



THE UNIVERSITY *of* EDINBURGH

Edinburgh Research Explorer

Effective coaching in football

Citation for published version:

Nash, C & Mallett, C 2019, Effective coaching in football. in *Football Psychology: From Theory to Practice*. 1st edn, Routledge, pp. 101-116. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315268248-9>

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

[10.4324/9781315268248-9](https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315268248-9)

Link:

[Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer](#)

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

Published In:

Football Psychology

Publisher Rights Statement:

This is an Accepted Manuscript of a book chapter published by Routledge in Football Psychology: From Theory to Practice on 01-05-2019, available online:
<https://www.routledge.com/Football-Psychology-From-Theory-to-Practice-1st-Edition/Konter-Beckmann-Loughead/p/book/9781138287518>

General rights

Copyright for the publications made accessible via the Edinburgh Research Explorer is retained by the author(s) and / or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing these publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy

The University of Edinburgh has made every reasonable effort to ensure that Edinburgh Research Explorer content complies with UK legislation. If you believe that the public display of this file breaches copyright please contact openaccess@ed.ac.uk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.



8 Effective coaching in football

Christine Nash and Clifford J. Mallett

Abstract

Coaches are held totally responsible and accountable for performance outcomes in football. Although this high degree of accountability might seem appropriate to the media and public at large, the reality of understanding effective coaching is more muddled. Effective coaching is complex and multifaceted and occurs within a chaotic, unpredictable, and often uncontrollable environment; that is, it is characterised by an incongruency between intended performance goals and actual results (Jones & Wallace, 2005). The emphasis on winning and the context of football coaching contribute to problematising effective coaching. Therefore, in this chapter, we highlight the problematic nature of judging coaching effectiveness; for example, the varying criteria for assessing coaching effectiveness. Furthermore, we considered the definition of coaching effectiveness in terms of athletes' outcomes, coaches' knowledge, and the saliency of context (Côté & Gilbert, 2009). Coaches have obligations to help players flourish through football and contribute to both professional and personal development. These developmental outcomes are contingent upon the quality of the coaching experience. The discussion on the complexity of coaches' work, the differing tasks and roles of a football coach, will hopefully invite coaches to question and reflect on their current practices, and consider the nature of their impact on players, and what evidence of that impact. Finally, effective football coaches should strive to be lifelong learners to provide football players with quality sporting experiences.

Coaches are considered central actors in the coach-athlete-performance relationship (Mallett, 2010; Mallett & Lara-Bercial, 2016). When teams win, coaches are celebrated for their success. In contrast, when teams are losing coaches are typically held totally responsible. A good example of this taken-for-granted role of the head coach is the rise and fall of Claudio Ranieri over a 2-year period. He was the former manager (coach) of Leicester City (English Premier League winners in 2015–2016) and subsequently won

the *The Best FIFA Men's Coach Award* for 2015–2016 and *BBC Sports Personality of the Year Coach Award* for 2016. On the basis of these public acknowledgements it is reasonable to assume that he is an effective football coach. However, within 12 months he was sacked due to the poor results (losses and subsequent high risk of relegation) of Leicester City. This example, which is not uncommon in football, supports the notion that coaches are held totally responsible for the success of the football team. Nevertheless, it raises some interesting questions, including: What is the contribution of a coach to a football team? How do we know if a coach has contributed in positive ways to the team performance? What criteria might we use to consider that question? What data (evidence) might be used to assist with a valid and reliable assessment? These are important questions to ponder in thinking about effective coaching in football.

Whilst winning is almost universally considered the single most important criterion for defining success in coaching, Bowes and Jones (2006) highlight the view that coaches are working near or on 'the edge of chaos' (p. 235). For example, as much as coaches attempt to control all factors that underpin successful performance, they have limited influence on some aspects of coaching work in elite sporting contexts (e.g. players' personal issues, injury, illness; Mallett & Côté, 2006). Nonetheless, high-performance (football) coaches are held accountable for producing successful (winning) outcomes (Gillham, Burton, & Gillham, 2013; Kristiansen & Roberts, 2010; Mallett, 2010; Mallett & Côté, 2006) amidst this pathos, chaos, and complexity (Bowes & Jones, 2006; Jones & Wallace, 2005). This over-emphasis on win-loss records marginalises the pathos, dynamism, and complexity of coaching in elite football (Bowes & Jones, 2006; Jones & Wallace, 2005) and the ongoing challenges (and opportunities) of working with others in a highly contested setting and context (Mallett, 2007; Rynne & Mallett, 2012) in which there is increasing international investment and competition (Mallett & Lara-Bercial, 2016). To represent high-performance (football) coaching as a series of observable behaviours and knowable processes ignores the complexity of coaches' work and the interplay between personal agency and social context. Any scrutiny of the effectiveness of coaches should consider the many interdependent relationships including (a) nature of coaching tasks; (b) coaches' interpersonal

relationships; and (c) the specific coaching setting and broader context (Mallett, 2007; Mallett, Rossi, Rynne, & Tinning, 2016; Rynne & Mallett, 2012).

Coaches are performers in their own right (Mallett & Lara-Bercial, 2016) but making valid judgements about their performance is problematic. Moreover, there is considerable debate around a consensual definition of effectiveness in sport coaching; therefore, in this chapter we will examine some of the scholarly discussions surrounding the notion of effective football coaching. This chapter will highlight key aspects of effectiveness across the performance pathway, from introduction to football to the professional competitive environment. It will also examine the role of coach education and development in facilitating effective coaching behaviours.

What can we learn from some of the world's most successful coaches?

In a recent international study, Mallett and Lara-Bercial examined the personality, practices, and development of 17 of the world's most successful coaches, known as Serial Winning Coaches (SWC; Lara-Bercial & Mallett, 2016; Mallett & Coulter, 2016; Mallett & Lara-Bercial, 2016; Lara-Bercial & Mallett, 2016). In the recruitment of these participants, coaches who were consistently successful over many years in winning professional league titles or Olympic gold medals (collectively more than 140 medals/titles) were targeted. The participant sample also included gold medal winning athletes (N = 19) they coached in the past 5 years. These coaches were reported as seeing the 'big picture'; they were optimistic, diligent, emotionally stable, and marginally more extroverted performers, who were visionaries and strategic in delivering on those clearly articulated visions. They were also able to create a strong social identity (Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2011) for their team by developing confidence in each other and a sense of 'we' through empathy and collaboration; in other words, they were able to harness the relational power of players and support personnel. The athletes reported that, in comparison to other coaches, these SWC were highly competent in the soft skills (i.e. inter-personal skills such as empathy and intra-personal skills such as self-awareness). An overarching principle that fuelled the actions of these highly successful coaches was the concept of *driven benevolence* (Lara-Bercial & Mallett,

2016). The SWC were highly driven to pursue excellence, which was underpinned by a coherent and grounded personal philosophy. Central to this philosophy was an ‘enduring and balanced desire to considerately support oneself and others’ (Lara-Bercial & Mallett, 2016, p. 12). Indeed, in addition to consistently showing benevolence towards athletes and support staff, a unique finding was the compassion coaches felt towards themselves, which buffered them from the stressors associated with high-performance coaching. Consequently, they created a functional and adaptive work environment that was consistently high performing and innovative.

Coaching effectiveness?

The notion of effective coaching can be considered from different perspectives that are often contradictory. For example, Arnott and Sparrow (2004) highlighted selection criteria for determining effectiveness or choosing an effective coach, that included previous coaching experience, record of achievements, professional standards, personal style, organisational/cultural fit, systematic approach, costs, knowledge of organisational issues, evidence of ongoing professional development, management experience, experience of the industry, and finally coaching qualifications. From another perspective, the visual and written media and film often tend to portray the coach as something less than effective: ‘the coach could be described as either the hapless, comedic character, a figure to be made fun of or the stereotypical coach/instructor who spend his time shouting instructions from the sidelines to ‘motivate’ his team’ (Jolly & Lyle, 2016, p. 43). While these views presented within the media should not be accepted as authentic it does portray a putative view of the sports coach, which undoubtedly demeans the emerging profession of coaching.

Based on a review of literature, Côté and Gilbert (2009) proposed the following integrative definition of coaching effectiveness: ‘The consistent application of integrated professional, interpersonal, and intrapersonal knowledge to improve athletes’ competence, confidence, connection, and character in specific coaching contexts’ (p. 316). According to Côté and Gilbert, any definition of coaching effectiveness should include three essential and foundational components:

- 1 Athletes' outcomes (e.g. competence, confidence, connection, and character; impact of coaching);
- 2 Coach's knowledge (e.g. integrated professional, interpersonal, and intrapersonal; coach as learner); and
- 3 Coaching contexts (e.g. participation, performance; what is coaches' work?).

First, effective coaches should support their players' competence, confidence, connection, and character (4Cs) as key development outcomes. These four Cs are based on the positive youth development (PYD) movement (Larson, 2000) and the work of Lerner and colleagues (2005). Fraser-Thomas and Côté (2009) applied Lerner et al.'s framework to sport. Specifically, Fraser-Thomas and Côté proposed that the focus of sport programmes should be on explicit outcomes that seek to develop positive assets, enhance performance, and foster continued participation in youth sport to thrive through life's experiences. Hamilton, Hamilton, and Pittman (2004) reported the importance of fostering people's strengths to promote adaptive development in youth:

[it] enables individuals to lead a healthy, satisfying, and productive life as youth, and later as adults, because they gain the competence to earn a living, to engage in civic activities, to nurture others, and to participate in social relations and cultural activities.

(p. 4)

To foster the development of these outcomes (competence, confidence, connectedness, character) from participation in football requires coaches to possess sufficient knowledge. Côté and Gilbert (2009) suggest that coaches' knowledge should be based in three key areas, namely, professional, inter-personal, and intra-personal. Professional or sport specific knowledge includes knowing the sport (rules, technical, tactical, equipment) and sport science (e.g. development, medicine, recovery). Inter-personal knowledge is important to foster quality player relationships with other actors in the sporting context as well as a knowledge and understanding of sport pedagogy. Intra-personal knowledge relates to a coach's philosophy, leadership, and importantly ongoing learning and reflection.

Effective coaches not only translate their knowledge to facilitate explicit player outcomes but do so in specific coaching contexts that reflect differences in the roles of coaches (i.e. coaches' work) and player motivations and aspirations, and ability levels. The saliency of the context is central to any consideration of coaching effectiveness. Côté and colleagues (e.g. Côté & Erickson, 2016; Côté, Lidor, & Hackfort, 2009; Côté & Vierimaa, 2014) developed the Developmental Model of Sport Participation with two key pathways for players – participation and performance. In the participation pathway, coaches work with children, adolescents, and/or adults. In the performance pathway, coaches' work is focused on different levels of ability – emerging, performance, and elite players. Furthermore, we might consider that within these contexts there are myriad coaching roles, such as, assistant, coach, senior coach, and head/master coach/manager (International Council for Coaching Excellence (ICCE), 2013). Mallett and Rynne (2015) highlighted that coaches, who are the architects of the sport setting (Mallett, 2005; Nash & Sproule, 2011), should be mindful of the specific needs, motives, and challenges of sport participants across development and for different pathways (participation and performance) to guide the quality of their practice.

What else can we learn from research on successful coaches, cognisant that success is a proxy criterion for coaching effectiveness? Some research studies have presented the developmental trajectories of successful coaches (e.g. Côté & Mallett, 2006; Lara-Bercial & Mallett, 2016; Mallett, Rynne & Billett, 2016; Nash & Sproule, 2009; Rynne, 2014; Rynne & Mallett, 2012; Werthner & Trudel, 2006), motivations (e.g. McLean & Mallett, 2012), perceived needs (e.g. Allen & Shaw, 2009), interactions with others on the coaching/support team (e.g. Nash & Martindale, 2013) and confidantes (e.g. Occhino, Mallett, & Rynne, 2013), their personal qualities and skills, and strategies for coping (e.g. Becker, 2009; Nash & Sproule, 2009; Norman & French, 2013; Olusoga, Maynard, Hays, & Butt, 2012). Studies investigating athletes' perceptions of their coaches' practices have also been conducted (e.g. Purdy & Jones, 2011). This extant literature has revealed some consistent findings (e.g. typically played the sport they coached; hardworking; learn mostly through coaching experience; influenced by more knowledgeable others; influence of sporting experiences to how they coach; short period in transition to elite coaching). However, many studies only

consider coaches' perceptions and often through retrospective recall. Other means of data collection, such as observation (Nash & Sproule, 2012) would complement these retrospective studies. Nevertheless, there is limited research examining coaching effectiveness beyond the proxy criterion of coaching success.

In the preceding pages, we have highlighted the problematic nature of judging coaching effectiveness; for example, the varying criteria for assessing coaching effectiveness. Furthermore, we considered the definition of coaching effectiveness in terms of athletes' outcomes, coaches' knowledge, and the saliency of context (Côté & Gilbert, 2009). We now examine what we know and do not know about effective football coaching.

What is effective football coaching?

In the recruitment of football coaches, there is still an expectation that an effective coach will have been an ex-player who has played the game at the highest level and therefore knows from playing experience how to coach successfully and therefore effectively (Gilbert, Côté, & Mallett, 2006; Rynne, 2014; Trudel & Gilbert, 2006). However, many coaches are appointed without adequate training (Mallett, Rossi, et al., 2016).

Research has shown that coach reputation can influence behaviours such as athletes' attention to coach instruction, effort, and persistence in football (Manley, Greenlees, Smith, Batten, & Birch, 2014). Making the transition between player and coach can be a difficult task, which may explain why there are few player-coaches in the professional game of football. Research into the qualities of skilled coaches suggested key differences to those of skilled athletes, examining the perceptual-cognitive abilities of football coaches and players. Findings suggested that with lower levels of information processing, such as the more perceptual tasks, players outperform coaches, while tasks with higher demands on information processing, like strategising or decision making, are more specifically related to coaching skill and therefore the coaches are better than players (Gründel, Schorer, Strauss, & Baker, 2013).

However, there are some ex-players who have become effective coaches but until there is a universally accepted definition of effectiveness within football coaching there will always be debate and discussion around these issues. There are a number of

questions that need to be considered around effectiveness in football coaching and there have been attempts using match statistics to identify some key success factors within World Cup campaigns. The performances in three World Cups (Korea/Japan; Germany; South Africa) were examined with the aim of identifying what made the difference between winning, drawing, and losing teams. Variables were categorised as offensive (goals scored, total shots, shots on target, shots off target, ball possession) and defensive (total shots received, shots on target received, shots off target received, off-sides received, fouls committed, corners against) with the key variables identified as ball possession and the effectiveness of their attacking play (Castellano, Casamichana, & Lago, 2012).

These elements may lead to successful national football teams; however, as mentioned previously in this chapter, effective coaching in football is more complicated than identifying these indicators of success. Effective coaching behaviours are those that result in not only successful team and individual performances but also other positive players' outcomes. These differentiations are important as the effects could impact on the short- and long-term performance of both coach and athlete, and may also determine the quality of the ensuing coach-athlete-performance relationship, central to effective coaching. If football coaches are committed to becoming effective, then the following questions may provide some useful information that coaches can take and apply to their own particular circumstances mentioned earlier, i.e. athletes' outcomes, coach's knowledge, and coaching contexts.

What is football coaches' work?

Within football there are a number of roles that could essentially involve the same, or similar job. What is the difference between a football manager and a football coach? In some cases, they are very similar but in others they could be markedly different. There are similar semantic and practical differences between assistant coaches, assistant managers, age-group coaches, junior coaches, and player coaches. Some of these positions require a certain level of coach qualification and accreditation; however, in some instances few formal requirements are necessary. This adds to the complexity of the football coaching role and in turn the definition of an effective football coach.

How do coaches learn their craft? What is the coaching environment?

Football coaches develop their coaching craft using a variety of strategies but key to this development are a supportive club environment, critical thinking skills, and a personal desire to develop their knowledge base in a range of areas (Nash et al., 2010). Using a social learning theory framework, Occhino et al. (2013) highlighted that high performance football coaches in Australia reported that they learned their craft most through other valued and respected coaches – this was unsurprising; however, a key finding was that who these significant others (confidantes) were changed over time. The primary reason for changing personnel over time was the ongoing development of the coach and the need to seek others who were more knowledgeable in assisting coaches with specific coach-player-performance issues. Hence the authors termed these ever-changing relationships Dynamic Social Networks (DSN) to describe the nature of these interactions.

In another study of Australian coaches, Mallett, Rynne, and Billett (2016) found that these developing high-performance coaches valued an increasing number of sources (e.g. others, study, coaching experience, consultants) to progress their craft over the course of their careers to date as access and self-awareness increased – the importance of multiple sources for learning was underscored. Furthermore, they valued discussions with others and working with consultants to stimulate reflective practices as they progressed in their careers. What was valued at different stages of their coaching careers shifted from what (content) to more about the how and why highlighting the temporal variance in coaching sources. Indeed, beyond access to learning opportunities per se it is important to note the differential engagement of different learning experiences throughout the coaching pathway. It should be noted that in this study, the coaches did not report what they thought was the ideal or preferred way to develop their craft but rather an evaluation of what they had access to. Finally, there was a move away from a reliance on proximal learning sources (e.g. experienced other) for the mentor (experienced) coaches but a shift towards these experienced others for the developing coaches.

Players also learn better in a challenging environment, feeling that a specific activity promotes learning and is developmentally appropriate. So how can effective football coaches influence the practice setting to achieve these objectives? A Finnish football club had success using the Sport Education model to make the environment more player-friendly (Romar, Sarén, & Hastie, 2016). According to Siedentop (1994) the Sport Education model, although primarily developed for physical education, shifts the responsibility to the players and they fulfil a variety of roles, including instructing or coaching their peers.

Sports coaches play a critical role in activating coaching programmes on a daily basis and also the training environment, often known as the motivational climate, within the coaching setting, which can be the athlete's perception of the social environment as created by the coach (MacDonald, Côté, & Deakin, 2010). This motivational climate has a significant influence on participants' motivation, the quality of their involvement, their emotional responses, and the likelihood of their continued participation in or 'drop out' from sport (Duda & Balaguer, 2007). By planning practice sessions, recognising effort and improvement, assessing performance, sharing authority, and ultimately shaping the sport setting, effective coaches create a mastery motivational climate that can have an important and adaptive impact on players' motivation and learning (Morgan & Hassan, 2014). Previous research has identified the positive influences of a mastery climate on participants' motivational responses (e.g. Morgan, Kingston, & Sproule, 2005).

Are the activities organised?

Many coaching courses emphasise the importance of planning and within the UK the mnemonic, *Plan, Do, Review*, can be repeated as a mantra for coaches. However, this approach can have limitations as well as some benefits for both players and coaches. For example, research findings have consistently shown that the capacity to plan coaching practice is a determining factor of coaching effectiveness (Lyle, 2010). Planning is crucial to the development of a coach since it encourages deep thinking, raises expectations of both coach and player, and provides a template from which thoughtful reflection can occur post-delivery (Abraham & Collins 2011). Coaches

should plan however it can lead to excessive regimentation, with coaches following a plan without any consideration of the players in front of them. Even with a plan and an extensive background in their particular sport, in this case football, some coaches can struggle to develop a coherent, quality plan for their sessions (Abraham et al., 2014). A quality plan does not mean it has to be followed to the letter but rather provides a fluid guide for the coach with clear objectives, an insistence on quality, and requires some player involvement and interaction.

Do players have autonomy?

Effective coaching in football is not about shouting instructions from the sidelines or controlling play during practice sessions. Instead, it requires coaches to encourage players to become self-determined (autonomous) on the field of play and confident enough to problem solve and make decisions as to the appropriate actions to take (Larsen et al., 2015; Light, Harvey, & Mouchet, 2014). Unless players are encouraged to think for themselves and evaluate the best course of action during practice they will not be able to make effective decisions during the pressure of competition. Every player on a football team will have some cognitive ability and the coach must be able to plan practice sessions and create a training environment to develop these important footballing abilities (Woods, Raynor, Bruce, & McDonald, 2015). In the modern game of football, coaches and players alike must appreciate and actively promote these decision-making skills, such as what pass to play, what weight of pass, how to create space, and then be able to execute these decisions.

Is the coach's feedback helpful?

Effective football coaches require skills to identify players' strengths and weaknesses, formulate appropriate corrective and informational feedback and praise, as well as communicating in an accessible language (Januário, Rosado, & Mesquita, 2013). This means the coach has to acquire:

- Observation skills – to watch the players during training and competition and note both individual and team strengths and weaknesses.

- Evaluation skills – to pinpoint the key strengths and weaknesses and understand what is causing these to happen.
- Communication skills – once the coach has observed and evaluated both individual and team performance, they need to provide feedback. Providing meaningful feedback in a way that can be understood and acted upon can be dependent upon the coach's knowledge of both individual players and context.

According to Bortoli and colleagues (2010), experienced coaches tend to give feedback that is more specific in identifying weaknesses, related to previous feedback, and often provided this feedback during the performance. However, as well as coaches requiring to deliver appropriate feedback to their players, effective football coaches need to gain feedback on their own coaching in order to adapt their practice and this is often difficult to access from credible sources (Nash, Sproule, & Horton, 2017).

Do coaches contribute to players' personal and character development?

Football coaches need to understand their moral obligations to players, especially at the youth and developmental level (Evans, McGuckin, Gainforth, Bruner, & Côté, 2015). The majority of players who start playing football at an early age will not develop into professionals so coaches should adopt a holistic perspective. Players should be engaged in activities that help develop psychomotor, cognitive, and psychosocial abilities that are needed to play football but also encouraged to see the wider implications of participation in a team sport to personal development, including character.

Assessing/evaluating coach effectiveness

Given the difficulties surrounding a definition of coaching effectiveness it stands to reason that there are similar problems when measuring or judging effective coaching. For example, there are a number of key stakeholders in the process who would have very different conceptions of effectiveness, namely: performers/teams; coaches; parents; and significant others in current organisations, sporting organisations, and coaching organisations.

Performers, understandably, can have a very self-focused view of the coaching effectiveness (how is the coach helping ME?); whereas, coaches need to view the concept of effectiveness more holistically (how do I develop the team/group to their potential?). Parents, traditionally, view the coach through the lens of their child or children and their particular interests (Is my child getting sufficient playing time?), whereas organisations can have a mixed view (Is the club/team winning?). The current organisation or club should have codes of conduct and professional standards that they need to implement within their particular association and these values should be validated and endorsed by both sporting and coaching organisations. Maintaining a balance between these often opposing views of coaching effectiveness can be a difficult task, necessitating some discussion of values and philosophy amongst ALL key stakeholders so that some agreement and accommodation can be reached. This should preclude disagreements around judgements of coaching effectiveness and also ensure that everyone involved should understand the main principles, how they can be applied, and, importantly, there are nuances, meaning decision making may not be straightforward and vary from situation to situation.

There have been attempts to develop systematic methods of evaluating coaching effectiveness as success in sport, particularly for coaches, has historically been evaluated predominantly through performance outcome measures. The Coach Behavior Scale for Sports (CBS-S; Côté, Yardley, Hay, Sedgwick, & Baker, 1999) was developed to assess the players' perceptions of the coach's behaviours. Further, Mallett and Côté (2006) argued the importance of moving beyond winning and losing to evaluate coach performance using the CBS-S, specifically, arguing for players' voice in any evaluation. This measure has been shown to possess satisfactory ecological validity (Koh, Mallett, & Wang, 2009). Another example of this is the Coaching Success Questionnaire (CSQ-2B), developed by Gillham and colleagues (2013), that can be valuable in determining global elements of effectiveness; however, the authors acknowledge the complexities presented by this type of measurement. Recently, Smith and colleagues (2015) developed a system for assessing the coach-created motivational climate in sport. This means of assessing was based on observing coach behaviours related to self-determination (including basic needs), and achievement motivation theories.

The performance pathway in football

Many sporting organisations have clearly delineated pathways for the development of players – this is also the case in football. However, not all football clubs and coaches adhere to the principles of talent development by enrolling promising players at a relatively early age aiming to develop players who will be professionals in adulthood. Research has indicated that coaches appear to be relatively ineffective in their selection processes (Nicholls & Worsfold, 2016). This may relate to the emphasis on key principles of nature rather than nurture, physiological issues rather than psychological interventions, and the exclusion of social skills (Miller, Cronin, & Baker, 2015). While player development is of interest to football coaches it is not the purpose of this chapter but serves to highlight the changing nature of effectiveness along the performance pathway.

How effective is coaching along the performance pathway?

The traditional coaching scenario within football has seen novice coaches working with novice players and, conversely, elite, experienced coaches working with more skilled players. There are a number of issues with this arrangement:

Where should experienced coaches be deployed?

Within the UK there has been considerable debate around the employment of coaches, which has led to recommendations around minimum standards. A guideline document, *Excellent Coaching Every Time for Everyone*, (sportcoachUK, 2010), has provided five key areas for consideration:

- minimum age
- appropriate qualifications
- appropriate insurance cover
- safeguarding children and vulnerable groups
- policies and procedures.

However well intentioned these guidelines might be, they do provide what are at best minimum standards to comply with health and safety requirements and, as such, have

little to do with effective coaching. Research has suggested that rather than experienced coaches working with the more performance end of the playing spectrum, they should be working with beginner players to ensure that they have a positive experience and learn the basics of both movement and football (Nash, Sproule, & Horton, 2011). In the present system, there appear to be few rewards for experienced coaches working to introduce youngsters to football.

2<en>How should novice coaches be encouraged to learn and develop effective coaching skills?

Often novice coaches can wonder if effective, experienced coaches possess mysterious methods for producing results and consequently often mimic, or copy, the more experienced coaches' skills and drills (Nash & Sproule, 2011). Football coaches need to orchestrate a large number of variables when planning and executing a training session, and their success depends on their coaching knowledge and their skill at contextualising the necessary components for specific situations (Nash et al., 2011). Nevertheless, how do inexperienced coaches gain this understanding (Nash et al., 2011)? Novice coaches should be able to experiment, and use trial and error to work out the most effective ways for them to develop and get the most out of their team. The use of mentoring to provide the often missing link between theory and practice is a recent phenomenon of investigation within sports coaching literature and the ICCE has suggested it as an effective means to encourage and support the ongoing learning and professional development of coaches (ICCE, 2013; McQuade, Davis, & Nash, 2015). Nevertheless, the notion of mentoring within the field of sports coaching is also problematic as it means different things to different people and there is no consensus on what it is and what it is not (Rynne, Crudgington, & Mallett, in press).

3<en>What skills are required at different levels of coaching

Pain and Harwood (2007) examined the performance environment of the England youth soccer teams. Their finding revealed adhering to a consistent tournament strategy, player understanding, strong team cohesion, organised entertainment activities, detailed knowledge of opposition, an effective physical rest/recovery strategy, and previous

tournament experience were major positive influences on performance. However, negative factors perceived were identified as over-coaching, player boredom, player anxiety, physical superiority of the opposition, physical fatigue over the tournament, problems sleeping, and lack of information on the opposition. Research has suggested that there are training behaviours that can act as predictors of team sport success, namely, professionalism, motivation, coping, committed, effort, seeking information to improve, and concentration (Oliver, Hardy, & Markland, 2010).

A so called ‘soccer factory’ exists in Munich, where effective coaching and development of players along the performance pathway at Bayern Munich, has provided the German national team with a number of key players (Hughes, 2010). However, Grossmann and Lames (2015) suggested that this clear pathway, or route, into the Bundesliga (German professional leagues) is more widespread with over 80% of players progressing through a professional youth academy. Recent research into the successful US women’s football coach, Anson Dorrance, has concluded that he believes in eight goals for effective coaching: the leadership style of the coach, creating a positive team environment while retaining discipline, structuring the competitive team environment for success, embedding key psychological principles for elite athletes, acknowledging the challenges of high-performance coaching, realising that elite athletes can establish a great team, the coach being a role model in competition, and finally the long-term development of elite coaching practice (Wang & Straub, 2012).

Much of the published research has concentrated upon the high-performance coaching environment and the coaching required to develop elite performers; however, there is little on the developmental coaching side. According to Condon (2012) many of these coaches struggle to develop the necessary skills due to a combination of circumstances (e.g. money, access, and the transitory nature of coaching engagement).

Conclusion

In this chapter, we examined the difficulties and challenges surrounding the notion of effective football coaching. The emphasis on winning and the context of football coaching contribute to problematising effective coaching. We hope that the emphasis placed upon the differing roles of a football coach have engendered questioning,

reflection on current practice, and a recognition of the complex nature of this topic. Effective football coaches should strive to be lifelong learners, taking advantage of all development opportunities and insist upon quality within their practices.

References

- Abraham, A., & Collins, D. (2011). Effective skill development: How should athletes' skills be developed? In D. Collins, H. Richards, & A. Button (Eds.), *Performance psychology: A guide for the practitioner* (pp. 207–230). London, England: Churchill Livingstone.
- Abraham, A., Saiz, A. L. J, Mckeown, S., Morgan, G., Muir, B., North, J., & Till, K. (2014). Planning your coaching: A focus on youth participant development. In C. Nash (Ed.), *Practical sports coaching* (pp. 177–189). London, England: Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.
- Arnott, J., & Sparrow, J. (2004). The Coaching Study 2004. University of Central England (UCE), Birmingham, England.
- Becker, A. J. (2009). It's not what they do, it's how they do it: Athlete experiences of great coaching. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 4(1), 93–114.
- Bortoli, L., Bertollo, M., Messina, G., Chiariotti, R., & Robazza, C. (2010). Augmented feedback of experienced and less experienced volleyball coaches: A preliminary investigation. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 38(4), 453–460.
- Bowes, I., & Jones, R. L. (2006). Working at the edge of chaos: Understanding coaching as a complex interpersonal system. *The Sports Psychologist*, 20, 235–245.
- Castellano, J., Casamichana, D., & Lago, C. (2012). The use of match statistics that discriminate between successful and unsuccessful soccer teams. *Journal of Human Kinetics*, 31, 139–147.
- Condon, P. (2012). Grass roots social learning: Guiding young coaches. *Training & Development*, 39(6), 18–19.
- Côté, J., & Erickson, K. (2016). Diversification and deliberate play during the sampling years. In J. Baker & D. Farrow (Eds.), *The handbook of sport expertise* (pp. 305–316). London, England: Routledge.
- Côté, J., & Gilbert, W. (2009). An integrative definition of coaching effectiveness and expertise. *International Journal of Sport Science and Coaching*, 4, 307–323.

- Côté, J., Lidor, R., & Hackfort, D. (2009). ISSP position stand: To sample or to specialize? Seven postulates about youth sport activities that lead to continued participation and elite performance. *International Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, *9*, 7–17.
- Côté, J., & Vierimaa, M. (2014). The developmental model of sport participation: 15 years after its first conceptualization. *Science and Sports*, *29s*, S63–S69.
- Côté, J., Yardley, J., Hay, J., Sedgwick, W., & Baker, J. (1999). An exploratory examination
- Duda, J. L., & Balaguer, I. (2007). Coach created motivational climate. In S. Jowett & D. Lavallee (Eds.), *Social psychology in sport* (pp. 117–130). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Evans, M., McGuckin, M., Gainforth, H., Bruner, M., & Côté, J. (2015). Coach development programmes to improve interpersonal coach behaviours: A systematic review using the re-aim framework. *British Journal of Sports Medicine*, 7 May.
- Fraser-Thomas, J., & Côté, J. (2009). Understanding adolescents' positive and negative developmental experiences in sport. *The Sport Psychologist*, *23*, 3–23.
- Gilbert, W., Côté, J., & Mallett, C. (2006). Developmental paths and activities of successful sport coaches. *International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching*, *1*, 69–76.
- Gillham, A., Burton, D., & Gillham, E. (2013). Going beyond won-loss record to identify successful coaches: Development and preliminary validation of the Coaching Success Questionnaire-2. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, *8*(1), 115–138.
- Grossmann, B., & Lames, M. (2015). From talent to professional football-youthism in German football. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, *10*(6), 1103–1113.
- Gründel, A., Schorer, J., Strauss, B., & Baker, J. (2013). Does playing experience improve coaching? An exploratory study of perceptual-cognitive skill in soccer coaches. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *4*, 129.
- Hamilton, S. F., Hamilton, M. A., & Pittman, K. (2004). Principles for youth development. In S. F. Hamilton & M. A. Hamilton (Eds.), *The youth development handbook: Coming of age in American communities* (pp. 3–22). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Haslam, S. A., Reicher, S. D., & Platow, M. J. (2011). *The new psychology of leadership: Identity, influence and power*. New York, NY: Psychology Press.
- Hughes, R. (2010, August 23). Soccer factory in Munich is building a better Germany. *The New York Times*, p. D8.
- International Council for Coaching Excellence (2013). *International Sport Coaching Framework* (version 1.2). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

- Januário, N., Rosado, A., & Mesquita, I. (2013). Variables affecting athletes' retention of coaches' feedback. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 117*(2), 389–401.
- Jolly, S., & Lyle, J. (2016). The traditional, the ideal and the unexplored: Sport coaches' social identity constructs in film. *Sports Coaching Review, 1*–13.
- Jones, R. L., & Wallace, M. (2005). Another bad day at the training ground: Coping with ambiguity in the coaching context. *Sport, Education and Society, 10*(1), 119–134.
- Koh, K. T., Mallett, C. J., & Wang, C. K. J. (2009). Examining the ecological validity of the Coaching Behavior Scale (Sports) for basketball. *International Journal of Sport Science & Coaching, 4*, 261–272.
- Kristiansen, E., & Roberts, G. C. (2010). Young elite athletes and social support: Coping with competitive and organizational stress in 'Olympic' competition. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports, 20*, 686–695.
- Lara-Bercial, S., & Mallett, C. J. (2016). The practices and developmental pathways of professional and Olympic serial winning coaches. *International Sport Coaching Journal, 3*, 113–127.
- Larsen, T., Van Hove, A., Tjomsland, H. E., Holsen, I., Wold, B., Heuzé, J. P., & Sarrazin, P. (2015). Creating a supportive environment among youth football players: A qualitative study of French and Norwegian youth grassroots football coaches. *Health Education, 115*(6), 570–586.
- Larson, R. W. (2000). Toward a psychology of positive youth development. *American Psychologist, 55*, 170–183.
- Lerner, R. M., Lerner, J. V., Almerigi, J., Theokas, C., Naudeau, S., Gestsdottir, S., et al. (2005). Positive youth development, participation in community youth development programs, and community contributions of fifth grade adolescents: Findings from the first wave of the 4-H study of positive youth development. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 25*(1), 17–71.
- Light, R. L., Harvey, S., & Mouchet, A. (2014). Improving 'At-Action' decision-making in team sports through a holistic coaching approach. *Sport, Education and Society, 19*(3), 258–275.
- Lyle, J. (2010). Planning for team sports. In J. Lyle & C. Cushion (Eds.), *Sports coaching: Professionalism and practice* (pp. 85–98). Edinburgh, Scotland: Churchill Livingstone.
- MacDonald, D., Côté, J., & Deakin, J. (2010). The impact of informal coach training on the personal development of youth sport athletes. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching, 5*, 363–372.

- Mallett, C. J. (2005). Self-determination theory: A case study of evidence-based coaching. *The Sport Psychologist, 19*, 417–429.
- Mallett, C. (2007). Modelling the complexity of the coaching process: A commentary. *International Journal of Sport Science & Coaching, 2*, 419–421.
- Mallett, C. J. (2010). High performance coaches' careers and communities. In J. Lyle & C. Cushion (Eds.), *Sports coaching: Professionalism and practice* (pp. 119–133). Edinburgh, Scotland: Churchill Livingstone.
- Mallett, C. J., & Côté, J. (2006). Beyond winning and losing: Guidelines for evaluating high performance coaches. *The Sport Psychologist, 20*, 213–221.
- Mallett, C., & Coulter, T. (2016). The anatomy of a successful Olympic coach: Performer, agent, and author. *International Sport Coaching Journal, 3*, 113-127.
- Mallett, C. J., & Lara-Bercial, S. (2016). Serial winning coaches: People, vision and environment. In M. Raab, P. Wylleman, R. Seiler, A-M. Elbe, & A. Hatzigeorgiadis (Eds.), *Sport and exercise psychology research: Theory to practice* (pp. 289–322). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: Elsevier.
- Mallett, C. J., Rossi, T., Rynne, S., & Tinning, R. (2016). In pursuit of becoming a senior coach: The learning culture for Australian Football League coaches. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 21*(1), 24–39.
- Mallett, C. J., & Rynne, S. B. (2015). Changing role of coaches across development. In J. Baker & D. Farrow (Eds), *The Routledge Handbook of Sport Expertise* (pp. 394–403). London: Routledge.
- Mallett, C. J., Rynne, S. B., & Billett, S. (2016). Valued learning experiences of early career and experienced high performance coaches. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 21*(1), 89–104.
- Manley, A. J., Greenlees, I. A., Smith, M. J., Batten, J., & Birch, P. J. (2014). The influence of coach reputation on the behavioral responses of male soccer players. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports, 24*(2), e111–e120.
- McLean, K., & Mallett, C. J. (2012). What motivates the motivators? *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy, 17*(1), 21–35.
- McQuade, S., Davis, L., & Nash, C. (2015). Positioning mentoring as a coach development tool: Recommendations for future practice and research. *Quest, 67*(3), 317–329.

- Miller, P., Cronin, C., & Baker, G. (2015). Nurture, nature and some very dubious social skills: An interpretative phenomenological analysis of talent identification practices in elite English youth soccer. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health*, 1–21.
- Morgan, K., Kingston, K., & Sproule, J. (2005). Effects of different teaching styles on the teacher behaviours that influence motivational climate in physical education. *European Physical Education Review*, 11, 257–286.
- Nash, C., & Martindale, R. (2013). The relevance of sports science information to coaches of football and rugby league. *Science and Football VII*, 391–397 London, England: Routledge.
- Nash, C., & Sproule, J. (2009). Career development of expert coaches. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 4(1), 121–138.
- Nash, C., & Sproule, J. (2011). Insights into experiences: Reflections of an expert and novice coach. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 6, 149–161.
- Nash, C., & Sproule, J. (2012). Coaches' perceptions of coach education experiences. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 43, 33–52.
- Nash, C., Sproule, J., & Horton, P. (2011). Excellence in coaching: The art and skill of elite practitioners. *Research Quarterly in Exercise & Sport*, 82(2), 229–238.
- Nash, C., Sproule, J., & Horton, P. (2017). Feedback for coaches: Who coaches the coach? *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 12(1), 92–102.
- Nicholls, S., & Worsfold, P. (2016). The observational analysis of elite coaches within youth soccer: The importance of performance analysis. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 11(6), 825–831.
- Norman, L., & French, J. (2013). Understanding how high performance women athletes experience the coach–athlete relationship. *International Journal of Coaching Science*, 7(1), 3–24.
- Occhino, J., Mallett, C. J., & Rynne, S. (2013). Dynamic social networks in high performance football coaching. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 18(1), 90–102.
- Oliver, E. J., Hardy, J., & Markland, D. (2010). Identifying important practice behaviors for the development of high-level youth athletes: Exploring the perspectives of elite coaches. *Psychology of Sport & Exercise*, 11(6), 433–443.
- Olusoga, P., Maynard, I., Hays, K., & Butt, J. (2012). Coaching under pressure: A study of Olympic coaches. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 30, 229–239.
- Pain, M., & Harwood, C. (2007). The performance environment of the England youth soccer teams. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 25(12), 1307–1324.

- Purdy, L., & Jones, R. (2011). Choppy waters: Elite rowers' perceptions of coaching. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 28, 329–346.
- Romar, J-E., Sarén, J., & Hastie, P. (2016). Athlete-centred coaching using the Sport Education model in youth soccer. *Journal of Physical Education and Sport*, 16(2), 380–391.
- Rynne, S. (2014). 'Fast track' and 'traditional path' coaches: Affordances, agency and social capital. *Sport, Education, and Society*, 19, 299–313.
- Rynne, S. B., Crudgington, R., & Mallett, C. J. (in press). The coach as mentor. In R. Thelwell & M. Dicks (Eds.), *Professional advances in sports coaching: Research and practice*. London, England: Routledge.
- Rynne, S. B., & Mallett, C. J. (2012). Understanding the work and learning of high performance coaches. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 17, 507–523.
- Smith, N., Tessier, D., Tzioumakis, Y., Quested, E., Appleton, P., Sarrazin, P., Papaianou, A., & Duda, J. L. (2015). Development and validation of the Multidimensional Motivational Climate Observation System. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 37, 4–22.
- sportcoachUK (2010). Excellent coaching every time for everyone. sportcoachUK, Leeds, England.
- Trudel, P., & Gilbert, W. (2006). Coaching and coach education. In D. Kirk, D. MacDonald, & M. O'Sullivan (Eds.), *The handbook of physical education* (pp. 516–539). London, England: Sage.
- Wang, J., & Straub, W. F. (2012). An investigation into the coaching approach of a successful world class soccer coach: Anson Dorrance. *International Journal of Sports Science & Coaching*, 7(3), 431–444.
- Werthner, P., & Trudel, P. (2006). A new theoretical perspective for understanding how coaches learn to coach. *The Sports Psychologist*, 20, 198–212.
- Woods, C., Raynor, A., Bruce, L., & McDonald, Z. (2015). Discriminating talent-identified junior Australian football players using a video decision-making task. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 1–6.