questions when required. Once the interviews were completed the voice files were transcribed and analysed using open coding to identify commonalities across the
coaches. The interview data was then used to develop an observation schedule which was implemented during the observation process.

The final phase of data collection involved observations of the coaching practices. The objective of this phase of data collection was to undertake a comparison of how the coaches said they managed their athletes during the interviews, and whether that was being enacted in their coaching practice. During the observations, the researcher was a peripheral member of the group. In brief, this type of observer is defined by Adler and Adler (1988) as interacting directly with the participants without contributing to any of the activities. Essentially, this enabled the researcher to consider the participant’s perspective as fundamental for shaping a precise judgment of their perceptions and identity. Essentially this enabled the researcher to distinguish whether the theory uncovered from the interviews was espoused in the coaching practices by the participants. The observational data were then analysed with an innovative methodological tool designed by the researcher, the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool*. The tool was employed as a means of tracking and evaluating the effectiveness of the coaches’ behaviour management strategies.

1.5 Glossary of Terms

The following terms will be referred to through the thesis and are defined below:

1. Antecedent strategy – a behaviour strategy implemented prior to a behaviour being exhibited
2. Consequent strategy - a behaviour strategy implemented following a behaviour being exhibited

3. Intrinsic motivator - a strategy implemented by the coach that provides a motivator that is internal to the athlete

4. Extrinsic - a strategy implemented by the coach that provides a motivator that is external to the athlete

1.6 Structure of Thesis

This thesis is divided into nine chapters. Chapter One provides an introduction to the research topic and its approach to the research problem. Chapter Two provides a literature review of the relevant coaching literature. It examines the research that explains the background of coaching in Australia; coach education strategies; the novice coach; AFL coaches; coaching characteristics and behaviours; and coaches as athlete managers. Chapter Three provides a review of the behaviour literature. Chapter Four discusses the development of the analysis tool and provides the results from the pilot study conducted. Chapter Five outlines the research design for the thesis and puts forward a justification for undertaking a postmodern ethnographic approach to the research. Chapter Six outlines the data collection and data analysis techniques. Chapter Seven addresses the results and discussion of the questionnaires and interviews, and details the procedural issues that are related to the research. Chapter Eight outlines and discusses the data from the coaching observations as analysed using the Communicative Action Coaching Tool. Finally, Chapter Nine discusses how the aims of this thesis were achieved. Chapter Nine also discusses the
contributions this research has made to the coaching profession, its theoretical contributions, and implications for further research.

1.7 Summary

This chapter started with an insight into the research problem and how this research aims to identify the processes of managing athlete behaviour. It provided an overview of the postmodern ethnographic approach that will be used in this research and outlined how data will be collected through questionnaires, interviews and observations. Finally, this chapter provided an outline of the terminology used in this thesis.

It is anticipated that this thesis will deepen the understanding of the complexities involved in the coaching process. More specifically, this thesis aims to identify and recommend effective strategies for managing athlete behaviour and develop a methodological tool for coaches to evaluate the effectiveness of their behaviour management strategies.
2. CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the background of coaching knowledge in Australia, coach education strategies, the beginning coach, AFL coaches, coaching characteristics and behaviours, and coaches as athlete managers. Through this exploration of the literature, an understanding will be gained of: the history of coaching and coach education and how it has progressed over time, the structure and identity of AFL coaches, the characteristics and behaviours that coaches exhibit to effectively coach their athletes, and the methods used by coaches to manage their athletes. By exploring the literature in these areas, a background of coaching can be established which in turn informed the development of the data collection techniques.

2.2 A Background of Coaching in Australia

In the past, experienced and non-experienced sports people have provided their knowledge as coaches to enthusiastic sporting participants. From the 1920s, the significance and importance of coaching was increasingly recognised in the sport arena. According to Phillips (2000) advancements in technology, communication and transport, and a gradual improvement in the organisation of sport highlighted the necessity for coaching proficiency (Phillips, 2000). Some of the most prominent success from coaching during this early period was in sports such as boxing, cricket and sculling (Phillips, 2000). Sports such as football, basketball and various other recreational sports were initially analysed and utilised this new approach (Harte, 1993).
The emerging prominence of the coach is seen by Phillips (2000) as the “...phenomenon of the late twentieth century that applies to virtually every sport in the country” (p.26). As a result, it is recognised that a significant attribute of the modernisation of sport was the introduction of better coaching (Phillips, 2000). While the catalyst for the establishment of an Institute of Sport was the poor performance of Australian athletes at the 1976 Olympic Games, moves had been made in the years leading up to this time to adopt a more structured professional approach to elite sport in Australia. In 1973 Professor John Bloomfield was commissioned to prepare a sport plan. The 1974 Bloomfield report highlighted the inadequacies in the recruitment, preparation, development, and delivery of coaching and elite athlete development and the feasibility of establishing a sport institute (Phillips, 2000).

As a result of the Whitlam Government enquiry, it was recommended that an Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) be established. It was anticipated that the development of this institute would result in an improvement of coach education and ultimately allow Australian coaching standards to rival those of its international adversaries (Phillips, 2000). According to a report conducted by the Department of Tourism and Recreation (Department of Tourism and Recreation, 1975) the function of AIS was to ensure that leisure sport and high performance developments occurred in the best interest of the Australian people.

At the same time, attempts were made at the State level by the National Fitness Councils to provide coach education programs. By the mid 1970s most States and
Territories had established various departments responsible for Sport and Recreation (Woodman, 1989). Efforts in Queensland and Western Australia resulted in support for junior coaching and the development and implementation of various coaching courses by the All Sports Coaching Board (Woodman, 1989). New South Wales and Victoria directed funding towards various coaching courses, along with the development of teaching resources such as coaching films (Woodman, 1989). Despite initiatives in these states, changes to coaching programs within the Australian Capital Territory were minimal (Woodman, 1989). Indeed there was no formal assistance for sporting development, hence little spent on the development of coaching in this region (Woodman, 1989).

Following the Bloomfield report, a second report referred to as the ‘Coles Report’ was ordered by the Department of Tourism and Recreation in 1975 (Phillips, 2000). The report was aimed at further identifying the necessity for a national sport institute. In light of this report, there was some concern about the attitudes toward coaching in Australia. Specifically, Coles (as cited in Phillips, 2000) expressed the concern that had been accepted for too long that youngsters could be placed in the hands of people lacking the appropriate knowledge and qualifications. Coles (as cited in Phillips, 2000) also added that the deficiency in popularity and failure to succeed at international level, was a result of the attitude toward coaching standards in Australia.

As a result of the Coles Report, recommendations were made to bring state coaching up to international standards (Phillips, 2000). Subsequently, the need for coach
education in all sports was recommended and specific key elements were recognised as essential for the promotion of coaching (Stewart, Nicholson, Smith, & Westerbeek, 2004). Phillips (2000) identified these elements as being: (i) a national system of coaching accreditation; (ii) a system of multi-level courses from basic to international standard; (iii) coaching education at the tertiary level; and (iv) qualified national and state directors of coaching. In 1978, a National Coaching Council was constituted to ensure these objectives were achieved. This was later renamed the Australian Coaching Council (Woodman, 1989).

A National Coach Accreditation Scheme (NCAS) was launched in 1979 as a result of the Australian Coaching Council (Phillips, 2000). The key focus of the NCAS was to ensure sporting participants in Australia had access to experienced, qualified coaches, irrespective of the athletes’ age, gender and ability (Australian Sports Commission, 2000). Accordingly the current research into the athlete management strategies used by beginning AFL is of importance. By identifying the coaching practices used by beginning coaches, developing a tool for analysis of behaviour management techniques, and by designing recommendations and strategies for managing athlete behaviour, presents a platform for coaches to provide athletes with positive sporting experiences.

The need for qualified coaches had become apparent, not only for the safety of all participants, but to ensure Australia’s elite athletes remained competitive in the international arena.
2.3 Coach Education

To ensure Australia’s sport coaches are of a high standard, coach education needs to include quality, relevant course content and provide a range of practical experiences for the coach. Campbell (1993) suggested that national coach education strategies are largely determined by the culture, politics and traditions of the nation involved.

The progression of coach education in Australia is largely due to Government involvement. A national system of coaching in each sport was established which demonstrated clearly defined and accepted standards. Those standards were to ranged from level 1 for basic coaching through to level 4 which would be an international standard coach. As a result of this recommendation, coach accreditation courses in Australia are nationally monitored by the NCAS, ensuring consistency between states, levels of accreditation and different sports.

One of the most important aspects of coach education is the content provided within the course. Researchers (Horn, 1992; Vargas-Tonsing, 2007) have highlighted the need for coach education programs in Australia to focus more on the physiological aspects of coaching, and less on the fundamentals of coaching. Conversely, other researchers (Freeman, 1995; Goldsmith, 1998; Launder, 1994) have argued that it is the development of the ‘art’ of coaching, not just the science of coaching, that should be of primary importance. Despite this, sports science is often the main focus in accreditation courses which is seen as a concern (Crawford, 1980; Goldsmith, 1998; Vargas-Tonsing, 2007). Consequently, there is a perception that exercise physiology,
anatomy, biomechanics and various other sport science related areas has
overpowered the course content at the expense of the ‘art’ of coaching (Schembri,
1995).

To emphasise the course content included in AFL coach accreditation courses in
Australia, an overview is provided in Table 2.1 along with programs from two other
sports. When observing the criteria for each of these programs, it is apparent that the
main focus differs from the ‘science’ focus as discussed in the previous paragraph, and
is on both the tactical and communication tools required for coaching. Fairs (1987) and
Lyle (1996) stated that these areas clearly appear as the main focus in many coach
education programs.
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<tr>
<td>Candidates</td>
<td>Club and secondary school coaches of teenagers</td>
<td>Coaches of adults (open age)</td>
<td>Beginner coach</td>
<td>Beginner coaches, managers, teachers, and prospective coaches of junior club teams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Understanding youth participation, which permeates all aspects of the course.</td>
<td>Communication skills and drills</td>
<td>Provides practical coaching knowledge and skills for a beginner coach.</td>
<td>The coach will be able to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A specific focus on what motivates youth participants.</td>
<td>Team play and tactics</td>
<td>It provides theoretical and practical information that will enable participants to coach confidently at school and/or junior club level</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social aspects of working with and managing players in this age range.</td>
<td>Fitness for football</td>
<td></td>
<td>Identify the training requirements of junior players</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Specific communication skills and developing higher level skill and understanding.</td>
<td>Recovery</td>
<td></td>
<td>Identify the learning behaviours of junior players</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rehabilitation</td>
<td></td>
<td>Prepare a training session appropriate to the needs of junior players</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Coaching and safety issues</td>
<td></td>
<td>Facilitate the learning of the fundamental skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Conduct appropriate practices in a safe environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Identify basic safety and first aid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Implement basic playing rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluate the effectiveness of their coaching behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration</td>
<td>Around 14 hours</td>
<td>Around 14 hours</td>
<td>Attend a two day conference, complete a &quot;coaching apprenticeship&quot; of 20 hours with an accredited Tutor Coach and complete 60 hours practical experience coaching a squad of swimmers</td>
<td>16 hours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1

Course overview for accreditation in AFL, Soccer and Swimming
When examining Table 2.1 in detail, there are some similarities between the coach education programs for each of the sports. The consistency between the courses in relation to the target candidates, the duration of the courses, and the course objectives and outcomes, are apparent. Furthermore, the course objectives in the Level 1 Accreditation Certificate for all three sports comprise of practical material, including the technical skills, player requirements and knowledge required including the communication techniques required for coaching. It should be noted that both of the Level One AFL accreditation courses outlines a specific component for the development of communication strategies. With specific reference to the official AFL website (www.afl.com.au), the development of communication skills is highlighted as an imperative component to the accreditation course. In brief, AFL considers that coaches must be able to communicate effectively with their athletes, hence training in coaching and communication techniques are highlighted as being equally important as aspects such as the skills, development sessions and match tactics. Later in this thesis, communication skills are explored in greater detail.

The multifaceted nature of coach education is apparent. As a result of the coach education strategies being largely determined by the culture, politics and traditions of the nation involved and there is no single system that can be considered an ideal process (Campbell, 1993).
2.4 The Beginning Coach

Accreditation requirements of the coach are complex and varied according to the specified sport. Despite the comprehensive process candidates are required to undertake to become an accredited coach, many coaching candidates enter the coaching profession with little or no coaching experience. This section reviews relevant literature regarding the beginning coach.

The majority of coaching research to date has focused on elite coaches working with elite athletes. Specifically, Hardin and Bennett (2002) used ethnographic techniques including structured interviews, field observations and document analysis, to examine the instructional attributes of a successful college baseball coach in the context of both PE teaching and in sport coaching. The results from this research found that expert coaches do not generally exhibit the same pedagogical characteristics in their teaching role as their coaching role. These researchers identified that the participants’ approach changed with the specific purpose of the scenario.

Similar examples of research into elite level coaches includes the study conducted by Walsh (2004) that investigated how elite-level coaches developed and used expertise. The specific area of analysis included effective coaching behaviours and identified that elite level coaches were able to articulate the cognitive strategies they needed to function as a coach, which enabled the coaches to apply their coaching expertise efficiently and effectively.
Early research into the understanding of the beginning coach was conducted by Hassan (1986). A descriptive analytic paradigm was used to compare the augmented feedback of ten expert and ten beginning soccer coaches that revealed significant differences in feedback between these two groups. It was found that experts provided significantly more feedback, used more diversified modes of communication, were more accurate in diagnosing tactical performance errors, and were more informative when correcting errors (Hassan, 1986).

Further research into beginning coaches was completed by Weiss, Barber, Sisley, and Ebbeck (1991). The objective of their research was to develop a better understanding of the processes that occurs during the beginner stage of coaching and to examine the development of competence and confidence in beginning female coaches involved in a season-long coaching internship. Primarily, this study provided an insight into the coaches’ perceptions of themselves and the role of the coach. It also provided an insight into beginning coaches’ beliefs of what they were required to develop in order to become both confident and effective in their role as a coach. Participants from a range of sporting backgrounds, including tai kwon do, volleyball, track and field, basketball, tennis, cross country, running, and soccer, were required to attend a coaching workshop and then participate in an internship program under a mentor coach. The researchers concluded that beginning coaches achieved satisfaction working with children, development of coaching skills, social support via positive feedback from the mentor coach, and an enjoyment throughout the process (Weiss et al., 1991). Further results from this study indicate that the beginning coaches’ beliefs
were that an effective coach must possess attributes including sport specific knowledge, planning and management skills, effective communication and interpersonal skills, effective motivation strategies, and, injury prevention techniques (Weiss et al., 1991). Weiss et al. (1991) concluded these attributes as being overtly associated with the confidence levels of the beginning coaches.

Carr (1994) conducted research into the effects of two coaching accreditation programs where the effects of content and instruction of beginning youth soccer coaches were measured. For this purpose, youth refers to the period between childhood and adulthood, described as the period of physical and psychological development from the onset of puberty to maturity and early adulthood. Researchers designed two coach education programs - one sport specific, the other non-sport specific. The purpose of the study was to assess the beginning coaches’ knowledge base and specific coaching behaviours prior to participating in the course and following the course. The results indicated that the major difference between the two courses was the field-based content knowledge component presented in the sport specific course. The beginning coaches that participated in this course altered the way in which they conducted youth soccer training sessions and that the training activities had more of a sport specific approach with the implementation of specific drills specific to the sport as opposed to more generic fitness drills (Carr, 1994). This study highlighted the importance of equipping beginning coaches with strategies and skills specific to their sporting realm.
It is apparent that the majority of research to date into the perceptions of coaches has investigated the expert coach. Research conducted in the field of coaching has neglected to evaluate the role of the beginning coach, why beginning coaches chose to enter the coaching profession, or the behaviour management techniques exhibited by the beginning coach. This research attempted to fill this void.

2.5 Coaching Characteristics and Behaviours

As highlighted in the previous section, little research has been devoted to the field of the beginning coach. Despite this, literature that has been collated that suggests characteristics and behaviours exhibited by the coach as a precursor to being an effective coach.

Pyke (2001) and Olympiou (2008) suggest that the coach requires an ability to adapt and relate to the athletes. The coach is required to appreciate that their personality and style of coaching will subsequently have an effect on others. Throughout this section coaching characteristics, styles and behaviours are highlighted by various researchers (Douge & Hastie, 1993; Olympiou et al., 2008; Pyke, 2001; Tutko & Richards, 1971). Following this, the advantages and disadvantages of the different approaches to coaching styles are discussed.

2.5.1 Coaching Characteristics

It has been recognised that the coaching characteristics and adaptations executed by coaches to satisfy the requirements of the athletes may, in some situations, be influenced by the expectations the athletes possess (Douge & Hastie, 1993). This has
been highlighted by Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) who considered traits such as authoritarianism, tough-mindedness, independent thinking, emotional maturity, and realism as important coaching characteristics. Additional work by these researchers (Ogilvie & Tutko, 1966) identified three specific coaching styles that a coach may exhibit: the dominating coach, the casual coach and the personable coach. The following table (Table 2.2) describes these three types of coaching, along with outlining the advantages and disadvantages of each.

Table 2.2
The Advantages and Disadvantages of Different Coaching Styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coaching Style</th>
<th>Dominating Coach</th>
<th>Casual Coach</th>
<th>Personable Coach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disadvantages</strong></td>
<td>• athletes can be prone to dispute</td>
<td>• coaching is often inadequate</td>
<td>• flexibility of the coach is seen by some athletes as a weakness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• difficult to rebound after a series of losses</td>
<td>• no overall development plan</td>
<td>• some athletes take advantage of coaches’ good nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• sensitive, thoughtful, introspective athletes are turned off</td>
<td>• fitness levels are often low</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Advantages</strong></td>
<td>• atmosphere of discipline</td>
<td>• athletes develop a sense of independence</td>
<td>• atmosphere of respect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• conductive to success</td>
<td>• relaxed atmosphere prevails</td>
<td>• victory is enjoyed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• sense of dedication and purpose</td>
<td>• no real pressure</td>
<td>• defeat never seems irreparable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first style of coaching listed in Table 2.2 is the dominating coach and is the most common style of coaching employed, particularly in the area of football (Pyke, 2001). Characterised by a high level of energy and an emphasis on authority and aggression, the dominating coach is exceptionally organised and ensures the training sessions are planned methodically (Ogilvie & Tutko, 1966). Although the benefits of this style of coaching are notable, if an athlete has low self esteem, it is often difficult to rebuild in this atmosphere.

The second type of coaching style is the casual coach. Characterised by having a relaxed and passive approach, researchers (Ogilvie & Tutko, 1966) acknowledged this type of coach as being detached from any involvement, and as having a lack of commitment toward the athletes. Unlike the dominating style of coach, the casual coach is often insufficiently prepared for training sessions. This style of coach is inadequate for the competitive athlete as athlete development programs do not exist (Ogilvie & Tutko, 1966).

Well liked by athletes, the final style is the personable coach. Employing a flexible approach, the athletes feel at ease and an environment of respect is recognised (Ogilvie & Tutko, 1966). Pyke (2001) believes that while this is an appropriate method to employ for handling difficult players, some may take advantage of the coaches’ good nature. The differing approach coaches take towards athletes is presented in Figure 2.1.
As can be seen from the information provided in this figure, it is beneficial to shift toward the middle of the scale. Specifically, this enables the coach and the athlete to contribute to the decision making while allowing for some variation in the approach employed, depending on the coaching scenario (relationship between the coach and the athlete).

Discussion thus far has concentrated on the specific styles of coaching. Another important aspect requiring investigation is various coaching characteristics that determine the type of coach. As opposed to a specific ‘type’ of coach being appropriate to a coaching scenario, Pyke (2001) has identified characteristics and definitions of a respected coach. These characteristics are displayed in Table 2.3.
As identified in Table 2.3, there are a range of different coaching characteristics that may be employed in different coaching scenarios. Regardless of the gender of the athlete or the particular sport, the aforementioned characteristics will appeal to all athletes (Pyke, 2001).

From the literature presented in this section, it is apparent how coaches can be shaped by a number of factors. This is highlighted through the various coaching styles and numerous characteristics employed by the coach. From trait approaches, there seems to be evidence of certain traits and styles that are not so much pre-requisites for
success, but instead potentially valuable characteristics. The coaching approach, strategies and techniques adopted are all factors that need to be considered when evaluating the effectiveness of the coach in all aspects of the coaching role.

2.6 Coaches as Athlete Managers

Often coaches are employed because of their knowledge and technical ability in a specific sport. This is evident at all levels of coaching whether it is the local football club, or full-time head coaches of national teams. Despite this, the success of the athlete is dependent on more than the ability of the coach to impart technical knowledge. Coaches are required to be leaders, teachers, and communicators amongst other things. Figure 2.2 highlights the diversity of the responsibilities of the coach.

Figure 2.2. Responsibilities of the coach.
Figure 2.2 indicates that the coach has a range of responsibilities and some of these will now be explored in greater detail. It is important to note that the following section will only explore the responsibilities of the coach that are relevant to the current study. Literature explored relevant to the coach as an athlete manager include coaches as leaders, coaches as communicators, and, coaches as teachers.

2.6.1 Coaches as Leaders

Sport coaching has emerged in the literature as a position that requires a high level of leadership. Rarely do you find so many people volunteering themselves to the authority of one person. Chelladurai (1984) recognised the reliance on the coach’s expertise and motivational techniques to achieve their personal goals as astonishing.

Extensive scholarly writing has been devoted to leadership as a concept. In spite of this, there is limited conformity on what defines leadership. For example, some researchers (Covey, 2004; George & Bennis, 2008; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Northouse & Northouse, 2009) have defined the core elements of leadership, however there is little unification. One definition highlighted by Chelladurai (1984) is the belief that leadership is the behavioural process of influencing individuals and groups towards specific goals.

Accepting the significant importance of leaders, along with the complexity of defining leadership, many researchers (Bass & Bass, 2008; George & Bennis, 2008; Locke, 2003) have endeavoured to explain who leaders are, and what they do. There are varying
opinions regarding what determines a leader. Solomon (1995) identified influence as being the foundation of leadership, stating that the leader exerts his or her influence on others. Others believe that the strength of one’s personality determines the ability to be a leader. Bass (2008) and George (2008) suggested the way the leader behaves or their actions determine the influence they have on others as leaders.

Notwithstanding ambiguities surrounding the specific concept of leadership, it is widely acknowledged that leadership is critical to organisational effectiveness (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; Tichy & Ulrich, 2008; Yulk, 1989). The corporate domain has continually strived to categorise, advance and augment leadership within an establishment. Indeed the sporting realm has followed suit. Various philosophies and designs of business leadership have been modified to compliment the sporting mould. Typically, this has been developed on the argument that there are many similarities between sport and business (Ball, 1976).

It is commonly acknowledged that leadership plays a significant role in sport. Sport is considered as a formal organisation in which the coach is the manager (Chelladurai, 1984). Despite extensive research focused on leadership, limited studies have been conducted into the leadership aspect of sport coaching. Chelladurai (1984) believes the study of leadership in the sporting arena is critical, as it is instrumental in enhancing the motivational state of the athlete.
Research conducted into the influential leadership nature of the coach has resulted in a variety of understandings. House (1971) proposed that leadership is influential in augmenting the motivational level of the athlete. Straub (1978) characterised the process as the influence coaches have on their athletes while Woodman (1993) highlighted the importance of the leadership influence of the coach on performance. Furthermore, it’s argued that the leadership influence of the coach extends beyond athlete performance to the personal development of the athlete (Cratty, 1974; Kalinowski, 1985; Riemer, 2007)

Martens (2004) provided a detailed description of leadership in sport. Leadership is about first knowing how to chart a course and to provide athletes with a direction, through having an image of what can be achieved (Martens, 2004). Further, Martens (2004) believes leadership is about developing the social and psychological environment. Fundamentally, this environment is created through motivation, rewards and the unification of athletes (Martens, 2004). Table 2.4 presents a list of leadership duties that Martens believes are relevant to coaching.

Chelladurai and Salch (1980) identified the need for an instrument for measuring leadership in sport. Specifically, such tools were designed to evaluate the preferences and perceptions of coaching behaviour. One such formulation, referred to as the Leadership Scale for Sport was developed by Chelladurai and Salch (1980). The essential aspects identified for measurement as identified by the researchers are
training and instruction, social support, autocratic behaviour, democratic behaviour, and positive feedback. These specific coaching dimensions are described in Table 2.5.

Table 2.4

What Leaders Do

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What leaders do</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provide direction</td>
<td>Leaders provide direction by setting goals and by having a vision of what they want to achieve in the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create an environment</td>
<td>Leaders create a psychological and social environment that is beneficial to accomplishing the athletes or teams goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instill values</td>
<td>Leaders encourage values partly by sharing their philosophy of life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivate</td>
<td>Leaders motivate athletes to pursue their goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confront</td>
<td>Leaders confront athletes when problems occur and resolve conflicts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicate</td>
<td>Leaders are required to communicate to adequately address the actions mentioned above.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Adapted from Successful Coaching (p.34), by R. Martens, 2004, Hong Kong: Human Kinetics.

At the same time, other researchers have focused on the leadership behaviour of coaches (Docheff, 1989; Rushall & Smith, 1979; Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977; Tucker, 2008). The objective of these studies was to develop leadership behaviour categorisations for effectively coaching children.

Smith, Smoll, and Hunt (1977) developed a model called the Coaching Behaviour Assessment System (CBAS). Used as an observation tool, the CBAS has been used to examine coaches’ leadership influence on children’s psychological development through sport. The model includes 12 leadership behavioural categories divided into
eight reactive and four spontaneous behaviours. The reactive category consists of the coaches’ responses to either desirable performance or effort, mistakes and errors, or players’ misbehaviours (Smith et al., 1977). The spontaneous category is divided into relevant and irrelevant leadership behaviours initiated by the coach (Smith et al., 1977).

Table 2.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coaching Dimension</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training and Instruction</td>
<td>Coaching behaviours implemented to enhance athlete performance by:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• generating an environment that accentuates hard training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• skill development strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• sport specific techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• tactics and procedures applicable to the sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• establishment of athlete/coach relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• organising and integrating athlete activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Behaviour</td>
<td>Coaching behaviours encourage athlete involvement in:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• decision making regarding identification of goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• organisation of training schedules and programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• game tactics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• game strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic Behaviour</td>
<td>Coaching behaviours that involve limited or no input from the athlete, all decisions and authority executed by the coach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Support</td>
<td>Coaching behaviours that manifest an interest in the wellbeing of the athlete outside the performance and/or training environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Feedback</td>
<td>Coaching behaviours that merit the athlete for positive accomplishments that occur within the performance and/or training environment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Investigations that have used the CBAS, or a modified version of the device, have shown that coach behaviour and leadership approach has a significant influence on an
athlete’s psychological profile. Specifically, it’s been found that leadership can affect characteristics such as self-esteem, satisfaction, and perceived competence (Smith & Smoll, 1978).

It is apparent from a review of literature that leadership plays a significant role in coaching. Although this is the case, not all athletes prefer the same type of leadership style. The following section outlines various preferred leadership styles.

2.6.1.1 Preferred coaching leadership styles

Following on from a discussion about coach behaviours, leadership in sport and what leaders do, it is important to highlight how personal characteristics and various situations determine preferences for leadership styles. According to Chelladurai (1984) differences in personal characteristics influence what kinds of coaching behaviours athletes prefer. For example, gender has been identified as a major determinant of preferred leadership (Jambor & Zhang, 1997). Male athletes preferred coaches to be more domineering, yet more supportive than did female athletes (Jambor & Zhang, 1997).

Personality is also a considerable determinant of leadership preference. House (1971) suggested that leadership preferences of those whose central needs are task-related would differ from the preferences of members high on social needs. It has also been found that athletes on a high cognitive structure (e.g. requiring elicit information) prefer instruction and training (Chelladurai, 1984). On the other hand, athletes who
are more compulsive in nature favour more emphasis on social support (Chelladurai, 1984).

The ability level of the athlete was also assumed to be associated to preferred leadership (House, 1971; Tucker, 2008). A high ability athlete would be less likely to prefer instruction and guidance. Although this theory has been hypothesised, the association between the athletes’ ability-level and leadership preference has not been extensively examined (Chelladurai, 1984).

Just as individual characteristics help determine preferred leadership styles, so do differences in different coaching scenario. According to House (1971), the more ambiguous the task the higher degree of variability in outcomes, hence the need for a leader to provide explicit direction, support and instruction. Supported by this finding, Chelladurai (1984) established that athletes involved in team sports had a preference for structured training and guidance than athletes involved in individual sports.

Additional research focused on the effects of specific goals on preferred leadership styles. Erle (1981) compared leadership preferences in two hockey teams. It was identified that the intercollegiate hockey team in pursuit of excellence preferred more instruction and social support and less positive feedback than the second hockey team who’s goal was the pursuit of pleasure and physical activity (Erle, 1981).
It is apparent that a variety of motives surrounding preferred leadership styles. Hence, it is important to take into account of these factors - both the individual characteristics of the athlete and the situational factors to ensure athletes’ needs are met in various sport settings.

2.6.2 Coaches as Communicators

The role of communication has been highlighted by various researchers (Kellett, 1999; Salmela, 1995; Weinberg, 2007) as being a prerequisite to effective coaching. Despite this, there has been limited research conducted to support this assumption. Bloom, Schinke and Salmela (1997) administered a study into the communication styles exhibited by sports coaches. They investigated the disparity of communication styles in relation to the four developmental stages of coaching as developed by Bloom et al. (1997). The four stages being the: beginning coach; developmental coach; national elite coach; and international elite coach. Through analysis of the data, Bloom et al. (1997) identified that when asking elite coaches to recollect various periods of their coaching development, they were able to describe changes in their communication styles and techniques. It was also found that the beginning coach was more likely to be dictatorial and was more likely to alienate their athletes.

Embedded in Bloom et al.’s (1997) research were issues pertaining to the role of communication in coaching. Questions were raised including whether communication is classified as one of many behaviours required to become an effective coach, and whether communication is an outlet for articulating and refining other behaviours?
Assuming communication is imperative for the development of effective and successful coaches, more time needs to be allocated within coach education to develop these skills in the coaching candidates. The following section explores different communication styles as established from the research.

2.6.2.1 Basic Communication

Martens (2004) identified three dimensions of communication, sending and receiving messages, verbal and nonverbal messages, and, the content and emotion of communication. The first dimension identified above is imperative for coaches to master. Effective coaching and effective communication go hand in hand. Traditionally coaches are known for their oral skills than for their listening, although it is important for coaches listen and understand what their athletes are communicating back to them (Martens, 2004).

The use of verbal and nonverbal messages is considered of equal importance to that of sending and receiving messages (Martens, 2004). Hand gestures, facial expressions, positioning of the body, and acts of kindness are all examples of nonverbal communication. It is thought that 70 percent of communication is conducted nonverbally. This highlights the notion that what done is of greater importance than what is said (Martens, 2004).

Communication involves content and emotion (Martens, 2004). Content is the substance of the message and emotion is how you feel about it, and typically, content
is articulated verbally and emotion nonverbally. As a coach in the public eye, it is important to manage both the content and emotion to remain in control of the situation and the athletes.

Aside from the three dimensions of communication, Martens (2004) identified six steps to the communication process (Table 2.6). This process initiates at the ideas formulated by the coach, progressing through to the reaction and interpretation of the athlete. As highlighted in this table, the interpretation of the athlete receiving information is an important part of the communication process which should not be overlooked.

**Table 2.6**

**Six steps in communicating to athletes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step One</td>
<td>The coach has thoughts, feelings, ideas, intentions, that they wish to convey to the athlete.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step Two</td>
<td>The coach translates these thoughts into a message suitable for transmission to the athlete.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step Three</td>
<td>The coach conveys the message through a verbal or nonverbal channel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step Four</td>
<td>The athlete obtains the message if they are paying attention to the coach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step Five</td>
<td>The message is understood by the athlete. The interpretation is dependent upon whether the athlete comprehended the content and intent of the message.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step Six</td>
<td>The athlete reacts internally to the interpretation of the message.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Adapted from Successful Coaching (p.97), by R. Martens, 2004,. Hong Kong: Human Kinetics.*

Effective communication is imperative for successful coaching. Tutko and Richards (1971) believe communication is a fundamental component of coaching efficiency:
No matter how much knowledge a coach has, no matter how great his understanding of the physical and emotional needs of his athletes, his success or failure... boils down to one thing: communication. In his relationship with his athletes almost all of the coach’s time will be spent in transferring his knowledge to those athletes and making sure they know what is expected of them. (p. 9)

A set of criteria for effective communication has been developed by Pyke (2001). These incorporate a number of techniques ranging from the simplicity of the message being provided, through to the importance of the coach having a sense of humour.

The criteria for effective communication are outlined in Table 2.7:
Table 2.7

**Criteria for effective communication**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simplicity</td>
<td>The coach should ensure the message is simple and succinct. A complex and drawn out explanation can result in the attention of the athlete to be lost.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarity</td>
<td>The message from the coach needs to be clear and easily comprehended by the athlete.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positiveness</td>
<td>The coach should adopt an optimistic approach. Constantly focusing on the negatives results in a loss in the athlete's motivation. An effective coaching style would include highlighting a flaw amongst the provision of positive aspects of the performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouragement</td>
<td>The coach should provide encouragement and reinforcement of the ability of the athlete.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>The coach should provide an understanding of the feelings and the athlete's situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance-related comments</td>
<td>The coach should avoid comments relating to the athlete's character. Alternatively the coach should focus on aspects of the performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>The coach should ensure each athlete is treated equally. A change in response according to the athlete will result in a lack of respect from the athlete.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoid sarcasm</td>
<td>The coach should avoid comments that are degrading or impolite in nature. This type of approach to the athlete will eventuate in an environment lacking in respect and trust.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of humour</td>
<td>The coach should have a good sense of humour. This results in an environment in which the athlete can feel relaxed and develop a good relationship with the coach.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


This section has outlined the basic steps of coach communication. It is important to note that the goal of communication is a shared understanding between the person sending the message and the person receiving the message. The following section
examines different types of communication focussing specifically on the types of communication used within the coaching setting.

### 2.6.2.2 Types of Communication

A substantial amount of the discussion thus far, has focussed on oral communication. Despite this, coaches use a variety of communication techniques including written, symbolic, listening, and feedback (Bauer, 2009; Pyke, 2001). Generally, athletes have a preference for different communication types, although an effective coach uses a range of communication types to ensure they attain the best results from the athlete. This section analyses the different types of communication while highlighting the importance of each within the coaching setting.

Primarily, oral communication has a vast array of uses within the coaching setting. These include instructing, providing feedback, reprimanding, commending, disputing, and encouraging (Pyke, 2001). Pyke also outlined characteristics for effective oral communication that: adequate projection of voice; variation in the tone of the voice according to intent of the message; questioning techniques to evaluate the athletes understanding; and, correct articulation (Pyke, 2001). Indeed this approach ensures the athlete remains stimulated, emphasises important elements the coach wishes to express, and enables to coach to cater for the needs of the athlete.

Aside from the traditional form of oral communication, written communication plays an integral role in coaching. Instructional coaching manuals have been developed to aid the education of beginning coaches. Sports involving a high degree of technical
ability such as gymnastics and dance have an explicit criterion in which the athlete is required to adopt (Pyke, 2001).

Coaches have the option to integrate the use of written material into the coaching setting by using a variety of methods. In doing so, the coach should ensure the material is easily comprehended by the athlete. This can be achieved by the use of diagrams, appropriate language, adequately explaining new terms, emphasising key aspects, and presenting a brief overview (Pyke, 2001).

The role of symbolic communication in the coaching realm assists the athlete to mentally visualise a specific concept. This type of communication is particularly beneficial when dealing with younger athletes as it allows them to comprehend a concept relevant to their experience. For example, when instructing a young child to perform a hand ball in AFL, the coach can explain to the athlete to imagine they are holding an ice cream cone in their hand and to swing their arm and squash the ice cream onto the ball. Despite the benefits of symbolic communication for younger athletes, it can also assist in the instruction of older athletes. Pyke (2001) highlighted this as an important method of communication when instructing the athlete to perform a new movement, or if an error in the athletes technique is being amended. Implementation of this type of communication into the coaching repertoire is believed to considerably decrease the time an athlete takes to learn a new concept (Pyke, 2001).
Listening is an imperative component of effective communication. Although the ability to listen might seem like a simple concept, it is thought that we hear only 20 percent of what is being communicated to us (Martens, 2004). Traditionally, coaches are portrayed as being poor listeners. Martens (2004) highlighted reasons for this including: coaches are often busy giving instructions therefore the athlete isn’t provided with the opportunity to speak; and, coaches assume they have superior knowledge and therefore the athlete has nothing to contribute.

Despite the dominance of the coach, it is advantageous for them to listen to the athlete to acquire an understanding. A former US Olympic Track Coach believed “the essence of coaching is understanding your athletes. You have to listen to them to find out what they felt, how they interpreted their race. Then you can tell them how you interpreted it or saw it through your eyes as the coach” (Martens, 2004 p.179). A failure to listen to the athlete can result in a breakdown in communication. For example, if the athlete is continually trying to communicate with the coach without success, they will eventually desist which subsequently may result in discipline problems and a lack of respect for the coach (Martens, 2004).

There are a number of techniques coaches can employ to ensure they are effective listeners. Firstly, Pyke (2001) defined listening as a process that is not purely central to an auditory understanding. For example, by recognising the athletes’ body language, information about the performance of the athlete, and the make-up of the group of
athletes, the coach can establish the level of comprehension of the athlete (Pyke, 2001).

Second, the coach should acknowledge the athlete via the use of various gestures including facial expressions, eye contact and encouraging statements. Specifically, this indicates to the athlete that the coach has heard and understood what is being said (Pyke, 2001). Finally, Pyke (2001) believes the coach should restrain from casting judgement on the athlete. If a difference of opinion exists, the coach should allow the athlete to finish, then provide a different point of view and ensure they support this with explicit rationale.

The final type of communication as highlighted by Pyke (2001) is feedback. Effective feedback is imperative to enable the athlete to learn. There are two types of feedback experienced by the athlete. Firstly, proprioceptive feedback is experienced internally (Rose & Chistina, 2006). Specifically, this type of feedback is sensory and is experienced when an athlete generates the movement. In contrast to proprioceptive, exteroceptive feedback can be provided through a range of external stimulants including heart rate monitors, videotapes, special sensors attached to the athlete, and the use of timing lights for sprinters (Rose & Chistina, 2006). Exteroceptive feedback is the feedback provided by the coach. Specifically, exteroceptive feedback can be delivered in the form of knowledge of performance or knowledge of results.
According to researchers (Lorimer & Jowett, 2010; Martens, 2004), feedback provided by the coach needs to be specific. If the behaviour exhibited by the athlete is positive, the coach should commend the athlete. Similarly, if the athlete has carried out an inappropriate action, the feedback should provide specific information outlining reasons for this (Martens, 2004). A study conducted by Martens in the United States, classified the verbal communication of a coach of a university basketball team during a training session. The results indicated that 75 percent of the communication from the coach to the athletes was specific instructions, 12 percent were instructions to get a move on, 7 percent provided the athletes with praise, and the remaining 6 percent were reprimands (Martens, 2004). Further research surrounding feedback conducted by Lorimer (2010) argued that a potentially fundamental dimension of high quality coaching is the coach’s ability to understand and subsequently respond appropriately to the athlete’s needs via the use of feedback. Lorimer acknowledged that the coach’s ability to understand their athletes is paramount as it allows them to react and interact effectively with their athletes, hence providing them feedback that is specific to athlete goals and capability.

Further on the issue of feedback, it has been found that the feedback provided by the coach is a direct function of the status of the athlete within the team (Horn, 1992; Mancini, 1987; Markland & Martinek, 1988). This can have a significant effect on the performance outcomes and self-efficacy of the athlete.
Every coaching session provides an opportunity for a range of communication styles to be incorporated. Adopting a variety of these techniques ensures the athletes' individual needs are catered for, consequently the coach will achieve the best results from the athlete. This study explores the communication strategies employed by beginning coaches when managing their athletes. The communication strategies and techniques of coaches is an essential component when designing and implementing effective behaviour management techniques and creating supportive coaching environments.

2.6.3 Coaches as Teachers

Managing a learning environment refers to how coaches prevent and solve the difficulty of order so they can teach and athletes can learn. It has been suggested that the greater amount of student movement and choice in a learning environment, the greater the need for management (Schempp, 1992).

Behaviour management strategies should be central to successful coaching. Coaches sometimes struggle to keep order of their athletes, leaving little time to focus on the job of training the athletes (Fuller, Chapman, & Jolly, 2009). Theorists such as Schempp (1992) and Martens (2004) have highlighted effective behaviour management strategies but there is not one specific style of behaviour management that is effective for all athletes. Throughout this section various behaviour management strategies considered appropriate for the coaching domain will be highlighted.
2.6.3.1 Creating a positive learning environment

Coaches have the responsibility of setting the stage for learning by creating a positive, exciting atmosphere. This type of atmosphere should include an environment that is supportive, sympathetic and essentially encourages the learning and performance of the athlete. To create a positive learning environment Lavay, French and Henderson (2006) believe this should include examining yourself as coach, maintaining and increasing positive behaviour and decreasing inappropriate behaviour.

2.6.3.1.1 Examining yourself as a coach

In asking questions such as ‘Am I tuned in?’ ‘Am I enthusiastic?’ ‘Am I flexible?’ and ‘Am I personable?’ as provided in Figure 2.3, it allows the coach to evaluate their approach to coaching. A coach that is ‘tuned in’ possesses an awareness of the surroundings. Specifically, a coach that is tuned in acts instantly, ensuring any undesirable behaviour is addressed prior to it getting out of hand. Enthusiasm is considered infectious. Adopting an enthusiastic approach when coaching athletes ensures a high level of interest from the athlete. The enthusiasm projected from the coach will spread and promote a positive and nurturing environment (Lavay et.al, 2006). By adopting a flexible approach to coaching, Lavay et.al (2006) believe it enables the coach to renegotiate the consequences if they were initially insufficient. Finally, by taking a personable approach, the athletes feel important and respected by the coach. This can be achieved through addressing the athletes by their name, and initiating a conversation with them. This will assist in developing a warm and
motivational coaching environment in which the athletes want to learn and behave (Jansma & French, 1994).

**Figure 2.3. Techniques for examining yourself as a coach.** From *Motivating students to promote learning in physical education and sport* (2nd ed.) (p.16), by B. Lavay, R. French, and H. Henderson, 2006, Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics. Reprinted with permission.

2.6.3.1.2 Maintaining and increasing positive athlete behaviour

Positive reinforcement is the most effective method of maintaining and increasing positive athlete behaviour (Fuller et al., 2009). As illustrated in Figure 2.4, there are various types of behaviour reinforcers that exist. A primary form of a reinforcer is one that satisfies a biological need, such as food and water. Secondary reinforcers, unlike primary have to be learned and are contrived. Specifically, this could include praise, a trophy or best and fairest player award. This type of reinforcer is extrinsic in that it comes from an outside source whereas an intrinsic reinforcer is an internal feeling of accomplishment (Jansma & French, 1994). Jansma and French (1994) emphasised the importance of moving the athlete from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation.
Some researchers (e.g. Lavay, 2006) outline the three extrinsic reinforcers as social, tangible and physical activity. To illustrate, an example of a social reinforcer is a smile, approving nod, pat on the back, or a positive comment about the athletes behaviour or performance. This type of reinforcer is most effective when the feedback is specific, for example “Good explosive power off the blocks, top effort!”

The second type of reinforcer above is tangible reinforcement. Specifically, these types of reinforcers are material objects the athlete may desire including ribbons, medals and certificates. Lavay et al. (2006) highlighted the importance of coupling social and tangible reinforcers together. It is thought that if this method is adopted, the athlete will associate social reinforcers with tangible reinforcers, hence enabling the tangible reinforcers to ultimately be phased out.

**Figure 2.4. Management techniques for maintaining and increasing athlete behavior.**

The last type of reinforcer is the physical activity reinforcer. This type of reinforcer involves highlighting appropriate behaviour by allowing the athletes privileges such as being the squad leader, distributing the equipment, or using certain equipment. As a consequence, not only will the behaviour be reinforced but often the athlete’s performance will also improve.

2.6.3.1.3 Decreasing inappropriate athlete behaviour

There are three approaches that can be employed to decrease inappropriate athlete behaviour. These effective management techniques are outlined in Figure 2.5, and include the removal of a reinforcer, the arrangement of an aversive stimulus and the condition of an aversive behaviour. Different levels of inappropriate behaviour require varying levels of behaviour management. Schempp (2003) outlined mild inappropriate behaviours as talking when directions are being issued, chewing gum and tardiness. On the other hand, examples of severe inappropriate behaviours include fighting, throwing equipment and stealing (Schempp, 2003).
Figure 2.5. Management techniques for decreasing inappropriate behavior. From Motivating students to promote learning in physical education and sport (2nd ed.) (p.93), by B. Lavay, R. French, and H. Henderson, 2006, Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics. Reprinted with permission.

The first approach to reducing inappropriate behaviour is the removal of a reinforcer. Lavay et al. (2006) highlighted three basic methods of withdrawing a reinforcer to decrease behaviour, including intentional ignoring, response cost, and time-out. Intended ignoring is designed to decrease the undesired behaviour in the future. This is achieved through removing a reinforcement administered for a previously enforced behaviour. However, during this phase of behaviour management, it is important to look for appropriate behaviour exhibited by the athlete and reinforce those (Lavay et al., 2006.)

Typically, the method known as response cost is the most common form of management used in everyday life. In short, a reinforcer is taken from an athlete that has exhibited undesirable behaviour. For example, if an athlete behaves
inappropriately a consequence could include missing a turn or losing a point. This method of punishment is effective and easy to administer.

Lavay et al. (2006) outlined the final method of management - time-out - as essentially removing the athlete from a reinforcing environment for a certain period of time. Primarily, there are three types of time-out including observational, exclusion and seclusion. Observational time-out involves removing the athlete from a game or activity but allowing them to continue to watch the other athletes. This method is often effective as the athlete is able to see what they are missing out on through their misbehaviour. On the other hand, exclusion time-out involves isolating the athlete from the setting, ensuring they are unable to observe the other athletes. Finally, the seclusion technique involves totally removing the athlete to an area providing no visual or auditory stimulation, such as exclusion from the training environment. This form of punishment should be administered as a consequence of severe inappropriate behaviour.

The second management technique to decrease inappropriate behaviour is the arrangement of an aversive stimulus. Lavay et al. (2006) believes this form of management is unpleasant to the recipient. Fundamentally, this form of management can be administered via direct discussion and verbal reprimand (Lavay et.al, 2006). A specific example of this may involve the athlete being taken aside by the coach and verbally punished by the coach.
To manage inappropriate behaviour, a cause must be determined. The most effective method of establishing this is to have a direct discussion with the athlete or athletes involved to determine the cause of the inappropriate behaviour. Once this has been established, a verbal reprimand is administered to the athlete. A verbal reprimand includes telling the athlete the behaviour is not suitable and an explanation of why it is unacceptable. Following on from this, the athlete should be provided with an explanation of a more appropriate behaviour (Schempp, 2003).

The last management technique for decreasing inappropriate behaviour is stated as requiring an aversive behaviour (Lavay et al., 2006). According to Lavay, there are numerous ways of reprimanding inappropriate behaviour involving the athlete to do something aversive. Specifically, this includes the requirement of a physical activity, reparation and overcorrection.

With respect to an aversive behaviour such as physical activity, if the athlete exhibits undesirable behaviour, they would be required to perform a physical activity. Despite this previously being a significant form of punishment, this form of punishment is often avoided these days as it develops a negative attitude towards physical activity. Further, it defeats the goal of promoting physical activity as desirable.

Alternatively, reparation is a method of punishment in which the athlete must pay for the inappropriate behaviour. This form of payment would involve either a time or monetary payment. For example, if the athlete damaged sporting equipment or used
inappropriate language, they would be required to either pay to replace the equipment or pay for their inappropriate behaviour by giving up their time to help others or perform some tasks assigned by the coach (Schempp, 2003).

Overcorrection is a technique requiring the athlete to take responsibility for the inappropriate behaviour (Lavay et al., 2006). Primarily, this is achieved through recognition of the inappropriate behaviour by two specific methods, restitutinal overcorrection and positive practice overcorrection (Lavay et al., 2006).

Restitutional overcorrection involves the athlete rectifying the circumstance by restoring the environment to an enhanced state. For example, if an athlete messes up the equipment shed, they would be required to return the equipment to its original state. Lavay et al. (2006) believe this form of punishment is most effective if the retribution is immediate and relevant to the inappropriate act. The second form of overcorrection as highlighted by Lavay et al. (2006) is called positive practice overcorrection. In short, an athlete is required to continually execute the appropriate behaviour as a consequence of misbehaving. This is an effective form of punishment as the athlete repeatedly experiences how to behave appropriately.

2.7 Conclusion

Chapter Two has examined several themes that are significant to this study. Such themes include the background of coaching in Australia, coach education strategies,
the beginning coach, coach behaviours and characteristics, and coaches as athlete managers.

This literature review has highlighted the shortcoming of a behaviour management theory in the coaching profession. A significant number of young athletes are entering into sporting teams and recreational environments unable to cope with the demands of the learning environment and display inappropriate behaviours (Lavay et al., 2006). It is for this reason Schempp (2003) and Lavay et al. (2006) emphasise that sports coaching requires a strong behaviour management underpinning to ensure supportive environments are created for athletes. In order to manage athlete behaviour effectively coaches are required to use different strategies during each phase (warm up, body, cool down) of the coaching session, and both antecedent and consequent strategies should be employed. Specific strategies relevant to beginning coaches for managing inappropriate athlete behaviour in all phases of the training session do not exist in the current literature. Consequently, most coaches commence their career with little or no training in strategies and techniques for managing athlete behaviour (Martens, 2004). Without coach education programs that encompass all aspects of the athlete behaviour management, future coaches move into the coaching domain without all the skills required to delivery effective coaching programs and create positive coaching environments for their athletes. In order to provide coaching candidates with the full array of skills to become an effective coach, an understanding of the knowledge and experience that underpins the profession is required.
Through an examination of the literature, it has become apparent there is limited research on how to manage behaviour in a coaching context. This research is designed to fill this gap by: identifying whether beginning coaches see behaviour management as part of their role as a coach; by investigating if beginning coaches implement behaviour management strategies in their coaching practices; by providing beginning coaches with a tool for evaluating the effectiveness of their athlete behaviour management techniques; and, by providing recommendations for strategies to manage athlete behaviour.

The following chapter highlights theories designed for managing behaviour in the classroom environment. These theories have been explored and aspects applicable to the sport coaching environment have been extracted and the relevance of them to the sport coaching domain is discussed.
3. CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW OF BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT

THEORIES

The previous chapter provided an overview of the current literature surrounding behaviour management strategies in coaching. There is limited literature surrounding the specific behaviour strategies for managing athlete behaviour within the sport coaching context. This in turn has highlighted the importance of developing a behaviour management approach applicable to the coaching context and caters to the needs of both athletes and coaches. This chapter explores the current behaviour theories designed for the classroom and school environment, and explores how these theories may be implemented within a sporting context.

3.1 Introduction

A well managed coaching environment can provide a dynamic and engaging learning experience for the athletes involved. Despite this, the behaviour of athletes can often interfere with the coaching process. While coaching courses allocate limited time to providing coaching candidates with behaviour management strategies, (as highlighted in Table 2.1) athlete behaviour management plays a major role in coaching junior athletes (Winnick, 2005). In the past, an authoritarian approach was employed to manage athlete behaviours (Tutko & Richards, 1971). This included a militaristic style with an emphasis on punishment for controlling athlete behaviour. According to Tutko & Richards (1971), a coach who employs this approach is often well organised and prepared, but athletes with high levels of anxiety and who are sensitive athletes do not respond well to this approach. Consequently, this style of coaching is not seen as
desirable for junior athletes. Given this criticism it would be beneficial to explore other ways to manage the coaching environment and the behaviour of athletes.

### 3.2 Behaviour Management Theories

Somewhat divergent from the experiences of students within a classroom, athletes within a sport environment are involved with large amounts of movement and choice, and as a result the coach must develop effective behaviour management strategies (Winnick, 2005). As both the classroom and a sport environment are considered learning environments, it is appropriate to refer to behaviour management theories that have been designed for the classroom environment when discussing behaviour management in sport.

Behaviour theorists from the 1930s through to the present day describe theoretical frameworks for encouraging and maintaining positive behaviour. These behaviour theories greatly influenced, and are still influencing behaviour management. The following section summarises the work of some central behaviour theorists. These summaries identify the influences each theory has made on behaviour management.

#### 3.2.1 Burrhus Frederic Skinner

Skinner's philosophies can and have been applied to classroom behaviour management. As a prominent learning theorist during the 1930s and 1940s, Skinner emphasised how an organism learns, regardless of its inherited potential, its stage of physical or psychological development, and often regardless of its species (Sprinthall &
Sprinthall, 1981). Specifically, he saw learning as a result of associations formed between stimuli and actions, or impulses to act. Simple associations would accumulate to larger groups of learned associations. Skinner believed learning was a result of conditioning, similar to Pavlov's dogs being conditioned to salivate at the sound of a specific tone. With regards to the classroom, Skinner stated that by rewarding students for good behaviour and ignoring or punishing wrong behaviour, students would come to understand how to behave in a classroom environment (Conte, 1994). Hence, behaviours that were rewarded would be repeated and those that were not would be avoided, thus resulting in a well-behaved class.

Skinner's research on reinforcing stimuli further led him to the development of behaviour-modification techniques for use in the classroom (Skinner, 2002). Behaviour modification involved training teachers to wait for their students to emit appropriate responses and then reinforcing those responses quickly and consistently. An example of this would be a student raising their hand to respond to a question and the teacher praising the student by saying “Thanks for raising your hand” before asking the student to provide the answer. In a sporting context, an example of this behavioural approach would include a coach blowing the whistle as a signal for the athletes to cease the activity, if the athletes respond to the whistle the coach would immediately praise the athletes by saying, “Well done team, thanks for stopping when the whistle was blown.”
3.2.2 William Glasser

Later work conducted by Glasser in the 1950's emphasised the use of choice as the cause of behaviour, good or bad, and thus instructed teachers to direct students towards making value judgments about their behaviour (Glasser, 1998). According to Glasser's Reality Therapy, it is through making value judgements that students come to realise the importance of ‘good’ choices in behaviour and continue to make them again in the future. Therefore, students were taught the difference between a ‘good judgement’, and a ‘bad judgement’. This process is used in classrooms to promote desired behaviour and diminish undesired behaviour. An example of teaching the difference between good and bad judgement is through incorporating the use of role plays into the learning environment in which the students act out scenarios and experience the consequences in a controlled environment.

The Choice Theory developed by Glasser in 1980, states that all human beings behave in order to satisfy five basic needs (Glasser, 1998). These five basic needs are all considered equal, include: survival, power, belonging, freedom, and fun. As opposed to the stimulus-response theory developed by Skinner (2002), Glasser believes that it is impossible to control another person; people can only control themselves. By understanding the five basic needs, it is thought a person is better able to improve quality of life (Glasser, 1998). Coaches can meet the needs of their athletes by ensuring they feel safe in the training and playing environment, ensuring they feel like they belong as part of the team, enabling them the freedom and power to develop
their own goals, and providing opportunities for the athletes to have fun while participating in the sporting environment.

3.2.3 Jacob Kounin

Research undertaken by Kounin and his colleagues during the 1970s focused on whether specific behaviour settings and environmental conditions influenced behaviours. Kounin’s theory included teacher and lesson characteristics such as “withitness”, “smoothness”, “group alerting”, “momentum” and “overlapping” (Kounin, 1970, p.81). For this purpose, “withitness” refers to the teacher’s awareness of what is occurring in the classroom, “smoothness” refers to the teacher maintaining direction of the lesson and not losing focus, “group alerting” refers to the teacher’s ability to keep all students actively participating, “momentum” is the teacher maintaining a constant pace of the lesson, and “overlapping” is the ability to attend to multiple things at the same time. Table 3.1 provides specific examples of these behaviour techniques.
### Table 3.1

**Kounin’s characteristics of behaviour management**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Examples</th>
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| **With-itness** | This is the teacher’s ability to know what students are doing in the classroom at all times. | • Always be alert to sights and sounds in the classroom.  
• Arrange the seats so that students are always within eyesight.  
• Scan the room when working with individuals or small groups of students.  
• When helping an individual make sure that you do not have your back to the rest of the class.  
• Briefly acknowledge misbehaviour at first detection to let the class know that you know. This action is taken to avoid the misbehaviour escalating. |
| **Smoothness** | The teacher’s ability to smoothly transition between learning activities. | • Pre plan the lesson so that extraneous matters are realised ahead of time and taken care of.  
• Supplies for the class should always be pre organised before class begins and close to where they will be used.  
• Once students are doing their work and engaged, do not distract them. Leave them to their work and assist individuals with questions or needs. |
| Group Alerting | The teacher's ability to keep all students actively participating and to create suspense or interest. | • Calling on students at random by asking a question only after scanning the room to make sure students are paying attention.  
• Raising group interest by interspersing suspense between questions.  
• Having the entire class respond in unison.  
• Physically moving around the room and asking students to show what they have done. |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Momentum | The teacher's ability to have steady movement or pacing throughout a lesson. | • Keep the lesson moving briskly.  
• Not dwell on a minor or already understood concept.  
• Correct students without nagging and quickly return to the lesson.  
• Have students move from one activity to the next without being forced to wait for each other and each step in the transition. |
| Overlapping | The teacher's ability to effectively handle two classroom events at the same time, instead of becoming engrossed in one and letting the other happening be neglected. | When instructing one group, the teacher should be able to acknowledge difficulties that students outside of the group may be having so that instruction continues moving. This also includes distractions from outside the classroom such as notes from the office or students walking through the hallways. |

It is believed that these characteristics are displayed by a teacher who knows what is happening within the learning environment and is able to deal with problems as they arise. That is, when undesired behaviours are exhibited by the student the teacher incorporated such strategies to control the learning environment. ‘Good’ management within a classroom would then facilitate learning. Kounin (1970) believes that teachers who could be ‘aware’, would be superior managers of children in the classroom. An example of Kounin’s behaviour management techniques within a sporting context would include the coach always being alert to things that are happening; acknowledging the misbehaviour of an athlete at the first sign, always pre-planning the training activities and ensuring the equipment is readily available, physically moving around to ensure the athletes are on task and exhibiting the correct technique, and ensure transitions between training drills and activities are smooth and timely.

3.2.4 Abraham Maslow

Maslow’s research on hierarchy of needs has also influenced behaviour management techniques within the learning environment (Maslow, 1970). Maslow proposed a definite order in which an individual attempts to satisfy their needs. Identified as an ‘order-of-importance’, research suggests that this order exists and is universal among all humans (Maslow, 1970). Specifically, until these needs are met in order of importance, an individual will not attend to the needs of the next level of importance. Put simply, the need for basic survival will, in all scenarios, prevail over other needs in this hierarchy.
Maslow’s (1970) hierarchy of needs is often depicted as a pyramid consisting of five tiers (Figure 3.1). The four lower levels of the pyramid are grouped together and are associated with physiological requirements. The top level of the pyramid is associated with psychological needs and is termed as “growth needs” (Maslow, 1970). The lower four levels, also known as “deficiency needs”, must be met first in order to seek to satisfy the growth needs. Once an individual moves upwards to the next level, the needs in the lower level will no longer be prioritised. However if a lower level need ceases to be met, the individual will temporarily re-prioritise those needs by focussing attention on the unfulfilled needs, though will not permanently regress to the lower level. The following is a summary of Maslow’s (1970) Need Hierarchy:

- physiological satisfaction: taking care of hunger, thirst and sleep
- safety: avoiding injury, physical attack, pain, extreme temperatures, disease and psychological abuse
- nurture: receiving love and acceptance from others and having a feeling of belonging to a group
- a sense of personal value: experiencing self-esteem, self-confidence, and a sense of purpose and empowerment
- self-actualisation: realising one’s full potential

The theory of hierarchy of need can be related to a classroom setting. According to Gordon (2001) school staff members may attend to basic physiological needs on a daily basis by providing breakfasts and lunches for students in need and, in some cases, making home visits to teach parents how to provide for their children’s needs. Until these physiological needs like food are met, basic functioning in the learning environment is considered impossible. Despite the coaching environment being somewhat different from the school environment in that the athletes spend only a fraction of time with the coach as opposed to the time spent in the school environment, coaches may still ensure the physiological needs of the athletes are being met by talking to the athletes and liaising with parents. Meeting the second category may lie outside the teacher’s direct control when outside the school environment. Despite this, some of these needs can be addressed in the classroom. It is important to note that effective classroom management can help to ensure...
protection of students from other students, safety in the classroom from hazardous objects and from psychological abuse from other students or adults. Likewise, the coach can ensure the safety of the athletes is being met by: providing safe playing equipment, including playing surfaces; including safe drills and activities within the training session; and, also ensuring they protect the athletes from each other if a threatening situation should arise.

Further research surrounding Maslow’s hierarchy of needs conducted by Gordon (2001) highlights that the teacher has the opportunity to create a learning environment that is kind and respectful in order to meet the nurturing needs of the student. Students will be better able to reciprocate positive behaviours toward other people, including showing care and compassion, if the display of affection is modelled for them by the teacher within their learning environment. The coach can take similar actions ensure the athletes are nurtured. This can be achieved by creating a positive environment where the coach is showing care and compassion towards the athlete.

The fourth category of Maslow’s (1970) needs relates to self-esteem, self-confidence, a sense of purpose, and empowerment that will directly relate to love and acceptance. It is believed a student will be able to build self-esteem and confidence if they feel cared for and can express their behaviours and emotions (Gordon, 2001). This can be achieved through a supportive classroom environment in which students are free to voice their opinion without threat of ridicule or put-downs from the teacher and fellow students. Within a sporting context, the coach must ensure the environment is free
from bullying or ridicule to ensure athlete self-esteem and self-confidence are not negatively affected. The pinnacle of the hierarchy pyramid, referred to as self actualisation can only be fulfilled when the more basic needs have been met. Self actualisation refers to the desire for self-fulfilment, namely the tendency for the individual to become actualised in their true potential. This tendency might be phrased as the desire to become everything that one is capable of becoming (Maslow, 1970).

3.2.5 Lee Canter

Research conducted by Canter (1990) produced a model known as the ‘assertive discipline model’. Specifically, this model has the basic premise that both the teacher and the students have needs, wants and feelings which must be able to be met within the classroom. The main focus of Canter’s model is on the teacher assertively insisting that students display desired behaviours and on providing teachers with a well organised procedure for following through when students undesirable behaviours. For this purpose, undesired behaviours, unlike desired behaviours, are those exhibited by the students that disrupt the flow of the lesson or the general atmosphere of the classroom environment. Examples of undesired behaviours include talking out of turn and off-task behaviour such as talking to other athletes/students whilst they are meant to be training/working. Desired behaviours alternatively include student raising their hand when they wish to speak and not distracting others.

The Canter Model is best known for its five step approach for implementing discipline. These five steps include recognising and removing roadblocks, practic...
assertive response styles, learning to set limits, learning to follow through on limits, and implementing a system of positive assertions (Canter, 1990).

According to Canter, the biggest roadblock to teachers is their own negative expectations of student behaviour. In short, teachers expect students to behave inappropriately and that factors including the students’ health, home life and personality mitigate against students displaying appropriate behaviour. Canter sees this outlook as a pessimistic expectation and believes it must be recognised as false and should be replaced with more optimistic expectations. This initial step to the five step approach, Recognising and Removing Roadblocks, states students can behave appropriately and that it is the teacher’s responsibility to communicate the appropriate behaviour. Within this behaviour model Canter highlights a number of ways for teachers to overcome negative expectations including no child should be allowed to behave in a self destructive way which violates the rights of others including the teacher, and accept that success in displaying desired behaviours may not be achieved with all students. Coaches can adopt similar strategies by designing behaviour expectations and not allowing athletes to display inappropriate behaviours that disrupt the coach or the other athletes.

Canter (1976) suggest three response style categories. Within the second of the five step approach, ‘Practice the Use of Assertive Discipline Response Styles’, the response style categories are assertive, hostile and non-assertive. For this purpose, assertive behaviours exhibited by the teacher are those in which the teacher identifies the
expectations clearly and follows through with them. Second, hostile behaviours displayed by the teacher are exhibited when the teacher uses discipline to control the students (e.g. punishing the student), rather than empower them (e.g. providing them with a choice). Finally, the teacher implements a non-assertive approach when expectations are not clear and no solid leadership is provided (e.g. the teacher does not provide the students with behavioural expectations). The hostile and non-assertive response styles should be eliminated and the assertive should be employed. Canter believes this can be achieved through effectively set expectations and by the teacher backing up his/her words with actions and consequences made apparent to students displaying inappropriate behaviour. Coaches can employ similar strategies within the sporting environment.

*Learning to Set Limits* is the third step in the Canter model. Students need to be clearly informed of the expected behaviour and the behaviour that will not be tolerated. Following on from this, Canter suggests that in step four, *Learning to Follow through on Limits*, action should be taken when students refuse to do as they are instructed. Within the sporting context, this could include coaches making promises and not threats, establishing in advance the criteria for consequences, selecting appropriate consequences in advance, and practising verbal confrontations that call for follow-up action (e.g. the coach planning a dialogue to present to the athlete when they have acted inappropriately).
The last step in Canter’s five step approach to assertive discipline, *Implementing a System of Positive Assertions*, highlights the importance of acknowledging children who are behaving appropriately. Canter believes strategies for implementing this include providing personal attention to the student, positive notes to the parents, special rewards and privileges, material rewards, home rewards and group rewards (Canter & Canter, 1976). This approach can be implemented in the coaching environment through similar strategies including individual athlete attention and rewards and privileges when the athlete has exhibited an appropriate behaviour or action.

### 3.2.6 Frederick Jones

Behavioural theories developed by Jones (2000) arose as a result of extensive observations of teachers implementing behaviour management strategies in a classroom environment. As a result, Jones was the first behaviour theorist to place an emphasis on the importance of non verbal communication. Jones believes that teachers are most effective when they not only communicate verbally but they also use their body, and as a result teachers should use body language and personal skills more than verbal messages to limit undesirable behaviour and help students stay on task.

Jones (2000) suggests that 75% of communication is body language and use of tone in the voice. Consequently, Jones believes the use of body language is an effective technique for managing the learning environment. This is achieved through the use of
gestures/signs, pausing, maintaining an assertive posture, physical proximity, eye
contact, and facial expressions. Specifically, the use of gestures are seen as explicit
acts of communication to direct student behaviour, physical proximity indicates to
students that they have been noticed, eye contact is to indicate student awareness,
and facial expressions highlight approval or disapproval. Further, Jones highlights the
use of non verbal communication as a method of halting undesirable behaviour and
avoiding verbal reprimand. Non verbal communication should be implemented as an
effective strategy of managing athlete behaviour. Non-verbal behaviour used to
manage athlete behaviour may involve the use of hand gestures and a whistle. A
specific example of this would include an athlete being provided instructions on how
to perform a drill, the athlete is on the field 25 meters from the coach and the coach
notices the athlete is performing the drill incorrectly, the coach would use the whistle
to gain the athlete’s attention, then wave his hand at the athlete for him to stop and
return to the coach for further instruction.

3.2.7 Bill Rogers

Rogers (1995) began his work during the 1990s and it continues to be refined. He
suggests the behaviour in the classroom is influenced not only by student behaviour,
but also by the classroom environment. Accordingly, Rogers highlights that there are
primary as well as secondary behaviours interacting within the classroom
environment. Specifically, primary behaviour is the task in hand, for example the
teaching and learning in the lesson, and secondary behaviour is that behaviour that
surrounds the journey to the primary behaviour. This behaviour is often the ‘nuisance’
or low level behaviour that either detracts from or enhances the process by which we reach the primary behaviour. He believes that following on from using appropriate processes to establish rules, rights, responsibilities and routines within a learning environment, teachers can learn to ignore secondary behaviour and implement effective behaviour management strategies for successful behaviour management.

The cornerstone of Rogers (1995) work is that each teacher should have plan of how they intend to approach the behaviour of their class. It is believed that being prepared will enable teachers to deal with frustration and uncertainty, handle likely disruptions, be as decisive and assertive as necessary, and avoid extended time wasting discussions with students. Further to this, Rogers suggests that thoughtful, planned, discipline language will improve the quality of communication transactions between the teacher and student by limiting emotional exchanges and by focusing on the main issue at hand. For this purpose, Rogers highlights a number of strategies believed to be the building blocks of a successful discipline plan. Table 3.2 outlines Rogers strategies for managing behaviour, as well as specific examples of these strategies in a sport coaching scenario.
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<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Coaching Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tactically ignoring</td>
<td>Rogers states that there are many low level disruptions that proceed from a student’s desire to gain attention, these may include calling out, sulking, throwing tantrums, persistent butting in, clowning, etc. He recommends that a teacher should tactically ignore such behaviours for as long as he/she deems necessary.</td>
<td>An athlete constantly calls out to the coach to gain their attention, the behaviour is ignored with the view to it ceasing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-verbal messages</td>
<td>Rogers states that a simple eye-message can convey that a teacher is annoyed</td>
<td>The coach looks at the athlete when they are exhibiting inappropriate behaviour</td>
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<tr>
<td>Casual statements or</td>
<td>Rogers proposes that effective discipline seeks to prevent unnecessary conflicts arising. To casually ask a question or make a statement without making a big fuss gives the student an easy, face-saving opportunity to get back into on-task behaviour.</td>
<td>The coach casually asks the athlete whom is displaying off task or inappropriate behaviour “how’s it going”</td>
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<td>questions</td>
<td></td>
<td>The coach simply states “John, put the football away now”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple directions</td>
<td>Rogers explains that a simple direction should express a teacher’s intent clearly and simply, rather than getting involved in long-winded discussions.</td>
<td>The coach simply states “John, put the football away now”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rule reminders</strong></td>
<td>Rogers proposes that with this step the teacher simply restates the rule to the student or quietly reminds them of the relevant rule.</td>
<td>Coach states “John, remember to keep your hands and feet to yourself, please wait your turn nicely”</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Defusing</strong></td>
<td>According to Rogers, appropriate, judicious humour can sometimes take the heat out of a problem.</td>
<td>If an athlete swears if they dropped some equipment the teacher could respond by saying “where?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Taking students aside and privately discussing the behaviour</strong></td>
<td>Rogers suggests that some students should be called aside. He suggests that the teacher quietly call the child over from the group and speak to him/her away from others. He states that this minimises hostility and embarrassment, gives time for a brief discussion and allows the student right of reply if they feel unjustly targeted.</td>
<td>If an athlete is teasing another athlete the coach can take them aside and discuss it privately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assertive statement</strong></td>
<td>Rogers explains this strategy as the way teachers state their concerns or feelings about the disruption as it affects the rights of class members.</td>
<td>“Jack. I’m really angry at what you have said. You do yourself no credit by swearing like that.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Isolation</strong></td>
<td>Rogers proposes that when a student will not settle down at their regular seat they should be provided with a choice to work quietly or move. He proposes that if the student “Greg, you are not doing the drill correctly, if you don’t start doing the right thing I will have to move</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
continues to behave incorrectly, they should be asked to move across to an isolation area and work there.

you away from that area.”

Providing choices

| Rogers states that empty threats are pointless. He further states that it is far better to put the student into a context where he/she has to choose the responsible alternative. Choices enable students towards some measure of self control. |

| “Jason, if you won't work by the fair rules, we'll have to ask you to leave”. The coach may add "It's your choice." |


3.2.8 Summary of Behaviour Theories

All of these theories are an intricate part of the history of behaviour management research. Together these theories help build a foundation upon which to conduct research on athlete management including preventative and reactive responses, and making value judgements within the coaching environment. For example the strategies of behavioural theorists including Jones (2000) and Rogers (1995) through the use of effective body language and non verbal communication if implemented within a coaching setting may reinforce the expectations that were previously established verbally and hence manage athlete behaviour. An example of effective body language and non-verbal communication within a coaching setting would involve a coach providing instruction to a team of athletes, if some of the athletes are playing with the equipment and not paying attention the coach may point to the athletes to grab their attention then signal for them to listen by pointing at his ear. Through the
strategies identified by the behavioural theorists Jones (2000) and Canter (1976), the establishment of rules and expectations within a coaching setting would enable both the coach and the athlete to understand the behavioural boundaries and focus on the development of the athlete. An example of this may involve the coach sitting down with the athletes at the commencement of the season to design a list of rules that both the coach and the athletes are amenable to. The strategies of Skinner (2002) and Canter (1976) that involve reinforcers and positive affirmations would within the coaching environment create a positive atmosphere in which the athlete would as Glasser (1998) refers to feel a sense of belonging. Examples of this within a coaching setting would include the coach praising the athlete’s for appropriate behaviour and correct technique.

### 3.3 Conclusion

The review of literature has highlighted that behavioural theorists such as, Skinner, Glasser, Kounin, Maslow, Canter, Jones and Rogers, have developed many theories and techniques for the management and motivation of children within a classroom setting. This chapter has provided an overview of this research and highlighted the contributions this research can make in enhancing the behavioural strategies employed by coaches to manage athletes within the coaching environment. These behavioural theories can contribute to the coaching setting in a variety of ways, some examples include: Skinner (2002), Jones (2000) and Rogers (1995) non-verbal strategies; Jones (2000) and Canter (1976) establishment of rules and expectations; positive affirmations identified by behavioural theorists Skinner (2002) and Canter.
(1976); Rogers (1995) tactically ignoring and isolation; and the creation of a positive and supportive coaching environment which Maslow (1970) and Glasser (1998) believe cater to the athletes needs, and enable the athlete to be more productive and focus on the task in an effective manner. These theories were designed for managing behaviour within a classroom setting, however examples were provided throughout this chapter that clearly demonstrate the applicability of the theories and strategies to the coaching environment.

It is the purpose of this research to fill the void of coaching literature by identifying specific behaviour management strategies that coaches can implement into their coaching practice, which will enable them to create supportive coaching environments. Chapter Four discusses how the behaviour management strategies as discussed in this chapter are drawn on to develop a methodological tool for analysing the behaviour management strategies of beginning coaches. Chapter Four also provides details of the pilot study.
4. CHAPTER FOUR: DEVELOPMENT OF ANALYSIS TOOL

The previous chapter provided an overview of the current behaviour theories designed for the classroom and school environment. This chapter draws on these behaviour management theories to develop a tool for analysing the behaviour management strategies and techniques employed by sport coaches. This methodological tool called the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool*, is then applied in a pilot study with a beginning coach in a basketball setting. The object of this was to analyse whether the tool is adequate for evaluating coaching practices.

4.1 Development of Data Analysis Tool

The *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* (Figure 4.1) is a tool designed as a method of evaluating the effectiveness of behaviour management coaching practices. Literature from various behavioural theorists including Skinner, Canter, Rogers, Jones, Glasser, and Maslow, informed the development of the tool. Typically these theorists designed behaviour management strategies specific to a classroom setting. Despite the literature in this chapter being situationed in a classroom setting, specific aspects from these behavioural theories which were relevant to a coaching setting were extracted and used to inform the design and development of the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool*. 
The major objective was to design a tool that allows beginning coaches to identify techniques to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive coaching environments. The second objective of the tool was to allow data of coaches’ observed behaviour management techniques to be mapped through a flow chart. As highlighted in Chapter Three and illustrated in Figure 4.1, there are three communication types predominate in behaviour management contexts: non-verbal; verbal; and tangible.

Generally, non-verbal communication is usually understood as a process of communication focused on sending and receiving wordless messages. Non-verbal communication strategies used in behaviour management can be communicated through body language, facial expression and eye contact. The second form of communication, verbal communication, is evident when a person communicates via
the use of language. There are many forms of verbal communication used in behaviour management. Some examples of these include establishing rules, rights and responsibilities (Tutko & Richards, 1971), assertive discipline response styles (Canter, 1990) and enforcing rules once established (Jones, 1997). The third form of communication, tangible communication, centres on concrete forms of reward or punishment (Skinner, 2002). An example of this form of communication would be the use of certificates and trophies as positive reinforcers and the use of behaviour contracts and behaviour tracking charts as aids in minimising undesirable or inappropriate behaviour.

The communication types outlined in Chapter Three can be implemented as an antecedent (A) or as a consequent (C) strategy when coaches are communicating in a coaching setting. As displayed in Figure 4.1, an antecedent strategy is employed by the coach and is goal-driven. With reference to an antecedent strategy, the coach may apply a specific approach prior to the behaviour being exhibited, this in turn structures the environment to prevent problems from occurring. When the coach has a goal to achieve a specific behaviour or objective, they employ an antecedent strategy. This enables the athlete to be aware of the coach’s expectation. Antecedent strategies focus on structuring the environment to prevent problems. In a coaching setting, implementation of these strategies can facilitate the development of a structured and orderly environment. Alternatively consequent strategies refer to the application of penalties or rewards by the coach after a specific behaviour by the athlete. The application of consequent strategies may be context driven meaning that when a
specific context arises in which an inappropriate behaviour is displayed, the coach employs a specific strategy as a consequence. This frequently employed behaviour management technique can be effective in facilitating positive changes in behaviour.

In the case of rewards, a reward may be presented after the occurrence of an action as a consequent strategy and can also be used as an antecedent strategy by making the recipient aware of the possibility of receiving the reward. A reward is used with the intent to cause the behaviour to occur in the instance of an antecedent, or to occur again when used as a consequent strategy. This is achieved by associating positive meaning to the behaviour. Skinner (2002) found that if a person is presented with the reward immediately, the effect of the behaviour management strategy would be greater and decreases as the period of time between lengthens. Further, repetitive action-reward combinations can result in an action becoming habitual, that is, the behaviour is displayed automatically by a person (athlete) without prompting. For example, an athlete would be provided with the opportunity to engage in a fun concluding activity as a reward if they complete all of their drill work appropriately.

Figure 4.1 highlights that different forms of communication can be categorised as extrinsic (E) or intrinsic (I) (Tenenbaum & Eklund, 2007). Extrinsic strategies are external to the person (athlete). An example of this in the coaching setting is the coach providing the athlete with praise, or feedback, or trophies. On the other hand, intrinsic methods are internal to the person (athlete), for example a feeling of satisfaction, feelings of belonging and/or accomplishment. Intrinsic motivation is
defined by Malone and Lepper (1987) as actions people take without external motivators. Lepper (1989) distinguishes between two forms of intrinsic motivation, whether the person experiences enjoyment from undertaking the behaviour, and obligation. In this case obligation refers to what the individual thinks should be done. Intrinsic motivation has been studied by various educational psychologists (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Higgins, Strauman, & Klein, 1986) since the 1970s where it has been found that intrinsic motivation is associated with level of achievement reached and the level of enjoyment experienced by the individual. An example of how an athlete might experience intrinsic motivation would be a swimmer working towards the goal of achieving a personal best (PB) time.

The *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* has been designed in a way which facilitates behaviour management observational instances to be tracked according to the strategies and dimensions employed, and according to the outcomes achieved in specific coaching scenarios. For the purpose of data analysis, Table 4.1 was designed as a coding table following on from the development of the tool. The objective was to allow behaviour instances to be identified according to the strategies, dimensions and outcome/s of the instance. Specifically, each instance is classified as to whether it is antecedent or consequent, verbal, non verbal or tangible, and intrinsic or extrinsic. Following on from the coding of the different types of strategies, the outcome/s of the behaviour management instance can be identified. This involves determining whether the coach achieved a positive or negative outcome, that is, whether the desired
coaching behaviour is achieved or not. Once the behaviour instance is tracked, a final code is allocated.

Table 4.1

Key of Communication Outcomes and Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
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<th>D</th>
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Table 4.2 below is an example of how the above (Table 4.1) coding table can be implemented. In instance one, the athletes are gathered around the coach while the coach is providing instruction. Prior to the instructional episode, the coach asks the athletes to look at his hand, one of the athletes does not listen. When coding this instance using Table 4.1 to code, the instance is classified as a: ‘CA’, as it is a coach’s controlling action; ‘GD’, as it is goal driven; ‘AS’, as it is an antecedent strategy; ‘V’ as it is verbally communicated; ‘I’ as it is an intrinsic motivator; ‘C’ as the athlete then has a choice whether to follow the instruction or not; ‘AD’ as the athlete disobeys the instruction. Behaviour instance one is classified as ‘H’ (Refer to Table 4.1). Following on from instance one, in instance two (Table 4.2) the coach notices that one athlete does not follow the instruction and asks them if they are listening, the athlete then pays attention to the coach. Instance two is coded as: ‘CA’ as it’s the coach’s controlling action; ‘CD’ as it is context driven; ‘CS’ as it is a consequent strategy due to the athlete not following the initial instruction; ‘V’ as it was verbally communicated; ‘I’ as it was an intrinsic motivator; ‘C’ as the athlete was provided a choice; ‘AF’ as the
athlete followed the instruction; and, ‘DBA’ as the desired behaviour was achieved.

Behaviour instance two is therefore classified as ‘S’ (Refer to Table 4.1).

Table 4.2

Example of Coding Classification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instance</th>
<th>Description of Coaching instance</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Justification of Coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>Athletes are gathered around the coach. Coach tells the athletes to have their eyes up and look at his hand, then asks them if they are all looking. One athlete doesn’t listen.</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>The coding of ‘H’ is because the coach is initially providing the athletes with antecedent instructions to look at him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>The coach notices that one athlete is not listening and as a result says “Are you listening to me?” Athlete then pays attention to the coach.</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>The coding of ‘S’ follows on from the above explanation when the athlete does not follow the antecedent instruction, the coach provides further intrinsic verbal cues to the athlete, following which the athlete makes a choice and the desired behaviour is achieved</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* enabled the researcher to identify and analyse the behaviour management strategies adopted by the coach and their apparent effectiveness. Consequently, implementation of the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* will inform beginning coaches by allowing them to identify strategies and techniques to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive learning environments. The efficacy of this tool for assisting research in the field of sports coaching was trialled by means of a pilot study. As a result of the pilot study, the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* was identified as an effective methodological tool that can be applied to sporting contexts. The following section provides an review of the pilot study.

### 4.2 Overview of Pilot Study

The *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* was trialled in a pilot study to see whether it would be an appropriate method for tracking, analysing and coding behaviour management observational instances. Specifically, the pilot study focused on a basketball coaching session during which a beginning coach instructed a group of junior athletes.

#### 4.2.1 Pilot Study

**4.2.1.1 Aim of the Study**

The aim of the study was to trial the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* to evaluate its ability to track, analyse and code behaviour management strategies utilised by sport coaches.
4.2.1.2 Context

The context of the pilot study was a basketball session conducted in an indoor gymnasium.

4.2.1.3 Participants

There were 16 participants in total, all boys aged between 14 – 16 years of age. The boys were all competent basketball players and the objective of the session was to further develop the dribbling and attacking skills of the players. The coach was a well known high profile Olympian in the track and field discipline. The coach was classified as a ‘beginning’ basketball coach.

4.2.1.4 Method

Anecdotal observations were made of the coaching session and included activities and drills undertaken during the training session, methods of instructing the athletes, organisational techniques and behaviour management techniques employed by the coach. Following on from the observations, anecdotal notes were tabulated which enabled the different phases (Warm Up, Body, Cool Down) of the training session to be separated and behaviour management instances within each phase to be highlighted. Following on from this observing and recording, the Communicative Action Coaching Tool was trialled.

The method employed during the trial of the Communicative Action Coaching Tool was adopted to enable identification of the efficacy of the tool for mapping and coding the
behaviour management strategies in the different phases of a coaching session. The method required coding whether the strategies being observed exhibited antecedent or consequent characteristics, verbal, non verbal or tangible properties, and intrinsic or extrinsic qualities. Following coding of the different characteristics of a strategy, the outcome/s of the behaviour management instance were then noted. This involved determining whether the coach achieved a positive or negative outcome, that is, whether the desired coaching behaviour was achieved or not achieved. As such, the method enabled the researcher to elucidate the behaviour management strategies implemented by the coach and to highlight the effectiveness of those strategies in promoting the achievement of the desired coaching outcome/s.

As a result of the observations conducted during the basketball coaching session it was found there were eight behaviour instances observed that employed behaviour management strategies - three during the warm up, three during the body, and two during the cool down. The *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* was used to track and code the behaviours evidence during these eight instances. During the trial it was found that the tool was effective in enabling the researcher to map and code the behaviours and to identify behaviour strategies structured the coaching session. The analysis facilitated by the use of the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* highlighted that of the eight behaviour instances observed during the basketball coaching session, four strategies were antecedent in nature and four were consequent in nature. Only one non verbal strategy and seven verbal strategies were observed, and only one instance was coded as having an extrinsic dimension. The remaining seven instances
noted in the basketball session were all coded as having an intrinsic dimension. All of the behaviour instances coded had a positive outcome.

**4.2.1.5 Analysis**

As a result of adopting the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* to analyse the data, a picture of the strategies adopted by the beginning coaches to manage athletes’ behaviour became apparent (see Table 4.3). During the warm-up phase of the coaching session there were two instances coded as ‘G’ (Goal Driven, Antecedent Strategy, Verbal, Intrinsic, Choice, Athlete Follows, Desired Behaviour Achieved), and one instance coded as ‘Q’ (Goal Driven, Consequent Strategy, Verbal, Extrinsic, Choice, Athlete Follows, Desired Behaviour Achieved). Specifically, this meant two of the behaviour management techniques observed during the warm up phase were antecedent verbal strategies with an intrinsic dimension which had a positive outcome. The third observed instance was a consequent verbal strategy with an extrinsic dimension which had a positive outcome. During the body of the training session two of the instances were coded as ‘S’ (Goal Driven, Consequent Strategy, Verbal, Intrinsic, Choice, Athlete Follows, Desired Behaviour Achieved), which meant they were both consequent verbal strategies which had an intrinsic dimension and had a positive outcome. The third instance was coded as ‘G’ as it was an antecedent verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension which had a positive outcome. The cool down instances were coded as ‘O’ and ‘G’. The coding of ‘O’ refers to a consequent non-verbal strategy which had an intrinsic dimension and resulted in a positive outcome. The
coding of ‘G’ refers to an antecedent verbal strategy which had an intrinsic dimension and resulted in a positive outcome.

Table 4.3

Overview of Pilot Study Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase of the training session</th>
<th>Instance Number</th>
<th>Code (Refer to Table 3.3)</th>
<th>Antecedent Or Consequent</th>
<th>Verbal, Non Verbal Or Tangible</th>
<th>Intrinsic Or Extrinsic</th>
<th>Outcome – Positive Or Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Warm Up</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>Antecedent</td>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>Antecedent</td>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Consequent</td>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Extrinsic</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>Antecedent</td>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>Consequent</td>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>Consequent</td>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cool Down</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>Consequent</td>
<td>Non Verbal</td>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>Antecedent</td>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>Positive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.1.6 Findings

Following identification and coding of the data gathered during the pilot study, the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* provided an effective means to analyse data gathered from sport coaching contexts. The *Communicative Action Coaching Tool*
provided a means by which the mapping and classification of behaviour management strategies used in the coaching context could be undertaken. The use of the tool highlighted that during the early phases of the basketball training session the coach focussed more on providing antecedent strategies to the athletes. Specifically, the coach focussed on structuring the environment to prevent problems and to enhance motivation. This finding aligns with the proactive behaviour strategies highlighted by Kounin (1970), emphasising the importance of employing preventative/antecedent strategies as opposed to reactive/consequent strategies in managing the learning environment. It should be noted that as the coaching session progressed, the coach focussed less on antecedent and more on consequent strategies. These data analysis also highlighted the coaches emphasis on integrating an intrinsic dimension into the strategies used. By incorporating an intrinsic dimension into the strategies utilised, the emphasis is shifted away from the external influences of the coach to an internal desire of the athlete to behaviour appropriately.

It should be noted that this coaching session was a unique situation in which the beginning coach was a well known and respected athlete. The intrinsic dimensions employed were effective as the athletes may have had an internal desire to please the well known athlete and maintain a feeling of belonging and accomplishment by wanting to be a part of the training session. An emphasis on the coach’s use of verbal strategies throughout the training session as opposed to non verbal or tangible strategies was highlighted through the use of the Communicative Action Coaching Tool.
4.3 Conclusion

The literature discussed in Chapter Two and Three was used to inform the development of the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool*. This tool was designed to provide a means to analyse behaviour management strategies employed by beginning coaches. A pilot study was conducted to validate the analysis tool. The tool was found to be an effective means of analysing coaching observations and enabled the researcher to determine the effectiveness of the behaviour management strategies employed by the beginning coach.

The pilot study verified that the tool is an effective means of analysing and mapping the data from coaches’ observed behaviour management techniques through a flow chart. The pilot study also indicated that the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* provides an effective means of identifying techniques to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive coaching environments. As a consequence of these outcomes, it has established that the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* is an effective methodological tool for the analysis of the observation data in this study.

The following chapter will outline the research design used in this thesis, provide a rationale for the design selection process, and describe and explain how the research design was implemented.
5. CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide detail of the philosophical assumptions underpinning this research, as well as to introduce the experimental techniques employed. This chapter outlines and justifies these strategies as well as the limitations of the research design.

5.2 Qualitative (naturalistic) research

In research there are two different approaches: qualitative and quantitative. Throughout this section, the characteristics of qualitative research will be outlined. Qualitative research is based on multiple philosophical traditions. Specifically, it is distinguished by findings that can be articulated and explained verbally rather than numerically (Crowl, 1993). This particular type of research relies primarily on the interpretation and critical approaches to social science (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Qualitative research data are typically collated in the form of words from documents, observations and transcripts (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998).

Furthermore, qualitative research structure is exploratory, fundamentally providing new insights, meaning and descriptions as it endeavours to clarify, comprehend and interpret or explain life experiences from the perspective of those in the profession. The focus of this research is on naturalistic inquiry or naturalism, as the research is conducted in natural settings in which the context occurs (de Laine, 1997). The objective of naturalism is to capture the character of ordinarily occurring human
behaviour and the significance of relationships. Interactions of this nature are only effectively observed in natural settings, despite research often conducted in artificial settings such as experiments. Indeed valuable observations should be conducted by being in the field and interacting with a small group (Hammersley, 1990).

As such, to fully understand the perception of beginning coaches, a research approach was required that would capture contextual dimensions that were embedded within the coaching setting. This would further highlight the contributions, challenges and complexities of the coaching role.

5.3 The Ethnographic Method

Interpretive ethnography endeavours to chart the system of shared meanings that comprise reality within any discourse community (Geertz, 1973). Geertz (1973, p.5) defined interpretive ethnography as a “semiotic approach” for comprehending culture that allows “...access to the conceptual world in which (our) subjects live.” Put simply, ethnography is defined by researchers as the science of cultural description - a method by which the researcher attempts to understand what it is like to walk in the shoes of another (Wolcott, 1994). Success in the interpretation of ethnographic research entails a description of the specific community’s multifaceted symbols and network of meanings. Essentially, the researcher is required to grasp the diverse range of communication techniques then decipher them. Geertz (, 1973 #227 p.58) outlined this below:
Searching out and analysing the symbolic forms – words, images, institutions, behaviour – in terms of which, in each place, people actually (represent) themselves to themselves and to one another.

Ethnography has been used as a mode of inquiry for many years. Historically, it can be traced back to anthropology and the ethnographers who sought a methodical approach to collating, describing and analysing information relating to various cultural groups (Gurney, 1997). Early anthropologists maintained that various cultural factors shaped and determined the feelings, thoughts, and responses of a group in a particular situation. Additionally, groups or communities were regarded as culturally homogenous. Primarily, this was the case because they shared comparable characteristics, behaviours, knowledge and interactions (Tham, 2003).

Early pioneers in anthropology such as Hanz Boas (1858-1942), Bronislaw Malinowski (1884-1942) and Margaret Mead (1901-78) were influenced by functionalism. Despite this, they initiated the shift from the theory that groups were culturally whole. Conversely, they considered the phenomenon within foreign cultures of how different groups behave and interpret experience. The late 1920s brought shift in the way the research methods were used by ethnographers. During this time, ethnographers viewed more customary contexts, such as the challenges confronted in various phenomena including industrialization and urbanisation (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993).
Research conducted using ethnographic accounts have provided notable information regarding the occurrences of various groups (Savage, 2000). Accordingly, ethnographers have identified that inhabitants share systems of meaning. Typically, these information systems provide people with the ability to construct conceptual maps and regulate activity and behaviour during communication. Researchers (Geertz, 1973) believe that society would lack unified patterns and that behaviour would be unpredictable, emotional and worthless without systems of meaning. Subsequently, stability and coherence is achieved through shared information (Geertz, 1973). Thus, this type of research enables researchers the ability to evaluate techniques used by different groups to make sense of their world.

5.4 Features of ethnographic research

Ethnography involves studying groups of people for “...the purpose of describing their socio-cultural activities and patterns” (Burns, 1996 p.245) and “...learning from people” (Spradley & McCurdy, 1972 p.12). Hammersley (1990 p.1) stated that the term ethnography characteristically relates to social research, comprising of the following characteristics: People’s behaviours are studied in everyday context, rather than under experimental situations developed by the researcher; Data collection is conducted from various sources, with observation and interviews being the primary resource; Data are gathered in an ‘unstructured’ manner. This does not imply that the research is unsystematic, rather “...data are collected in as raw a form, and on as wide a front, as feasible”; The focus is generally a single setting or group and on a small scale; and,
Data analysis involves interpretation of the meanings and functions of human actions and is primarily conducted in the form of verbal descriptions and explanations.

Based on these premises, researchers such as (Burns, 1996) believe there is no individual model to which all such research can be required to conform to. Although this is the case, and dissimilar to that of experimental type research, ethnography does present a set of broad orientations to research.

With respect to the above mentioned orientations of ethnographic research, there are specific characteristics that should be highlighted. Specifically, Hammersley (1990) identified these as: Naturalism; Understanding and interpretation; Holism; Emic and etic perspectives; Selecting key informants; Process and sequence.

In terms of this study, all of the above characteristics were addressed and are outlined in the following section.

5.5 Orientations of ethnographic research

5.5.1 Naturalism

Administering research in a ‘natural’ setting, the objective of an ethnographer is to appreciate the character of naturally occurring social interactions and/or behaviours. Subsequently, Hammersley (1990) believes successful accumulation of accurate data can only be attained through having direct contact with the subject. It has been strongly suggested that data collection through inferences of what the subject says
and does in an artificial setting such as an experiment is not an accurate form of data collection (Hammersley, 1990). Indeed LeComte and Preissle (1993) believe ethnographers cannot rely on staged settings such as laboratories for authenticity of design due to the researchers reliance on the participants for access and services applicable to the process.

With regards to this study, naturalism is sought through the nature of the data collection process. Specifically, the participants were interviewed and observed in either a coaching setting or during the course of the accreditation workshop. Consequently, the data were collected within an acceptable setting ensuring that naturally-occurring human behaviour was captured.

5.5.2 Understanding and interpretation

An understanding of the participant is imperative to enable the ethnographer to effectively interpret the information. Hammersley (1990) believes that in order to comprehend and define human behaviours and actions, it is necessary for the ethnographer to acquire an understanding of cultural realm in which the subject functions.

According to LeComte and Preissle (1993), interpretive research and ethnography go hand in hand. Typically, ethnographic studies endeavour to explicitly interpret the specified culture. Although this is the intention, it has been highlighted that they often have difficulty with the issue of portrayal (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993).
To aid in the interpretation of the data, connotation is often supplied through visual presentations, including diagrams and pictures, and verbal representations (Neuman, 1991). Verbal quotes are also recognized as a useful source for presenting a plausible account of the study.

In respect to ensuring an adequate understanding and interpretation was acquired, as mentioned above, it is important for the researcher to have an understanding of the culture in which the coaches exist. In the present study this was made possible through the researchers’ prior coaching experiences. These experiences include: qualified Level One Swimming Coach; Qualified Level Two Swimming Coach; swimming coach for eight years; Qualified Physical Education Teacher; practicing Physical Education teacher which involved coaching a number of sporting teams at different levels for a period of 6 years. Hence the researcher comprehended the thoughts and perceptions of the coaches.

5.5.3 Holism

Tham (2003) defined holism as a study that constructs an absolute portrait or image of a social group. It is imperative the researcher is informed about the social group and surroundings within a more general context. Burns (1996) stated that the researcher requires an awareness of the surrounding vicinity, the milieu of the ideals and attitudes, along with an understanding of the social setting, to ensure they develop a holistic approach to the study. To establish a holistic approach in this study, the researcher attended various club meetings, attended AFL board meetings at a regional
level, liaised with AFL presenters and coaching candidates at the Level One and Level Two AFL coaching accreditation courses, and met with committee members at various local and regional AFL clubs. This provided the researcher with a sense of the day to day functioning in AFL, as well as providing a sense of the cultural identity within each of the AFL clubs.

5.5.4 Emic and etic perspectives

Often ethnographic studies can produce both ‘subjective’ and ‘objective’ data. De Laine (1997) explained the reason behind this as representing the points of view of the participant and the researcher/observer being reflected. Anthropologists have designed an approach to alleviate this confusion. Subsequently, the terms emic and etic were implemented to distinguish between the perspective of the observer and the perspective of the subject/ informant (Barrett, 1991). Through use of the emic approach, Barrett (1991) believes it enables the ethnographer the freedom to report on actual occurrences through use of the informants authentic words. This in turn enables the ethnographer to collate data unique to the understanding of the participant. On the contrary, the etic approach is one which is developed from the observer/researchers perspective. Typically, there is a possibility that this perspective may reflect certain political or economic issues. Further, this approach may present conjecture about concerns such as how individuals correspond their cultural attitudes and ideals and how they conduct their day-to-day life (Barrett, 1991). In the current study an emic approach was adopted throughout the questionnaire, interview, and the observational data. The questionnaires were completed by the coaching candidates.
and returned to the researcher. The raw data from the questionnaires were then collated and entered word-for-word into an electronic spreadsheet. The interviews were recorded via the use of digital voice recorders and transcribed which ensured the authenticity of the responses was preserved. Due to the nature of the third data collection technique being observational, it was more complicated to maintain an emic approach. To ensure the data remained as authentic as possible, after the observation of the coaching session, a debrief session was conducted between the researcher and the participant. The objective of the debrief was to share the anecdotal notes that were taken during the observation with the participant, and to ensure the researcher’s own ideals or experiences were not reflected into the data.

5.5.6 Selecting key informants

An informant is defined as a participant who provides the researcher with information (Barrett, 1991). Informants are a key component for the collaboration of ‘rich’ data. Primarily, this is due to the informant’s knowledge of the appropriate behaviours and rules within their society. Hence the informant is able to provide significant data which is of value for the researcher.

Subsequently, the process of selecting an informant and discriminating their information should be done meticulously. For instance, the researcher selects informants from within the chosen culture that have the ability to supply applicable detailed information about the culture (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). Specifically, data
relating to the origin of the group, rules adhered to within the culture, customs, language and processes, is all valuable information for the researcher to obtain.

LeCompte and Preissle (1993) maintain that a small group of informants with precise knowledge of the topic would be far more beneficial to the researcher than a large group of informants providing generalised information. Although this is the case in the present research, some researchers have advised that comparisons need to be made between the data provided by the informant and reality, to ensure that informant with exceptional knowledge is not simply thrusting their own ideas upon the study and researcher (Fetterman, 1989). Fetterman also cautioned that the informant may provide the researcher with what they want to hear. In this case it would be beneficial to ensure ongoing contact between the researcher and the informant is maintained.

In light of the importance of selecting appropriate participants in the current research, discussions were conducted between the researcher and AFL Queensland to ensure candidates were chosen who had no prior coaching experience. The objective of the study was to explore beginning coaches’ perceptions and behaviour management strategies. According to Gilbert and Trudel (2001), there are marked differences between the perceptions and coaching strategies of beginning coaches as opposed to coaches that are more experienced. A cohort of all beginning coaches was imperative for collecting data that was valid and that would address the research questions. It was for this purpose that only beginning coaches were selected to take part in this research.
5.5.7 Process and sequence

In contrast to the quantitative researcher with a focus on the testing of theory, Cresswell (1994) outlined the ethnographer’s purpose as dealing with the research procedure rather than the results. An ethnographer endeavours to encompass the authenticity of a specific culture. The researcher develops research questions, which is one of the five tasks involved in ethnographic research as outlined by Spradley (1972). The tasks are outlined in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1

*Steps of Ethnographic Research*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Selecting a problem</td>
<td>The first step to ethnography initiates with a problem or a topic of interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Collecting cultural data</td>
<td>In an ethnographic study, the data are collected before the research questions are formulated. The researcher presents descriptive questions to the informant. The researcher observes the informant and records notes during the encounter.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Analysing cultural data</td>
<td>Analysis of the information is a continual process. Field notes are constantly reviewed in the quest for cultural signs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Formulating research questions</td>
<td>Research questions develop through data analysis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Writing the ethnography

The final stage is the writing of the ethnography. This occurs as a part of the analysis process and can lead on to the development of further questions and observations.


As outlined in Table 5.1 there are five steps to ethnographic research. The above process was adopted within this study, and allowed the researcher to follow what might appear as a sequential process, however has been defined by Spradley (1972) as cyclic. Initially the problem or research area was selected. This was identified following a review of literature in the field of sport coaching research. Both a lack of research in the area of beginning coaches and athlete management techniques, along with the importance of the coach being able to effectively manage athlete behaviour, was acknowledged and hence this study instigated. The second phase involved the collection of the cultural data. During this phase, discussions and interviews were conducted with various AFL coaches and staff, and questionnaires were distributed to beginning coaches. The objective was to further ascertain the need for the research as well as to develop a sense of the cultural identity of the AFL. Following on from this, analysis of the interviews and questionnaire was conducted. These data were used not only to inform the development of the research questions, it was also used to design an observation schedule to guide the collection of data during the field observations. As mentioned above, ethnographic research has been identified as a cyclic process (Spradley & McCurdy, 1972), this was the case in this study as following on from step
four, further data collection was conducted through field observations. It wasn’t until after all three data collection procedures were complete that step five, the writing of the ethnography, was initiated.

5.6 Postmodern Ethnography

In the context of this research, a postmodern perspective of the coaching process will allow for a critical examination of the values, beliefs and practices of beginning AFL coaches. The importance of finding a solitary authoritarian truth or commonality will be substituted with the realisation that numerous truths about the coaching process occur simultaneously.

Postmodern ethnography differs from the more traditional ethnographic research in a number of ways. Primarily, it employs local narratives instead of meta-narratives. For this purpose, the informants were not specifically signified by the central discourses that are heard, and the central disciplinary boundaries are dissected (Giroux, 1992). Dominant to the position of postmodern ethnography is the transfer from the values, practices and beliefs upheld, to the articulation of marginal perspectives. A postmodern analysis of the coaching process provides a framework to design a methodological tool by which coaches can evaluate the effectiveness of their athlete behaviour management strategies, and formulate recommendations to allow beginning coaches to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive environments.
Adopting such a standpoint confronts the occurrence of meta-narratives as they are reassembled into the micro-narratives of the informant. Accordingly, it is recognised that postmodern ethnography shifts toward construction of reality. In contrast, Tyler (1987) disputes such understandings and advocates that postmodern research, rather than moving toward construction and away from life, moves back to experience. In particular, by adopting a postmodern perspective in this study the researcher endeavours to reorganise the everyday experiences of the individual and seeks out the non-obvious, the ambiguous, the incongruous, the disorganised, and the unanticipated (Fine & Martin, 1995). Indeed, postmodern ethnography allows the researcher to view the everyday occurrences in the sport coaching arena as a story from which awareness is developed, leading to an engaged relativism which is modified and adapted to a changing world (Tyler, 1987).

According to Packwood and Sikes (1996), adopting a postmodern approach provides the researcher the opportunity to focus on individual stories while acknowledging the shifting context of the individual. Thus, by employing a postmodern ethnographic approach in this study regarding coaching candidates, it allows the researcher to recognise the individual experiences of the candidates while observing those experiences in the changing world of sport coaching.

Concerns regarding postmodern research have been highlighted by various researchers (Clifford & Marcus, 1986). Specifically, these researchers focused on the representation and legitimacy of the data which was related to difficulties of defending
informants’ data as valid, as opposed to misguided constructions of the researcher. By incorporating the relevant research procedures the data collected are formed into research outcomes specific to this study. A postmodern ethnographic approach is used to ensure a decisive examination of coaching candidates individual experiences are revealed. By employing a postmodern outlook, it enabled the researcher to focus on the perceptions of beginning coaches.

### 5.7 Conclusion

This chapter has highlighted the advantages of employing ethnographic research and its applicability to the coaching process. It suggests that a postmodern ethnographic approach can offer a voice for beginning AFL coaches in an arena where traditionally experience is desirable. This approach is an appropriate research design for this study as it enables the researcher to explore the beginning coaches’ perceptions of their role as a coach, as well as paint a picture of the coaching practices and behaviour management techniques employed. This reflexive practice enabled the researcher to gain a deep understanding of the behaviour management procedures and strategies employed by beginning coaches, and evaluate their effectiveness during coaching practice.

The following chapter outlines the methods used in the data collection process and elaborates on the process of data analysis and the methods employed to ensure validation of the research process were undertaken.
6. CHAPTER SIX: DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

The following chapter focuses on the data collection and analysis procedures utilised to obtain and interpret the research data. Data collection focused on beginning AFL coaches and included three specific collection techniques: questionnaire, interview and observation. Data analysis involved open coding of the questionnaire and interview data, and analysis of the observation data via the use of the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool*.

6.2 Participants

The data collected focuses on a cohort of beginning Level One AFL coaching candidates. In total, 45 candidates responded to a questionnaire, seven participated in semi-structured interviews and the same seven were observed in a coaching setting. The participants in this study were coaching candidates with little or no prior coaching experience. The selection process involved the researcher contacting AFL Queensland, seeking permission to access their coaching candidates attending a Level One Accreditation Course. The data are examined by employing coding techniques.

In the first phase of the data collection process, 45 coaches working with junior athletes participated in the study by completing a questionnaire. The method of recruiting these participants was through a Level One AFL Coaching Course. Coaches at the Level One Course were invited to participate in the study by completing a
questionnaire and demographic profile of the coaching candidates was compiled from the questionnaires.

The demographic data collected from each participant included gender, highest level of qualification, age group, and the level of athlete the coach would like to be involved with (see Table 6.1). Table 6.1 showed that 44 males and only one female were represented in the cohort of participants. In total 62% of the coaches held a trade certificate as their highest level of qualification, 77% of the participants ranged between the age of 30 – 45 years of age and 55% percent of the participants choosing to be involved in coaching at the junior level.
Table 6.1

**Demographic Information from Questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Highest Level of Qualification</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year 12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age Group</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 - 22</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 - 29</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 36</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37 - 45</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45+</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>What level athlete would you like to coach?</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elite</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The second form of data collection was the interview process. Once the questionnaire was administered to the participants, both the questions and the responses from the participants were used to inform the design of the interview protocol. Specifically, questions that elicited detailed responses surrounding the role of the coach as well as the perceptions of the coaching role were incorporated into the interview to allow participants the opportunity to elaborate on their beliefs. The participants in the interview and observation phase of the data collection were recruited following on from the completion of the questionnaire. The cohort of coaching candidates was provided with the objectives of the study and the requirements should they choose to participate. Following on from this, if they chose to volunteer to further participate in the study, they were asked to provide their contact details. Table 6.2 provides an overview of the demographic information of the coaching candidates involved in the interview and observation process.

Table 6.2

Participant Demographic Information from Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coach Name</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Level of Qualification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Michael</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>Trade certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Bachelor of Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Secondary School Student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>Trade certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Trade certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peter</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Trade certificate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tim</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>Trade certificate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3 Data collection instruments

There are varied techniques for data collection in ethnographic research and include techniques such as participant and non-participant observation, and interviews with various structural techniques. The use of these varied techniques in this study allowed the researcher to build crucial records and to analyse information provided from the particular cultural setting of AFL coaching (Fetterman, 1989).

Typically, ethnographers differentiate between the different phases of building these records by segmenting them into two distinct categories. Smith (2005) indentified these as monological and dialogical data collection. Fundamentally, monological data collection, which is also described as primary records, should be objective. This is achieved by the researcher constructing a record prior to interaction with, or input from, others. In this study monological data collection was achieved via the use of audio voice recorders. The participants were requested permission to record the interview and, once consent was gained, the entire interview was captured on an audio file. The objective of using voice recorders was to ensure the researcher was not placing their own beliefs and experiences into what the participant was saying, which in turn ensured this data collection phase remained objective.

Alternatively, dialogical data collection is employed chiefly to produce ‘contrast data’. Smith (2005) defined this as a contrast between the communications and actions of people in natural settings, and the way they portray these actions and behaviours in a group or interview situation. For example, an informant may communicate their
feelings and beliefs in an interview, which they feel they are unable to do outside the closed environment of an interview. The researcher observes the informant in both settings, and is able to gain knowledge of the unspoken customs (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). This information is crucial in ethnographic research as it enables the researcher to bring the contrast data to the attention of the informant, which may result in an initiation of change in the routine context (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). In the current study, dialogical data collection was used in the third phase of data collection, the observation phase. By collecting data both from the interview and observation, it enabled the researcher to identify whether the actions of the participant matched the spoken word provided by the participant during the interview process.

There is a variety of information collection techniques used within this study including observing, questioning, listening, and interacting. These techniques are imperative in ethnographic research to enable the researcher to encompass the language, perceptions, interactions, and functioning within a specific culture. Fetterman (1989) identified a number of key aspects to fieldwork including experiencing the culture, asking insightful questions, taking notes, and recognising differences in what individuals say and do. The most appropriate data collection techniques to encompass the needs of this study were identified as observation, interviewing and questionnaires.

According to LeCompte (1993), ethnographic research requires the researcher to spend a significant period of time with the participants. In this study, the researcher
was immersed in the culture which involved regular interaction with the participants for the duration of the AFL season spanning a period of 10 months.

6.4 Data Collection

6.4.1 Questionnaires

Two key principles for good survey questions are highlighted by Neuman (1991) as avoiding confusion and preserving the focus of the informant’s perspective. These principles are imperative to ensure the informant can comprehend the question and the response provided is meaningful. The objective of questionnaires in research is based on the assumption that the responses provided by the informant are truthful. Fetterman (1989) states that questionnaires are similar to interviews in that the question can be pre-planned, however, the main difference between the two forms of data collection is that questionnaires lack the interactivity involved in the interview process.

This research the objective of using questionnaires as the initial data collection process was to obtain information from a wide range of beginning AFL coaching candidates attending a Level One AFL Coaching Accreditation Course. The questionnaires offered an objective means of collecting information about the coach’s knowledge, beliefs, attitudes and behaviour, as well as demographic information about the participants (see Appendix 1). The questionnaire in the study was designed not only to obtain demographic information about the participants, but also to gain an insight into the beliefs and attitudes of the beginning coaches.
In order to collect valuable data, the questionnaire was informed by current research in the field of sport coaching. Specific literature (Jambor & Zhang, 1997; Martens, 2004; Riemer, 2007) was utilised to ensure the main aspects of coaching were included. Once the questionnaire was developed, a pilot study was conducted. Trialling of questionnaires prior to conducting data collection is imperative as inappropriate data collection instruments inevitably lead to poor quality data and misleading conclusions (Fetterman, 1989). During the pilot study the questionnaire was administered to 12 coaches from different sporting backgrounds. The coaches were selected to be involved in the pilot due to their limited experience in coaching, with all participants being involved in coaching for less than one year. The participants were afforded 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The data from the pilot study highlighted the need for two amendments to be made to the questionnaire. Firstly, an additional question was included in the questionnaire: What do you think effective coaching involves? Which allowed the participants an opportunity to share their perceptions surrounding their role as a coach and how to be an effective coach. This, in turn, contributes to data addressing the research aim: To identify if beginning coaches see behaviour management as part of their role as a coach.

The second amendment made as a result of the pilot study was to identify the participant perceptions surrounding the challenges they will face as a coach. The objective for including this question was to identify whether the coaches perceived athlete behaviour management to be a challenge they will face as part of their role as a coach. The purpose of including this question was to, again, collect data to respond
to the research question. Following on from the minor changes, the questionnaire was implemented as a data collection tool in the main study.

The coaching candidates present at the Level One Coaching Accreditation Course were provided with a questionnaire package, including project description and participant consent form (See Appendix 2). The coaches were afforded 10 minutes to read through the package, sign the consent form and complete the questionnaire before they were collected by the researcher.

The data were expected to expose commonalities amongst respondents which would allow for cross comparison throughout the interview process. With this in mind, the format developed within the questionnaire was carefully designed to present relevant issues with precision whilst ensuring the respondents where provided with the opportunity to divulge personal coaching experiences. The questionnaire was designed to address the research aims, *To identify if beginning coaches see behaviour management as part of their role as a coach;* and to: *Investigate whether beginning coaches implement behaviour management in their coaching practice;* by questioning coaches on their coaching strategies and management practices. The questionnaire was designed to explore the general perceptions of the participants as well as identify their beliefs.

The data collected as a result of the questionnaire laid the foundation for the interviews. The participant responses to the questionnaires were collated and the
results highlighted specific areas requiring further investigation in the interview process.

6.4.2 Interviewing

The second form of data collection was the interview process. Once the questionnaire was administered to the participants, both the questions and the responses from the participants were used to inform the design of the interview protocol. Specifically, questions that elicited detailed responses surrounding the role of the coach as well as the perceptions surrounding the coaching role were incorporated into the interview to allow participants the opportunity to elaborate on their beliefs.

By acquiring detailed descriptions of events in the words of those whom we are studying, one learns how events are interpreted. For this purpose it was imperative that thought was put into how and when the interview questions were delivered. Researchers recognise that interviews that acknowledge and build on the interactive components of the interview, as opposed to trying to control the outcome, can generate intersubjective data, which in turn will achieve a deep mutual understanding (Silverman, 2006). During the interview process this was achieved in two ways. Firstly the participants were encouraged to elaborate on their responses which enabled the researcher to achieve clarity of the spoken word. Secondly, the researcher sought specific examples from the participants regarding their perceptions of coaching as well as the techniques and strategies implemented in their coaching practices.
Indeed, interviews can have diverse objectives (Silverman, 2006). For instance, some interviews only search for limited information within a closely defined framework. For this purpose, a structured interview format is employed, and is designed to obtain specific information limited to a particular and narrow range of dimensions.

Alternatively, researchers may require data about particular dimensions of understanding, but may also want to explore those dimensions in depth. In this case, semi-structured interview formats are useful. Utilising this type of format allows the interviewer to prepare specific questions to prompt informants about each dimension of interest. Additionally, the researcher may elect to investigate more deeply about each element by asking the respondent to elaborate on specific areas (Silverman, 2006).

On the other hand, interviews that are referred to as unstructured fail to identify the dimensions to be explored prior to doing so. Hence the researcher allows the informant to speak freely about their culture, perceptions and beliefs. The interviewer may elect to add specific details into the conversation to probe for further information and/or elaborate on specific ideas as provided by the informant. This style of interview format is particularly useful for allowing the informant to communicate without restraints.

In this study, a semi-structured interview format was employed. This style of interview allowed the researcher to probe the coaching candidates’ perceptions and
understanding about the coaching role. A semi-structured approach was considered most suitable as it allowed the interviewer to focus specifically in the area of coaching. This was achieved prior to the interview through the design of specific questions relevant to coaching for example: “How do coaches create positive environments for athletes?” and, “What factors contribute to a productive coaching environment?” In addition, this interview approach allowed the researcher to explore specific comments by requesting a more detailed description from the informant. During the interview process a set interview protocol was followed, however once the participant provided a response they were asked to elaborate and, in some instances, provide specific examples. This ensured the coaching candidates provided in-depth information about their perceptions and understanding of the requirements of the coach.

6.4.3 Observation

Traditionally, naturalistic observation has been categorised into four modes: the complete participant; the complete observer; the participant as observer; and the observer as participant (Gold, 1958). Recent research, (Adler & Clark, 2008) identified there were three new ‘membership’ roles that require acknowledgment and are defined as: the complete member researcher; the active member researcher; and the peripheral member researcher.

In the current study, the researcher was a peripheral member researcher. In brief, this type of observer is defined as one who interacts directly with the participants without contributing to any of the activities (Adler and Clark, 2008). During the data collection
phases of the research, this type of ‘membership’ was enacted through constant liaising with the participants. Specifically during the observations, the researcher observed the coaching and training sessions while interacting with the coach at certain stages to seek clarification of specific instances. However, at no stage did the researcher participate in the training activities or provide direct instruction to the athletes. Essentially, this approach enabled the researcher to consider the participant’s perspective as fundamental for shaping a precise judgment of their perceptions and identity.

6.5 Data analysis

6.5.1 Open Coding of the Data

In the current study, data analysis and interpretation were an integrated and continual process. For the purpose of analysing the data, three main strategies were employed: 1) transcription of the data; 2) identification of open codes throughout the data; and 3) interpretation of the data. The most appropriate method for analysing the data in this study was found to be grounded theory techniques (Glaser, 1998).

Coding was used as a method of data collection and analysis which involved reviewing the questionnaires and interviews, transcribing and synthesising them, then examining them meaningfully (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Primarily, the objective was to create the basic categories from which to build the emergent theory which required the researcher to minimise the difference between comparative groups (Glaser, 1998).
In this study, coding of data commenced immediately after it was collected. The objective of open coding was to produce emergent categories and their properties which fit, work and were applicable for amalgamating into theory. The procedure of open coding required the researcher to ‘run the data open’ by breaking the data into analytic pieces. Initially, the researcher should study the transcripts in order to have an awareness of the material. It is during this process that all the concepts, themes and ideas are noted to form categories. From this process, events were moved to a conceptual level and coded into numerous categories. When the coding occurs, data are elevated to different empirical levels, known as ‘one-upping’ (Glaser, 1998). According to Glaser, new categories emerge as a result of this and new incidents slot into existing categories. For example, as the questionnaires and interviews related to the perceptions and attitudes of the coaches, the initial coding of the categories included factors that were relevant to this. This stage revealed a five of categories: (a) coach’s past experiences; (b) management of athlete behaviour; (c) fostering of positive relationships; (d) creating positive environments; (e) challenges. These categories were labeled directly to the data to ensure they reflected the meaning of the categories that emerged.

As the specific categories were generated, the data analysed from that was compared to the defined categories. Hence this constant comparison of incidents engendered theoretical properties of the categories (Glaser, 1998). Consequently, the researcher was provided with the full array of categories, their dimensions, the states under
which it is pronounced or minimized, and its relation to other categories (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

According to Glaser (1978), open coding is governed by four basic rules: analysis of the data line-by-line; coding of the data; suspension of coding in order to memo ideas; and, the repeated revisiting and analysis of three questions from the commencement of the data analysis. Substantive direction is ensured by constantly reviewing these questions, which in turn enables a core category to be engendered. The three set questions are: (1) What are the data a study of? (2) What category, or property of a category, does the incident indicate? (3) What is actually happening in the data?

There was a number of conceptual advantages of adopting open coding in data analysis of this study as outlined by Glaser (1978). Firstly, open coding ensured the researcher went beyond their empirical view of coaching by rising conceptually above understandings. Secondly, open coding maintained the researcher at a theoretically sensitive level when analysing, collecting and coding the data. Further, it forced the researcher to concentrate on patterns among incidents which yielded codes. Finally, open coding allowed the researcher to see the direction in which to take the study by theoretical sampling before it became too selective and focused on a particular problem (Glaser, 1978).

By using the method of open coding, the raw data were read line-by-line, scrutinized and approached through questions such as ‘What?’, ‘Where?’, ‘How?’ and ‘When?’ (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Judgments were also made regarding occurrences to ensure
that similar incidents were grouped together and labeled with the correct conceptual label. For example, whilst analysing the data when posing the question ‘Who?’, the concepts that arose were related with the associates involved with the sport including, the coaching staff, athletes, AFL administration, club administration, and parents. When analyzing the data while constantly asking ‘What?’, the concepts exposed a number of issues and concepts including athlete management, role model, leadership, and coaching techniques.

Data were then re-examined and the concepts were ordered by the reoccurring themes and clustered under a category. Corbin and Strauss (1990) identified that categories constitute the cornerstones of developing theory and connect associated concepts.

The main characteristics of the categories are that they reoccurred frequently throughout the questionnaire and interview data. According to Glaser (1998) these categories summarise the patterns identified in the substantive incidents in the coaching field. Furthermore, in this study these categories had explanatory value and analytic power due to their ability to explain the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Following the reordering of the data into categories, the analysis continued by comparison within categories and the grouping of passages where comments on each category were evidenced. Constant comparison is a method relied upon heavily in grounded theory data analysis and was employed as a data analysis process in this
research. Specifically, by employing this method, various data were compared including incidents against other incidents, incidents with categories and categories with categories (Glaser, 2001).

The next phase of the analysis as recommended by Strauss and Corbin (1990) is axial coding. Axial coding is the process by which the researcher employs procedures where connections were made between categories in order to put the data back together in new ways. Axial coding commenced immediately after categories were identified after the open coding of the questionnaires and the first two interviews. As a result of axial coding in this study, knowledge about relationships between categories led to the creation of sub-categories. The development of sub-categories addressed Strauss and Corbin's (1990) ‘When?’, ‘Where?’, ‘Why?’, ‘Who?’, ‘How?’ and ‘What?’ questions about a category. From the first five open codes, five sub-categories were created: (1) knowledge; (2) boundaries; (3) encouragement; (4) support; and, (5) communication.

The researcher then made numerous copies of each section of data under which a copy was stored with the relevant category and sub-category. This process ensured the researcher was able to access the specific data under its category when further analysis was conducted.

Memos were used as a means of categorising and providing a framework for data comparison. According to Glaser (1978), memo-ing is the theorizing write-up of ideas about codes and their relationships as they strike the analyst while in the process of coding. It is conducted to assist the researcher in recording their thinking processes.
Memos are thought to be conceptual, not just simply reporting of data, or alternatively, they tie together different pieces of the data into an identifiable cluster. Memo-ing can be performed in many forms including a sentence, a paragraph or a few pages. In this study, a memo was printed onto a card which stated the specific category. During the analysis process, researchers are encouraged to take comprehensive notes of ideas and decisions. Glaser (1978) highlighted the importance of writing memos, stating that they are the bedrock of theory generation, and if the analyst skips this significant stage and progresses direct from coding to sorting then writing, without memo-ing, they are not actually using grounded theory techniques.

The following extract from an interview transcript with Tim outlines how memos were included to link the interview data to the identified categories. During the interview process the coach was asked: What do you perceive the role of the coach as being?

*I think coaching is building relationships, if you can build a relationship, especially with the little kids, and have fun, they will stay around long enough to develop the skills to go on.*

The memo on the card for this transcript specified that this response was linked to the category of *fostering of positive relationships* and the sub-category of *enjoyment*.

The last stage in the analysis process for the interview data was selective coding. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), selective coding is the process by which a core category is selected and systematically related to the initial categories and sub-
categories. This procedure is adopted in order to validate the relationships that exist between the categories. The linking of categories is administered which established a structure by which the interview data is presented in Chapter Seven.

6.5.2 Analysis of Observation Data

As discussed in Chapter Four, behaviour management literature was used to inform the development of the Communicative Action Coaching Tool. This methodological tool was designed as a means of analysing the behaviour management strategies employed by beginning coaches. The pilot study conducted validated the appropriateness of the tool as a means of analysis. Accordingly, the tool was found to be an effective means of analysing coaching observations and was implemented as a methodological tool for the observation data analysis.

6.6 Validation procedures

Throughout the data collection and evaluation phases, it is essential that the data are reflective of its true meaning. Claims of qualitative research validity are sometimes a contentious issue. According to Burns (1996), data analysis and strategies used by ethnographers maintain high internal validity. There were numerous reasons for this high internal validity in the current study. Firstly, the long term relationship with coaches in the study enabled repeated data analysis and comparison. This in turn improved the match between categories and participant authenticities (Burns, 1996). Secondly, interviews with the coaches, which represented the primary ethnographic data source, by necessity were derived from experience or observation and, as
highlighted by Burns (1996) are less abstract than various instruments utilised in other research designs. Thirdly, in order to acquire authenticity of the life experiences of the coaches, the researcher’s role as participant observer was found in natural settings - the coaching/training environment. Next, the researcher repeatedly questioned and re-evaluated information during the interview and observation process and challenged any biases. This method embodied a process of ethnographer self-monitoring.

Finally, it has been advocated by Hammersley (1990) that although replication isn’t always achievable in natural sciences, it may not be viable in ethnography. Subsequently, it does not therefore detract from the validity of ethnographic findings (Hammersley, 1990). Moreover, ethnographic researchers employ methods designed to secure that their findings are not characteristic. Specifically, crystallization is used to enhance validity by comparing data from other sources (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). According to Denzin, the central imagery for validity is the crystal which combines symmetry and substance with a variety of shapes, multidimensionalities and angles of approach to the validation procedure. Crystallization, without diminishing structure, deconstructs the traditional concept of validity by providing multifaceted, complex and partial understandings of the topic (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998).

To ensure improved validity was accomplished, the postmodern procedure of ‘account’ and ‘methodological’ crystallization were integrated in this study where feasible. In particular, the account method required the interview questions to be continually reformulated and informant answers questioned to ensure accuracy of
data was maintained throughout the data collection process. With respect to methodological crystallization, the data obtained were evaluated using three data collection techniques – questionnaires, interviews, and observations. The above-mentioned validation processes were employed in this study to enhance the validity of the research.

6.7 Reliability

According to Burns and Grove (1993), the degree of reliability in ethnographic research is based on the ability to replicate the study and attain comparable explanations by conforming to the same categories and procedures throughout the study. Despite replication in natural sciences not always being achievable due to changes in natural settings, the inability to replicate ethnographic findings does not undermine assessments of their validity. Subsequently, it is important to understand that the current research does not pretend to be replicable. Burns and Grove (1993) highlighted that ethnographic researchers avoid controlling situations, rather they concentrate on the complexity of altering social contexts.

6.8 Trust and integrity

In order to gain trust and integrity in ethnographic research, there are no definite guidelines to data collection (Neuman, 1997). While it is apparent that acquiring access to participants’ experience necessitates an important and shared relationship, this is often dependent on the specific research setting (Wax, 1971). In this study, the involvement of the researcher spanned an entire competitive season (10 months) and
included ongoing interaction with participants. This interaction contributed to the rapport, trust, integrity, and co-operation of both the coaching candidates and the AFL clubs. The researcher was involved in regular interactions with the coaching staff throughout the season both before, during and after the training sessions. This ongoing verbal interaction established a trust between the research participants and researcher. As a result of the level of trust developed over the duration of the season, the researcher was able to gain deeper insights during the interviews as the participants were comfortable sharing information with the researcher about their coaching practices. According to Jorgenson (1989), a strong relationship between the researcher and the informants is imperative for obtaining data that is accurate.

6.9 Gatekeepers

According to Hammersley (1990), gatekeepers are the individuals responsible for and/or concerned with the light in which organisations and/or informants are viewed. In the current research, the gatekeepers were AFL Qld. AFL Qld was approached about this research, initially through email correspondence followed by meetings. During these liaisons AFL Qld was provided with information regarding the research as well as the specific research objectives. AFL Qld acknowledged the value in the research, believing it would enhance the behaviour management practices of their coaches, which, in turn would improve athlete outcomes. Consequently, AFL Qld granted permission to conduct research with the coaching candidates, attend the AFL coaching courses, and attend various meetings at local and regional clubs.
6.10 Confidentiality

Through the varying techniques of data collection in postmodern ethnography, researchers are often confronted with conflicting values, opinions and ideals. An example of this was highlighted by Spradley (1979, p.79) who expressed the concern: “How will I use the data collected and will I tell the informant how it will be used?” Subsequently, the researcher has a duty to protect and honour the dignity and privacy of their informants. According to Spradley (1979), the researcher must also preserve the data collected because:

No matter how unobtrusive, ethnographic research always pries into the lives of informants. Ethnographic interviewing represents a powerful tool for invading people’s way of life. It reveals information that can be used to affirm their rights, interests and sensitivities or to violate them. All informants must have the protection of saying ‘off the record’ which never find their way into ethnographer’s field notes (p.36).

Consequently, informants have the right to be notified of the researcher’s aims of the study. Furthermore, the informant also has the right to remain anonymous to protect their privacy. For the current study, ethics approval was obtained from the university Human Ethics Committee and once received, the issue of anonymity was addressed consent was gained from the informants and research progressed. To ensure anonymity of the research participants was maintained, the participant names were de-identified prior to the data analysis process and they were given alternate names as a means of identifying them.
6.11 Limitations

It is necessary to recognise any limitations present in the research design and its implementation. As this research is qualitative in nature, qualitative data does not allow for statistical manipulation. Subsequently, the data collected are not representative in any way, nor are generalizations made about data.

It should be noted that the purpose of this research was to identify the behaviour management practices of beginning coaches and develop strategies and recommendations. As a consequence, this study investigated coaching practices and behaviour management techniques of coaches at an introductory level. It explored the phenomenon as they were presented at the beginning coaching level because that level was the focus of the research. The fact that this study did not explore coaching practices at an intermediate or elite coaching level represents a limited perspective.

6.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a detailed explanation of the three data collection and data analysis techniques: questionnaires, interviews and observations and outlined the specific strategies employed during the data collection process. The questionnaire and interview data were analysed through the process of coding and the observational data was analysed using the methodological tool developed by the researcher, the Communicative Action Coaching Tool. Finally, access and procedural issues were outlined which included validation, reliability, trust and integrity, gatekeepers, confidentiality, and limitation.
Chapter Seven outlines the results of the questionnaire and interview data under the categories produced as a result of the open coding analysis.
7. CHAPTER SEVEN: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION I: QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERVIEW DATA

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results from data collected from the questionnaire and interviews. For the purpose of data presentation, the sections have been organised in a sequential order according to the data collection process. The questionnaire data are presented initially as it was the first form of data collected, and is presented under the categories produced as a result of the coding analysis. The questionnaire data were used to inform the development of the interview protocol. Coach vignettes were written from the data collected in the interview process and are discussed as a way of providing a context for the participants. Lastly, the interview data are also presented under the categories that emerged as a result of the coding process.

7.2 Questionnaire Data

As discussed in Chapter Six, the first phase of the data collection process was a questionnaire which 45 coaching candidates completed. The objective of the questionnaire was to collect demographic information about the coaches which included gender, qualification, age group, and level of athlete the coach would like to coach (Refer to Table 6.1 for a breakdown of this data).
The remainder of the questionnaire consisted of a series of open-ended questions. Specifically it included questions about the perceptions of beginning coaches’ roles, knowledge, skills, and behaviour management. Table 7.1 provides an overview of the questions included in the questionnaire. The following section presents the results from the questionnaires under the categories and sub-categories unearthed from the open coding analysis.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Why do you want to be a coach?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. What attracted you to coaching?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Who, if anyone influenced you in your decision to become a coach?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. What level of athlete would you like to be involved in coaching?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior ( )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate ( )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior ( )</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Elite ( )</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. What do you perceive the role of the coach as being?</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. What knowledge and skills do coaches need to be effective?</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. What types of scenarios do you think you will face as a coach?</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Do you think athlete behaviour control is the responsibility of the coach?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No ( )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes ( )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please explain</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. What do you think are some characteristics of a respected coach?</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. What do you think effective coaching involves?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. What role do you think communication plays in coaching?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. What methods of managing athlete behaviour will you employ when coaching?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Please indicate in order of importance, the content you think should be covered in a coaching course:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anatomy ( )</td>
<td>Biomechanics ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication strategies ( )</td>
<td>Teaching styles ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training methods ( )</td>
<td>Nutrition ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour management ( )</td>
<td>Administration requirements ( )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership strategies ( )</td>
<td>Athlete Evaluation techniques ( )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The questionnaire revealed there was diversity in the reasons for becoming a coach, including ‘I played football as a kid and I miss it’ (coach 13), through to responses such as ‘to challenge myself’ (coach 24). Results from the questionnaire indicate that participants enjoyed the culture surrounding sport and the ‘mateship’ that football offered. Hargreaves (1982) discussed the notion of sport as a cultural phenomenon in which individuals share a sense of interconnected social practices comprised of meaning and value distinctive within the social group. Although this cultural connectedness influenced the majority of participants there was one main reason for wanting to be a coach and that was to be involved in their son’s life. Many of the coaches were influenced by the basic desire to be part of their child’s life and this was evident through the following responses:

To be more involved with my children (Coach 10)

Spend time with my kids and meet their friends (Coach 13)

Help the kids understand the game and have fun (Coach 21)

Helping our kids to develop (Coach 32)

My son is starting to play (Coach 33)

I played for many years all over Australia, so now I feel it’s time to give something back. Also my son didn’t have an opportunity to see me play so this is a way for us to be together (Coach 35)

My son is involved in junior AFL and I would like to remain influential in his development (Coach 41)
To help out my son’s team and also help pass on some skills and knowledge to the kids (Coach 43)

The data indicated that the transition from participating in football to coaching football was a natural progression for most participants when asked what attracted them to coaching. Certainly not all athletes choose to become coaches, however the coaches in this study were attracted becoming a coach because of their sons’ involvement and they believed they could contribute to their sons’ lives and be part of the sporting experience. Some participants responded to this question by stating it was the opportunity to give something back to the sport, in others it was to become involved in the sport again. Through the open coding analysis process, these responses were classified “coaches past experiences”, as the following statements indicate:

Thought I could offer something to others as I have played football for 20 years (Coach 8)

Ensure my son and friends had someone experienced to allow them the best opportunity at this critical age 4-11. Give back to the game and my children – I have 28 years experience (Coach 11)

Played the game for many years, now something I can share with my children (Coach 18)

Played at club ten years ago (Coach 20)
Personal involvement as I enjoyed being part of football when I used to play (Coach 21)

Coaches are faced with challenges of all types. When asked what types of scenarios do you think you will face as a coach?, there was a broad array of responses, including athlete attitude, problems with parents and gaining the respect from others. Gilbert et al (2001) outlined challenges of being a coach in their research citing factors including: balancing the role of being a coach and parent; and, catering to the variations in skill level, emotional maturity and physical development. Comments from participants in this study categorised as challenges were as follows:

- Kids’ attitude and the challenge of their behaviour (Coach 1)
- I think coaching is about managing personalities and the most challenge will come from this area (Coach 4)
- Personality clashes and behaviour problems, different kids will be at different levels, time (management), motivation (myself and team) (Coach 13)
- Parental intervention can be a challenge, also child progression (Coach 18)
- Lots of challenges – main one keeping order of the athlete behaviour and respect (Coach 22)
- Keeping the kids interested and not to stray to another sport (Coach 35)
- Parents’ attitude and kids behaviour (Coach 39)
Despite the range of responses from participants with regards to the challenges faced, there was one concern highlighted consistently by the participants. According to 47% of participant responses, the main scenario they will face will be managing the behaviour of the athletes and accordingly, this was identified as a category from the analysis process. This was highlighted through the following participant responses:

*Children being children and acting inappropriately (Coach 12)*

*At junior level – discipline – keeping kids interested and getting them to improve their skills (Coach 14)*

*Undisciplined players (Coach 17)*

*Child behaviour, parent complaints (Coach 26)*

*Behaviour and respect (Coach 28)*

*Behavioural problems and keeping the kids’ attention (Coach 29)*

*Managing a large group of boys (Coach 31)*

*Dealing with ill discipline and unruliness kids lacking confidence (Coach 41)*

*Many – main one keeping order and respect (Coach 43)*

*Bad behaviour (Coach 44)*

*Trouble children (Coach 45)*
In seeking further information on the scenarios faced by coaches, the participants were asked whether they believed it was their responsibility to manage athlete behaviour. Lavay et al. (2006) suggest that more and more young athletes are entering into sporting teams and recreational environments unable to cope with the demands of the learning environment and display inappropriate behaviours. Forty-three of the respondents in this study believed that behaviour control was part of their coaching role. The following responses were also classified in the category management of athlete behaviour. When asked to explain their reason, responses included:

Yes – to make the kids behave and respect each other (Coach 2)

Yes – to a certain degree but a player is also an individual also and makes their own decisions (Coach 9)

Yes – you are responsible for the development of that person so you advise that person of their responsibility (Coach 10)

Yes hugely – discipline is part of being a complete sportsman regardless of the sport – poor discipline is like a cancer (Coach 13)

Yes – behaviour good or bad can be infectious therefore it is important for the coach to control and manage it well (Coach 16)

Yes – if you can’t control the athlete how are you meant to coach them? (Coach 22)

Yes – the coach doesn’t just teach skill they must also mentally train the athlete (Coach 28)
Yes – it is a fundamental part of coaching as is skills and concentration

(Coach 37)

Forty-five coaches thought their role as a coach was to control behaviour. Despite this, eight coaches stated that their role was not to manage the behaviour of their athletes and comments justifying these responses include:

No, the child should work on their own behaviour. The coach is there as a guide and support (Coach 3)

No – kids’ parents are still responsible for their kid’s actions (Coach 19)

Beginning coaches’ perceptions surrounding their role was pivotal to this study. This enabled the researcher to address the research question and establish whether behaviour management was highlighted as important. The coaches indicated that the major role the coach was required to perform is to support, guide and encourage the athletes. Accordingly, these responses were coded in the sub-category of support. This is reflected in the following statements:

Supporting and giving direction to players (Coach 3)

Guide and support (Coach 8)

Major guiding influence and supporting player development, but also as a role model in general in their lives (Coach 13)
Guiding the players to become the best they can be and seeing their abilities improve over the season. Also supporting and assisting them in other areas such as health and well being (Coach 31)

A guide and supportive influence (Coach 34)

Act as a mentor, provide guidance and support. Help the child improve and achieve their best (Coach 43)

Further to these responses, coaches believed the role of the coach to be a leader and a teacher. This is supported in the literature as various researchers identified the importance of leadership in coaching as it is links closely with athlete satisfaction (Smith & Smoll, 1984 ; Terry, 1984). It was noted that beginning coaches thought teaching of the rules and skills was essential to developing young athletes. The following responses highlight these beliefs:

To guide and to develop, to teach and skill the individual to achieve to the best of their ability (Coach 2)

Teacher, mentor, strategist (Coach 5)

Leader, organiser (Coach 15)

Teaching skills, team spirit and hopefully they will be better footballer at the season end (Coach 16)

Leader, teacher, role model, discipline (Coach 24)

Teaching rules, making play/game enjoyable, support (Coach 27)

Major in leadership and example (Coach 36)
The knowledge and skills required for coaches to be effective, in part include sport discipline knowledge. Specifically, this includes information that is specific and relevant to the sport including fundamental skill, strategy and tactics. According to Cote, Salmela & Russell (1995), knowledge of the sport is an extremely important component of effective coaching. Twenty-nine coaches in this study also indicated this as an important component of effective coaching. Accordingly they were classified under the sub-category of knowledge. Responses in this category include:

- **Background of the game – played or been around it. Leader with discipline to be effective role model (Coach 18)**
- **Personable demeanour, understanding of game rules, motivated**
- **Playing background (Coach 19)**
- **Good knowledge of the game, understanding learning skills people face, good communicator (Coach 21)**
- **Patience, knowledge of the game, being organised, experienced by previously playing the game (Coach 27)**
- **Know the rules (Coach 33)**
- **Knowledge and skills on the right techniques for their sport and know the right ways to be positive and encourage the kids (Coach 36)**

The data indicated that communication was seen as central to coaching process and consequently communication was identified as a sub-category through the open coding process. The ability to communicate effectively with athletes is identified by
Gilbert et al. (2001) as a central component to coaching youth athletes. According to 16 participants in this study, communication is an integral part of effective communication which is placed as a high priority. This is reflected in the following comments:

- Good communication, being supportive, patience, level headed (Coach 4)
- Understand and communicate within the group (Coach 6)
- Communication and people management (Coach 20)
- Excellent communication skills and make it enjoyable (Coach 30)
- Good people skills, being able to listen and get the message across as simply as possible (Coach 31)
- Good communication with kids (Coach 42)

Communication should play a pivotal role in coaching, and to be an effective coach requires an understanding of different forms of communication, how communication is delivered, and how it can impact on athletes. The participants cited the need to have good communication as fundamental to successful coaching practice. Further comments in the sub-category of communication included:

- Communication is everything (Coach 4)
- Communication is one of the most important coaching skills (Coach 6)
- A very important role, no communication, no respect (Coach 17)
- Communication plays a critical role – poor communication = poor understanding (Coach 25)
Communication – it’s the most important part (Coach 27)

Communication is vitally important especially with juniors (Coach 29)

Communication may well be the number one priority (Coach 31)

A major part, everybody needs guidance and this is only achieved by communication (Coach 36)

Another category was creating a positive environment, with responses such as being a listener, a role model, being a positive thinker, and being patient. Lavay et. al (2006), believe physical activity professionals and sport coaches must set the stage for learning by creating a positive environment. Results from the questionnaire data support this notion by identifying the need to be positive and encouraging towards the athletes, which contributes towards the creation of a supportive environment as reflected in the following responses:

Communication, getting the message across, friendship building, understanding (Coach 11)

Good communicator, time management, role model in society (Coach 14)

Positive thinker, good communicator, passionate about his job, create nice environment for the athletes, patient and self controlled (Coach 15)

Approachable, patient, (a coach who is enthusiastic and encouraging will gain more respect) (Coach 24)

To be able to communicate with people and have a supportive atmosphere (Coach 26)
Well behaved and get along well with players and their parents (Coach 29)

Good communicator, fair person (Coach 38)

Trusted (Coach 39)

A coach is one to look up to for knowledge which brings respect (Coach 41)

Good listener, understanding, calm environment, simple instructions give (under 8s) (Coach 43)

Positive, stern, encourageable, role model (Coach 44)

When asked what effective coaching involves, the participants considered creating an environment where athletes can feel supported, respected and important. This included having a good understanding of the game and the athletes as well as providing encouragement to the athletes. The following comments were placed in the sub-category of encouragement:

Improving skills, keeping motivation, providing goals, teaching discipline, rewarding and encouraging good work (Coach 1)

Understanding of individual needs of players as well as goal of team (Coach 5)

Making positive decisions, understanding the players problems and needs and encouraging them along the way (Coach 16)
Persistence, positive influence, being an encouraging coach, creating a safe environment, discipline, knowledge of the game (Coach 17)

Encouragement, respect, ability to evaluate their athletes properly (Coach 33)

Encouragement, identify needs of individuals, managing people in different ways (Coach 37)

Being disciplined yourself, encouraging the athletes when they are struggling, effective demonstrator of coaching (Coach 39)

When questioned about methods employed when managing athlete behaviour, participants highlighted the importance of creating an environment where the athletes understood the coach’s expectations. Although seen as an overarching issue, the majority of responses were classified in the sub-category of boundaries. Comments in response to this question included:

Setting the ground rules, boundaries and the ability to stick to the rules and boundaries (communication) (Coach 7)

Treat everyone the same when it comes to behaviour and have clear boundaries (Coach 9)

Communication first with expectations, coercion, exclusion (Coach 16)

Talk to the player about the problem (Coach 20)

Rules, penalties, team rules, boundaries (Coach 28)

Being stern but respecting them (Coach 31)
The data collected as a result of the questionnaire were analysed and categorised, which highlighted the coaches’ perceived importance of “management of athlete behaviour”, as well as the need to “create a positive environment” for the athletes. These two aspects were embedded throughout the questionnaire data and were identified as categories. After the completion of the questionnaires, the coaches were invited to be interviewed, and their coaching session observed. Seven beginning coaches volunteered and the data from the interviews and observations were analysed and follows. The data collected from the questionnaires were used as a guide to developing the questions in the interviews.

7.3 Coach’s Vignettes

This section provides a context for the interview data. The specifics of the participants that emerged in the interviews is highlighted and presented in the form of vignettes of the coaches.

7.3.1 Coaching Candidate No. 1 – Ben’s Story

Ben is an 18 year old student currently in grade 12 at a local high school. Born and bred on the Gold Coast, he lives at home with his father and older brother. He plays AFL in a football team at the same football club that he coaches an under 8s team. Ben first became involved as a coach at his football club as a result of his father’s
encouragement and due to the fact that the club needed more coaches. He also
decided to become a coach as he believed it would be a good experience and that he
could teach the younger athletes some of the things he has learnt about the game.
When asked about what he liked about the coaches he has had, he mentioned the
most effective coaches were the ones that focussed on specific technique
components of the game, as opposed to continuously doing running drills. When
asked about his philosophy of managing athlete behaviour, Ben highlighted the
importance of creating a fun environment for the athletes. Ben also recognised that
the management of athlete behaviour was part of his role as a coach and that if good
behaviour is modelled to the athletes, then the other athletes will follow.

7.3.2 Coaching Candidate No. 2 – Mike’s Story

Mike is a 38 year old former physical training instructor in the army. He has been
involved as a coach in a number of sports including athletics, soccer, rugby league
and rugby union. Although Mike has been involved in coaching and playing a
number of different sports, AFL is something that he has never played before.
Originally attracted to coaching through his desire to help underprivileged kids reach
their potential, he grew up in a ‘down and out’ suburb in Sydney. Mike has a three
year old son and believes that coaching your own child is not effective as “you are
biased and you are harder on them than you are on the others”. He also believes it
can result in the child pulling away, and he has witnessed this situation a number of
times when he was involved in coaching rugby league and soccer. When asked
what he recalled about his former coaches, Mike responded in a negative manner by recalling the verbal and physical abuse. Mike’s behaviour management philosophy is based on his belief that the coach he assumes the role of a parent and that it’s his job to discipline the athlete if they are behaving inappropriately. He also believes that an important part of coaching is being a role model and behaving appropriately.

7.3.3 Coaching Candidate No. 3 – David’s Story

David is a 46 year old single man employed as a brick layer. He grew up in Sydney and was involved in AFL as a player for 14 years before he had to stop playing due to a back injury. David was first introduced to coaching when some of his friends had children who played football and the club was looking for coaching staff. He was attracted to the idea of coaching as he believed he could pass on some of his knowledge he gained through his long involvement in the sport. Throughout his 14 year playing career David was exposed to a number of different coaches and coaching styles. The most negative recollection of his former coaches involves the ones that made him continuously run, “we ran to warm up, we ran to cool down, we ran when we did drills, we ran laps around the oval throughout the training session in between drills, even when we got punished we had to run, I thought that was a bit silly.” David believes coaching has changed a lot since he played and although there are a lot of new modern coaching techniques, he continues to coach his under 14s team “the old way”. This is also reflected in David’s coaching philosophy as David
believes in a strict punishment regime as part of his behaviour management philosophy.

7.3.4 Coaching Candidate No. 4 – Michael’s Story

Michael is a 31 year old tiler raised in country Victoria. He developed a love for sport at an early age as he grew up the youngest in a family with four older brothers. Michael has played a number of sports including AFL and cricket, however he has never been involved in a coaching capacity. Michael has been involved with his local AFL football club for a number of years and was asked to coach when there was a shortage of coaches. Michael has no children of his own however volunteers at a local PCYC community club where he helps out with the organisation of different sporting events. During his 15 years as an AFL player, Michael played at a number football clubs and said his experience with his previous coaches is mixed. He believes the most important aspect of coaching is to have an in-depth knowledge of the game and playing experience. Some of the negative coaching experiences Michael had involved verbal abuse when he or his fellow athletes underperformed. When asked about his behaviour management philosophy Michael stated that the most important aspect of coaching is to have “good control over the boys”. He stated that this involved pulling them into line if they acted inappropriately and punishing them if they continued the behaviour.
7.3.5 Coaching Candidate No. 5 – Tim’s Story

Tim is a 43 year old father of two who works in the transport industry. His son plays in the under 10s AFL team which he originally became involved as a volunteer before realising the importance of “giving something back” to the game, hence taking on the role as a coach. He believes it “keeps you connected to sport as well as stopping you from becoming a couch potato.” Initially Tim was attracted to coaching due to the inspiration that his previous coaches provided him with, stating “I was lucky enough to have good experiences.” When asked what he remembers about his previous coaches, Tim discussed how they fostered a love of the sport rather than focussing on technique. One aspect of coaching he tries to adopt is to build relationships with the athletes, stating:

“If you can build a relationship, especially with the little kids, and have fun, they will stay around long enough to develop the skills to go on.”

Tim’s behaviour management philosophy includes having a set of boundaries designed for the athletes and ensuring those boundaries are not crossed.

7.3.6 Coaching Candidate No. 6 – Peter’s Story

Peter is a 32 year old single father who is employed as a building site manager. An experienced AFL player, having played for 6 years, the major influence for Peter becoming a coach was his 10 year old son whom he coaches along with the other athletes in an under 11s AFL team. He would prefer to just attend games not in a coaching capacity stating: I’d just be happy to be on the sideline but the fact is they
only had one coach and about 70 kids, so I guess the main reason I did it was a lack of coaches.

Although he has a long history in the game, it wasn’t the reason his son plays, in fact Peter mentioned if his son was to lose interest in the game and pursue another interest, he wouldn’t abandon him stating “it’s what we do as a father and son that bonds us closer together, it could be anything.” Peter had many coaches during his involvement as an AFL player, however he didn’t have any bad coaching experiences. Although one thing he did mention was he had some coaches that were critical, however due to the way the criticism was delivered he didn’t view it in a negative light. One thing he did say he learnt from previous coaches which would assist him as a coach, was to ensure he never criticised athletes in a negative manner. This was also reflected in Peter’s behaviour management philosophy as his belief is to avoid criticising if they are acting inappropriately, but he also believes athletes should be held accountable for their actions.

7.3.7 Coaching Candidate No. 7 – Paul’s Story

Paul is a 38 year old father of two who works as an IT consultant at a finance company. He holds a university degree in business management and was a former second grade AFL player at Fitzroy, which required him to travel around Australia to play. Originally from Victoria, he grew up surrounded by sport and more specifically AFL. He has aspirations of one day taking on a career as a professional first grade coach, however at the current time is involved with the coaching of an under 11s
team at the local AFL club. As an AFL player his coaches inspired him and he believes it’s important to share his accumulated knowledge and give back to the game. When asked specifically about what he remembered most about the coaches he has had throughout his player career, the first thing Paul said without hesitation was that “they were good mentors, that they were more than just a coach… they offered guidance both with sport and with other things, they were inspiring just in the way that they dealt with people… good coaches were the ones who had good teams around them, a result of both their coaching and their personalities.” When asked about his behaviour management philosophy, Paul unequivocally stated it was his role as the coach to ensure the athletes behaved. His belief was that the athletes need to realise that their actions have implications.

This section was a description of the participants involved in the interview and observation process and provides a personal context for the interviews. It is evident from the vignettes that there are commonalities between the participants in this study. The first thing that should be noted is the gender of the coaches. As AFL is a male dominated sport, it is no surprise that all of the participants were male. The second aspect that should be noted is that all of the candidates, except for one, have experienced AFL as a player and have fostered a love of the game which in part resulted in them taking on a role as a coach.
7.4 Interview Data

Interview questions were formulated from the data collected in the questionnaires. This enabled the researcher to design an interview protocol relevant to the context of AFL and beginning coaches. For this purpose, the seven coaching candidates were asked questions including memories of their past coaches and the qualities they have that will be helpful when coaching, through to questions regarding creating positive coaching environments and managing athlete behaviour. Table 7.2 below outlines the interview questions.

Table 7.2

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<th>Questions</th>
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<td>1. Why do you want to be a coach?</td>
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<td>2. What attracted you to coaching?</td>
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<td>3. Who if anyone, influenced you in your decision to become a coach?</td>
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<td>4. What do you remember about your former coaches?</td>
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<td>5. What knowledge and skills do coaches require to be effective?</td>
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<td>6. What qualities do you have that will be helpful when coaching athletes?</td>
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<td>7. Do you think coaching will be rewarding?</td>
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<td>8. Do you think you will be a coach in 2 years and in 5 years time?</td>
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<td>9. What sort of training/coaching environment do you provide for your athletes?</td>
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<td>10. What do perceive the role of a coach as being?</td>
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<td>11. What factors contribute to a productive coaching environment?</td>
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<td>12. Do you think managing athlete behaviour is a responsibility of the coach?</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. What different scenarios do you think you will face as a coach?</td>
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As discussed in Chapter Six, coding techniques were used in the data analysis which allowed for the identification of categories throughout the data. The following section highlights the data under these categories, as well as discussing other relevant responses provided by the candidates. A number of categories were identified as a result of the coding process. The following section presents the results from the observational data under these categories.

The first category identified from the coding process was the coaches past experiences. According to (Gilbert, Côté, & Mallett, 2006) past experiences can influence the management techniques employed by coaches. In order to address the research question the coaches were asked whether their past experiences would affect their role as a coach. These influences ranged from positive to negative and are reflected in the comments below:

*I remember some coaches all we used to do was run all of the time, that was pretty negative. We got punished at senior level football, I thought that was a bit silly. (David)*

*I have no bad memories. I had some coaches that were critical, which is not bad, but it is how you deliver the criticism. There was a couple that said, can’t run, can’t catch, can’t kick. To me that’s something I’ve tried never to do, especially with under 8s. I had an example of that last night. I had a kid being a rotten little so and so, so I said alright, come over here*
and sit down. The criticism is one thing that has stuck out in my mind, and as you go through to senior levels, the criticism got harsher as you didn’t do the drill correctly or the right way. (Peter)

Them fostering a love of the sport you are in rather than focussing on the technique, before trying to be a champion. I think coaching is building relationships, if you can build a relationship, especially with the little kids, and have fun, they will stay around long enough to develop the skills to go on. (Tim)

Bad things – being yelled at, not doing this, not doing that. I grew up in an area where kids were belted for not doing anything, and that was the same in coaching. Now days that has gone right away which is good, you can’t touch the children, that might bit going a bit too far I think. (Mike)

I coach now because I have fond memories of my past coaches. I really liked the approach they had to their role and how they made the athletes feel. They built my confidence. I hope I can do the same for my athletes. (Michael)

My coach is really good, he is a good role model to us and I hope I can be a good role model to my athletes like he is to me. (Ben)
Probably going back many years, all of the coaches I have had I have been inspired by and it’s like with work, you work with different people and pick up a lot of different things. Having been coach by some many different and good people, good footballers, good coaches, I think I have accumulated a lot of knowledge that I am now ready to give back. They were good mentors. They were more than just a coach, they were perhaps on many occasions father figures for me. They offered guidance both with sport and with other things. They were inspiring just in the way that they dealt with people. (Paul)

As the coaches reflected upon the behaviour management techniques of their past coaches it highlighted how coaches are required to adopt strategies that produce environments where the athletes are supported and environments that are conducive to learning. As a beginning coach the task of managing athlete behaviour can prove to be more challenging as the required skills and necessary experience have not been acquired.

Most people commence their career with little or no training in managing athlete behaviour, this is despite behaviour management being an integral component of effective coaching (Martens, 2004). During the interview participants were asked whether managing athlete behaviour is the role of the coach. This was unearthed as another category from the coding analysis process. All seven coaches responded to
this question by agreeing that behaviour management was the responsibility of the coach. Two of the coaches however stated that it was the role of the coach, only to a certain degree. This view is reflected in the following statements:

That’s a hard one, yes it is to a certain degree, it’s limited to training and game days. If a child kept playing up, kicking kids, and I’d say come and sit down, he says no, I just get the parent to come and take over from there, the responsibility can only go so far. (Peter)

Yes I think it’s the responsibility of a coach, but only to a certain point. If the child is mucking up too much I think it’s something I shouldn’t have to deal with, I really think I am there to train the kids so they become better at sport, so I don’t think I can do everything all of the time especially if I have a big group of kids to look after. (Michael)

The previous responses highlighted the coach’s beliefs about management of athlete behaviour. The coaches stated it was purely the responsibility of the coach stating the coach’s role is to be leader. This is supported throughout literature as it widely acknowledged that leadership is critical to organisational effectiveness (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; Tichy & Ulrich, 2008; Yulk, 1989). The coach as the leader and mentor was identified from the responses along with the view that the coach is responsible for being a good role model.
Secondly, the coach as a teacher was apparent from responses stating it’s the coach’s responsibility to teach right from wrong. The category of management of athlete behaviour is reinforced through responses provided by the participants as the following statements illustrate:

Yes, I think a coach these days isn’t just to coach sport. I think maybe as they get older they have a responsibility to look at the behaviours of the children. I think it reflects badly on the sport. I think it’s up to me. I think there is no harm in pulling the kid aside and explaining to him that his behaviour maybe impacts on the other kids, impacting on the team, impacting on the training session. Getting kids to realise their actions do have implications, it’s not just about them. I’d pull them aside, not in a negative way, but in a teaching way. Even at this age I think they need to start learning. There’s a fine line though, cause you’re not their parent. But certainly in a team environment like that, I don’t see any reason you can’t pull a child aside and say, your behaviour right now is impacting on the other guys here at training. I think it’s quite okay to do that if it’s in the right way. (Paul)

Yes, it’s like you’re the parent, you’re taking over the role of the parent, teaching that child in that field. It’s like it’s the coach’s fault, no it’s not it’s the parent fault. The coach doesn’t walk away from the kids when he does something wrong. He pulls them aside and says look – you’ve done
this wrong. It’s open slather for professional athletes, if they only do one mistake it’s front page news. I think it’s also important that you practise what you preach though, you can’t just tell them one thing and do another, you have to be a role model for the kids, because I think they look up to you. (Mike)

It’s [behaviour management] my responsibility. Cause if you don’t control them then everyone will muck around. If you show them that this is the right way to behave the other team mates will follow. (Ben)

I think behaviour management is my responsibility, up to a point. I think especially if it’s a team sport, I think individual sports probably change a bit. Team sport in a sense you have a responsibility that what an individual player does affects everybody, and you have a responsibility as a coach that everybody’s experience is beneficial. Everyone is an individual and responsible for their own actions. I think you have a set of boundaries that you know this is where we are at this is what’s acceptable. (Tim)

All participants placed an importance on building positive relationships with their athletes. This is supported in the literature by Lavay, French and Henderson (2006), highlighting that the coaching atmosphere should be one that is supportive,
sympathetic and encourages the learning and performance of the athlete in a positive manner. Accordingly, the next category identified from the coding process was recognised as *fostering of positive relationships*. Although the coaches were not directly asked about their perceived importance of building a positive relationship with their athletes, it was a common response that was embedded throughout the data from the participants. Typical responses that highlight this are provided below:

*Always keep in mind, for me, that coaching is relationship building, that’s what it is for me. Coaches have a lot more influence in kids lives than you sort of think they would. I’ve run into a lot of little guys [athletes] around the place and they are always keen to talk to you.* (Tim)

*Say they are having a rough time, they can come to you, someone they can talk to. Have fun with them and work with people. Doing fun drills and making sure you encourage them. Say they did a good kick I would tell them and give them a high five.* (Ben)

*I think because of my academic background I understand people and I am able to bring people together. And again that’s probably a reflection of the work I am doing. And maybe coaching is an extension of that. But the kids, I also have a great sense of fun and I think the kids at that age, the game is more fun than serious. But you have got to have the ability*
to work out an individual, have a positive relationship with them and find what motivates them and inspires them as an individual and bring that together as a team. (Paul)

It’s really important to encourage and praise the athletes. I see a lot of coaches put athletes down. I was a medic for the club last year, you see a lot of coaches yell at the players. You can yell at your kids at home, but other kids are different. I have carried that with me, the way I was treated when I was younger. I think praising them and acknowledging them that they are doing right. This shows that you care and it is a constructive atmosphere. (Mike)

There is a boundary, we need to keep within the boundaries of the club and we hope we can teach those players to respect our boundaries as well. It’s important to keep that boundary, but it’s really important if you want to have those boundaries, you need to get your athletes to follow them. They won’t do that if they don’t like or respect you. I try to have a good rapport with my athletes, being positive to them during the training and play day is a big part of that. Also when they do something wrong, don’t always yell, they don’t respect that. Be positive and things will fall into place. (Peter)
I come on pretty hard to start with. I think it’s better when you do have a more personable approach. I didn’t know how to approach the kids and everyone said you had to be like a headmaster – you have to yell at them. I got sick of yelling at them so I am more of a buddy with them now, you need to be positive, not negative in their ear, they don’t like that. When I changed my approach I guess they did improve. I actually had a sausage sizzle at my house for the boys so that they could see that I was human. Then the next week they actually won a game. It’s just not constructive if you do it any other way, you need to be encouraging and personable. (David)

I think coaching is just like adult life. If you have a boss that doesn’t respect you, you are going to respond differently to him than a boss that respects you. It’s the same on the footy field. If I can have a good relationship with my athletes they will listen to me and they will learn. It just doesn’t work if the respect isn’t there. (Michael)

Possessing certain attributes as a coach, such as being fun natured and approachable, contributes to the creation of a positive coaching environment. Creating positive environments for athletes to train and play in is imperative for coaches to do to ensure the athletes can learn and develop in a supportive environment (Martens, 2004). This not only fosters a positive outlook in the
athletes, it also ensures the athletes are provided with experiences that encourage and maintain positive behaviour. Creating positive environments was another category identified from the coding analysis. During the interview process, the coaches were asked about the coaching/training environments they create for their athletes. Coaches emphasised the need to provide praise and encouragement, ensure the environment is fun for the athletes, and be positive yourself. Quotes typical of these views include:

Being positive yourself. Not smoking or drinking. I like to have fun with them. Talk to them about the positive things they are doing. Make sure at training you talk to the athletes with respect and have a positive approach. (David)

I think it’s important to tell the athletes what they are doing right and be positive. If you are positive then the atmosphere and the athletes are too. It’s also about having fun at training and not making it a bore for them. (Mike)

Make sure they are having fun and doing their drills. If you have fun then the athletes think it’s somewhere they want to be and something they want to be involved in. (Ben)
As the coaching clinic states you’d never turn up looking untidy or run around growling and screaming, you are always laughing, animated in your movements. At the junior level everything is fun, there’s not a critical word, be encouraging. It’s really important to be fun with the kids. (Peter)

I think when you are dealing with other people you have to put aside the issues you are dealing with personally. You are in charge of other people and you are responsible for these people getting to their own aspirations, and I think you have got to put yours aside, particularly when you are dealing with them. Out on the ground the other night with the kids, if you’ve had a bad day at work, you can’t bring that with you, cause the kids will pick up on it. When you go out and coach you have got to leave it behind. Particularly for the kids, it’s got to be fun, they have got to have a fun base from the start. And I think you’ve also got to concentrate on them developing skills. If they don’t have fun and they don’t have skills and they start getting down on the game, start getting down on what they are doing, if they are not progressing I think you are taking the fun element away from them. (Paul)

Coaches have a wide range of responsibilities. The role of the coach includes being a communicator, leader, nutritionist, and disciplinarian (Cross & Lyle, 1999; Weinberg,
Due to the fact that coaching is so multifaceted, coaches can have a profound effect on the athletes they train, both positive and/or negative in nature. Accordingly, at any level of competition, coaches are faced with an array of challenges due to the complexity of their role. Gilbert et. al (2001) discussed that coaches frequently face challenges including team selection pressures and issues, assignment of athlete positions, delegation of athlete roles, and distribution of playing time. It was important to uncover the perceptions of the beginning coaches in relation to their beliefs surrounding the challenges they will be faced with during their time coaching. Each coach had a different idea about the challenges that they believe they will be faced with, and accordingly challenges was identified as a category from the coding analysis. Only one coach mentioned the challenge of dealing with disruptive athletes. The responses from the other coaches included the challenge of being a good role model, being innovative in the training methods, and high expectations. Some of the typical responses are provided below:

I think it will be a challenge to constantly be a good role model. Also I find it hard to get the kids attention, sometimes they are very hyper and I can’t tell them the next activity. (Ben)

I think it’s hard to be innovative, making sure it’s fresh it’s fun and new, like a coach in any sport, I’ve always kept up with the trends, I’ve always kept it exciting to keep their mind off the training. When I was playing I
remember it was the same thing every week, and I ended up thinking when is the season going to end. So you’ve just got to be innovative, you don’t use up all of your bag of tricks first up. (Peter)

I think there are definitely some great aspects to coaching but also some difficult one’s. You think they are more grown up then they actually are. High expectations I guess, but you just need to adjust. (David)

I think coaching has its rewards but that doesn’t come without some hurdles. You don’t just get the parents and kids respect, it can be a hard road. I also find that sometimes managing the kids can be a hard task. It’s not easy knowing how to go about things sometimes and you have to make sure you are doing the right thing by the kids too. (Michael)

It’s really hard when they don’t feel like they are developing enough to win on weekends. I know kids play a lot of sport, they do get a little bit, cause there’s so much of it on tv, they get a bit winning orientated. Last year we went through a phase. We don’t count wins, but they know. It’s hard to keep them motivated and wanting to continue. (Tim)
7.5 Summary

The data collected from the interviews supports findings from previous research on coaching. A number of categories emerged as a result of the interview data. Specifically, these include: coaches past experiences; management of athlete behaviour; fostering of positive relationships; creating positive environments; and, challenges. The categories that emerged from the data analysis were all areas that were identified by previous researchers as applicable to coaching. To illustrate: Gilbert, Côté, and Mallett (2006) identified the influence of coaches past experiences to the way coaches interact with their athletes; Martens (2004) highlighted the importance of management of athlete behaviour, identifying it as an integral component of effective coaching; Lavay, French and Henderson (2006) recognized the importance of fostering of positive relationships; Martens (2004) believes creating positive environments both fosters a positive outlook in the athlete and encourages them to maintain positive behaviour; and, Gilbert et. al (2001) highlighted the various challenges faced by coaches in their role. The codes from the data analysis directly respond to the following research aim: To determine if beginning coaches see behaviour management as part of their role as a coach. From the data presented in this section, it is evident that the coaches recognise behaviour management as their role as a coach.

The data collected in the interviews were used as a guide to develop an observation schedule through which to conduct the coaching observations. Following on from
this, the data collected in the observation sessions were analysed through the use of the data analysis tool discussed in Chapter Four. The observation data addresses the following research aim: *Investigate whether beginning coaches implement behaviour management in their coaching practice*. The results of the observations and the data analysis are outlined in Chapter Eight.
8. CHAPTER EIGHT: RESULTS & DISCUSSION CHAPTER II: OBSERVATION

DATA

8.1 Introduction

The data collection instruments used in this research included questionnaires, interviews and observations of coaching sessions. Throughout this chapter, the results from the coaching observations are analysed using the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool*. Initially the results from the data analysis of each individual coaching session is provided, following on from which the commonalities of the coaching sessions are highlighted. For this purpose this chapter is presented under the following headings: Results of Individual Coaching Sessions; and, Commonalities between Coaching Sessions.

A coding structure was established which enabled the behaviours of the coaches to be coded according to coaching characteristics and outcomes. In Table 8.1 a key of the coaching characteristics is provided which informs the codes as highlighted. Specifically, codes were incorporated for each of the coaching scenarios according to their specific outcomes. The implementation of a coding tool provided the researcher with a structure by which the observations could be classified and commonalities between coaching sessions could be identified. For example as highlighted in Chapter Four, The *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* (Figure 8.1) was designed by the researcher in a way which facilitated behaviour management
observational instances to be tracked according to the strategies and dimensions employed and according to the outcomes achieved in specific coaching scenarios. A coding table was designed following on from the development of the tool which allowed the behaviour instances to be identified according to the strategies, dimensions, and outcome/s of the instance.

Table 8.1

*Key of Communication Outcomes and Types*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
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</table>

CA – coach’s controlling action  
GD – goal driven
CD – context driven
CS – consequent strategy
AS - antecedent strategy
NV – non-verbal
V – verbal

T – tangible
E – extrinsic
I - intrinsic
C – choice
AF – athlete follows
AD – athlete disobeys
DBA – desired behaviour achieved
The identification and coding of the data gathered during the pilot study demonstrated the Communicative Action Coaching Tool provided an effective means to analyse data gathered from sport coaching contexts. The Communicative Action Coaching Tool provided a means by which the mapping and classification of behaviour management strategies used in the coaching context could be undertaken. The use of the tool during the pilot study highlighted its effectiveness in categorising and mapping the effectiveness of behaviour management strategies in a coaching context.
8.2 Results of Individual Coaching Sessions

8.2.1 Coach - Ben

Ben is an under 8s coach, with a total of 11 boys present in his training session. The environment in which the training took place was a double oval area. There were 4 other training sessions operating concurrently in different areas around the ovals and a number of parents seated around the circumference of the oval. The results from Ben’s interview data in Chapter Five highlighted that Ben believes in encouraging his athletes and ensuring the training sessions are fun for the athletes. During the interview, Ben identified behaviour management as his role as a coach and discussed techniques such as pulling the athlete aside if they were acting inappropriately.

During the coaching session conducted by Ben, there were 14 behaviour management instances which were observed (Refer to Table 8.2). The main aspect highlighted in Table 8.2 is the quantity of instances which occurred during the warm up and body of the training session, with only one instance during the cool down phase.
Table 8.2
An Overview of Data Analysed from Ben’s coaching session

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Observation Instance</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>A or C</th>
<th>Outcome + or -</th>
<th>Description of Instance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WARM</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>During the initial instruction coach getting athletes to look at him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>During the initial instruction when the athletes don’t respond the coach asks the athletes if they are listening to him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UP</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>DH</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Coach uses verbal and non verbal strategies to get athletes to sit down (whistle and says athletes name)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Coach uses athletes first names to get their attention when not listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>The coach tells the athletes to stay outside the markers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Coach uses further consequent strategies when athletes come inside markers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When referring to Table 8.2, it is noted that during the warm up phase of the training session there were six behaviour management instances observed. In all observed instances during the warm up phase antecedent strategies dominated (e.g. The coach asked the athletes to have their eyes looking up at him), negative outcomes followed, and the coach used a consequent strategy (e.g. coach asked the athletes if they were listening to him) after which a positive outcome followed (e.g. athletes stopped what they were doing and paid attention to the coach.) Specifically, the first and fifth instances were coded as ‘H’ and the third instance was
coded as ‘DH’. For this purpose, ‘H’ refers to an antecedent verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension followed by a negative outcome (e.g. athletes given an instruction to stay outside the circle when doing the drill and they didn’t obey), a ‘DH’ refers to exactly the same as above, however includes a non verbal cue (e.g. using the whistle) as well as a verbal cue (e.g. using the athlete’s name to get their attention). Due to the fact that these behaviour management instances were followed by a negative outcome (e.g. not listening to the instructions), the coach followed up the behaviour by using a consequent strategy, and in all cases the instance was coded as ‘S’ which refers to a verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension which had a positive outcome (e.g. listening to and following the coach’s instructions).

According to behavioural theories developed by Canter (1990), in these instances Ben could be said to have employed an assertive discipline response style. Specifically, this style refers to the coach providing clear instructions which may explain the expected behaviour during the antecedent strategy (e.g. asking the athletes to have their eyes on him and listen.) Following on from this, Ben enforced the need to watch and listen to him by addressing the athletes if they were doing the wrong thing (e.g. coach asks the athletes if they are listening to him.) This refocussed the athletes and was followed by a positive outcome.
It should be noted that the only instances of antecedent strategies were observed during the warm up, the rest of the coaching session consisted of consequent strategies. During the body of the training session, there were six occurrences of behaviour management instances observed. All of the instances were coded as consequence strategies, with the first four instances having an intrinsic dimension. Specifically, the first four instances were coded as ‘S’, ‘T’, ‘TP’ and ‘SO’ respectively. This coding identifies that there was a mixture of verbal and non verbal strategies used, two of which were followed by a positive and two of which were followed by a negative outcome. Following on from this, during the later stages of the body of the session, the coach was observed to implement consequent verbal strategies which all had an extrinsic dimension, and were all followed by positive outcomes. An example of one such instance in which the coach implements an extrinsic strategy is outlined in below:

Observational instance 1.30:

*Athletes asked the coach to kick a long ball. The athletes were pushing and fighting in line. The coach said “okay, but no pushing in line or I won’t kick a long one for you”. Athletes briefly stopped pushing in line and the coach kicked a long ball.*

This behaviour instance aligns with the behavioural theory developed by Skinner (2002). A strategy advocated by Skinner is to wait for students to respond and then reinforce the response quickly and consistently. Ben noticed that the athletes were
pushing in line and constantly asking him to kick a long ball for them to try and mark. As a consequence of the athletes pushing in line, Ben stated that he would only kick a long ball if they ceased pushing in line. Subsequently athletes stopped pushing in line, and this resulted in Ben quickly reinforcing the appropriate behaviour by rewarding them by kicking a long ball for them.

During the cool down phase of the training session there was one observed behaviour management instance. This instance was coded as ‘T’ as it was a consequent verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension which had a negative outcome. Specifically this instance involved an athlete walking away from the coaching area, following which the coach asked the athlete where he was going and the athlete ignored the coach and continued to walk away. The coach then asked the athlete to return to the area and the athlete continued to ignore him and walked off. When referring back to the interview conducted with Ben when asked: What strategies do you use when controlling athlete behaviour? He stated: Oh, I usually get them to sit down beside me if they do the wrong thing.

Ben was then asked: What other techniques do you use for controlling them? Does getting them to sit out always work? He replied by stating: No not always, usually I just ignore them, then their parent comes over.
This response by Ben during the interview is reflected in three instances observed during the training session. When referring to Table 8.2, it can be seen that Ben offers a consequent strategy in response to the athletes not following his direction. The athletes then ignore the consequent strategy, and unlike during the warm up phase of the training session where Ben followed through with the consequence and a positive outcome followed, Ben was not consistent by following through with his expected behaviours and there was no consequent enforced as a result of the failure to comply with the coach’s expectations.

Following on from the data analysis conducted on Ben’s coaching session it was evident that there was a strong emphasis on verbal strategies which had an intrinsic dimension. Specifically, 10 of the 14 observed instances were verbal with an intrinsic dimension, with only 28% of the instances having an extrinsic dimension, and three instances during which the coach incorporated non verbal strategies as a form of behaviour management. It should be noted that on each of the occasions the coach used a strategy which had an extrinsic dimension a positive outcome followed. Another important aspect to highlight as mentioned earlier is that the coach achieved a positive outcome when using antecedent strategies followed by a consequent strategy. This is consistent with the relevant literature as highlighted by Canter (1990) and Jones (2000), the use of antecedent strategies such and setting limits and establishing rules is imperative for effectively managing behaviour.
8.2.2 Coach – Mike

Mike is the coach of a team of under 16 boys. There were 15 boys present at the observed coaching session. Mike and his athletes were the only team training on the oval, however there were other teams located on other various ovals located on the opposite side of the clubhouse. There were no parents watching the observed training session. Mike’s interview results as highlighted in Chapter Five indicate that he incorporates praise into his coaching practice and believes it is his role as the coach to manage athlete behaviour through various techniques including pulling the athlete aside and telling them they have done the wrong thing.

Following the observation conducted on Mike’s coaching session, there were 14 behaviour management instances which required analysis. Of these three were incorporated as antecedents and 11 consequent strategies as highlighted in Table 8.3. It was also noted that there was a heavy reliance on verbal strategies, with only one of the observed instances being a non verbal strategy. Another important factor to be highlighted is that 10 of the instances were followed by a positive outcome.
### Table 8.3

**An Overview of Data Analysed from Mike’s coaching session**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>A or C</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Description of Instance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WARM UP</td>
<td>Q C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athlete not doing the warm up</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Athlete running too slowly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athlete not doing warm up</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E A</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Warning to athletes if they don’t do drill correctly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BODY</td>
<td>OS C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athletes didn’t do drill correctly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Athlete not following instruction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athlete not doing drill correctly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E A</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Warning to athletes if they don’t do the drill correctly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Athlete not putting in enough effort during the run</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athlete doing the drill incorrectly</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>O C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athlete not stretching correctly</td>
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</table>
The warm up phase of the coaching session included four observed behaviour management instances. Of the four instances, there was one antecedent strategy which was coded as ‘E’ which refers to a verbal strategy with an extrinsic dimension followed by a positive outcome (e.g. the coach tells the athletes to do the drill correctly or they will have to run laps around the oval.) The other observed instances were all consequent strategies, two of which had an extrinsic dimension (e.g. the coach told the athletes that were doing the warm up to speed up or they will have to do another two laps), and were coded as ‘Q’ as they were followed by a positive outcome, and ‘R’ as it was followed by a negative outcome. The other instance had an intrinsic dimension (e.g. some athletes were kicking the ball when they should have been doing the warm up, the coach told them to hurry up and do the warm up, with no extrinsic inducements) and was coded as ‘S’ because it was a verbal strategy followed by a positive outcome. The coach placed a heavy reliance on verbal communication when implementing behaviour management strategies as there were no observed non verbal or tangible strategies during the warm up phase. According to Jones (2000), this approach is not advisable for effective management of behaviour, instead he emphasised the importance of body language, stating

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COOL DOWN</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>-</th>
<th>Warning to athlete if they don’t do the drill correctly</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athlete told to run faster or do more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athlete not doing the drill correctly</td>
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</table>
effective nonverbal communication is thought to halt misbehaviour and reduce verbal confrontation.

The body of the coaching session was observed and from this observation there were seven behaviour management instances noted. Of the seven instances all were consequent strategies except one coded as ‘E’, which was an antecedent verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension (e.g. athletes finished the drill and instructed the athlete to run in and gather around him.) The success of the behaviour management strategies implemented during this phase should be highlighted, as there were only two observed strategies followed by negative outcomes. This may be attributed to the observed strategies used by the coach, as he followed through on the expectations that were set. Following through on consequences is seen by Canter (1990) as an important aspect to managing behaviour as it sends a message to the athletes that you mean what you say.

Despite the coach following through on the majority of the limits that were set (e.g. if the athlete did the drill incorrectly they were required to run a lap around the oval), there were a number of observed instances in which the coach used threats. Behavioural theorist Canter (1990) advises against using threats to manage behaviour. For this purpose, a threat refers to an act of coercion wherein a negative consequence is proposed to elicit response. Canter believed this style of discipline can result in several bad side effects including hurting students’/athletes’ feelings,
provoking disrespect and a desire to get even, failing to meet student/athlete needs for warmth and security, and violating two basic student rights: the right to positive limits on self-destructive behaviour and the right to choose their own behaviour, with full knowledge of the consequences that will follow. It was observed during some instances that the coach threatened the athletes in order to get them to follow an instruction (e.g. the coach asked the athlete if he had done his drill, and told the athlete if he doesn’t do the drill, he won’t see his 16th birthday.) Similar to the observed strategies implemented by the coach during the warm up, the coach was observed to place a heavy emphasis on the use of verbal strategies. Specifically, six of the observed strategies were verbal (e.g. coach told the athlete to hurry up and do the drill) and were coded accordingly, with one strategy both verbal and non verbal being coded as ‘OS’ as it was a consequent strategy followed by a positive outcome (e.g. the athletes were doing the drill incorrectly, the coach blew his whistle and yelled at the athletes to stop what they were doing.)

From the data collected during the interview, Mike stated his beliefs surrounding behaviour management. When asked, what types of challenges do you think you will face as a coach? The response was: Disruptive players, disruptive kids. I usually tell them what I don’t like and if they want to push the limit they suffer accordingly. All kids try it and the kids I’ve got at the moment found out the hard way.
This belief was reflected during the cool down of the coaching session during which there were three observed behaviour management instances. During this specific instance coded ‘F’, the coach provided an antecedent verbal strategy which had an extrinsic dimension aimed at highlighting to the athletes the coach’s expectations and consequences (e.g. the coach said to the athlete that he’d better do it right or he’d have to do sprints.) Despite the coaching session resulting in 70% of the instances having a positive outcome, a lack of respect was evidenced both from the coach towards the athletes and the athletes toward the coach. Specifically, this lack of respect included the coach yelling at the athletes in an aggressive manner, and in certain instance the athletes walking away from the coach while he was addressing them. According to Maslow’s (1970) theory which identifies a hierarchy of needs, a kind and respectful environment is beneficial when managing a learning environment. If athletes are exposed to a nurturing environment it is believed they will respond to behaviour management techniques in a more favourable manner.

It is evidenced from the observations conducted throughout this coaching session, that there was a strong emphasis on the use of both verbal and consequent strategies. The strategies implemented throughout the session employed a behaviour technique highlighted by Rogers (1995) as effective in managing behaviour. Rogers identified the technique of providing choices to athletes as an effective approach to deal with frustrations and to handle likely disruptions. The data collected during this coaching session highlighted this technique of providing
choices, and provides evidence of its effectiveness in achieving positive outcomes in behaviour management.

8.2.3 Coach - David

David is the coach of an under 14s AFL team with a total of 25 athletes present at the observed training session. David and his athletes were one of four teams training on a double oval area. There were a number of parents seated outside the clubhouse observing the training sessions, although it is believed the parents were observing the athletes from the younger age groups. The results from David’s interview indicates that he uses his size as a method of managing athlete behaviour, specifically stating that he believes you have to be 6 foot 4 to get them to listen to you. Despite this, David also indentified the importance of having fun and connecting with the athletes on a personal level.

The observation conducted on David’s coaching session enabled the researcher to observe six behaviour management instances. When referring to Table 8.4 it is noted that five of the six observed instances occurred during the body of the training session and the sixth during the cool down of the session. There were no behaviour management instances observed during the warm up phase of the coaching session.
### Table 8.4

**An Overview of Data Analysed from David’s coaching session**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Observational Instance</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>A or C</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Description of Instance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WARM UP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No behaviour management instances observed during the warm up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BODY</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athlete told the consequences if they don’t do the activity correctly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athletes are punished for doing the wrong thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>AE</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Strategy used by the coach to get the athletes to run to him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Athletes talking while coach providing instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athletes went to incorrect marker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COOL DOWN</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Athletes didn’t follow the instruction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the training session conducted by David, there were two instances observed that were categorised as antecedent strategies (e.g. athletes told they would have to do an alternate exercise if they didn’t complete the task correctly), both of these instances were evaluated as having a positive outcome (e.g. the athletes completed...
the task correctly) and were coded as ‘E’ due to it being a verbal strategy, and ‘EA’ because it had both a verbal and non verbal approach. Furthermore, there were three instances during which the coach implemented strategies which were evaluated as having an extrinsic dimension (e.g. coach tells the athletes that they will have to do push ups if they don’t do the drill correctly). Of these three instances, all were deemed to have a positive outcome (e.g. the athletes did the drill correctly).

This style of communication which includes firm instructions regarding the coach’s expectations, is what Rogers (1995) refers to as the provision of ‘assertive statements.’ Specifically, Rogers asserts that a lack of assertiveness from the teacher/coach is quickly recognised by students and can result in disruptive behaviour as the students identify a weakness in the management strategies of the teacher.

Alternatively, of the six behaviour instances observed, three were deemed to have an intrinsic dimension (e.g. the coach told the athlete’s to go and spread out evenly around the markers, the athletes were unevenly distributed and the coached yelled at them to move, so they listened and moved to a different marker), and two instances were coded as ‘T’, as they were both deemed to be consequent verbal strategies followed by a negative outcome, and ‘S’ as this instance was a consequent verbal strategy followed by a positive outcome. An instance which has an intrinsic dimension is one which the athlete does without external inducement. For this purpose, the athlete was not provided with a consequence if he did not move (e.g.
punishment or reward), therefore it is categorised as an instance that has an intrinsic dimension. As mentioned, of the three instances which had an intrinsic dimension, two were deemed to have a negative outcome (e.g. the coach tries to give instructions about the activity to the athletes and they were not listening, coach keeps telling the athletes to listen and they continue to ignore him and keep talking).

All of the observed behaviour management instances during David’s coaching session included the use of verbal strategies with the exception of one which incorporated verbal (e.g. telling the athletes to hurry up and run in to the coach) and non verbal (e.g. using the whistle to get the athletes attention) characteristics. According to Rogers (1995), the use of non verbal communication is important for halting misbehaviour and reduces verbal confrontation. In reference to the interview responses provided by David, when questioned about the behaviour management techniques used when managing the athletes he responded by stating:

*I don’t like screaming all of the time but I’ve got a whistle now, so I use that. I blow the whistle and the last one in there does 20 push ups, and you ought to see them, boy do they run.*

When reflecting on the practices of David during his coaching session and through analysing the observational data collected, it has highlighted the effectiveness of the use of strategies with an extrinsic dimension. Specifically, it is noted that 100% of the instances during which a strategy with an extrinsic dimension was implemented
a positive outcome was deemed to follow. Despite this, it was noted through reflection on the observation records, that the coach adopted an authoritarian approach to the coaching setting (e.g. yelling at the athletes and telling them to do it again or do 20 push ups). According to Tutko (1971), an authoritarian approach refers to the strategies adopted by the coach to manage athlete behaviour and has a focus on punishment as a method of controlling athlete behaviour. This approach is often not received well by some athletes and results in a loss of respect for the coach. This was apparent in specific instances during David’s coaching session, one of which included the athletes not listening to the coach during the instruction.

8.2.4 Coach – Michael

Michael is the coach of an under 8s AFL team with a total of 28 athletes present at the observed training session. Michael and his athletes were one of five teams training on a double oval area, however the area allocated to Michael and his athletes was a grassed area off to the side of the ovals on a slight hill, as a result of the limited space many of the drills and activities had to be modified. There were a number of parents seated around the training area observing the training session, and towards the end of the session a handful of parents became involved in the activities to assist Michael. The results from Michael’s interview indicate that he sees his main role as a coach as developing the athletes skills on the sporting field rather managing athlete behaviour. Michael also discussed how he ensures he has a
friendly approachable manner with the athletes, which in turn he believes builds rapport.

During the coaching observation conducted of Michael’s coaching session there were 16 behaviour management instances which were observed. As outlined in Table 8.5, of the 16 observed instances there was only one antecedent strategy, with 15 consequent strategies observed. Another important aspect observed during the coaching session was the high percent of evaluated negative outcomes. Specifically, 82% of the outcomes observed during this training session were deemed to have a negative outcome with only three positive outcomes observed.

**Table 8.5**

*An Overview of Data Analysed from Michael’s coaching session*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Observational Instance</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>A or C</th>
<th>Outcome + or -</th>
<th>Description of Instance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WARM UP</td>
<td>4.03-4.05</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Athlete not listening to the coach’s instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athlete ignored the coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Athlete ignored the coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Athlete not following instructions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
During the warm up phase of the training session there were four behavioural instances which were observed. Interestingly all were deemed to be consequent
strategies (e.g. athletes unsettled and not listening to the coach’s instructions, as a consequence the coach asked the athletes to listen up), however there was a mixture of extrinsic (e.g. coach told the athletes to remember what happened last time if they didn’t listen, they had to sit out) and intrinsic (e.g. the coach instructed the athletes to perform a specific task, the athletes didn’t listen and the coach just continued to ask with no extrinsic motivator) strategies observed. Of the four instances the only instance which was deemed to be followed by a positive outcome, was coded as ‘O’ and was one in which the coach incorporated a non verbal strategy (e.g. one athlete was not doing the task correctly and the coach pointed at him aggressively and signalled for him to do it correctly), all of the other instances were deemed to have a negative outcome and were verbal strategies and were coded as ‘T’ and ‘R’ as a result. The method of non verbal communication aligns with behavioural theories developed by Jones (2000). Jones advocates the use of non verbal strategies as a technique for limiting misbehaviour and ensuring the students stay on task. The before mentioned observed behaviour management instance supports Jones’ behaviour theory and is identified as an appropriate technique when managing athlete behaviour.

There was a large number of behaviour instances observed during the body of the training session and only two of those instances were deemed to be followed by a positive outcome. Of the ten observed instances, nine were categorised as being verbal strategies with an intrinsic dimension (e.g. the athlete was kicking the markers
and the coach told the athlete “don’t kick the markers”, there was no external motivation provided to stop kicking the cones), with one of those instances coded as ‘PT’ as the coach utilised a non verbal alongside a verbal strategy (e.g. Coach started walking away when the athletes were supposed to be running, one athlete kept following him and the coach pointed at him and told him to go away). The only antecedent strategy observed during the entire coaching session occurred during this phase of the coaching session and was coded as ‘H’. Specifically this antecedent strategy was a verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension and was followed by a negative outcome (e.g. the coach tries to get the athletes to come to him, however the athletes don’t listen). According to Canter (1990), setting limits is an important aspect of managing behaviour. In particular, to enable the coach to have control of the athletes, during this training session this coach might have employed Canter’s behavioural theory, which includes: clearly explaining expected behaviours; clearly explaining the behaviour which is not tolerated; and, clearly explaining the consequences. An example of this might include the coach establishing that when he blows the whistle, they must stop the activity they are doing, return to the allocated area and wait for further instructions.

The final stage of the coaching session, the cool down, included two observed behaviour management instances. Similar to that which occurred during the previous phases of the session, both of the observed instances were deemed to be consequent strategies followed by a negative outcome. There was however a
variation in the strategies used. One of the strategies was coded as ‘T’ as it was
verbal with an intrinsic dimension (e.g. because the athletes were being disruptive,
the coach tried to get the athletes into two lines, the athletes weren’t listening and
the coach just continued to repeat the instruction), the other strategy, coded as ‘P’
was non verbal with an intrinsic dimension (e.g. the athletes were running around
not doing the task as designed, the coach blew the whistle really loud to get the
athletes attention).

Upon reflection of Michael’s observed practices during this coaching session it is
evident that there was not a high rate of positive outcomes which were achieved
when managing athlete behaviour. This may be as a result of his belief that
behaviour management is not totally his responsibility as highlighted in the following
extract from his interview:

Yes I think it’s [behaviour management] the responsibility of a coach, but
only to a certain point. If the child is mucking up too much I think it’s
something I shouldn’t have to deal with, I really think I am there to train
the kids so they become better at sport, so I don’t think I can do
everything all of the time especially if I have a big group of kids to look
after.

According to Jones (2000), if Michael incorporated the use of positive verbal
communication into his coaching, it is an effective way of creating a positive
environment in which positive outcomes are achieved. The high number of behaviour instances was in spite of Michael stating in his interview that he thought behaviour management was the role of the coach and he made sure he followed through with what he said. According to Jones (2000) theory, if Michael followed through with his actions as stated in his interview he would reduce the inappropriate behaviours exhibited by his athletes. Despite Michael implementing simple instructions when communicating with the athletes, as Rogers (1995) identifies as being important when managing behaviour, the athletes did not respond. The coach’s emphasis on strategies that had an intrinsic dimension did not prove an effective method for ensuring the athletes were on task or that the desired behaviour was achieved. As identified from the work of Canter (1990), Michael needs to establish limits and expectations with the athletes. Despite this, Michael effectively incorporated the use of non verbal strategies in managing athlete behaviour (Jones, 2000).

8.2.5 Coach – Tim

Tim is the coach of an under 6s AFL team with a total of 18 athletes present at the observed training session. Tim’s team of athletes were training on a football oval area with three other football teams. The club was located on a busy main road and when the training session was observed it was peak hour traffic which meant it was sometimes difficult for the athletes to hear what the coach was saying. There were a few of parents seated on the other side of the fenced area and two parents that
volunteered to help out during the session. During Tim’s interview he indicated that he believed coaching was about building relationships with the athletes, and that he focuses on developing the skills of the athletes to ensure they have the skills to play at the standard that they enjoy the game.

During the coaching session conducted by Tim, of the 14 behaviour management instances observed 50% were deemed to be followed by a positive outcome. The main observed strategy used by this coach was verbal, with only four non verbal and no tangible strategies observed. Table 8.6 provides an overview of the results from the data analysis of the observed instances.

**Table 8.6**

*An Overview of Data Analysed from Tim’s coaching session*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Observational Instance</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>A or C</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Description of Instance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WARM UP</td>
<td>5.06 O</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>Athletes not listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.09 F</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>Telling the athletes the rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>Athletes not obeying the rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.11-5.12 H</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>Telling the athletes the rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>Athlete not following the rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.13 PT</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td>Athletes pushing each other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The warm up phase of the coaching session included six observed behaviour management instances. Of the six instances two were categorised as antecedent strategies, one coded as ‘F’ as it was deemed to be a verbal strategy with an extrinsic dimension followed by a negative outcome (e.g. during a game the athletes were told if they were seen to be cheating they would be sent to the middle of the circle), the other coded as ‘H’ as it was a verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension and was followed by a negative outcome (e.g. whilst playing a game, two athletes collide and the coach tells the athletes they all have to run in the same direction.) Following on from each of the before mentioned antecedent strategies that were followed by a negative outcome, the coach was deemed to use consequent strategies. Specifically, the first instance was coded as ‘S’ as it was a consequent verbal strategy with an
intrinsic dimension followed by a positive outcome (e.g. an athlete was caught cheating after the coach had told them if they cheated they would be sent to the middle, as a consequence the athlete was sent to the middle.) The other consequent strategy which followed an antecedent was coded as ‘T’ as it was a verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension (e.g. following the athletes being told they had to run in the same direction, an athlete was caught running in the wrong direction, the coach told him to go into the circle, and the athlete was not happy so the coach changed his mind and allowed him to remain in the game.) This is an example of not following a behaviour management strategy. According to Jones (2000), it is imperative to remain consistent and follow through when implementing behaviour management strategies. Jones believes that the likelihood of maintaining appropriate behaviour decreases if consistency is not maintained. The coach instructed the athlete to go into the circle because he did the wrong thing, then the coach changed his mind after the athlete got upset. This is potentially sending a message to the athletes that they are in control of the situation and are able to get their own way. This observed action by the coach was despite statements made during the interview that make a strong stand with regards to setting boundaries and the need for following through with behaviour management strategies. This is highlighted in two extracts from the interview with Tim below:

*I think you should have a set of boundaries when managing behaviour so you know this is where we are at and what’s acceptable. You need to be strong and make sure those boundaries don’t get crossed.*
I think [behaviour management is important] especially if it’s a team sport, I think individual sports probably change a bit. Team sport in a sense you have a responsibility that what an individual player does affects everybody, and you have a responsibility as a coach that everybody’s experience is beneficial. Everyone is an individual and responsible for their own actions. I think you have a set of boundaries that you know this is where we are at this is what’s acceptable.

During the body of the coaching session there were six behaviour management instances that were observed. Three of the behaviour management instances where surrounding one specific episode during which one of the athletes disobeyed the coach’s request and kicked the ball after the coach had asked him not to. Consequently, these instances were coded as ‘H’, ‘T’ and ‘Q’ respectively. The initial instance was coded as ‘H’ as it was deemed to be an antecedent verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension (e.g., the instance involved the coach telling the athletes not to kick the balls during the changeover of activities.) This instance was followed by a negative outcome following on from which the coach implemented a consequent strategy. This instance as mentioned was coded as ‘T’ because it was a consequent verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension followed by a negative outcome (e.g. following on from the coach telling the athletes not to kick the balls, one athlete continued to kick the ball and the coach said “no”.) The final instance in this episode was coded as ‘Q’ as it was deemed to be a consequent verbal strategy with an
extrinsic dimension (e.g. as a result of the athlete continuing to kick the ball the coach told him if he did it one more time he would be sitting out.) The technique adopted by the coach in this instance of telling the athletes they would be sitting out, is identified by Rogers (1995) as an effective behaviour management technique and is referred to as ‘isolation’. The other three instances that were observed during the body of the coaching session were all consequent verbal strategies. It should be noted that all of the strategies employed by the coach during this phase were verbal.

During the last phase of the coaching session, the cool down, there were two behaviour management instances observed. Both were coded as ‘O’ as they were both deemed to be consequent non verbal strategies with an intrinsic dimension followed by a positive outcome. The initial instance is an example of what Jones (2000) refers to as physical proximity. To illustrate, the athletes were gathered around listening to the instructions for the final activity of the session. One of the athletes was not listening, so the coach whilst continuing with his verbal instruction, walked towards the athlete and stood beside him. According to Jones, this form of non verbal behaviour indicates to the athlete that they have been noticed and often results in the undesired behaviour ceasing, which in this instance it did.

Throughout the coaching session conducted by Tim, a number of different strategies were employed which had both positive and negative outcomes. During the session there were three instances which had an extrinsic dimension and it is important to
note, that on each occasion the outcome was deemed to be positive. Further, during the warm up phase of the session, of the two scenarios which involved an instance of an antecedent strategy followed by a consequent strategy, the scenario which included the strategy with an extrinsic dimension was followed by a positive outcome, whereas the scenario which included a strategy with an intrinsic dimension was deemed to have a negative outcome. Accordingly, the results from the data analysis of this coaching session have highlighted the effectiveness of strategies with an extrinsic dimension. These results support the implementation of rewarding appropriate behaviour. This extrinsic strategy is highlighted by Skinner (2002) as effective for managing behaviour.

8.2.6 Coach – Peter

Peter is the coach of an under 10s AFL team with a total of 13 athletes present at the observed training session. The observed coaching session was conducted with Peter’s team of athletes on the side of a football oval area with four other football teams located in close proximity. There was one father who volunteered to help out during the initial stage of the training session, however there were no other parents present to observe. There was a strong sense during Peter’s interview that he believed behaviour management was only his responsibility to a certain point. Peter also indicated to him coaching was about having fun with the athletes, and ensuring the training sessions were innovative and engaging for the athletes.
As a result of the observation on the coaching session conducted by Peter, there were a total of 15 behaviour management instances which were observed. It can be seen in Table 8.7 that the majority of these instances were deemed to have a negative outcome and there were only two antecedent strategies implemented in the entire session.

Table 8.7

An Overview of Data Analysed from Peter’s coaching session

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Observational Instance</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>A or C</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Description of Instance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WARM UP</td>
<td>6.02</td>
<td>O</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athletes misbehaving after they were told to settle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athletes fighting in line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.08</td>
<td>S</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athlete kicked the ball into another athlete</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.10-6.13</td>
<td>PT</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Athletes misbehaving in line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Athletes pushing in line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Warning to the athletes to start behaving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Coach reprimands athlete who was sitting out</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The warm up phase of the coaching session commenced with three instances all of which were deemed to be consequent strategies followed by a positive outcome. Of these instances, two were coded as ‘S’ and one was coded as ‘O’. The two instances were coded as ‘S’ due to the verbal strategies used with an intrinsic dimension (e.g. athletes were lining up and started to fight over the ball, the coach went over and calmly told them to share the balls around and the athletes then settled down.) The third instance was coded as ‘O’ as it was a non verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension (e.g. the athletes were running around and the coach blew the whistle and signalled for them to go to him.) The other four instances observed in the warm up of the coaching session were all deemed to be followed by a negative outcome. It is interesting to note, that this is despite three of the four instances having an
extrinsic dimension (e.g. the athletes were pushing in line and the coach told them that if they continue they will have to sit out.) This strategy of disciplining the athletes aligns with Skinner’s (2002) behavioural theory in which punishment should be a consequence of inappropriate behaviour. Another observation made during the warm up phase was the coach’s use of positive gestures toward the athletes. Specifically this refers to the use of both verbal and non verbal positive communication techniques including smiling at the athletes, clapping of the hands and positive feedback such as saying “well done”. This form of behaviour management is identified by Skinner (2002) as using positive reinforcers for appropriate behaviour. This positive approach to communicating with the athletes was also referred to during the interview with Peter. Peter’s comments were: At the junior level everything is fun, there’s not a critical word, it’s important to be encouraging.

During the body of the coaching session, there were a number of behaviour management instances that included two forms of strategies. Specifically, when referring to Table 8.7, all of the observational instances were deemed to include verbal and non verbal strategies except for one, which was coded as ‘T’ as it was a consequent verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension (e.g. an athlete runs straight into another athlete and pushes him over, the coach told him to stop pushing.) All of the observational instances were deemed consequent strategies and only two were followed by a positive outcome. According to Canter (1990), it is imperative when...
managing behaviour to ensure the techniques implemented by the coach are followed through. In this phase of the coaching session, the coach told the athletes the punishment if they continued to push in line, after which they continued to push in line, however the coach did not then follow through with the punishment.

In the cool down of the coaching session there were two instances which were observed. One of which was deemed to be an antecedent verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension (e.g. athletes were instructed to stand against the fence while the coach set up the field for the final game), the second was coded ‘NR’ as it was a consequent verbal and non verbal strategy with an extrinsic dimension (e.g. the athletes were destroying the fence and the coach approached them and blew the whistle and told them to stop.) With reference to the first instance in the cool down, coded as ‘H’, this strategy seems to be a preventative strategy employed by the coach to prevent inappropriate behaviour. Preventative strategies are highlighted by Kounin (1970) as more desirable than reactive strategies for managing learning environments and minimising inappropriate behaviour.

The data analysis conducted following the observation of Peter’s coaching session unearthed a link between strategies implemented with an intrinsic dimension and the outcome of the behaviour management instance. During the coaching session there were a total of 15 observed instances and only five of those had a positive outcome, this means that 66% of the outcomes from the behaviour management
instances observed were negative. Likewise, the figures regarding the strategies implemented with an intrinsic dimension were nine out of a total of 15 observed, this is 60% of the strategies. The data analysis from this coaching observation has highlighted the level of success of strategies with an intrinsic dimension. The results from this coaching session highlight the need to implement a strategy similar to Skinner’s (2002) extrinsic reward system by which the coach can attempt to manage the behaviour of the athletes.

8.2.7 Coach – Paul

Paul is the coach of an under 10s AFL team with a total of 17 athletes training under his supervision. The observed coaching session was conducted with Paul’s team of athletes on a football oval area with three other football teams located in close proximity. There was one volunteer to assist during the training session, and a number of parents seated around the perimeter of the oval, however it was not identified which athletes they were observing. There was a strong sense during Paul’s interview that he believed behaviour management was a big part of his role as a coach. This was reflected through Paul’s statement: Inappropriate behaviour reflects badly on the sport of AFL and impacts on the other kids, the team and the training session as a whole.

As can be seen in Table 8.8, there were three behaviour management instances observed, all of which were deemed to be consequent strategies, which was
significantly less compared with the other coaches. This may be attributed to the
fact that there were limited organised drills and activities that the athletes were
instructed to do by the coach. As a consequence the athletes were not required to
listen to the coach as often as in other observations, nor were they actually required
to follow set tasks.

**Table 8.8**

*An Overview of Data Analysed from Paul’s coaching session*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Observational Instance</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>A or C</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Description of Instance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WARM UP</td>
<td>7.03</td>
<td>OS</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athletes not listening to the coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BODY</td>
<td>7.12</td>
<td>Q</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Athlete doing the wrong thing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.27-7.28</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Athlete saying he didn’t get tagged and argued with coach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COOL DOWN</td>
<td>No cool down – coach finished session early due to disruptive behaviour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the warm up phase of the coaching session one instance was observed.
Specifically this instance was coded as ‘OS’ as it was deemed to be a consequent non
verbal and verbal strategy with an intrinsic dimension, this instance was followed by
a positive outcome (e.g. the athletes were playing with the balls when they were required to listen to him, as a result the coach asked the athletes to listen and he put the balls to the side where the athletes couldn’t access them.) Following on from this instance the athletes were doing an independent warm up by kicking the balls around. The coach was setting up for the following activity and there were no behaviour management instances observed during the warm up.

During the body of the coaching session there were two behaviour management instances observed. Both of the instances were deemed to be consequent verbal strategies, with one coded ‘Q’ as it had an extrinsic dimension followed by a positive outcome (e.g. the athlete was told he dropped the ball and there for had to sit out), the other was coded ‘T’ as it had an intrinsic dimension with a negative outcome (e.g. the athlete drops the ball and is told to sit out as a rule of the game but the athlete argues and says it wasn’t him, the coach tells him to sit out, then ignores the athlete.) Despite there being only three observed behaviour instances, during the coaching session it was observed that the coach appeared to be negative in his communication toward the athletes (e.g. ridiculing the athletes and saying negative comments about the athletes to the other volunteers and the researcher.) Canter’s (1990) behavioural theory highlights the use of reinforcers such as a smile and positive affirmations as effective techniques for building respect and a positive learning environment which in turn results in a decrease in inappropriate
behaviours. This behaviour management strategy of Canter was not observed during the observation of Paul’s coaching session.

During the final part of the coaching session the coach appeared to be consistent in following through with the rules of the game. Specifically, if the athlete dropped the ball the observed rule implemented by the coach was that they were required to sit out. There were however observed instances where the coach allowed some athletes to remain in the game. This approach taken by the coach is not aligned with Canter’s (1990) behavioural theory. Canter believes it is important to be consistent and follow through when managing the learning environment. It can be inferred from this, that the game deteriorated and the coach had to end the coaching session early due to disruptive behaviour with the coach losing control of the situation. This occurred despite Paul stating in his interview that the athletes need to realise the consequences of their actions. The following extract from the interview highlights this belief:

> Getting kids to realise their actions do have implications, it’s not just about them. I’d pull them aside, not in a negative way, but in a teaching way. Even at this age I think they need to start learning. There’s a fine line though, cause you’re not their parent. But certainly in a team environment like that, I don’t see any reason you can’t pull a child aside and say, your behaviour right now is impacting on the other guys here at training. I think it’s quite okay to do that if it’s in the right way.
Throughout the coaching session the coach appeared to take a very relaxed and casual approach to the management of the athletes. According to Pyke (2001), the approach used by what is labelled the ‘casual coach’ is relaxed and passive, and this coach is detached from any involvement and fails to commit to the athletes. Pyke also identifies this type of coach as inadequately prepared or organised and this is evident in coach Paul, as he sets the athletes independent drills and activities while setting up for the following activity. Despite the apparent positive outcomes observed when the coach implemented behaviour management strategies, there was limited occasions during which the coach took action when an inappropriate behaviour was displayed by an athlete. It can be implied that as a result of the limited organised training activities the athletes were not engaged in the training session and therefore inappropriate behaviours were exhibited by the athletes. The coach employed minimal behaviour management strategies and the coaching session finished early, resulting in the athletes being involved in only ‘part’ of a training session.

8.3 Summary of coaching observations

The implementation of the Communicative Action Coaching Tool as a means of analysing the data, enabled the researcher to track and categorise the observed behaviour management instances and develop a picture of each of the coaching sessions. This in turn allowed for the different strategies implemented by the
coaches to be linked with positive and negative outcomes within the coaching scenarios. As a result the tool has assisted in highlighting the effectiveness of the varying strategies and in some instances unearthed a pattern of behaviour management techniques. The following section provides an overview of the commonalities between the seven beginning coaches within the different phases of the coaching sessions.

8.4 Commonalities between Coaching Sessions

This section looks at the commonalities that exist between the coaching behaviour management instances during each of the three phases of a coaching session, warm up, body of session, and cool down. For this purpose this section will be organised in a sequence utilising the following headings: Behaviour management commonalities in the warm up; Behaviour management commonalities in the body of the session; and, Behaviour management commonalities in the cool down.

8.4.1 Behaviour management commonalities in the warm up

The introduction, or warm up phase is the most important phase for establishing expectations (Canter, 1990). During this phase, Canter identifies the importance of setting limits when managing behaviour. Part of this process includes setting the expectations to ensure the athletes know what is expected of them. These are known as preventative strategies and according to Kounin (1970) are an integral part of managing behaviours as opposed to reactive strategies, which are strategies
employed as a reaction to a situation. Accordingly, during the warm up phase of the coaching session the presence of antecedent strategies is seen as implementing preventative strategies, which aligns with these theories. Theorists including Jones (2000) and Canter (1976) highlight the importance of implementing major preventative strategies including the establishment of rules and expectations. Despite this, of the 28 instances which were observed in the warm up phase of the coaching sessions, only seven of these were antecedent strategies, with 21 observed as being consequent strategies. Table 8.9 provides an overview of the instances observed during the warm up phase and highlights the strategies implemented by the coaches to address behaviour management instances. It can be noted that there is a heavy emphasis on reactive strategies, as opposed to preventative strategies.

Table 8.9
*Observed Instances during the Warm Up*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instances</th>
<th>28 Behaviour Management Instances Observed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antecedent/Consequent</td>
<td>7 Antecedent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21 Consequent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive/Negative</td>
<td>13 positive outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15 negative outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal/Non Verbal</td>
<td>20 verbal strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 non verbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 verbal and non verbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic/Intrinsic</td>
<td>10 extrinsic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18 intrinsic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen from Table 8.9, during this phase there was an even distribution of both positive and negative outcomes. 13 of the instances where followed with a positive outcome and 15 were followed with a negative outcome. The majority of the strategies were implemented via the use of verbal communication with only eight non verbal strategies observed, four of which were a mixture of verbal and non verbal. Further to this, of the 28 observed instances, only seven were antecedent strategies. When linking the antecedent strategies suggested by Canter (1976), with the data in the current study, it can be assumed that the absence of antecedent strategies (e.g., Canter’s establishment of expectations) has resulted in a high occurrence of observed instances deemed to have a negative outcome.

Another commonality identified from the data analysis of the warm up phase was the coaches’ use of strategies with an intrinsic dimension. An example of an intrinsic motivator is where the athlete experiences feelings of satisfaction, personal accomplishment and excitement when being involved in or completing a specific task. On the other hand, theorists including Skinner (2002) recognised the importance of extrinsic motivation. For this purpose, extrinsic motivation refers to praise, feedback and/or reward when seeking to change inappropriate or encourage appropriate behaviour (Skinner, 2002). Extrinsic motivation can be implemented as part of antecedent or consequent strategies. Table 8.10 provides examples of these
and emphasises the different approaches to communicating through adopting different behaviour management strategies.

Table 8.10

*Examples of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Dimensions used in different behaviour management strategies*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic Dimension</th>
<th>Antecedent Strategy</th>
<th>Consequent Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Everyone come to me and sit down please.</td>
<td>Please stop talking while I am giving the instructions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrinsic Dimension</th>
<th>Antecedent Strategy</th>
<th>Consequent Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Everyone come to me and sit down please or you will miss out on the next activity.</td>
<td>If you don't stop talking while I am giving the instructions you will have to run around the oval.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data analysis highlighted the emphasis on strategies with an intrinsic dimension employed by beginning coaches. Out of the 28 instances observed in the warm up phase of the coaching sessions, 18 were strategies that had an intrinsic dimension and ten had an extrinsic dimension. The management technique of including antecedent strategies with extrinsic dimensions is supported by the theorists such as (Kounin, 1970 ; Skinner, 2002) and can be identified as a type of preventative strategy.
The data analysis conducted on the warm up phase of the coaching session has highlighted the importance of antecedent strategies with an extrinsic dimension as a method of establishing expected behaviours throughout the coaching sessions. This analysis has also identified the extent to which these beginning coaches rely on verbal communication strategies despite evidence from researchers (Jones, 2000; Rogers, 1995) indicating the importance of non-verbal strategies in managing behaviour.

8.4.2 Behaviour management commonalities in the body

According to Martens (2004), the body of the coaching session is where the majority of the instruction and coaching occurs. As a result, the athletes are required to listen to and follow the instruction provided by the coach. This is often the phase during which the most disruptions occur, especially if the athletes are not engaged and motivated (Martens, 2004). Accordingly, there were more behaviour management instances observed in the body compared to the warm up phase of the coaching sessions. There were a total of 43 behaviour management instances observed and Table 8.11 provides an overview of the classification of the instances.
Table 8.11

*Observed Instances during the Body*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instances</th>
<th>43 Behaviour Management Instances Observed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Antecedent/Consequent</td>
<td>5 Antecedent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38 Consequent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive/Negative</td>
<td>21 positive outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22 negative outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal/Non Verbal</td>
<td>32 verbal strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10 verbal and non verbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 non verbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic/Intrinsic</td>
<td>15 extrinsic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28 intrinsic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 43 observed behaviour management instances, there was an even distribution of outcomes, with 21 positive outcomes and 22 negative outcomes. The majority of the strategies used by the coaches during this phase were again verbal strategies, with 32 of the strategies being verbal. This is despite behavioural theorists (Canter, 1990; Jones, 2000; Rogers, 1995; Skinner, 2002) emphasising the importance of non verbal communication as a means of managing behaviour. In particular, the use of non verbal communication is identified as an effective method of halting misbehaviour and avoiding verbal reprimand. It can be inferred from the
results that due to the beginning status of the coaches in this study, the communication skills are not yet developed to the level at which a range of communication strategies, including non verbal, were implemented as a means of managing behaviour.

Similar to the observational instances during the warm up phase, the percentage of instances during which the coaches used strategies with an intrinsic as opposed to extrinsic dimension was notable, with only 34% of the instances having an extrinsic dimension. Beswick (1971) believes that individuals need the time and freedom to make choices, to gather and process information, and to have an appreciation of, in the coaching scenario, a correct method of going about a skill or task. Extrinsic motivators have been identified as focusing the individual’s attention more narrowly and to shorten time perspectives (Deci & Ryan, 1985) which may prove advantageous when coaching junior athletes as it may enable them to develop the skills which in turn enable them to become better players. Vallerand and Losier (1999) highlighted that once the skills have been developed, a shift toward strategies that have an intrinsic dimension would prove to be effective as the athletes can experience the internal satisfaction that comes with being a competent athlete.

To summarise, the number of behaviour management instances which were observed during the body of the coaching sessions were much greater than observed in the warm up phases of the coaching sessions. This marked increase is assumed to
be due to the instructional nature that encompasses the body of a coaching session. Despite a heavy emphasis on consequent verbal strategies, there was an even mix of positive and negative outcomes observed.

8.4.3 Behaviour management commonalities in the cool down

The main commonality that was evident during the cool down phase of the coaching session was the lack of observed behaviour management instances that occurred. In comparison to 28 and 43 instances that occurred respectively during the warm up and body of the coaching sessions, there were only 11 behaviour management instances during the cool down phase of the coaching sessions. It is inferred that the reason for the low number of instances in the cool down phase in relation to the other coaching phases is that in all of the observed coaching sessions this was the shortest in duration. Most of the observed training sessions contained minimal instruction, with most of the coaches incorporating a fun concluding game for the athletes. The quantity of instances that occurred during the cool down was only 15% of the total number of instances in all three of the coaching phases. The observed instances during this phase are outlined in Table 8.12.
Table 8.12

*Observed Instances during the Cool Down*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instances</th>
<th>11 Behaviour Management Instances Observed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Antecedent/Consequent</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antecedent</td>
<td>2 Antecedent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consequent</td>
<td>9 Consequent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive/Negative</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive outcomes</td>
<td>4 positive outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative outcomes</td>
<td>7 negative outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Verbal/Non Verbal</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal strategies</td>
<td>7 verbal strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verbal and non verbal</td>
<td>1 verbal and non verbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non verbal</td>
<td>3 non verbal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic/Intrinsic</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic</td>
<td>3 extrinsic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic</td>
<td>8 intrinsic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nine of the 11 instances were consequent strategies as opposed to antecedent strategies. This comes as no surprise as behaviour management theorists (Canter, 1990; Kounin, 1970) have highlighted the importance of establishing expectations and implementing preventative as opposed to reactive strategies. Consequently, the athletes are aware of the rules during the earlier phases of the coaching sessions and consequent strategies are employed to enforce them. There was a high proportion of negative outcomes from the implementation of the behaviour management strategies in the cool down phase, with only four positive outcomes from a total of
11. Unlike in the other phases of the coaching session which had a relatively even distribution of positive and negative outcomes, only 36% were positive during the cool down.

The final commonality that exists between the coaches during the cool down phase was the explicit number of observational instances which were verbal strategies with an intrinsic dimension. It should be highlighted that this high occurrence of verbal strategies with an intrinsic dimension is a common occurrence across all phases of the observed training sessions. As mentioned earlier, the high occurrence of verbal strategies with an intrinsic dimension may be attributed to the beginning status of the coaches in this study. Specifically, as these coaches have limited experience in the field of coaching their communication skills may not be advanced enough to include a range of strategies such as non verbal and strategies that have an extrinsic dimension.

To summarise, the occurrence of behaviour management instances observed during the cool down phase of the coaching sessions was markedly less than instances observed during the other two phases. As mentioned earlier, this may be as a result of the coaches incorporating a game as a fun concluding activity in the training session, and that this phase was generally the shortest phase in the training sessions. The data collected from these observations identified that the emphasis on
consequent verbal strategies with an intrinsic dimension was a commonality amongst the beginning coaches.

8.5 Chapter Summary

The data collected and analysed as a result of the observations highlighted the emphasis placed on specific behaviour management strategies. It was found that beginning coaches placed an emphasis on the use of consequent strategies as a reactive method of behaviour management in coaching settings. The data collected from the beginning coaches observations also highlight that many of the observed instances deemed to result in a negative outcome. Likewise, it was observed that the beginning coaches applied verbal strategies with an intrinsic dimension more frequently than any other method of behaviour management with the majority of the time leading to a negative outcome. This goes against strategies including the use of effective body language highlighted by Jones (2000), and Skinner’s (2002) extrinsically rewarding for good behaviour as effective methods of halting inappropriate behaviour.

The inadequacies of beginning coaches when managing athlete behaviour have been identified from the observation data. Behaviour management strategies were implemented by coaches as a reaction to inappropriate behaviours after they were displayed by the athletes. According to behaviour management theories these are referred to as consequent strategies (Jones, 2000). Many theorists believe that both
antecedent and consequent strategies should be included in behaviour
management, and that antecedent strategies are important for structuring the
environment to prevent problems from occurring (Skinner, 2002; Jones, 2000;
Rogers, 1995). It is also evident that beginning coaches place a heavy emphasis on
verbal forms of communication when managing athlete behaviour. According to
Jones (2000), 75% of communication is body language. Consequently, Jones believes
the use of body language is an effective technique for managing the behaviour of
athletes by halting undesirable behaviour and avoiding verbal reprimand.

The following chapter assigns further meaning to the results by emphasising the
need for explicit behaviour management strategies to be implemented in beginning
coaching practices. Relevant links between the research questions/aims and the
research data are identified and discussed, and specifics about how this research
contributes to the body of knowledge about coaching practice is presented.
9. CHAPTER NINE: CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

This thesis explored the perceptions and applications of behaviour management strategies used by beginning AFL coaches. Findings indicate the need for explicit behaviour management strategies to be implemented by beginning sports coaches. A Communicative Action Coaching Tool, was developed as a method to evaluate the effectiveness of the behaviour management practices used by beginning junior AFL coaches. This chapter reviews and presents recommendations about how coaches should be trained to deal with behaviour management issues. Finally, limitations of this research are discussed, the contributions that this research has made to knowledge is outlined, and finally recommendations for future research are signalled.

9.2 Overview of the research aims

This research set out to explore the perceptions and applications of behaviour management strategies used by beginning AFL coaches. The guiding research question was: To determine if beginning coaches see behaviour management as part of their role as a coach. Within this broad parameter the specific research aims were:

a) Investigate whether beginning coaches implement behaviour management in their coaching practice;
b) Develop a methodological tool that allows beginning coaches to identify techniques to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive coaching environments; and

c) Formulate recommendations to allow beginning coaches to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive environments.

9.3 Review of the research aims

The general purpose of this research was to determine if beginning coaches see behaviour management as part of their role as a coach. Therefore, understanding the perceptions of beginning coaches was the key component of this study. The use of questionnaires and interviews provided information regarding beginning coaches’ perceptions of their role as a coach and whether they believe it is their role to manage athlete behaviour. As stated in Chapter Two, research conducted in the field of coaching has neglected to evaluate the role of the beginning coach or the behaviour management techniques exhibited by the beginning coach. The objective of this research was to fill this void in the literature.

The data collected from the questionnaire indicated that the majority coaches perceived behaviour management to be the responsibility of the coach. 84% of the questionnaire respondents indicated athlete behaviour management was their responsibility. Specific responses ranged from ensuring the athletes respect the coach through to training the athlete both physically and mentally.
The responses from the interviews provided similar results. All of the participants involved in the interview and observation process perceived behaviour management as a key role of the coach. All of the coaches identified managing athlete behaviour as their role, and two of the coaches stated that it was the responsibility of the coach, to a limited degree. These coaches indicated that the parents are also required to play a part controlling their child’s behaviour. The following extracts are some examples of questionnaire responses from the participants that respond to the above research question that beginning coaches do see behaviour management as part of their role as a coach. (N.B. the question stated in the questionnaire: Do you think athlete behaviour control is the responsibility of the coach?)

Yes – to make the kids behave and respect each other (Coach 2)

Yes – to a certain degree but a player is also an individual also and makes their own decisions (Coach 9)

Yes – you are responsible for the development of that person so you advise that person of their responsibility (Coach 10)

Yes hugely – discipline is part of being a complete sportsman regardless of the sport – poor discipline is like a cancer (Coach 13)

Yes – behaviour good or bad can be infectious therefore it is important for the coach to control and manage it well (Coach 16)

Yes – if you can’t control the athlete how are you meant to coach them? (Coach 22)
Yes – the coach doesn’t just teach skill they must also mentally train the athlete (Coach 28)

The following interview extracts from the participants also respond to the above research question that beginning coaches do see behaviour management as part of their role as a coach:

Yes, I think a coach these days isn’t just to coach sport. I think maybe as they get older they have a responsibility to look at the behaviours of the children. I think it reflects badly on the sport. I think it’s up to me. I think there is no harm in pulling the kid aside and explaining to him that his behaviour maybe impacts on the other kids, impacting on the team, impacting on the training session. Getting kids to realise their actions do have implications, it’s not just about them. I’d pull them aside, not in a negative way, but in a teaching way. Even at this age I think they need to start learning. There’s a fine line though, cause you’re not their parent. But certainly in a team environment like that, I don’t see any reason you can’t pull a child aside and say, your behaviour right now is impacting on the other guys here at training. I think it’s quite okay to do that if it’s in the right way. (Paul)

Yes, it’s like you’re the parent, you’re taking over the role of the parent, teaching that child in that field. It’s like it’s the coach’s fault, no it’s not
it’s the parent fault. The coach doesn’t walk away from the kids when he does something wrong. He pulls them aside and says look – you’ve done this wrong. It’s open slather for professional athletes, if they only do one mistake it’s front page news. I think it’s also important that you practise what you preach though, you can’t just tell them one thing and do another, you have to be a role model for the kids, because I think they look up to you. (Mike)

It’s [behaviour management] my responsibility. Cause if you don’t control them then everyone will muck around. If you show them that this is the right way to behave the other team mates will follow. (Ben)

Some of the most significant research in youth sport to date has focused on the approach of youth coaches when interacting with athletes (Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1979). Specifically this research identified that the feedback and behaviour exhibited by coaches has a significant effect on athlete satisfaction. It is for this reason that it is important that coaches implement a positive approach to managing athlete behaviour.
9.3.1 Research Aim: Investigate whether beginning coaches implement behaviour management in their coaching practice.

The findings from this research identified that beginning coaches incorporate limited behaviour management strategies in their coaching practice. Specific behaviour strategies included: the establishment of rules and boundaries (Jones, 2000); removing and discussing the problem privately with the athlete (Rogers, 1995); and removing or isolating the athlete (Rogers, 1995).

The responses from the questionnaires, interviews and the observations indicated that beginning coaches use a range of both antecedent and consequent strategies as techniques for managing athlete behaviour. Specific antecedent strategies identified in the responses include the establishment of rules and boundaries, and consequent strategies include discussing the problem with the athlete and removing the athlete from the group. Despite the coaches stating they use a range of antecedent strategies in their coaching practice, the data collected in this study suggests that the coaches place a significantly higher emphasis on the use of consequent strategies and neglect to implement antecedent strategies in their practice. A total of 82 observed behaviour instances during the field observations, only 14 were deemed as being antecedent strategies, as opposed to 68 consequent strategies. Links have been made between research conducted by behavioural theorists regarding the inclusion of antecedent strategies (Canter & Canter, 1976) and the practice of the beginning coaches in this study. The links imply that the absence of antecedent
strategies (e.g., Canter’s establishment of expectations) have resulted in a high occurrence of observed instances deemed to have a negative outcome. For this purpose, beginning coaches need to place more emphasis on the establishment of rules and expectations in order to reduce inappropriate behaviour displayed by their athletes (for example as indicated in the interview by Tim).

Further findings highlight beginning coaches over-reliance on verbal behaviour management strategies. According to a number of behavioural theorists (Canter, 1990; Jones, 2000; Rogers, 1995; Skinner, 2002), the implementation of non verbal communication is an effective means of managing behaviour. In particular, the use of non verbal communication is identified as an effective method of halting inappropriate and avoiding verbal reprimand. Despite this, the findings of this research indicate that beginning coaches place a heavy emphasis on verbal strategies as a technique for managing inappropriate behaviour (as indentified during Tim and David’s coaching sessions.) From a total of 82 observed behaviour instances during all phases of the coaching sessions, 59 were verbal strategies, with only 8 non-verbal and 15 strategies of combined verbal and non-verbal. It can be inferred from the findings that due to the beginner status of the coaches in this study, the communication skills are not yet developed to the level at which a range of communication strategies, including non verbal were implemented as a means of managing behaviour.
The data suggest that beginning coaches incorporate more behaviour management strategies into their practice that are intrinsic in nature as opposed to extrinsic (as indentified during Peter and Paul’s coaching sessions). Intrinsic motivation was employed by all beginning coaches through all phases of the coaching sessions during the field observations. From the data of the observed behaviour instances, there were 49 management strategies deemed to be intrinsic in nature, as opposed to 33 deemed extrinsic in nature. Despite this, extrinsic motivation is commonly used for conditioning human behaviour and is seen as an effective strategy for managing athlete behaviour. Rewards and verbal reinforcers can be used initially to establish behaviour expectations. This is identified as a particularly effective strategy beginning coaches when establishing leadership roles and building of rapport with athletes. That does not mean beginning coaches should over-use extrinsic conditioning, but should embed it more as a strategy for managing athlete behaviour. This is supported by Skinner (2002) as he highlights the importance of extrinsic motivation as an effective behaviour management technique. This means providing athletes with praise, feedback and/or reward when seeking to change inappropriate behaviour or to encourage appropriate behaviour.

In summary, the findings indicate a significant number of behaviour management strategies implemented by beginning AFL coaches are verbal consequent strategies that are intrinsic in nature. For example during all phases of the training sessions there was: 59 verbal versus 7 non verbal; 68 consequent versus 14 antecedent; and,
54 intrinsic versus 14 extrinsic. Behavioural theorists (Canter, 1990; Jones, 2000; Rogers, 1995; Skinner, 2002) indicate a range of strategies are required for effective behaviour management including verbal and non-verbal, intrinsic and extrinsic, and antecedent and consequent. Results from this research highlight that beginning coaching practices do not include a range of behaviour management strategies, with 90% of the strategies verbal, 75% of the strategies intrinsic, and 80% of the strategies consequent. To ensure beginning coaches can provide a positive environment for their athletes in which effective behaviour management is conducted, coaches need to incorporate additional strategies.

9.3.2 Research Aim: Develop a methodological tool that allows beginning coaches to identify techniques to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive coaching environments.

This research designed a tool to enable coaches to reflect on their practice. Numerous behaviour theories (Canter, 1990; Glasser, 1998; Jones, 2000; Maslow, 1970; Rogers, 1995; Skinner, 2002) were employed to assist in the design and development of the tool. The main objective of the tool was to allow beginning coaches to evaluate their own coaching practice and to identify techniques to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive coaching environments.

The Communicative Action Coaching Tool (Figure 9.1) enables coaches to identify techniques to improve behaviour management strategies and assist in creating
positive coaching environments. Initially the tool was designed as a method of analysing coaching data collected through field observations. As a result of the tool’s ability to successfully evaluate the effectiveness of beginning coach’s behaviour management strategies, it is seen as a tool that can be employed by sports coaches and sport educators to evaluate the effectiveness of their athlete behaviour management strategies.

*Figure 9.1. Communicative Action Coaching Tool.*

Behaviour management literature (Canter, 1990; Glasser, 1998; Jones, 2000; Maslow, 1970; Rogers, 1995; Skinner, 2002) informed the development of this tool. Despite these behavioural theories being designed for classroom settings, specific strategies were identified as transferable into the coaching setting.
A coding table was designed to compliment the *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* by providing a framework for analysis (see Table 9.1). The coding table allowed behaviour instances to be identified according to the strategies, dimensions and outcome/s of the behaviour management instance. Each instance is classified as to whether it is antecedent or consequent, verbal, non verbal or tangible, and intrinsic or extrinsic. Following on from the coding of the different types of strategies, the outcome/s of the behaviour management instance is identified. This involves determining whether the coach achieved a positive or negative outcome, that is, whether the desired coaching behaviour is achieved or not achieved. Once the behaviour instance is tracked, a final code is allocated.
### Table 9.1

**Key of Communication Outcomes and Types**

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<td>CA – coach’s controlling action</td>
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<td>CD – context driven</td>
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<td>CS – consequent strategy</td>
<td>AF – athlete follows</td>
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<td>AS – antecedent strategy</td>
<td>AD – athlete disobeys</td>
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<td>NV – non-verbal</td>
<td>DBA – desired behaviour achieved</td>
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Within a coaching setting, as shown in Figure 9.1, there are three dominant communication types: non-verbal, verbal and tangible. Communication that involves sending and receiving wordless messages is known as non-verbal communication. Non-verbal communication can be communicated through body language, facial expression and eye contact. Alternatively, verbal communication is evident when a person communicates via the use of language. Various behavioural theories highlight verbal communication as an effective strategy for managing behaviour. For example: establishing rules, rights and responsibilities (Tutko & Richards, 1971); assertive discipline response styles (Canter, 1990); and, enforcing rules once established (Jones, 1997). Tangible communication centres on concrete forms of reward or punishment (Skinner, 2002). Tangible communication is implemented when a coach rewards an athlete in the form of a trophy or concrete incentive as technique for minimising undesirable behaviours.
Communication types can be identified as antecedent (A) or as a consequent (C) strategies when used by coaches in a coaching setting. An antecedent strategy is a goal-driven strategy employed by a coach. Specifically an antecedent strategy is when the coach applies a specific tactic prior to the behaviour being displayed by an athlete. The objective of this strategy is to structure the environment and provide the athletes with boundaries to prevent problems for occurring. When the coach has a goal to achieve specific behaviour or objective they can employ an antecedent strategy. This ensures the athlete is aware of the coach’s expectation. By implementing antecedent strategies coaches can structure the environment to prevent behavioural problems from occurring. Implementation of these strategies can facilitate a structured and orderly environment.

Consequent strategies refer to the use of penalties or rewards following a specific behaviour by the athlete. This implies that consequent strategies may be context-driven, which means when a specific context arises in which an inappropriate behaviour is displayed, the coach administers either a reward or a penalty as a consequence. This behaviour management technique can be effective in facilitating positive changes in behaviour in athletes.

Rewards may be administered as a consequent strategy following on from certain behaviour. Rewards can also be used as antecedent strategies by making the recipient aware of the possibility of receiving the reward if the desired action or
behaviour is displayed. Rewards are used with the intent to encourage the behaviour to occur in the instance of an antecedent, or for the behaviour to be repeated when used as a consequent strategy. This can be accomplished by associating positive meaning to the behaviour. Skinner (2002) believes that if the reward is presented immediately to a person, the effect of the strategy would be greater and decreases the longer the delay. The administering rewards can also be used as a method of conditioning so the behaviour or action becomes habitual. Repetition through the use of such action-reward combinations often results in the behaviour being displayed by the athlete automatically without prompting. To illustrate, an athlete would be provided with the opportunity to participate in a game if they adhered to the behavioural expectations. As a result, over time, the athlete is conditioned to behave as per the expectations.

Different forms of communication can be categorised as extrinsic (E) or intrinsic (I) (Tenenbaum & Eklund, 2007). Extrinsic strategies can be administered by a coach and are recognised as motivators that are external to an athlete. Examples of external motivators include praise, feedback or trophies. Alternatively, intrinsic methods are internal to the athlete and include feelings of acceptance, achievement and approval. Defined as actions that people take without external motivators, there are two identified forms of intrinsic motivation: firstly whether the person experiences enjoyment from undertaking the behaviour; and secondly an obligation to display the action or behaviour (Malone & Lepper, 1987). Social psychologists
(Deci & Ryan, 1985; Higgins et al., 1986) have concluded that intrinsic motivation is associated with the level of success and satisfaction experienced by an individual. An athlete might experience intrinsic motivation through meeting specific goals they have set for themselves such as achieving personal best times.

The *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* (Figure 9.1) was designed by the researcher to facilitate the tracking of behaviour management observational instances according to the strategies and dimensions employed and according to the outcomes achieved in specific coaching scenarios. Consequently, the tool was used in this study for data analysis purposes. The tool can be used as a method of reflecting on coaching practices and behaviour management strategies, and to identify techniques for improving these strategies. The tool allows sport coaches to identify what type of strategies to employ and at what stage in the training session to employ them. Moreover it is designed to enable a picture to be painted of the behaviour management strategies adopted by the coach, and the effectiveness of those strategies to be identified.

**9.3.3 Research Aim 3: Formulate recommendations to allow beginning coaches to improve behaviour management strategies and create supportive environments.** Throughout this thesis, behaviour management strategies from a number of behaviour theorists have been highlighted and their effectiveness analysed and discussed. The literature and the data collected, has been integrated to enable the
researcher to develop behaviour management recommendations for coaching. These are outlined in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2

**Recommended behaviour management strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Theorist</th>
<th>Classification of recommendation</th>
<th>Detail</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1</td>
<td>Canter</td>
<td>Antecedent</td>
<td>Set limits:</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Intrinsic/Extrinsic</td>
<td>- clearly explain expected behaviour</td>
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<td>Verbal</td>
<td>- clearly explain behaviour not tolerated</td>
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<td>- clearly explain consequences</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Jones</td>
<td>Antecedent</td>
<td>Establish rules at the beginning of the coaching session</td>
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<td>Intrinsic/Extrinsic</td>
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<td>Verbal</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Rogers</td>
<td>Antecedent /Consequent</td>
<td>Use rule reminders during the session</td>
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<td>Extrinsic</td>
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<td>Verbal</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Jones</td>
<td>Consequent</td>
<td>- Follow through with expectations</td>
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<td>Extrinsic</td>
<td>- Consistency</td>
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<td>Verbal</td>
<td>- Enforce rules once established</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Rogers</td>
<td>Antecedent</td>
<td>Be prepared - plan how to approach inappropriate behaviour</td>
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| 13 | Maslow | Antecedent | Kind and respectful environment – meets nurturing needs  
Intrinsic  
Non-verbal/Verbal  
If shown nurturing they will show caring behaviours towards others |

The degree to which beginning AFL coaches currently implement antecedent strategies into their practice is limited, hence the reason behind the first two recommended strategies (Table 9.2). The first two strategies are setting limits for the athletes and establishing rules (Canter, 1990 & Jones, 2000). Both of these strategies are antecedent, verbal and, depending on the method of delivery, may have an intrinsic or extrinsic dimension. It is recommended that these two strategies are incorporated by beginning coaches during the warm up phase of the coaching session with the view to minimising inappropriate behaviour by the athletes. These strategies should also be incorporated by beginning coaches throughout the coaching session during the commencement of a different activity or training exercise.

It is also recommended that the first two strategies are incorporated throughout the coaching session, with a heavy emphasis on the establishment of rules and expectations during the warm up phase. Unlike the first two strategies, which could be emphasized in a specific phase of the coaching session, it is recommended that the following strategies are included as general practice by the beginning coach throughout all phases. Strategy 3, which is incorporating rule reminders, (Table 9.2)
can be implemented as an antecedent or consequent strategy. Once the rules and expectations have been established, as per the first two strategies, it is recommended that beginning coaches employ Rogers’ (1995) ‘rule reminders’ strategy. When providing the athletes with rule reminders throughout the coaching session it refocuses the athletes by revisiting the expectations. Although coaches are told of the importance of rule reminders in the coaching accreditation courses, of the observed coaching instances there were minimal observed examples in which the coach provided rule reminders to the athletes (for example during Peter’s coaching session the athletes were behaving inappropriately while lining up - the coach provided a rule reminder of how they were to wait in line or miss a turn). In many cases, the inappropriate behaviour of the athlete escalated and was deemed to result in a negative outcome. It is recommended that beginning coaches provide rule reminders as a strategy to prevent inappropriate behaviours from escalating, and as a method for managing athlete behaviour.

Strategy 4 (Table 9.2), identified through the work of Jones (2000), includes following through with expectations, being consistent and enforcing the rules once established. This can be used as either an antecedent or consequent strategy and is seen as particularly important for beginning coaches as they establish their expectations of the athletes. If the rules and expectations are established and the coach neglects to follow through with the stated consequences, or they are not consistent when managing athlete behaviour, the likelihood of athletes failing to
follow direction from the coach may increase. This lack of consistency was noted on numerous occasions during the data collection process and in many observed instances resulted in the coach losing total control of the athletes and the coaching environment.

The first four recommendations for beginning coaches surround rules, expectations and consequences, providing the athletes with reminders, and ensuring the coach follows through and remains consistent. Despite the importance of these strategies, for effective behaviour management to occur they need to be combined with recommended Strategy 5 (Table 9.2), planning how to approach inappropriate behaviours. This strategy can be associated with the work of Rogers (1995), in that it is essential beginning coaches prepare for the inappropriate behaviour prior to an instance arising. This antecedent strategy is not only important for remaining in control of the situation, but it is also important to state the consequences of inappropriate behaviour to the athletes when establishing the boundaries and expectations.

Recommended Strategy 6 (Table 9.2), the use of reinforcers such as smiling and clapping in recognition, was recognised by Skinner (2002) as an effective method of managing athlete behaviour. Implemented either verbally or non-verbally, this tactic is an extrinsic motivator and involves the coach communicating to the athlete in a positive manner. This can be achieved through a number of techniques including the
use of simple words of encouragement, gestures such as clapping, patting the athlete on the back and giving a ‘thumbs up’ if the athlete exhibits the desired behaviour, and facial expressions such as smiling and winking if the athlete uses correct technique. Skinner’s management strategy is recommended for beginning coaches as it takes little effort and provides the athlete with positive reinforcement which is, in turn, a tactic for managing athlete behaviour. It was noted that of the observed instances during which the beginning coaches included this strategy, the athletes responded in a positive manner and there were no immediate instances of inappropriate behaviour observed.

Unlike recommended Strategy 6 which is an antecedent, Strategy 7 suggests (Table 9.2) the use of effective body language, which is a consequent strategy. Identified by Jones (2000), the non-verbal strategy of using effective body language is an appropriate method for beginning coaches for halting the misbehaviour of athletes and reducing verbal confrontation. Effective body language may include pausing when providing instruction to gain the athletes attention, for example, if they are not listening, the coach may adopt an assertive posture to send a message to the athlete that their behaviour will not be tolerated. Further, if the athlete is displaying inappropriate behaviour, the coach may use the tactic of physical proximity to the athlete. Other uses of effective body language that may be used by a coach to manage athlete behaviour include eye contact with an athlete and facial expressions such as frowning. It was noted during the field observations that the beginning
coaches seldom incorporated the use of non-verbal strategies such as effective body language, instead placing a heavy emphasis on verbal strategies. This strategy is effective for minimizing verbal confrontations as the athlete is alerted of their inappropriate actions before they escalate and the coach has to verbally address the issue (Jones, 2000).

Recommended Strategy 8 (Table 9.2) suggests the use of assertive statements for controlling athlete behaviour, and is based on the work of Rogers (1995). Rogers highlighted the importance of using assertive statements for managing athlete behaviour. This strategy is verbal and extrinsic in nature and is essential for beginning coaches to adopt as it sends a strong message to athletes that are displaying inappropriate behaviour and that the behaviour will not be tolerated. An example of this in the coaching context is if the athlete is pushing other athletes and displaying aggressive behaviour on the field, the coach can use an assertive statement such as “pushing and shoving others on the field is not acceptable behaviour, please stop or you will be asked to sit out from the game.” Beginning coaches need to ensure that the statements are both controlled and that no emotion is displayed. It is imperative that the beginning coach remains calm, quietly assertive and conveys a confident firmness in what is said and done. Consequently, other athletes will take note of the situation and recognise that the coach is in control of the behaviour of the athletes and in control of the coaching environment.
Following on from the previous strategy, which requires the coach to incorporate assertive statements for controlling athlete behaviour, recommended strategy 9 (Table 9.2) requires the coach to use positive verbal communication for appropriate behaviour displayed by the athlete. An example of this is a scenario in which an athlete follows the instructions provided by the coach, the coach then makes a statement such as, “Well done, I really like the way you listened to the instructions and lined up and waited for your turn.” The use of consequent strategies creates positive and nurturing environments in which the athlete can feel as if they are valued and belong. It may also have a flow-on affect for the other athletes as they hear the positive praise and the appropriate behaviour is reinforced. As a consequence of this extrinsic motivator they may recognise and observe the appropriate behaviour and it may result in them seeking the coach’s approval and striving to receive the same praise and demonstrate similar appropriate behaviour.

Similar to the previous strategy, Strategy 10 is negative reinforcement and is also a consequent strategy. An example of negative reinforcement is when an athlete displays an inappropriate behaviour, such as speaking while the coach is demonstrating a skill, and the coach removes something from the athlete, for example, the athlete missing a turn. It is recommended that beginning coaches integrate negative reinforcement for inappropriate behaviour displayed by an athlete. Recognised by Skinner (2002) as an effective tactic for managing behaviour, it is also acknowledged as an appropriate strategy for beginning coaches to adopt.
When removing something of worth from an athlete if an inappropriate behaviour is displayed, Skinner suggests it results in the inappropriate behaviour being weakened. During the data collection there was a specific example of this strategy being executed successfully. An athlete was pushing and bullying another athlete and the coach removed the athlete from the game for a period of time. Upon the athlete’s return to the game, the inappropriate behaviour was no longer displayed by the athlete.

Strategy 11 provides a choice when managing behaviour and is recommended for beginning coaches. Rogers (1995), suggest that when providing athletes with appropriate behaviour choices, they learn that their behaviour can be self controlled. Providing a choice places responsibility on the athlete as it gives them the sense that they can make up their own mind. An example of a beginning coach adopting a strategy of providing directional choices, rather than giving direct commands would be “John, I’d like you to line up and keep your hands to yourself or you’ll have to either sit on to the side now or miss out on the game later, it’s up to you.” This strategy not only provides a nurturing environment for the athletes, it also places the emphasis on the athlete to own their own behaviour.

Providing rewards for good behaviour is the basis of Strategy 12, as it is known that behaviour is affected by its consequences (Skinner, 2002). Skinner’s theory of operant conditioning states that the process does not require repeated efforts, but is
instead an immediate reaction to familiar stimulus. Consequently, this extrinsic strategy is viewed as important for beginning coaches to employ as they establish their reputation and leadership status with their athletes. Seen as a consequent strategy, such reinforcers can be delivered in the form of tangible objects or verbal recognition. An example of this would include the coach rewarding an athlete by either verbal recognition such as “Great training session today, you listened and followed instructions well”, or tangible such as providing the athlete with a certificate for excellent behaviour. This is identified as an effective strategy for beginning coaches to adopt in their behaviour management practice as it is used to strengthen appropriate behaviour.

The final strategy suggests it is necessary for the coach to foster a kind and respectful environment, and is seen more as an approach to coaching practice rather than a behaviour management strategy. It is important that the needs of athletes are being met through the practices of the beginning coach (Maslow, 1970). The beginning coach can play an important role in ensuring the athlete’s needs are being met through providing an environment in which the athlete feels supported and feel as though they belong. An example of this may include the coach welcoming each athlete upon arrival and talking with the athlete one-on-one about their feelings and whether they are enjoying playing AFL. This approach plays an important role in the behaviour management of athletes as Maslow identified that people are driven by these needs and all of our choices and behaviours are based upon the urgency to
have those needs met. Maslow identified that many instances of inappropriate behaviour is a direct result of an individual’s needs not being met. Hence by beginning coaches having an understanding of the drive in their athletes to have their needs met, they can be more conscious of the approach taken in their coaching practice and less instances of inappropriate behaviour may result.

9.4 Applied Implications

This research has shown that the Communicative Action Coaching Tool is an effective method for evaluating the behaviour management strategies and practices implemented by beginning coaches. The tool that can be used by coaches, coach administrators/managers, and coach educators, to examine the techniques and strategies used to manage athlete behaviour. Specifically the tool identifies the type of strategies the coach should employ in their coaching practice and at what stage of the coaching session to employ them. The Communicative Action Coaching Tool should be used to improve coach’s behaviour management strategies and in turn assist in creating a supportive learning environment for athletes.

The behaviour management strategies and recommendations are designed for coaches, assistant coaches, coach administrators/managers and coach educators. The main objective of developing these strategies and recommendations was to provide coaches with a set of guidelines for managing athletes during the different stages of the coaching session. The data collected identified that beginning coaches
do not implement a variety of behaviour management techniques and hence rely heavy on verbal consequent strategies following on from the inappropriate behaviour. The behaviour management strategies identified as appropriate in this study include both antecedent and consequent strategies through verbal, non-verbal and tangible delivery techniques. All of these strategies are identified in the literature (Skinner, 2002; Canter, 1976; Rogers, 1995; Jones, 2000; Glasser, 1998 and Maslow, 1970) as appropriate for managing behaviour in a classroom setting, and have been adapted in this study for use within the sporting context.

The combination of the Communicative Action Coaching Tool and recommended behaviour management strategies for beginning coaches allowed the researcher to design pamphlet for beginning coaches which highlights the 13 behaviour management strategies with specific examples of each. This is a resource designed specifically for coaches, assistant coaches, coach administrators/managers and coach educators, and should be used in a practical setting. The objective of this resource is to provide a range of behaviour management techniques that can be used to guide the coach when managing athlete behaviour during the coaching session. The resource is designed in a pamphlet format for ease of use while coaching (Refer to Appendix 3).
9.4.2 Contribution to knowledge

As identified in this research, one aspect the coach is responsible for is being the disciplinarian, as behaviour problems can present significant obstacles to sport coaching (Bos & Vaughn, 2002). Coaches who neglect to implement appropriate behaviour management strategies are at risk of various negative consequences including disruptive athlete behaviour and limited performance outcomes. It is essential that coaches create a positive environment with effective behaviour management strategies. Despite this, there is a void in the coaching literature about how to manage athlete behaviour. The findings from this research will fill this void by providing coaches with a range of strategies for managing the behaviour of their athletes.

This research has clearly identified how classroom management strategies can be adapted and applied within a coaching setting. A range of different strategies have been identified for this research as appropriate for managing athlete behaviour. These include: strategies that are verbal, nonverbal and tangible; antecedent and consequent strategies; and, a range of strategies that are intrinsic and extrinsic in nature. When implementing this range of strategies within the coaching environment, coaches are underpinning their practices with a theoretical foundation and incorporating effective behaviour management practices that will create supportive coaching environments.
The *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* is an innovative evaluation tool that has emerged from this research. It is recognised as an effective method for evaluating the behaviour management strategies implemented by beginning coaches. This tool is based on the theories developed by Skinner (2002), Canter (1976), Rogers (1995), Jones (2000), Glasser (1998) and Maslow (1970), and can be applied in a coaching context. The *Communicative Action Coaching Tool* is a methodological model based in theory that can be applied in a practical setting to map behaviour management techniques through a flow chart. This in turn allows coaches to identify the effectiveness of the strategies employed and phases of the coaching session that the behaviour management strategies require attention. In addition it allows coaches to identify techniques and strategies for improving their behaviour management strategies.

**9.4.3 Future Research**

Despite behaviour management strategies and techniques being highly researched and developed in the realm of teaching, behaviour management within the coaching context is an area that has had very limited research. Accordingly, there are possibilities for further research that have emerged from this study.

It would prove beneficial to observe the behaviour management strategies adopted by a range of coaches including coaches that have practiced over a number of years and with different levels of accreditation. Such research would highlight if effective
behaviour management strategies are used by experienced coaches. Although there has been limited research in this field, research conducted by Gilbert and Trudel (2001) examined how youth sport coaches learned to coach and identified that youth coaches refined their practice through experience and the process of reflection. The results from research into experienced coaches may provide beginning coaches with valuable insights surrounding effective behaviour management strategies. The Communicative Action Coaching Tool could also be used to evaluate the behaviour management strategies of experienced coaches to assist them in improving the management of their coaching environment.

Behaviour management strategies implemented by coaches of elite level athletes is also an area that is under-researched. The behaviour management strategies, including motivational strategies, adopted by coaches of elite level athletes is a coaching context that if researched, may provide valuable findings. Coaches of elite athletes may incorporate a more intrinsic approach to the management of their athletes. Despite the fact that the contexts of junior and elite athletes are notably different, strategies identified as effective for elite athletes may potentially be transferred into a junior athlete and beginning coach setting.

The behaviour management strategies of coaches in an individual sport compared to a team sport environment is also suggested as an area that may provide valuable insight. To date there is little data on the different behaviour strategies used by
coaches in these two contexts. Despite this, it has been identified that there are significant differences between preferred coaching behaviours by team and individual sport athletes, in that athletes in team sports prefer more of an autocratic approach than individual sport athletes (Terry, 1984). With this in mind, recommended research in this context may provide an understanding of what behaviour management strategies should be used in one-on-one coaching settings.

Finally, as the current research was focused on a predominantly male sporting domain, it is recommended that future research be conducted in the field of behaviour management strategies employed in female settings. Research should explore the behaviour management strategies of female coaches, which in turn will allow a comparison between the behaviour management strategies of male and female coaches. Limited research has been conducted comparing gender differences of athletes and coaches alike. A recent study (Millard, 1996), surrounding gender differences in sport coaching found that male coaches engaged more frequently in keeping control and general technical instruction, and less frequently in general encouragement than female coaches. This highlights a significant difference in the general coaching practices between males and females. Future research that identifies the differences between male and female behaviour management strategies and their effectiveness, would be useful.
9.5 Concluding Remarks

Developing expertise in managing athlete behaviour takes time and requires an understanding of athlete needs. Developing such expertise is not a ‘one size fits all’ model. Rather, such skill is mastered through a learning process and the skills and knowledge that come with experience and training in managing athletes. Within the coaching context, a level of expertise is demonstrated by the manner to which the coach approaches the issue, how the coach problem-solves, and how the coach formulates solutions and relays them to their athletes. Due to the lack of experience and training of beginning coaches, specific behaviour management strategies have been recommended to facilitate productive and supportive coaching environments. The *Communicative Action Coaching Tool*, enables beginning coaches to identify and evaluate the effectiveness of these behaviour management strategies. If these behaviour management strategies are adopted by beginning coaches the task of managing behaviour will be less prominent and this will allow coaches to focus on the development of their athletes.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX ONE

SECTION A: Biographical Information
This section seeks some information about your background. This information is important as it will have a bearing on the results of the survey. This information will be used for comparative purposes only.

Please indicate your answer by crossing (x) the appropriate box or by filling in your answer.

1. **Indicate your gender:**
   - Male (  )
   - Female (  )

2. **Please indicate your highest level of academic qualification:**
   - Certificate (  )
   - Diploma (  )
   - Degree (  )
   - Other (  ) please specify _________________________

3. **Please indicate your age group:**
   - 18 – 22 (  )
   - 23 – 29 (  )
   - 30 – 36 (  )
   - 37 – 45 (  )
   - 45+ (  )

SECTION B: Questionnaire

1. Why do you want to be a coach?
2. What attracted you to coaching?

3. Who, if anyone influenced you in your decision to become a coach?

4. What level of athlete would you like to be involved in coaching?
   Junior ( )
   Intermediate ( )
   Senior ( )
   Elite ( )

5. What do you perceive the role of the coach as being?

6. What knowledge and skills do coaches need to be effective?

7. What types of challenges do you think you will face as a coach?

8. Do you think athlete behaviour control is the responsibility of the coach?
   No ( )
   Yes ( )
   Please explain
9. What do you think are some characteristics of a respected coach?

________________________________________________________________________

10. What do you think effective coaching involves?

________________________________________________________________________

11. What role do you think communication plays in coaching?

________________________________________________________________________

12. What methods of managing athlete behaviour will you employ when coaching?

________________________________________________________________________

13. Please indicate in order of importance, the content you think should be covered in a coaching course:

   Anatomy (  )Biomechanics (  )
   Communication strategies (  )Teaching styles (  )
   Training methods (  )Nutrition (  )
   Behaviour management (  )Administration requirements (  )
   Leadership strategies (  )Athlete Evaluation techniques (  )
APPENDIX TWO

Chief Investigator - Brooke Harris
School of Education and Professional Studies
Gold Coast campus, Griffith University
PMB 50 Gold Coast, Mail Centre
Queensland 9726, Australia
Telephone: +61 (0)7 5552 9203

Behaviour Management Strategies Implemented by Novice Coaches – AFL Case Study

I am currently undertaking research toward a Doctorate Degree on the management role of sports coaches. This study is run through the School of Education and Professional Studies at Griffith University. The purpose of this research is to establish an understanding of why people choose to become sports coaches and the difficulties novice coaches face. The information gathered from you via a questionnaire, an interview and an observation of a coaching session will be used as a guide for analysing the content provided in coach accreditation courses.

As a volunteer in this project, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire that will take about 5 minutes, be part of a short 20 minute interview and a coaching observation. The observation will be conducted during a usual coaching session of 45 minutes. The session will not be videotaped. The researcher will be purely observing the behaviour management strategies adopted by you throughout the session through the use of a checklist and tally format. Once this data has been collected and written up, you will be provided with a copy within a one month timeframe. This will enable you to review it, provide comments to the researcher and provide permission for the researcher to proceed.

You are not required to identify yourself during the interview or observation process, and you can withdraw from this project at anytime. Your participation is anonymous and you will not be identifiable in any publication or report arising from this research. All data collected will be treated as confidential and your responses will be combined with those of other participants to generate an overall picture of coaching. This in turn will allow you to reflect on the effectiveness of your coaching practices. The overall information collected through this data collection process once analysed and written up will be mailed to your postal address in a report format within three months of the data collection.

I would be grateful if you could provide your details to enable me to contact you to arrange a suitable time for an interview. If you have any further questions about the project, please feel free to contact me. Your input is very valuable. The potential impact of your responses will be vast. If you have any concerns regarding the ethical conduct of the project you can contact the Manager, Research Ethics, at Griffith University Humans Research Ethics Committee on 3875 5585.

Thank you for taking the time to be part of this research.
I agree to be participate in the project:

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APPENDIX THREE

BEFORE
Coaches should apply strategies to manage athlete behaviour prior to the behaviour being exhibited by the athlete. This structures the environment to prevent problems from occurring.

Anecdote

Provide choices
The coach should provide a choice to the athlete when they have behaved inappropriately. The athlete should be provided with the option to choose a responsible alternative.

Set limits
- Explain expected behaviours.
- Explain behaviour not tolerated.
- Explain consequences.

Establish Rules
At the start of the training session, the coach should establish the rules to ensure the athlete understands the expectations.

A kind & respectful environment
The coach can create a kind and respectful environment by showing care & compassion. If this behaviour is modeled to the athlete, they are more likely to reciprocate positive behaviour.

DURING & AFTER
Coaches should apply strategies to manage athlete behaviour during and after the behaviour has been exhibited. This may include the application of penalties or rewards during and/or after the behaviour.

Consequent

Rule Reminders
The coach simply restates the rule to the athlete, or reminds them of the relevant rule.

Enforce Rules
Once established, the coach needs to enforce the rules.

Reinforcement
The coach should use positive gestures to reinforce appropriate athlete behaviour:
- Social words
- gestures
- facial expressions
- verbal: "good job"
- non-verbal: smile

Body language
developed by Brooke Harris-Reeves

 affirmed

Rewards
The coach should reward athletes when appropriate behaviour is displayed.

Positive Statements
The coach should use positive verbal communication when appropriate behaviours are displayed by the athlete.

Negative Reinforcement
The coach should remove something of value from the athlete to weaken the inappropriate behavior.