

1 **The impact of video feedback on professional youth football coaches' reflection and**
2 **practice behaviour: a longitudinal investigation of behaviour change**

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4 **Mark Partington, Christopher J. Cushion, Ed Cope & Stephen Harvey**

5 a Department of Sport and Physical Activity, Edge Hill University, Ormskirk, UK

6 b School of Sport, Exercise and Health Sciences, Loughborough University, Loughborough,

7

UK

8 c Department of Sport, Health and Exercise Science, University of Hull, Hull, UK

9 d Department of Coaching and Teaching Studies, West Virginia University, Morgantown,

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USA

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14 **Abstract**

15 The aim of this study was to investigate the impact of video feedback on five English youth
16 football coaches' reflection and practice behaviours over a three season period. First,
17 quantitative data were collected using the Coach Analysis and Intervention System (CAIS)
18 during season one and season three. Data from CAIS results showed that over the three seasons
19 the coaches decreased their total instruction and total feedback and increased silence 'on-task'.
20 Four out of the five coaches also increased the use of total questioning behaviour. Second,
21 interviews revealed how video feedback gave structure to reflective conversations that
22 improved self-awareness and provided a trigger for behaviour change. The coaches highlighted
23 how video-based reflection challenged their current understanding and enabled a range of
24 learning sources to support and inform changed coach behaviour.

25

26 **Introduction**

27 In professional football, there remains an underlying sub-culture that has a pervasive and
28 influential effect on coaches and their behaviour (e.g., Cushion & Jones, 2006; Roderick,
29 2006). Indeed, research has identified a 'traditional' approach to coaching that is highly
30 directive, autocratic and prescriptive (e.g., Harvey, Cushion, & Massa-Gonzalez, 2010; Potrac
31 & Cassidy, 2006; Williams & Hodges, 2005). Patterns of coaching behaviour tend to be
32 relatively stable, with evidence showing that only minor differences exist as a function of the
33 age or skill level of the players coached (Cushion, Ford & Williams, 2012; Ford, Yates, &
34 Williams 2010; Partington, Cushion & Harvey, 2013). While illustrating what coaches do,

35 behavioural research has also demonstrated two key things. First, that coaches have limited
36 awareness of what behaviours they use, and how often they use them, (Harvey, Cushion, Cope
37 & Muir, 2013; Partington & Cushion, 2013) and second, that an ‘epistemological gap’ exists
38 between underpinning knowledge and coach behaviour (Partington & Cushion, 2013;
39 Partington et al., 2013). As a result, advances in coach education would seem fruitless if
40 coaches lack self-awareness and understanding of their behaviour, particularly in practice
41 environments driven by a strong sub-culture, such as professional football.

42 Changing established practice can be problematic particularly as coaching in football
43 lacks a critical tradition (Cushion, Armour & Jones, 2003). As such, coaches are more likely
44 to be seen sticking with safer, tried and tested, traditional methods that prove their knowledge
45 and expertise (Cushion et al., 2012; Potrac, Jones, & Cushion, 2002). There remains a
46 considerable challenge to address coaches’ embodied and unarticulated beliefs. For actual
47 change to happen to coaches’ behaviour requires more than just obtaining additional
48 knowledge (Harvey et al., 2010). A key in challenging entrenched practice cultures is providing
49 a catalyst for changing what coaches do through reflection (Cushion et al., 2012). However,
50 this is particularly challenging using short formal coach education episodes as coaches only
51 acquire some of their knowledge and skills from such courses (Cushion et al., 2012). The
52 remainder is acquired through ‘apprenticeships of observation’ as athletes, experiential
53 learning and mentoring (Cushion et al., 2003; Erickson, Côté, & Fraser-Thomas, 2007;
54 Williams & Hodges, 2005). Therefore, in order for coaches to recognise and address their
55 deeply embedded beliefs and behaviour, prolonged interaction in a contextualised setting
56 supported with continuous reflection on their practice is required (Thompson & Pascal, 2012).
57 However, a coach simply experiencing coaching will not necessarily lead to the development
58 of new knowledge (Gilbert & Trudel, 2006), nor is reflective practice merely a process of
59 requiring learners 'to pause for thought from time-to-time' (Thompson & Pascal, 2012, p. 311).

60 A number of researchers (e.g., Ghaye, 2001; Gilbert & Trudel, 2001; Irwin, Hanton, &
61 Kerwin, 2004; Knowles, Gilbourne, Borrie, & Nevill, 2001; Nelson & Cushion, 2006, inter-
62 alia) have shown the importance of reflective practice in coach learning. There are many types
63 of reflection (e.g., descriptive, creative; Ghaye, 2001), but in order to change practice *critical*
64 *reflection* is required (Cushion et al., 2012). The ability to engage in critical reflection (i.e.,
65 questioning and challenging current practice, habits, routines, values and beliefs) is a key
66 process for a coach in this situation, and is the method by which coaches come to question what
67 they do and why (Knowles et al., 2001). Coaching is the combination of thought with action.
68 It is important therefore not to just look at observable behaviour and practice or focus on

69 cognition in isolation, but consider their relationship and interaction in practice (Cushion et al.,
70 2012). In addition, coaching and coach education experiences unfold over time and viewed
71 with this temporal quality, learning is well underway before any coaching course or CPD
72 session begins and continues after it has finished (Hager & Hodkinson, 2009), thus confirming
73 the need to consider coach learning as a more long-term endeavour. In other words, coaching
74 practice and coaches' reflection needs to be considered longitudinally, not as one-off discrete
75 episodes.

76 Learning through observation and experience can promote and reinforce certain
77 ideological interpretations of knowledge and practice, resulting in practice being guided by
78 uncritical inertia, with outdated knowledge and behaviours being passed on and reproduced by
79 other coaches (Cushion et al., 2012). Consequently, coaches need to reflect critically and make
80 judgements that are meaningful within their particular situation and challenge, rather than
81 reinforce certain beliefs or practices. To enable this, coaches need to engage with, and develop
82 'tools' that encourage continual self-reflection and evaluation. One such tool is video-based
83 feedback, which offers the potential to generate and support reflection that facilitates deep
84 learning by bringing tacit mental processes to consciousness and conceptualising practice then
85 integrating altered and developed theory into action (Carson, 2008; Trudel, Gilbert, & Tochon,
86 2001). Using video clips of coaches' actual practice and engaging in reflective conversation is
87 underpinned by a social constructivist view of learning. Carefully examining the thought
88 processes, knowledge, reasoning and learning behind coaches practice offers the potential to
89 raise self-awareness, spark critical reflection and generate behaviour change (Partington &
90 Cushion, 2013; Schön, 1983; Trudel et al., 2001).

91 Therefore, the aim of this study was to take a longitudinal approach to investigate
92 changes (or stability) in coaches' practice over time, and understand how video-based feedback
93 can inform coaches' interpretations of their experiences; and generate critical reflection on the
94 process by which meaning and knowledge are used to guide actions (Harvey et al., 2010; Potrac
95 et al., 2002). The objective was to not only gain insight into changes in coach behaviour over
96 time but also understand the impact of video-based feedback and how these intersect with, and
97 inform, coaches' reflective practice.

98

99 **Methodology**

100 ***Research context***

101 Football talent development in England is managed by professional clubs to produce players
102 for the professional game (The Premier League Elite Player Performance Plan (EPPP), 2011).

103 Players are scouted and contracted to play for clubs from the age of eight and attend an
104 Academy. Football Academies deliver the youth football performance pathway, which
105 comprises three distinct phases, the foundation phase (under 5 to under 11), the youth
106 development phase (under 12 to under 16) and the professional development phase (under 17
107 to under 21) (EPPP, 2011). Academies provide a programme of coaching, games, sports
108 science support and education for players across the phases, to ‘create a fully integrated
109 environment servicing all aspects of the players’ development’ (EPPP, 2011 p. 18). Foundation
110 phase players are provided with between 5 and 8 hours of coaching and weekend competitive
111 matches each week, increasing to between 12 and 16 hours in the youth development phase.
112 At the end of the development period players may be offered a professional playing contract at
113 the club. This study took place at a Football Association (F.A.) Premier League Academy over
114 three English football seasons.

115

116 *Participants*

117 All twelve male professional youth football coaches at one Football Association (F.A.) Premier
118 League Academy were purposefully sampled and took part in the study. However at the end of
119 the three English football seasons only five of the twelve coaches had completed the
120 longitudinal research process. Given the volatile nature of professional football it is not
121 uncommon for coaches to be replaced, or move on to other clubs. However, given that this was
122 a longitudinal study that aimed to investigate the complexities of coaching behaviour, the
123 reduction in sample size did not compromise the purpose of the study. The following section
124 provides an overview of the qualifications and characteristics of the five coaches involved in
125 the study.

126 *Tony (pseudonym)*

127 Tony coached the under 10’s. He had a postgraduate level education in strength and
128 conditioning, Post Graduate Certificate in Education*, a F.A. level 3 (UEFA B) coaching award
129 and a full F.A. Youth Award*. Tony had four years coaching experience in this setting and
130 another eight years professional coaching on Fundamental skills at participation level.

131

132 *Pete (pseudonym)*

133 Pete coached the under 12’s. He had a F.A. level 3 (UEFA B) coaching award and a full F.A.
134 Youth Award*. He had been coaching for 12 years of which 4 have been spent in this setting.

135

136 *Jude (pseudonym)*

137 Jude coached the under 14's. He had ten years coaching experience of which five years was in
138 the current setting. He had a postgraduate level qualification in sports coaching, Post Graduate
139 Certificate in Education, a F.A. level 3 (UEFA B) coaching award and a full F.A. Youth
140 Award*.

141

142 *Ian (pseudonym)*

143 Ian coached the under 11's with Lee in an official equal role. He had a degree level
144 qualification, a F.A. level 3 (UEFA B) coaching award and a full F.A. Youth Award*. Ian was
145 a former youth team player at another club eight years previous and had four years coaching
146 experience all in this setting.

147

148 *Lee (pseudonym)*

149 Lee coached the under 11's. He had eleven years coaching experience, three years in the current
150 setting and six years at two other professional football clubs in youth development. Lee had
151 played semi-professional football and was a Further Education lecturer on a sports programme.
152 His qualifications included a degree level qualification, a Post Graduate Certificate in
153 Education, a F.A. level 3 (UEFA B) coaching award and a full F.A. Youth Award*.

154

155 ***Research Overview***

156 A mixed methods case study approach was employed as it had the potential to understand and
157 explain the 'case' in more depth than a single method approach; qualitative data were used to
158 support quantitative data and vice versa (Creswell, 2003; Stark & Torrance, 2005). Case studies
159 should be used in instances where how and why questions are being asked, as well as 'what'
160 questions (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Yin, 1994). These apply to the current study, as it
161 attempted to understand the connection between coaches' experiences, reflection and their
162 practice, a similar approach adopted by Jones, Armour and Potrac's (2004) case study
163 investigating the pedagogical practices of elite sport coaches.

164 The research started with twelve football coaches as participants (all the coaches
165 available in this particular setting) however the longitudinal nature of the study (three seasons)
166 and the turnover of coaching staff meant that only five completed the study in its entirety.
167 Previous research (e.g. Harvey et al., 2013) suggests that participant numbers between 3-5 is
168 acceptable for 'understanding the various nuances, contrasts and patterns of coach behaviour'
169 and allowed 'situational diversity necessary for identifying thematic patterns' (p. 4).

170 During season one the coaches practice sessions were filmed. At the end of season one,
171 individual interviews took place with the lead researcher and provided the opportunity for
172 coaches to watch their coaching, look at their observational data and discuss their practice. The
173 semi-structured nature of this process gave each coach freedom to discuss the footage and
174 observational data that was perceived as most useful or of most importance. The coaches were
175 also given the videos and the observational data to review in their own time. This strategy gave
176 coaches ownership of the process and helped develop motivation to change (Meeus, Serpa &
177 Cuyper, 2010). During season two, the coaches undertook 'in-house' coach education
178 including a workshop to discuss their beliefs about coaching. They also completed formal
179 coach education in the form of the F.A. Youth Award level one as well as sporadic discussions
180 on their coaching practice with an F.A. coach educator. In between seasons two and three the
181 coaches completed a further formal course, the F.A. Youth Award level two. During season
182 three, the coaches again completed formal coach education, the F.A. Youth Award level three
183 including assessment, while undertaking the same data collection protocol described for season
184 one.

185

186 ***Procedures***

187 *Systematic observation*

188 The primary behaviours of the Coach Analysis and Intervention System (CAIS) (see Cushion,
189 Harvey, Muir & Nelson, 2012) were used to identify the five coaches' practice behaviour. This
190 systematic observation tool has been used in a number of studies (e.g. Harvey et al., 2013;
191 Partington & Cushion, 2013; Partington et al., 2013) providing objective, valid and reliable
192 coach behaviour data. After ethics committee approval and participant's informed consent,
193 each coach was filmed in season one and three a minimum of three times (Brewer & Jones,
194 2002) with an average duration of $M = 74.20$ minutes observation per session. The three
195 systematic observations were spread out over the length of the season (September to March) to
196 provide an accurate representation of the individual coaches' behaviour (Potrac et al., 2002).
197 In total 30 coaching sessions were observed over the three seasons. Inter- and Intra- observer
198 reliability checks were completed in line with Baumgartner, Jackson, Mahar and Rowe's
199 (2007) recommendation that 30% of the sample should be re-coded. Intra-observer and inter-
200 observer were calculated using the equation: $(\text{agreements} / (\text{agreements} + \text{disagreements})) \times$
201 100 (van der Mars, 1989). Inter-observer agreement was 90% and intra-observer was 97% for
202 the coach behaviour data. These figures are above the recommended 85% regarded as
203 acceptable reliability agreement scores (van der Mars, 1989).

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Interviews

Systematic observation provided detail on what behaviour coaches' used in practice, while the interviews explored the why of the behaviours as well as the coaches coaching experiences across the three seasons. Three semi-structured interviews (see table 1) took place with each coach. First after season one and two exploring coaches' behaviour (i.e. what behaviour do you use most in your coaching? Why do you use this behaviour most in your coaching?), and coaches' biographies and backgrounds (i.e. how long have you been coaching? What coach education awards do you have?). After season three the interviews examined the changes (or not) in their coaching behaviour and practice and possible reasons for changes (or not). During the first and third interview behavioural data were presented to each coach individually. In total 15 interviews were carried out with each interview lasting between 30 and 70 minutes and produced 149 pages of interview transcript data. The reason for the variance in interview minutes was that some were initial interviews and others were follow up interviews.

Data analysis

Coaching behaviours

Coaches' behaviour was coded and quantified based on operational definitions (See Cushion et al., 2012). Doing this gave the total frequency for individual coaching behaviours used, which then allowed percentages to be calculated. Percentages were calculated by dividing the frequency of individual behaviours by the total number of all behaviours. Descriptive data were calculated for each coach.

Interview data

The coaches' interviews were transcribed and analysed thematically. Patterns or 'themes' were identified through recursively reviewing the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), a process of 'moving backwards and forwards between the data set' using a constant comparative approach (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.86). Given the initial structure from the CAIS and at the same time the exploration of themes in the data the analysis process was not entirely inductive, or deductive. Rather an abductive analysis was adopted that considers how data impacts on theory, but also how theory impacts on data (Morgan, 2007; Nelson & Cushion, 2006).

Results

237 Results from the individual coaches systematic observations are presented in the following
238 section.

239 *Systematic Observation*

240 *Tony*

241 In season one three behaviours comprised almost 58.09% of Tony's total behaviours. Of these,
242 management was the highest at 31.80%, followed by concurrent instruction at 13.37% and then
243 general feedback positive at 12.92% (see table 1). In season three these three behaviours were
244 again the most employed by Tony, however, because concurrent instruction was considerably
245 lower than in season 1 by 5.62%, these behaviours combined equated to less than they did in
246 the first season at 53.30% (see table 1). Tony's use of management and general feedback
247 positive were similar between the two seasons.

248

249 *Pete*

250 Pete's most employed behaviours were the same as Tony's, in that he mostly used 21.65%
251 management, 21.82% concurrent instruction and then 16.13% general feedback positive (see
252 table 1). In season one these behaviours equated again to almost 59.60% of Pete's total
253 behaviours. Whilst these three behaviours were maintained as the highest in season three at
254 55.38%, there was a change for each of these behaviours with management increasing 5.70%
255 and concurrent instruction decreasing 5.42% and general feedback positive decreasing 4.50%
256 (see table 2).

257

258 *Jude*

259 In the same way as Tony and Pete, in season one Jude adopted 23.05% management, 17.42%
260 concurrent instruction and 10.19% general feedback positive more than any other behaviour
261 totalling 50.66% (see table 1). However, unlike Tony and Pete, Jude's behavioural profile
262 changed between season one and season three. So whilst management remained his highest
263 used behaviour at 26.59%, concurrent instruction was lower in season three than it was in
264 season one by 11.94%. Furthermore, Jude's use of specific feedback positive notably increased
265 by 2.69% and in doing so became his second most employed behaviour in season three, with
266 convergent questioning at 9.26% his third highest behaviour (see table 1).

267

268 *Ian*

269 Again, Ian's behavioural profile was the same as the three coaches' discussed already.
270 However, in season one, the combination of 16.29% management, 42.58% concurrent

271 instruction and 20.86% general feedback positive equated to 79.73% of the total behaviours
272 employed by Ian. Whilst these same three behaviours were also the highest in season three, his
273 amount of management went up by 7.70%, but his use of concurrent instruction decreased by
274 29.82%, as did his use of general positive feedback by 6.94% (see table 1).

275

276 *Lee*

277 In slight contrast to the other four coaches, Lee's most employed behaviours were 27.85%
278 management, 16.25% silence on-task, and 7.92% general reinforcement positive. The amount
279 of concurrent instruction given by Lee was considerably less than that given by the other four
280 coaches (see table 1). The behavioural profile for Lee in season three was similar to that of
281 season one with the exception of confer with assistant that increased 5.69% (see table 1).

282

283 Insert table 1 Here

284

285 While it was not the aim of this study to aggregate and compare the five coaches behaviour,
286 the presentation of the results in figure 1 allows an understanding of the changes in the pattern
287 of the coach's behaviour, and shows something of the impact of taking part in the study (see
288 figure 1).

289

290 Insert figure 1 Here

291

292 *Interviews*

293 Results from the abductive analysis are presented in the following analysis and discussion
294 section as exemplar quotes. The key themes were:

- 295 • Video, self-awareness and reflection.
- 296 • Reflective conversation and its impact on practice.
- 297 • Other learning and its impact on practice (e.g. FA Youth Awards, teaching
298 qualification, social media, internet, observation of coaches and discussion with
299 coaches).

300

301 **Analysis and Discussion**

302 *Video, self-awareness and reflection*

303 According to Cassidy (2010, p. 143), changing ‘time-honoured practices’ or ‘day-to-day
304 conventions’ in coaching is very difficult to achieve; this is because many coaches ‘find it
305 difficult to reflect upon, and possibly critique, taken for granted practices that have become
306 integral to their sense of self’. Indeed, relying solely on ones’ self-perception of what works
307 closes down conversations, blunts knowledge and stifles creativity, all of which, if left
308 unchallenged, produces stagnation and creates a climate of self-referential and self-justifying
309 knowledge structures (Abraham, Collins, & Martindale, 2006). In the present study, the use of
310 video allowed coaches to move beyond their reliance on self-perceptions, which proved to be
311 an inaccurate account of their practice, and develop an increased self-awareness of what they
312 actually did. As Tony, Jude and Pete noted: ‘Feedback from the first season, you don't realise
313 you’re doing it until someone filmed you and told you. I thought I was coaching one way and
314 obviously I wasn’t’, ‘I realised there that I wasn't quite behaving as a coach as I wanted’ and
315 finally Pete ‘watching yourself coach and looking at the different results I’ve got from the
316 different years, it opens your eyes’. Lee reinforced this view further linking to a particular
317 behaviour:

318

319 Yeah, I need to reduce my instructions. That’s a big thing I’m surprised it’s that high. I
320 think with most teachers it’s a thing, they talk a little bit too much, and looking at videos
321 of myself coaching, that's apparent as well. So that's something I will have to work on.

322

323 The evidence in this case supports the need to use more objective methods that allow coaches
324 to reflect on their practice; deep learning, indicated by whether coaches intend to change or
325 preserve their coaching practice, relies on reflection (Leduc, Culver, & Werthner, 2012). Light,
326 Evans, Harvey, & Hassanin (2015) argue for informed reflection that bridges the gap between
327 experience and coach education. In the present study, the research process resulted in the CAIS
328 being used as a means of analysing what behaviours coaches employed, and using these data
329 as a means to support reflection and discussions about individual’s practice. Jude explained:
330 ‘looking at my actual behaviours, looking at the videos, actually that's the trigger of the learning
331 and it helps me improve as a coach. It [the research process] highlighted my behaviours’. Thus,
332 the research process was in fact an intervention, where video feedback sparked the reflective
333 conversation process thus breaking the cycle of self-reference and self-justification.

334 Over a decade ago, Trudel et al. (2001) found similar unexpected learning where
335 coaches naturally benefitted from reflecting on their practice from another perspective. Trudel
336 et al. (2001) explained that participants’ learned through developing an ongoing partnership

337 between the researcher and coach that created a context for shared reflection, and noted the
338 value of video and shared reflection in the construction of coaching knowledge. These findings
339 resonate with the present study with data supporting Trudel et al.'s (2001) claims in the context
340 of professional youth football coaching. Pete and Ian stated:

341

342 Looking through my behaviours in a one-on-one has helped me understand what I am
343 actually doing. If you hadn't sat down and spoke to someone about it I don't think you'd
344 have looked at it properly. I think talking about the way you're coaching with someone was
345 important for me to improve.

346

347 Taking part in this research project, some of the results made you look back and change.
348 Certainly the video analysis was excellent so you're viewing it how other people viewed
349 it. When I was asked about what I was doing there and then in my actual practice it made
350 me think about it in more detail to a point that I felt I wanted to change.

351

352 These data suggest that reflection, using technology alongside opportunities to discuss their
353 practice in light of the data, was a key strategy to enable coaches' beliefs and dispositions to be
354 made explicit (Christensen, 2011) and also allow coaches the opportunity to become more
355 aware of their practice (Gilbert & Trudel, 2006).

356

357 *Reflective conversation and its impact on practice*

358 To develop as a practitioner requires thinking critically about practice (Butler, 2005). However,
359 there can be a divergence between perceptions and action, and educators and practitioners need
360 to pay attention to the gap (McCallister, Blinde, & Weiss, 2000). In the present study, video
361 helped to avoid the risk of coaches unwittingly collecting evidence corresponding to what they
362 believed or expected to see, thus receiving self-confirmation of their actions. Jude stated 'the
363 video showed me clearly what I was doing when I coached' and Tony suggested 'someone else
364 analyse and observe you and give you feedback rather than just doing your own feedback and
365 your own reviews. I think reviewing what you've done is important'. The 'genuine feedback
366 on the outcomes of action' afforded by video methods was crucial in allowing practitioners to
367 step 'outside their taken-for-granted world' (Eraut, 2000, p. 123) and close the distance between
368 practical theories-in-use and more abstract espoused theories. In support of this claim, Jude
369 reported that 'highlighting the behaviours has been great for me in terms of it gives me an
370 awareness of what behaviours I'm actually implementing'.

371 Building on the work of Schön (1983), Gilbert and Trudel (2001) developed a reflective
372 conversation framework. This framework, acting through a coach's role frame, follows a
373 systematic process of identifying the issue that needs reflecting on, before working through a
374 number of potential strategies to solve the issue. The issues or dilemmas of practice are the
375 mechanism by which any reflection or engagement with experiential learning are triggered
376 (Gilbert & Trudel, 2005; Schön, 1983). Pete highlighted:

377

378 Being filmed and then watching yourself is quite hard to do, you find out that you're
379 repeating yourself half the time or you doing things that you didn't even know. Just by
380 watching the videos I can see things I want to change or even my strengths.

381

382 Importantly, learning through coaching practice is more than the passive perception and
383 internalisation of an external reality (Varela, Thompson, & Rosch, 1991). It involves the
384 projection of the individual's experiences and an act of interpretation shaped by that experience
385 (Light, 2008). In other words, learning within a coaching environment cannot be reduced to a
386 linear process of internalising pre-existing knowledge (Davis & Sumara, 1997; Light, 2008).
387 In theories of experiential learning through reflection (e.g. Gilbert & Trudel 2004; Schön,
388 1983), there remains an important interplay *between* experience and reflection. Effective
389 reflective practice involves careful consideration of both 'seeing' and action to enhance the
390 possibilities of learning through experience. Therefore, a process of learning from reflection
391 suggests that knowledge must become recognisable and articulated (Loughran, 2002; Cushion
392 & Jones, 2006). This process is considerably more than highlighting the problem and then
393 providing the solution. There remains a subtle difference between being told what to do and
394 understanding practice (Loughran, 2002). This means that experiencing situations in a certain
395 way becomes a genuine learning experience, an episode that carries personal meaning (White,
396 1988). This personal meaning appears key as a link to ownership of a reflective process,
397 practitioners 'will pay more attention to information that has immediate and personal meaning
398 for them' (Gilbert & Trudel, 2001, p. 32). As both Tony and Lee highlight: 'seeing myself
399 coach really rams home what I need to improve on' and 'looking back at the videos of my own
400 coaching sessions helps me recognise the areas I want to improve'. When working through
401 potential strategies to solve an issue the coaches drew on their knowledge as well as the
402 knowledge and experience of other coaches to assist them with their reflections. Reflection can
403 be more effective when coaches have a 'critical friend' whose role is to promote deeper levels
404 of reflection (Knowles et al., 2001). Ian highlighted: 'our centre manager spoke with me about

405 a change in the way we were coaching to implement different styles. We also had the help of
406 Pete Smith [pseudonym] from the FA so that had an influence'. Indeed, Streat, Senecal,
407 Howlett and Burgess (1997) argue that coaches, who are provided with the opportunity to
408 discuss their coaching issues with other's develop more effective coaching strategies in which
409 to deal with their coaching issues, as Jude and Lee both highlighted:

410

411 Talking to other coaches actually helped me learn. For me, it's not just a case of being in
412 there and doing it and then coming away and that's it and I'll automatically learn, I think
413 the process of talking to other coaches...for example, something might happen on the
414 Sunday or in the game, speaking to them about it and how I dealt with it and what I could
415 do and building from their advice but more gauging me in some sort of thinking...the
416 discussion with colleagues, the discussion with coaches is really important.

417

418 This year again from the gaffer at the club who has passed down his stuff through to the
419 head of coaching who I have a lot of chats with. In terms of knowledge of the sport, I've
420 sort of improved that area from these people...I think it certainly helps in terms of
421 understanding the sport better and having a greater knowledge of the game. So I can transfer
422 that knowledge onto the players, one way or another.

423

424 *Other learning and its impact on practice*

425 Throughout the longitudinal research process the coaches tapped into a range of sources that
426 were meaningful and relevant to their own coaching practice to develop and evaluate their
427 coaching strategies, this included other coaches at the club, research evidence, and experiences
428 from formal coach education episodes, in particular the FA Youth Modules. All five coaches
429 (i.e. Tony, Pete, Jude, Lee and Ian) reinforced this view noting that:

430

431 The modules have changed people's ways of thinking they've adapted a lot of teaching and
432 gone down the teaching route rather than a lot of instruction, instruction, instruction. I
433 definitely made a conscious effort in terms of, I think I went down the route of seeing
434 mistakes and trying to correct them for them and notably then they learned. I think some
435 of the stuff on the FA modules have obviously changed the way I've thought about
436 coaching, in terms of setting up the correct environment and saying things differently to let
437 them learn by doing.

438

439 Talking to other coaches around the Youth Modules... opened my eyes to a few things that
440 I didn't know and how much I was using certain coaching types or certain coaching
441 manners. The courses have helped my knowledge.

442

443 I understood some of the theory and stuff behind what was happening, or what they were
444 trying to say, the coach, educator on the coaching course, I understand that side but actually
445 that transfer into practise, I think helped on the Youth Module. The Youth Award certainly
446 helped in terms of transferring that theory into some sort of ideas of the practise.

447

448 I genuinely believe my coaching has changed through the new youth modules, I think
449 they're massively important for education of young players, and also by observing other
450 coaches who have also been through the youth module process as well.

451

452 They actually showed you the different ways of structuring sessions to get the other benefits
453 out of coaching and relating it more physiologically how players are made, the make-up of
454 players and children in general in terms of athletic performance and how kids learn. It was
455 very research based and science based rather than the typical FA based, in terms of this is
456 how it's always been done. It was a different approach.

457

458 The situation, whereby the critical incident or evidence from video was in conflict with the
459 coaches' network of knowledge, experiences or beliefs, has been referred in the learning
460 literature to as cognitive dissonance (Moon, 2004) or disjuncture (Jarvis, 2009). Disjuncture is
461 portrayed as a moment of potential for learning and it would seem that the coaches sought a
462 range of learning sources to change their practice and to maintain accordance or harmony in
463 their biography (Jarvis, 2009) (e.g. FA Youth Awards, teaching qualification, social media,
464 internet, observation of and discussion with other coaches). However, there is a danger in
465 picking out ideas that fit into beliefs and collecting evidence to confirm the decision, while
466 rejecting concepts that maybe more challenging. This has been labelled 'safe simulation', and
467 is reported relatively commonly in the literature (e.g. Abraham et al., 2006; Cushion et al.,
468 2003). This approach can enable practitioners to adopt seemingly novel changes to their
469 coaching while preserving their underlying assumptions about coaching and norms of practice
470 (Light & Robert, 2010). Another significant issue with this learning approach is the potential
471 for rejecting or disregarding information that could otherwise be highly valuable.

472

473 **Implications for Practice**

474 Video-based reflection helped coaches increase their self-awareness, change behaviour and
475 provided the trigger for learning. Relying on coaches' thoughts and perceptions alone does not
476 provide accurate measurements of what coaches actually do (Partington & Cushion, 2013). For
477 coaches to become more self-actualising practitioners requires that they think more critically
478 about their practices (Butler, 2005). McAllister et al. (2000) highlight this point as they
479 recognize the lack of congruence between stated beliefs and action, and subsequently call for
480 educators and practitioners to pay attention to this gap. In other words, use of video-based
481 reflection helped make vital learning processes more explicit, facilitating coaches' judgements
482 of what works, as well as making them more aware of their practice in context.

483 In the present study video-based reflection provided the coaches with the mechanism
484 to recognise their actual coaching practice. If coaches are unable to accurately recall their
485 coaching practices through their own subjective experiences, alternative methods are needed
486 which present them with the means to reflect on actual practice (Carson, 2008). Furthermore,
487 the use of video-based reflection could also potentially permit coaches to reflect at a deeper
488 level with appreciation of the nuanced, intricate, and complex nature of coaching (Harvey et
489 al., 2010; Jones & Wallace, 2005) and address issues of practice that have become deep-rooted
490 in a non-reflective manner (Thompson & Pascal, 2012). Consistent with the work of Douglas
491 and Carless (2008), the results here suggested that coaches' were open to changing perspectives
492 as the scenarios unfolded, allied to having time to reflect upon and discuss identified issues
493 with others. This could be interpreted as a good starting point for developing more open
494 mindedness in coaches, thus holding the potential to enhance the change process in coach
495 education and to develop more reflective practitioners. As the longitudinal nature of this
496 research has demonstrated change to coaches' practice is a long-term process and will not
497 happen quickly. In addition, whilst the coaches stated the positive impact of coach education
498 they found it difficult to directly link changes in specific coach behaviour to these statements.
499 So whilst coaches may perceive these courses to have an impact, it appeared more as an
500 explanation for their practice now, rather than an indicator for the reasons for change.

501 Coach education courses have been criticised for their de-contextualised and one size
502 fits all curricula approach that does not allow for coaches to discuss issues that are most
503 pertinent to them (Nelson, Cushion & Potrac, 2006). To develop autonomous learners who are
504 capable of taking ownership of their own learning (Taylor & Garratt, 2010) coach education
505 should consider carefully the learning needs of individual coaches (e.g. Gilbert & Trudel, 2001;
506 Nelson & Cushion, 2006), and the contexts in which they coach. For coaches this means
507 engaging in an ongoing reflective process (Butler, 2006; Ghaye & Ghaye, 1998) that is situated

508 within their knowledge and experiences. As Leamson (2000) implies, it is not the doing that
509 results in learning, but rather the thinking about the doing. The present study provides evidence
510 that the use of contextualised video-based reflection can provide a mechanism for coaches to
511 link new knowledge to their individual coaching.

512

513 **Conclusion**

514 Reflective thinking is not straightforward for coaches (Hughes, Lee & Chesterfield, 2009;
515 Knowles et al., 2001). Hughes et al. (2009) argue that for reflection to impact on their thinking,
516 coaches need to be engaged within a structured reflective process. However, self-reflection has
517 been criticised because coaches' reflections are limited by their own knowledge (Hughes et al.,
518 2009), and restricted by their coaching beliefs (Parajes, 1992). In other words, coaches only
519 reflect on issues they are aware of and are unable to reflect beyond their consciousness. The
520 use of video (Carson, 2008) and discussion with other coaches (Knowles et al., 2001) offers
521 the potential of enabling deeper, more critical levels of reflection. Indeed in the present study
522 contextualised video-based reflection and discussions with others (including the research
523 process) helped the coaches develop self-awareness of their practice, trigger learning, develop
524 and reinforce new knowledge and provide examples of knowledge in practice.

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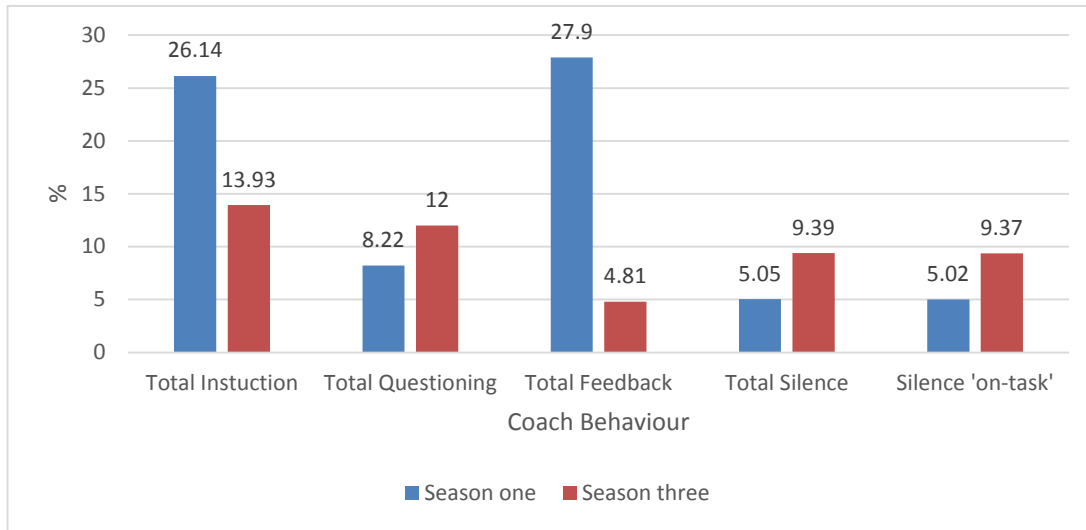
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692 Table 1. Percentage of coaching behaviours used by the five English professional football coaches in season 1 and 3.
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Coach (pseudonyms)	Tony			Pete			Jude			Ian			Lee		
	1	3	Dif.	1	3	Dif.	1	3	Dif.	1	3	Dif.	1	3	Dif.
Pre instruction	2.59	1.86	-0.73	4.46	5.72	+1.26	4.74	6.36	+1.62	0.86	2.58	+1.72	6.53	3.49	-3.04
Concurrent instruction	13.37	7.75	-5.62	21.82	16.40	-5.42	17.42	5.48	-11.94	42.58	12.76	-29.82	6.74	4.27	-2.47
TOTAL instruction	15.96	9.61	-6.35	26.28	22.12	-4.16	22.16	11.84	-10.32	43.44	15.34	-28.10	13.27	7.76	-5.51
Convergent questioning	8.05	7.16	-0.89	5.44	6.49	+1.05	7.23	9.26	+2.03	1.35	6.11	+4.76	6.18	7.69	+1.51
Divergent questioning	0.89	0.41	-0.48	0.04	0.32	+0.28	0.17	0.44	+0.27	0.07	0.42	+0.35	0.00	0.50	+0.50
Questioning - other	0.00	0.00	0.00	4.42	8.52	+4.10	3.03	5.84	+2.81	2.11	3.32	+1.21	3.47	4.70	+1.23
TOTAL questioning	8.94	7.57	-1.37	9.90	15.33	+5.43	10.43	15.54	+5.11	3.53	9.85	+6.32	9.65	12.89	+3.24
Response to question	5.77	6.46	+0.69	4.63	6.08	+1.45	1.67	2.59	+0.92	2.24	2.48	+0.24	3.89	3.77	-0.12
Specific reinforcement (+)	5.46	4.89	-0.57	1.80	2.43	+0.63	9.44	12.11	+2.69	3.36	4.48	+1.12	5.14	2.14	-3.00
Specific reinforcement (-)	2.42	1.16	-1.26	1.43	1.31	-0.12	4.43	2.59	-1.84	1.65	2.79	+1.14	4.79	2.99	-1.80
Total specific reinforcement	7.87	6.12	-1.75	3.23	3.74	+0.51	13.88	14.70	+0.82	5.00	7.27	+2.27	9.93	5.13	-4.80
General reinforcement (+)	12.92	12.93	+0.01	16.13	11.63	-4.50	10.19	9.48	-0.71	20.86	13.92	-6.94	7.92	8.05	+0.13
General reinforcement (-)	0.49	0.12	-0.37	1.27	0.36	-0.91	0.27	0.13	-0.14	0.92	0.16	-0.76	0.07	0.43	+0.36
Total general reinforcement	13.42	13.05	-0.37	17.36	11.99	-5.37	10.47	9.61	-0.86	21.78	14.07	-7.71	7.99	8.48	+0.49
Corrective reinforcement	3.09	2.68	-0.41	4.63	2.61	-2.02	8.97	7.68	-1.29	2.50	4.74	+2.24	6.04	6.34	+0.30
TOTAL feedback	24.38	21.85	-2.53	25.22	18.34	-6.88	33.32	31.99	-1.33	29.28	26.08	-3.20	23.96	19.95	-4.01
Positive modelling	1.57	1.46	-0.11	2.25	1.53	-0.72	1.98	0.79	-1.19	2.34	2.42	+0.08	1.53	1.85	+0.32
Negative modelling	0.22	0.58	+0.36	1.88	0.63	-1.25	0.85	0.39	-0.46	0.00	0.16	+0.16	0.42	0.57	+0.15
TOTAL modelling	1.79	2.04	+0.25	4.13	2.16	-1.97	2.83	1.18	-1.65	2.34	2.58	+0.24	1.95	2.42	+0.47
Silence - on task	5.32	7.16	+1.84	2.70	2.79	+0.09	4.94	7.94	+3.00	1.41	12.92	+11.51	16.25	20.01	+3.76
Silence - off task	0.09	0.12	+0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.00	-0.07
TOTAL silence	5.41	7.28	+1.87	2.70	2.79	+0.09	4.94	7.94	+3.00	1.41	12.92	+11.51	16.32	20.01	+3.69
Management	31.80	32.62	+0.82	21.65	27.35	+5.70	23.05	26.59	+3.54	16.29	23.99	+7.70	27.85	23.50	-4.35
Confer with assistant	0.45	1.92	+1.47	3.07	3.65	+0.58	0.72	1.45	+0.73	0.69	5.54	+4.85	2.43	8.12	+5.69
Humour	4.79	2.56	-2.23	1.96	2.16	+0.20	0.82	0.75	-0.07	0.66	0.84	+0.18	0.56	1.57	+1.01
Hustle	0.58	0.06	-0.52	0.12	0.00	-0.12	0.07	0.00	-0.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.14	0.00	-0.14
Punishment	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.29	0.00	-0.29	0.00	0.04	+0.04	0.00	0.37	+0.37	0.00	0.00	0.00
Scold	0.22	0.06	-0.16	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.09	+0.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
TOTAL punitive	0.22	0.06	-0.16	0.29	0.00	-0.29	0.00	0.13	+0.13	0.00	0.37	+0.37	0.00	0.00	0.00
TOTAL behaviours	100.00	100.00	-	100.00	100.00	-	100.00	100.00	-	100.00	100.00	-	100.00	100.00	-

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696 Figure 1. Changes in coaches combined behaviours (i.e. total instruction, total questioning, total feedback, total silence) and silence 'on-task'.
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