

## **Practice evaluation package for on-ice coaching in ice hockey**

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<p>The purpose for developing and making this evaluation tool was to give helping tools for head of coaches and coaching instructors for coach evaluation. The main objective was to make a clear and easy to use form that would include all essential evaluation areas.</p> <p>The starting point was to look at what a head of coach or coaching instructor would want to see from the coaches they are evaluating.</p> <p>The evaluation package gives guidelines and a framework which to rely upon when evaluation. It is a tool to help evaluation and make it more effective.</p> <p>The coaching evaluation package consists of two, one-page forms, the practice evaluation form &amp; the evaluation feedback form as well as a seven-page user guide. The practice evaluation form is divided into four main evaluation areas, which are teaching techniques, feedback, organization and practice content. The evaluation feedback form consists of the same areas and they are divided into three feedback areas; strengths, weaknesses and recommendations. The user guide defines and explains the content in the two forms.</p> <p>The project was started in November of 2010 and finished in the spring of 2011.</p> <p>The coaching evaluation package is written in English so that it can be used internationally.</p>	
<p><b>Key words</b> Coaching, evaluation, ice hockey</p>	

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# 1 Introduction

The idea for making the coach evaluation form came from discussions with Jukka Tiikkaja, Asian Sport Development Manager and Kari Savolainen, Program Director of Degree Program in Sports and Leisure Management. Everyone involved in the discussions thought that a tool like this was a good idea, since there has not been a particular evaluation tool in the past.

The initial reason for developing this tool was to make it for the United Arab Emirates Ice Hockey Association's coaching education program. During the discussions regarding the project it came apparent that a tool like this could be used internationally, so we decided not to specify it to the needs of the UAEIHA.

Our project is an overall package including the Practice Evaluation Form, an Evaluation Feedback Form and a User guide that opens up and gives meaning to the forms as well as helps to use both forms. All of the information gathered on the practice evaluation form is used to make a conclusion on the evaluation feedback form. The user guide includes the criteria used in the main emphasis areas of the practice evaluation form and is to be looked at and studied before evaluation.

The purpose of the practice evaluation form is to make coach evaluation easier and give tools for the evaluation. The main evaluation areas came from the UAEIHA coaching education program's main themes as well as from the different pedagogical guidelines of coaching. The four main areas that were decided upon were Teaching Techniques, Feedback, Organization and Practice Content.

In teaching techniques, the emphasis is to concentrate on the various teaching techniques a coach uses during a practice session. These techniques are the body on which the coach relies on to communicate with the players. In the feedback area, the main focus is on how and to whom the feedback the coach gives to the players is given. The organization area consists of how the ice session is run technically and in the practice content area the focus is on the actual content of the ice session, what is actually done on the ice.

The evaluation feedback form is to be used to give overall feedback to the coach together with the practice evaluation form. There are three different parts which are to be filled; Strengths, Weaknesses and Recommendations.

The package includes an overall description of the evaluated areas in on-ice coaching. This package is to be given out to Federations, Clubs and specifically to Head of Coaches and Head of Juniors.

## **2 Coaching**

### **2.1 The definition of coaching and the coaching process**

The term “Coaching” literally comes from an old Anglo-Saxon word for a carriage, which is something that takes you from where you are now to where you want to be. In a nutshell: Coaching is a vehicle to transport a client from where he is now in his life to where he wants to be. (Kennedy, J. 2009)

Others have defined coaching in the following ways;

“The art of facilitating the performance, learning and development of another.”  
(Downey, M. 2003)

“Unlocking a person’s potential to maximize their own performance.” (Whitmore, J. 2002)

“Coaching closes the gap between thinking about doing and doing” (Martin, C. 2001)

John Lyle (2002) describes the coaching process by saying that the operationalization of the purposeful, direct and indirect, formal and informal series of activities and interventions designed to improve competition performance. The most evident part of the process is normally a planned, co-ordinated and integrated programme of preparation and competition. The coach and the athlete(s) devise this, although the balance of responsibilities will be determined by the nature of the agreement between them. The overall implementation of the process is the responsibility of the coach, although this may involve a significant group of other specialists. (Lyle, J. 2002)

### **2.2 The identification of good coaching and a good coach**

There are many attributes to what makes good coaching and what makes a good coach. Some of these attributes are the ability to make decisions, the knowledge of the types of players in the team and the skill to handle them. In other words, the skill to lead and maintain discipline is important. According to Kalliopuska, Nykänen ja Miettinen (1995, 144) the most important attribute of a coach is the ability to co-operate, since he/she acts and works with the whole team as well as the individual athletes. Miettinen (1992) says that the personality of the coach is the basis of winning. A strong knowledge of the sport is an advantage for the coach as well as the ability to express



him/herself clearly. Experience and knowing yourself add assurance to leading the team and goal setting. With experience deepens the concentration on the essential things. (Miettinen 1992, 9; Kalliopuska ym. 1995, 145-147; Sinkkonen 1995, 122; Tamminen 2002.)

A conscientious coach plans practices well, gives quick and correct information to his/her players and tries to activate the decision making of the players. These attributes create the feeling of being taken serious in the players. Cohesion in the team develops as well as the commitment to decision made together gets better and therefore the aim is to do so more often. (Miettinen 1992, 9-11; Tamminen 2002.) Coaching at it's best is group work where the coach's personality is seen. (Kalliopuska ym. 1995, 144.)

In their book, Forsman & Lampinen (2008) ask the question how is good coaching and a good coach able to be identified? To this question they come up with 11 different aspects in coaching. These aspects are elaborated on in the following paragraphs.

### **2.2.1 Perseverance**

Coaching and the job of a coach need perseverance. With the aid of good coaching an athlete will develop by taking small steps as an athlete and a person. A good coach, with his/her daily actions, is able to support the athlete step by step in their development and is also able to give tools for the athlete keeping the future in mind and guiding them into self-directed training. (Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 18 & 24)

### **2.2.2 Possibility of development on athletes terms**

Under good coaching an athlete is given the possibility to practice within his own will, talent and needs. A good coach develops and makes athletes do practices and drills where athlete realizes that by doing those practices he will develop and get feeling of managing in the sport. The right kind of challenges and roles in those challenges need to be chosen so that the athlete can achieve and get better self-confidence from. A good coach is aware that the athlete their selves is at the end of the day responsible of their own development and also supports and guides the athlete's development as an

athlete and also as a person. The coach is also able to see the athlete as a person and is able to support him also in things outside of sport world.

(Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 24)

### **2.2.3 Versatile development and athletes' self learning**

Under good coaching an athlete gets stimuli that are diversely developing and uses their senses to develop him or herself. A good coach understands that athlete's skills need to be developed diversely and also sport specifically. To do so the coach needs to handle the basics of development of physical attributes and technical skills. While developing physical condition and technical skills the coach is able to also listen to the athletes' feelings and reasons for different solutions. A good coach guides, supports and encourages the athlete to make his own personal evaluation and to start using his senses while performing. When an athlete is using his senses to learn skills, he's able to evaluate himself and also able to get feedback from his own doing. The athlete is also able to get to know his own body's behavior and movements. The reinforcement of senses leads to faster and more efficient learning. (Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 24-25)

### **2.2.4 Development of mental capacity**

In good coaching the athletes' self-confidence and mental strength is fed through daily action. A good coach can build up an atmosphere where failure is not a bad thing, but a natural part of learning. They can create belief in the athlete's own abilities and their development opportunities by the coach's own daily behavior. The coach is able to do this by showing the athletes their own development through practices and games.

When their self-confidence and mental capacity improves, the athlete has more courage to do things and face new challenges. When the athlete has the courage to do things without fear of failure he has good conditions to develop.

Good coaching feeds the athlete's self-confidence and determination. A good coach is able to support the athlete in the way in which they can set realistic and specific goals and challenges for themselves. The coach guides the athlete's own goal setting and is able to explain to the athlete what does it take to reach to the set goals.

(Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 19)

### **2.2.5 Evaluation of practising and coaching**

Under good coaching the athletes' development is a result of good training and coaching. A good coach evaluates athletes' development by the help of different kinds of tests, results and athlete's feelings. These evaluating tools make it possible to follow the athlete's condition physically and mentally and will also give clear feedback to the coach and to the athlete on how practices are going. The tools will also enable the athlete to develop their self-evaluation skills and their own feeling when for example comparing test results to own feelings. A good coach can read results with the aid of different evaluation methods and build up the athlete's training based on them. The coach is able to find reasons on why and how different things have happened.

(Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 20)

### **2.2.6 Quality of practising and coaching**

In good coaching practices and drills always serve the actions of the individuals and/or team. A good coach understands and knows the reasoning, objectives and quality factors of practices. The coach is able to tell and will tell the athlete why a certain drill is done where it is aiming. A good coach gives feedback to the team and to the individual based on objectives and quality factors of the practice. Under good coaching, a coach is able to choose the right moment to give feedback and is positioned in a way that he/she will be able to do so. (Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 20)

### **2.2.7 Knowhow**

Under good coaching, physiological effects of practices and drills, right assessment methods and factors that can effect to the performance are taken into consideration. Training is developing because it has been planned and operated on the basis of knowhow. A good coach is able to plan and operate instructive training with due to his own knowhow regardless circumstances and equipment.

(Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 21)

### **2.2.8 Interaction**

In good coaching it is aware that coaching is mostly interpersonal work. Also interaction, teaching and a holistic view of the athlete are emphasized in good coaching. It's understood that if the athlete wants to learn something, they are to understand and internalize things that have been taught. It has also been recognized that athlete's motivation is based largely on goes the fact that they acknowledge what, why and how certain things are done.

A good coach is able to get the athlete to understand and internalize things. The coach is able to transfer knowledge and skills to an athlete with different methods. A good coach gives feedback to the athlete from his/her performances and encourages him/her to independent thinking and evaluation to understand athletes' way of thinking, how to feel different things and also to get information on how to develop his/her self-evaluation of own performance. A good coach gets along with athletes and listens and respects their own opinions and thoughts. (Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 21)

### **2.2.9 Practise load**

Children have the opportunity to do the sports year-round under good coaching, while a good coach knows that all kinds of sports support children's sportive development and conditions when thinking about the future. A coach is aware of all the developmental steps of children and is able to exploit different features' sensitivity seasons in training. The good coach knows how big of an effect practicing as a junior has to your success opportunities at adult age.

Good coaching allows the opportunity to year-round sport specific high quality training. A good coach is able vary and build up practices so that every athlete is able to perform with high motivation and that is not something you "have to" do. It's also important that the athlete is also feeling good mentally during a practice season. A skillful coach knows when the athlete needs time and space to breathe and load batteries. (Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 22)

### **2.2.10 Atmosphere and emotions of action**

A good atmosphere is important when aim is to get good results. Different people and individual's emotions strongly affect to the atmosphere. A good coach understands

diversity, different emotions and differences on how athletes express themselves as individuals. Under good coaching everybody gets an opportunity to express them through their own personality. A good coach is able to act with different kinds of personalities and understand their different emotions. Feelings stay in balance under good coaching, the atmosphere is positive and action is energetic. A good coach builds up a positive atmosphere by creating enough positive emotions in practices and games. The coach is also able to develop and evaluate his own action when he/she creates negative feelings in other people.

Every individual is valuable and has a meaning. Everybody's opinion is respected and everyone gets to take part and develop the action. Action is taken forward, developed and operated together with coaches and athletes. There is a feeling of togetherness, trust, openness and listening. A good coach creates feeling of togetherness, is transparent, awakes trust, let's everyone join in the action and listens as well as respects everybody's opinions and thoughts. (Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 25-26)

### **2.2.11 Coaches journey as athletes supporter**

During childhood, the most important thing in sport is versatile interest in different sports. Through versatile interest in different sports, a child develops a good basis for different skills, which acts as a basis to start to build up sport specific skills later.

In good coaching all given tasks and drills follow the standards of children's skill level and that way the child can get success, which then adds more interest to the sport and exercise. Children's developmental sensitivity periods and childhood sports' principles leads the action in good coaching. The number of repetitions and qualities of repetitions is appreciated so that different attribute and skill can be trained. The coach knows children's different development phases and the guidelines these phases set for practices and can plan systematic practices with plays and games. There are clear and strict rules for action but the coach is aware that a relaxed atmosphere is also considered as a part of development. (Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 26-27)

In the youth phase of sports, the coaches' role is most important. In this phase it is determined whether athletes become top athletes or not. At this phase in good coaching quality and sustainable development are emphasized. The quality of practices is measured with different indicators. It is know that athletes have a lot of challenges out-

side of sports in this phase of their life and the athletes are supported also outside of sports. The coach creates appropriate indicators to follow athletes' development, which will help in systematic development monitoring.

(Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 26-27)

In sports at an adult age, the athletes set different kinds of goals and development challenges inside as well as outside of the sport for themselves. In good coaching goal setting becomes more and more athlete based. A good coach can help and support athletes' development in all areas and is able to help the athlete in trying to find solutions to all challenges and difficulties which the athlete has to face during his/her career.

(Forsman & Lampinen, 2008. 26-27)

### **2.3 Coaching styles**

Risto Telama, a professor in sports pedagogy, has mentioned that "physical activity in itself does not nurture in to good or bad, essential is the way the teaching is organized" (Karvinen 1991, 21). The coaching method a coach chooses affects to how he notices the players, their feelings and opinions. Juhani Tamminen (2002) looks back at a Chinese word play, which states that there are four different types of leaders. First, leaders who are laughed at, second, leaders who are feared (authoritarian), third, leaders who are loved (democratic) and fourth, leaders who lead without notice. Only a small group is a part of the fourth category, whom are the best leaders according to Tamminen. These leaders create teams that succeed and feel that they have done all of the work themselves, not the coach. (Tamminen 2002, 50.)

In an authoritarian style of coaching a coach is very directing and guiding. Communication is unidirectional and thus does not demand such high level of conversational skill from the coach. An age difference, a difference in education, a coaches responsibility of athletes development and safety as well as the experience differences of coaching can all lead to authoritarian style coaching. Benefits of this type of coaching can be quick decision-making and clear definition of roles, which makes coaching efficient in a way. Disadvantages in authoritarian style coaching are the unilateralism of the coaching relationship, the fact of no flexibility, difficulties in communication. It can lead to the distraction of the athlete's development of independence.

(Heino 2000, 101-102; Kalliopuska 1996, 146.)

A democratic style of coaching consists of conversation, contemplative guidance and leadership that is done in co-operation with the athlete. The atmosphere is open and relaxed. With conversation the opinions of the athlete come out clearly and therefore there are less contradicting situations. Co-operation is often fun and the athlete commits to the responsibility of their career. The athlete is also given responsibility and this adds motivation and training is more interesting. Disadvantages to a democratic style are the loosening of working morale and the fact that the coach may lose his/her ability to comment on things directly and clearly, which leads to not being able to develop the quality of action. The athlete being coached needs to have self-initiative and a feeling of responsibility so that democratic style works. This takes learning, so this style of coaching is not the correct choice always. (Heino 2000, 103-106.)

Kalliopuska and others (1995, 142-151) talk about the fourth type of leaders as holistic coaches. Puhakainen tells in the same book about coaches and coaches' styles. He says that a coach cannot start to coach before they have a clear human perception. With human perception Puhakainen means knowing all assumptions and knowledge about humans. Human perception is what decides to what and where coaching is directed, according to Puhakainen. According to a holistic coaching style people should be handled as a whole, which consists of physical, psychic as well as athletes life coaching. (Kalliopuska ym. 1995, 145-146.)

There has not been a correct model of a coaching method found. Change to a more democratic and holistic coaching has happened, but very slowly. (Närhi & Frantsi 1998, 34; Heino 2000, 101.) When comparing coaches' attributes and leadership styles, it has been noticed that lower-level coaches use more of a democratic coaching style to the higher-level coaches. (Jambor & Zhang 1997.) So a coach needs to think which coaching methods suit him/her and are natural and due to what kind of coaching styles can he/she reach the best results. (Heino 2000, 101).

### **3 Teaching Styles**

Moston's Theory of Teaching Styles is a universal and unified method of teaching that is widely used in the sports world. It has been shown that this theory is an effective and creative way of teaching physical education. (Doherty, J. 2004)

#### **3.1 An Overview of the Spectrum**

One single statement that unifies the Spectrum theory is that teaching is governed by a single unifying process which is decision making. Prior decisions are the base for every act of deliberate teaching. Decision-making is the main behavior that governs all behaviors that follow. This includes how you organize students and the subject matter, how you manage time, space, and equipment, how you interact with students and you choose our verbal behavior, how you construct the social-affective climate in the classroom and create and conduct all cognitive connections with the learners. All these concerns are secondary behaviors that come from prior decisions.

(Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 8)

This theory presents the teaching–learning decision structures. It presents an axiom that consists of all teaching–learning approaches. It also presents a rationale that explains why each option progresses as it does and the learning focus of each option. This framework is independent of age, content, gender, grade, and ability levels and is a unifying theory about the structure of teaching and learning.

(Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 8)

#### **3.2 Six Premises of the Spectrum**

##### **3.2.1 The Axiom**

The entire structure of the Spectrum comes from the base of teaching behavior being a chain of decision-making. Every deliberate act of teaching is a result of a previous decision. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 8)



### **3.2.2 The Anatomy of Any Style**

The anatomy of any style is based on categories of decisions that must be made (deliberately or by default) in any teaching–learning transaction. These decision categories are grouped into three sets. These sets are the pre-impact set, the impact set, and the post-impact set. The pre-impact set includes all decisions that must be made prior to the teaching–learning transaction. In the impact set, decisions are related to the actual teaching–learning transaction and the post-impact set identifies decisions concerning assessment of the teacher–learner transaction. The anatomy delineates which decisions must be made in each set. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 8)

### **3.2.3 The Decision Makers**

The teacher and learner both can make decisions in any of the decision categories delineated in the anatomy. When most or all of the decisions in a category are the responsibility of one decision maker (e.g., the teacher), that person’s decision-making responsibility is at “maximum” and the other person’s (the student’s) is at “minimum.” (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 8)

### **3.2.4 The Spectrum**

By finding out who makes which decisions, about what and when, it is possible to identify the structure of eleven main teaching–learning approaches as well as alternative approaches that lie between them on the Spectrum. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 8)

### **3.2.5 The Clusters**

Two basic thinking capacities are seen within the structure of the Spectrum. These two capacities are the capacity for reproduction and the capacity for production. All human beings have, in varying ways, the capacity to reproduce known knowledge, replicate models, recall information, and practice skills. Additionally, all human beings have the capacity to produce a range of ideas. All have the capacity to make new ideas as well as take a look in the yet unknown. The first five styles form a cluster that represents teaching options that foster reproduction of existing (known, past) information and

knowledge. The remaining styles form a cluster that represents options that invite production (discovery) of new knowledge – this knowledge is new to the learner, it may be new to the teacher, or at times, new to society. The line between these two clusters is called the discovery threshold, which identifies the cognitive boundaries of each cluster. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 8-11)

### **3.3 Style A, The Command Style**

The defining characteristic of the Command style is precision performance, reproducing a predicted response or performance by command. In the anatomy of the Command style the role of the teacher is to make all the decisions, and learners' role is to follow these decisions by command. An example of would be "Coach tells players to skate three laps around the rink". (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 76)

### **3.4 Style B, The Practice Style**

The defining characteristic of the Practice style is individual and private practice of a memory or reproduction task with private feedback. In the anatomy of the Practice style the role of the teacher is to make all subject matter and logistical decisions and to provide individual feedback to the learners. The role of the learner is to individually and privately practice a memory or reproduction task. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 94)

### **3.5 Style C, Reciprocal Style**

The defining characteristics of the Reciprocal style are social interactions, reciprocation, receiving and giving immediate feedback (guided by specific criteria provided by the teacher). In the anatomy of the Reciprocal style, the role of the teacher is to make all subject matter, criteria, and logistical decisions and to provide feedback to the observer. The role of the learners is to work in partnership relationships. An example of this could be that a player tells the other to shoo the puck, and says "nice shot" right after the performance. Then the doer and the observer switch roles. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 116)

### **3.6 Style D, Self-check Style**

The defining characteristics of the Self-Check style are performing a task and engaging in self-assessment guided by specific teacher provided criteria. In the anatomy of the Self-Check style, teachers' role is to make all subject matter, criteria, and logistical decisions. The learners' role is to work independently and to check their own performances against the criteria prepared by the teacher for example doing a wrist shot and comparing your own performance to a video of a proper way to execute it.

(Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 141)

### **3.7 Style E, Inclusion Style**

The defining characteristic of the Inclusion style is that learners with varying degrees of skill participate in the same task by selecting a level of difficulty at which they can perform. In the anatomy of the Inclusion style, teachers' role's to make all subject matter decisions, including the possible levels in the tasks, and the logistical decisions. The role of the learners is to survey the available levels in the task, select an entry point, practice the task, if it's needed make an adjustment in the task level, and check performance against the criteria. An example would be a coach gives three drills to do and the player chooses the one that they feel that meets their skill level. After the performance of the drill, they assess was it compatible with their skill. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 156)

### **3.8 Style F, Guided Discovery Style**

The defining characteristic of the Guided Discovery style is the logical and sequential design of questions that lead a person to discover a predetermined response. In the Anatomy of the Guided Discovery Style, the role of the teacher is to make all the decisions, including the target concept to be discovered and the sequential design of the questions for the learner. The role of the learner is to discover the answers. This implies that the learner makes decisions about segments of the subject matter within the topic selected by the teacher. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 212)

### **3.9 Style G, Convergent Discovery Style**

In the Convergent Discovery style the key is to discover the predetermined correct response using a convergent a process. In the anatomy, the role of the teacher is to make subject matter decisions, including the target concept to be discovered, and to design the single question delivered to the learner. The role of the learner is to engage in reasoning, questioning, and logic to make connections about the content to discover the answers. An example is that there is only one correct answer for a question that is given by the teacher. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 237)

### **3.10 Style H, Divergent Discovery Style**

The defining characteristic of the Divergent Discovery style is to discover multiple responses to a single question or situation, within a specific cognitive operation. In the anatomy, the role of the teacher is to make decisions about the subject matter topic and the specific questions and logistics to be delivered to the learner. The role of the learner is to discover multiple responses to a specific question. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 247)

### **3.11 Style I, Learner-Designed Individual Program Style**

In this style is the independence of each learner to discover a structure that resolves an issue or problem. In the anatomy of the Learner-Designed I. P. style, the role of the teacher is to make general subject matter logistical decisions for the learners. The role of the learner is to make decisions about how to investigate the general subject matter topic and to produce questions that lead to a specific focus within the general topic, the questions that result in identifying the process and procedures, to discover the solutions or movements, and to designate the performance criteria. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 274)

### **3.12 Style J, Learner-Initiated Style**

The defining characteristic of this style is the learner's initiation of, and responsibility for designing, the learning experience. In the anatomy, the role of the learner is to independently start this behavior and make all the decisions in the pre-impact, including

which teaching–learning behaviors will be used in the impact, and create the criteria decisions for the post-impact. Provided the teacher is qualified in the subject matter, the teacher’s role is now to accept the learner’s readiness to make better decisions in the learning experience, to be supportive, and to participate according to the learner’s requests. An example could be; when a student is doing their thesis, a teacher is a supporter. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 283)

### **3.13 Style K, Self Teaching Style**

The key characteristic of the Self-Teaching style is individual tenacity and the desire to learn. In the anatomy, the individual participates in the roles of both teacher and learner and makes all the decisions in all of the “impact” sets. When this behavior is achieved, the objectives that the individual has established in subject matter and in behavior are achieved. This behavior doesn’t have a clear, pointed out set of objectives, so the individual selects objectives. For example, when a student is writing a paper, they evaluate them selves what needs to be written and there is no one to tell them what to write. (Moston, M. & Ashworth, S. 2008, 290)

## 4 Communication

### 4.1 Communication principles

Communication skills are known to be an affect to coaching success. A steady flow of communication fills the life of a coach. Coaches talk, teach, write, gesture, listen, demonstrate, observe, console and persuade. Added to the interaction with players, coaches spend a lot of time communication with parents, administrators, other coaches, official, support staff, the media and other supporters.

(Burton, D. & Raedeke, T. D. 2008, 16)

Everything coach does, whether it is teaching skills, motivating players, listening to players, solving athletes' problems, having team parties, is done through communication with players. To be a well-rounded coach, it is also important to have effective communication skills. As a hockey coach, it will be important to communicate with your players as one group, as a sub-group of players and as individuals.

(IIHF coaching material. Level 1, communication principles)

Good communication skills are among the most important factors contributing to performance enhancement and the personal growth of sport and exercise participants. Often, general communication findings to sport and exercise settings need to be applied. Regardless of the setting, one of the biggest problems in communication is expecting others to be mind readers. Usually coaches, athletes, teachers and parents communicate in "short-hand," assuming that simple gesture or unspoken thought will be enough to convey their feelings and unique perspective.

(Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 228)

It shouldn't be surprising that breakdowns in communication often are at the root of problems as coaches' talk to athletes or teachers talk to students. In fact, ineffective communication may lead individuals to dislike each other, lose confidence in each other, and refuse to listen to each other and disagree with each other, as well as causing a host of other interpersonal problems.. (Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 228)

## **4.2 Communication process**

All one-way communication follows the same basic three-step process. As the first step, one person decides to send a message to another. Then the sender translates thoughts into a message. As the third step, the message is channeled to the receiver (usually through spoken words but sometimes also through sign language). Next, the receiver interprets the message. Finally, the receiver thinks about the message and responds internally, by becoming interested, getting mad or feeling relieved for example. (Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 229)

## **4.3 Meaning of communication**

Purposes of communication can vary even the same process occurs in all communications. You might communicate to persuade a person in an aerobics class that he can lose weight by exercising regularly, evaluate how well a figure skater performs his routine on the ice, how well ice hockey player performs during a ice hockey game, to inform students how to perform a new skiing skill, to psych up your team for a hard opponent or to deal with a conflict between to players on your team. But still all communication includes some content as well as relational messages. (Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 229)

## **4.4 Types of communication**

Communication occurs in two basic ways, interpersonally and intrapersonal. When we talk about communication, we mean interpersonal communication, which involves two people and meaningful exchange. The sender intends to affect the response of a particular one person or many persons. The person for whom it was intended, or both may receive the message. Sometimes that message gets distorted so that the sender's intended message transmission is not apparent.

(Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 230)

An important part of interpersonal communication involves nonverbal communication or nonverbal cues. According to Pedersen et. al. (2007), "interpersonal communication in sport is the two way information between individuals (usually two persons) in a sport setting or regarding a sport issue". Research has also indicated that this type of

communication is also critical to imparting and receiving information. In one study participants watching a tennis match saw the players only between points. They never saw players actually hit the ball or play a point. Still about 75% of the time participants could pick who was winning the match. The nonverbal cues that players exhibited between points were strong enough to communicate who was ahead or behind.

(Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 230)

Intrapersonal communication ("self-talk") is the communication we have with ourselves and this inner dialogue is important. What we say to ourselves usually helps shape and predicts how we perform. Self-talk is a used method in sports and all coaches are involved in intrapersonal communication (Pedersen, P. M. et. Al. 2007, 96). For instance perhaps a young kid in a physical education class is afraid of showing a new skill, the tennis serve and tells herself that she can't do it and it will look stupid if she is trying. This intrapersonal communication increases the chances that she will not execute the skill properly. Self-talk can also affect positively to motivation. If someone is trying to lose weight and tells himself that he's looking slimmer and feeling good, he is improving his motivation with his self-talk. (Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 230)

#### **4.5 Effective Communication**

Effective communication is usually the difference between success and failure for teachers, coaches and instructors so we need to understand how to send effective messages both verbally and non-verbally. (Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 230)

As a hockey coach, it will be important to communicate with your players as one group, as a sub-group of players and as individuals. Regardless of the number of players you are communicating with at any one time, to communicate effectively the same principles apply.

An enthusiastic coach establishes his role as an enthusiastic leader of your team. His enthusiasm will affect to players' enjoyment of hockey. Positive coach interacts with his athletes in a positive manner. She/he can set a good example of desired behavior. Immediate criticism and yelling at to players will decrease their motivation to participate. Coach can give sincere praise and encouragement to players all the time. Coach has to be demanding but considerate. He will establish what is expected of the players.



His expectations should be based on players' abilities and experiences. Coach should never expect more than is reasonable and realistic. Coach should be a good listener. Good listening is an important component of effective communication. Good coach demonstrates willingness to listen and players will tell their feelings, concerns, and suggestions to him. Coach should give effective feedback in identifying and correcting skill errors. (IIHF coaching material. Level 1, communication principles)

Every player is part of the team and the coach should demonstrate confidence in each player's ability to contribute to the team. Team and coach should value the contribution of each player to the team. Every player should be encouraged by the coach to be supportive of each other's contribution to the team.

(IIHF coaching material. Level 1, communication principles)

Coach should treat all players as individuals. It is important to be sensitive to individual needs and to show all players that you care about them as individuals. Coach should make an effort to talk with them all individually at every practice and game. Good coach greets players by their first names. Parents who coach their own children often put unrealistic expectations on them. If coach coaches his own children, he should remember to treat them as he do the other players on the team and don't demand more of them than he do of the others. As well, if coach coaches own children, he should avoid showing favoritism toward them. It is important for the coach to treat own children as individuals, the same as he would do for all the other players.

(IIHF coaching material. Level 1, communication principles)

#### **4.6 Verbal and nonverbal communication**

Communication can be both verbal and non-verbal. Coaches communicate many messages to players by their actions, facial expressions, use of arms and hands, body position, overall posture, touching behaviors and voice characteristics.

The coach's non-verbal behavior should reflect what is verbally communicated to the athletes. Act in a way, which shows that you are consistent with what you say. For example, if you request that your players be punctual for team events, then your behavior should reflect this request.

(IIHF coaching material. Level 1, communication principles)

#### **4.6.1 Verbal communication**

Verbal messages should be clearly sent and received and interpreted correctly. We have to pick the right time and place to deliver what we want to say. Unfortunately, coaches and parents often pick the most inappropriate time to give their feedback like right after the game. Breakdowns happen because messages are not sent effectively, are not received or are misinterpreted. The problem can also be simply the lack of trust between coach and athlete or teacher and student. Usually, the problem is with the transmission of the message. Some people talk too much, rambling on about things that bore or distract others and others talk too little not communicating enough information. (Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 232)

#### **4.6.2 Nonverbal communication**

People are often not aware of the many nonverbal acts they use in communicating. Therefore, it is all the more critical coaches, athletes and exercise leaders are extremely observant of their nonverbal cues as a rich source of information. Understanding the various kinds of nonverbal communication improves both the sending and receiving of messages.

Nonverbal messages are less likely to be under conscious control and therefore they are harder to hide than verbal messages. They can give away our unconscious feelings and attitudes. The leader can see something is wrong knows from the nonverbal messages being conveyed. (Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 232)

What you communicate non-verbally can be as important as what you verbally communicate to your players. For example, a player slashes an opposing player but is not penalized. The coach, by not verbally expressing disapproval of this infraction, is giving approval to this player and other athletes for such unsportsmanlike conduct.

A coach greeting a player who has made a good play with eye contact, a smile and a pat on the back illustrates a positive example of non-verbal communication. An angry coach, frowns tightly folded and head shaking from side to side may illustrate a negative example. It is important to be aware of the messages you are sending to your athletes by your behavior. Make sure you communicate both verbally and non-verbally

the messages you want your players to receive. It is also important to examine the non-verbal behavior of others, as it is easy to be misled or confused by this form of communication. The manner in which you interpret the player's actions will determine your reaction.

Often, when verbal and non-verbal communication send different messages, we tend to believe the non-verbal, mainly because we realize that most non-verbal behavior is unconscious, difficult to control and, therefore, displays the true feeling.

(IIHF coaching material. Level 1, communication principles)

#### **4.7 Sending messages effectively**

There are some guidelines to send messages effectively. First of all you have to be direct. People who avoid straightforward communicating assume that others know what they want or feel. Rather than expressing their message directly, they hint at what they have in mind or they tell a third person, hoping the message will get to the intended recipient directly.

Be clear and own your message. Use "I" and "my" not "we" or "the team" when referencing your messages. You disown your messages when you say "The team feels".

What you are saying is what you believe and using others to bolster what you have to say implies cowardice in expressing your own messages.

(Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 234-236)

Be complete and specific while sending a message and provide the person to whom you are speaking with all the information he needs to fully understand your message. Be clear and consistent, state your needs and feelings clearly. We tend not to reveal our feelings and needs to others so before developing close relationships, you must share your feelings. Separate fact from opinion, state what you see, hear and know and clearly identify any opinions or conclusions you have about these facts. Focus on one thing at a time and immediately deliver messages. When you observe something that upsets you or that needs to be changed, don't delay sending a message. Sometimes holding back can result in your exploding later about a little thing. Responding immediately also makes for more effective feedback than a delayed response.

(Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 234-236)

Look for feedback that your message was accurately interpreted. Watch for verbal and nonverbal signals that the person to whom you are speaking is receiving the message you intended. If no signal is given, ask questions to get the feedback: "Do you understand what I am telling you?" or "Are you clear about what you should do?"

(Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 234-236)

## **4.8 Receiving messages effectively**

People spend 40% of their communication time listening. Research with 88 different organizations has shown that listening is consistently rated as one of the most important communication skills. Although students learn writing and speaking skills, not often do they receive any formal training in listening.

(Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 236)

### **4.8.1 Listening Techniques**

Martens (2004) notes in his book, that most coaches are known better for their oratorical skills than for their listening skills. Coaches must be skillful in listening to understand what their athletes are communicating in return. (Martens, R. 2004. 96)

That is why one important component of effective communication is listening. Listening to players tells them that you care about them and are really interested in their feelings, thoughts, and suggestions. Good listening is a difficult communication skill to learn well and like all skills, it takes practice.

(IIHF coaching material. Level 1, communication principles)

### **4.8.2 Active listening**

The best way to listen better is to listen actively. It involves attending to main and supporting ideas, acknowledging and responding, giving appropriate feedback and paying attention to the speaker. Active listening involves nonverbal communication like making direct eye contact and nodding to confirm that you understand the speaker. In essence, the listener shows concern for what they are saying, intent of the message and the feelings of the sender.

One of the most vital things that can make an individual feel accepted, significant and worthwhile is being listened to. If you really want people to pay attention to you, you should make a concerted effort to listen to them. Asking specific questions to allow the person to express their feelings is also part of active listening. By paraphrasing a person's thoughts and feelings you let the speaker know that you are listening and you care. This often leads to more open communication and exchange, as the speaker senses that you are interested. Mentally prepare to listen because listening sometimes requires mental preparation. For example, before having an important discussion with your coach, develop a mental game plan for the discussion. That is rehearsing in your mind attending very carefully to the meaning of the coach's messages.

(Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 238)

#### **4.8.3 Supportive listening**

Being a supportive listener communicates that you are with the speaker and value the person's message. Some things are good to remember while listening. Use supportive behaviors as you listen and communicate the message that the other person is acknowledged, understood and accepted. You are using supportive listening behaviors when you describe the other's behavior instead of trying to evaluate or attack it, focus on immediate thoughts and feelings, are not calculating or manipulative, ask open-ended questions to encourage the person to share his or her feelings, are empathic not different and remain open to new ideas; perspectives and the possibility of change. Along with these behaviors, use active attending behaviors, such as nodding your head and making clear, direct eye contact.

In supportive listening you should also use both verbal and nonverbal listening behaviors that communicate interest and attention include standing no more than few feet from the person, maintaining eye contact, making appropriate facial gestures, facing the speaker and maintaining an open posture.

Verbal behaviors should communicate an understanding and acknowledgement of what the speaker is saying and feeling. (Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 238)

#### **4.8.4 Aware listening**

Be aware that people react differently to the way you communicate. Be flexible because there is no one best listening strategy. Different situations require different strategies. People feel more comfortable with one style of listening compared to another. Some people simply like to talk and they may seem unconcerned about your understanding. Others will give you time to think about what they've said and provide opportunities for feedback. Be alert for barriers and breakdowns in communication. Things, like other people talking while you are trying to listen a particular person, can be a barrier in communication. For example, coaches and athletes often have to listen above the roar of a crowd. It is useful to develop ways to deal with noise such as using nonverbal signals. Breakdowns occur when messages are misinterpreted or misdirected. We often do not know a breakdown has occurred until something bad happens that can be linked back to the breakdown. (Weinberg, R & Gould, D. 2007, 238)

## 5 Feedback

### 5.1 Feedback and its' different forms

“Feedback is defined as information which concerns the action, answer, behaviour, attitude and result of a performance. It is meant to maintain or convert the action, answer, behaviour, attitude and result. “(Numminen & Laakso 2005, 63.)

Feedback is a learning tool that is around us all of the time in different forms which we don't necessarily even recognize as feedback. In addition to verbal feedback we can give feedback with body language js gestures, as well as with touch. Verbal feedback can be divided into forms given from a person's behaviour, persona or approach. They include the recognition of own mistakes and successes, giving and receiving corrective feedback as well as positive feedback. (Aalto 2002, 7.)

The word feedback is perceived as negative because often it is used in context with words that specifically underline a mistake or a negative matter. Feedback is initially a learning tool and because of that if would be good to attach words like “interactive” or “learning” to it. To be able to learn for the feedback given, it is essential that one can deal with the right way. If the attitude from the start is negative, the feedback hardly can be used maximally. It is good to remember that there are two learners in a feedback situation, the one giving and the on receiving feedback. (Aalto 2002, 13-14.)

The nature of feedback can be either positive or corrective. Positive feedback is give from the abilities, characteristics, gifts, personality, character or successful performances of a person. Corrective feedback is not to be pointed at the appearance, personality or gifts of a person but rather focus on the actions of the person. It is often thought that the goal of corrective feedback is to correct a mistake or a bad process. It is easily forgotten that a human performs the action always. Therefore corrective feedback is pointed at both the mistake and the person because the goal is to change the person. At the end the mistake is corrected by the influence of this chance. The person giving the feedback sometimes has to remind him or herself what is the result goal of giving feedback. Although the correcting is usually focused on action, all of the periph-

eral chances are good to be noticed as a result. Motivation, commitment, enthusiasm, all of these positive effects can be read as a result in addition to the possible change in the performance. (Aalto 2002, 13-14.)

Like Anttila (1993, 70) concludes in her text: "Discussion and giving and receiving feedback in each session is the base for continuous evaluation." Working inside a session, a teacher can use many different methods of feedback and adapt them to the students. Verbal feedback might not always be the best option. The students should be continuously guided by self-evaluation, because its' significance is highlighted everywhere now a days. Self-evaluation also helps the student to determine important values to themselves, which they want to uphold while studying. The better the student knows themselves and their own goals, the better they can adapt to the feedback and evaluation coming for outside. (Anttila E. 1994, 70)

### **5.1.1 Group feedback**

A teacher can evaluate performances by giving feedback to the whole group. The Feedback can be verbal or written, but the advantage of verbal feedback is that is enables discussion right in the feedback situation. At this point everyone participating is good to hear the given corrections and feedback. A large part of the given feedback during a session is directed generally to the whole group and it often gives base to more personal notices. Group feedback needs to be general enough so that students can adapt it to their own actions. (Numminen & Laakso 2005; Hämäläinen 2004.)

Even though the feedback is meant for everyone, in group feedback some might not feel that they are in the target group. There are students in the group that general things go un noticed, but this kind of feedback lose is impossible to avoid. A teacher has to just be patient enough to repeat the point often enough and in different ways. Another weakness of group feedback is naturally the lack of personal contact. A teacher needs to be able to sometimes give personal corrections to support group feedback to ensure the progress of learning. Different learning methods also affect in receiving feedback. Not everyone learns just by verbal feedback. Some need physical demonstration, others physical correction and some need all three phases. Due to this



reason group feedback is only one part of the overall feedback given in the learning process. (Numminen & Laakso, 2005; Hämäläinen, 2004.)

### **5.1.2 Individual feedback**

In individual feedback, a teacher has the option to apply the feedback to the needs of the receiver. By doing this they can notice the learning style and personality of the learner and can shape the given feedback accordingly. Individual feedback just like group feedback can be give as verbal or written. The nature of individual feedback is often more personal and therefore it is important to ensure that the student has a possibility for discussion and interaction with the one giving feedback. The weakness of written feedback is the lack of tone. Often a matter issue formed into a sentence can be interpret in a completely different way than when it is accompanied with personality, gestures, facial expressions and tones of the one giving feedback. Written evaluation most likely works best as a final evaluation, which in preceded by discussion and interaction between a teacher and a student. Then it is easier to avoid misunderstandings. (Hämäläinen 2004, 83).

### **5.1.3 Peer evaluation**

Peer evaluations means evaluation between students. It can be free discussion in a learning situation or being a guided opponent, which is based on given evaluation criteria. The advantages of peer evaluation are the regularity of feedback, the promotion of co-operation as well as the nature of the learning process, progression of learning and support for groping. They also learn self-evaluation skills, because when evaluating someone else, they are evaluating themselves automatically. (Kiviniemi, 2000.)

The role of the teacher in peer evaluation is laying a clear explanation and rules of the task. The expediency of the task needs to be clear from the start. In is important to point out that evaluation is not judgement, but the aim is to act constructively without discouraging the other. In using peer evaluation the responsibility of learning moves back from the teacher to the students themselves. There needs to be other methods of feedback supporting peer evaluation, so that the students don't build up too big pressure from evaluating the action of someone else. According to studies, peer evaluation

enhances critical thinking, responsibility, self-confidence and knowledge of group dynamics. In addition it has been proven to support the development of metacognitive skills of the student. (VSOP –kansalaisopinnot – Vertais- ja itsearviointi.)

#### **5.1.4 Self-evaluation**

Self-evaluation is an integral part of the lifelong thought of learning. With its' help an individual can develop their own learning skills and progress their self-knowledge and understanding. Self-evaluation can be either evaluating or developmental. A student can evaluate how they performed for a given task of then they can ponder how they could develop they own performance based on the results of the task done. During self-evaluation a student can use the evaluation criteria given by the teacher or other students. In is important still to remember that the criteria needs to be in relation to own goals so that the student doesn't set too high expectations. Successful self-evaluation will raise self confidence and the appreciation of own skills. At the same time it is easier for the student to set new goals and evaluate the reality to carry them out.

(VSOP –kansalaisopinnot – Vertais- ja itsearviointi.)

## **5.2 Corrective feedback and its' acceptance**

Giving corrective feedback is one of the most difficult aspects of teaching. Fear may be provoked by the reaction of the one receiving feedback, the decrease in motivation, the fear of getting misunderstood and the fact that is unable to give feedback constructively.

(Mikko Aalto. 2002, 96.)

The base feedback is given by the relationship between the student and teacher. If the teacher feels that the student either is competing with them or questions their teaching it can effect in weakening of the amount of feedback given and its' quality. Unfortunately too often the personal preferences affect the feedback. Negative feedback experiences leave their mark and follow for a long time. (Hämäläinen, 2004, 88.)

When using co-operation based methods of learning, it is good for the teacher to take into consideration that the things mentioned before can affect essentially in the success of small group work. Every one of us has our own back ground in receiving feedback, which includes unpleasant memories also. From unpleasant memories forms so called spine reactions, which can activate so called ghost feelings in the feedback receiver. Then an individual takes all nega-

tive corrective feedback heard in their lives to strengthen the feedback and it can lead to consequences to self-esteem. (Aalto 2002, 97.) The one giving corrective feedback should be aware of this opportunity and remember when giving feedback that verbal feedback is not the only possibility. (Hämäläinen & Lehtovaara, 2003.)

## **6 Leadership**

Leadership is the behavioral process of influencing individuals and groups toward set goals. This definition is useful because it made up of many dimensions of leadership. In sport and exercise, it includes making decisions, motivating participants, giving feedback establishing interpersonal relationships, and directing the group or team confidently. A leader knows where the group or team is going and gives the direction and resources to help it get there. Coaches who are good leaders give a vision of what to aim for as well as the day-to-day structure, motivation, and support to make vision into reality. Coaches, teachers, and exercise specialists are leaders who look to provide each participant with opportunities to achieve success. Successful leaders also try to make sure that individual success helps achieve team success.

(Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 206)

### **6.1 Approaches to studying leadership**

Many different types of approaches have been taken to study leadership. The trait approach, which focused on consistency within people, was followed by the behavioural approach, which focused upon behaviours. In the end these two approaches were combined in the interactional perspective. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 207)

#### **6.1.1 Leadership behaviors in sport**

One approach to studying leadership in sport was to focus on specific behavior in these situations. Tharp and Gallimore (1976) went to answer this question by using the event-recording technique. In event recording, an investigator lists many typical coaching behaviors and then records when and how often these behaviors happens. Using this technique for 30 hours of observation, they identified 10 categories of behavior. In reflecting on this classic study, Gallimore and Tharp (2004) analysed again their data and executed some additional interviews. Some of their key findings and interpretations were that perfect and hard planning lay behind the heavy information load, economy of talk, and practice organization and that providing instruction with information is considered a positive approach to coaching. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 209)

Cote, Salmela, and Russell (1995) took a different kind of approach by investigated coaching behaviors; they were using the qualitative interview. The behaviors that professional coaches most often exhibited were providing a supportive environment through positive feedback, giving technical instruction regarding progressions, teaching mental skills such as dealing with stress, providing opportunities that simulated the psychological and technical demands of competition, providing manual training to ensure safety, and stressing conditioning to ensure physical readiness.

(Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 210)

Loughead and Hardy (2005) compared leadership behaviors of professional coaches to leadership behaviors of teammates. Specifically, evaluating a wide range of athletes in 15 different teams revealed that coaches and player leaders tend to exhibit different types of leadership behaviors. Coaches were noticed as exhibiting more training and instruction and autocratic behaviors than player leaders. Player leaders were seen as displaying more social support, positive feedback, and democratic behaviors than coaches. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 210)

### **6.1.2 Interactional approach**

Trait and behavioral approaches emphasize personal factors at the expense of considering the interaction between people and their situational constraints. Interactional theories have important implications for effective leadership in sport and exercise settings. No one set of characteristics ensures successful leadership and effective leadership styles or behaviors fit the specific situation. Leadership styles can be changed, in fact, coaches and other leaders can alter their styles and behaviors to match the demands of a situation. Two examples of leadership styles are presented as well as how they might change to fit a situation. Relationship-oriented leaders develop interpersonal relationships, keep open lines of communication, maintain positive social interactions, and ensure that everyone is involved and feel good. Task-oriented leaders primarily work to get the task done and meet their objectives.

(Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 210-211)

People can change from a relationship-oriented style to a task-oriented style and vice versa, depending on the situation. According to Fiedler's (1967) research as he developed his contingency model of leadership, the effectiveness of leadership depends equally on the leaders' style of interacting with the group and the favorableness of the situation. Specifically, Fiedler argued that a task-oriented leader is more effective in either very favorable or unfavorable situations; a relationship-oriented leader is more effective in moderately favorable situations. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 211)

## **6.2 Sport-oriented interactional approaches to leadership**

Both people and environmental factors need to be taken into consideration in developing models of leadership is necessary. Along these lines, two sport-specific interactional approaches have been developed to provide guidance and direction to the study of leadership in sports. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 212)

### **6.2.1 Cognitive-mediational model**

Smoll and Smith (1989) proposed a theoretical model of leadership behavior that emphasizes relationships among situational, cognitive, behavioral, and individual difference variables. They incorporated a situational approach to leadership behavior, arguing that coaching behaviors will vary as a function of situational factors within the athletic context (e.g. level of competition, type of sport). However, these authors also argued that a truly comprehensive model of leadership requires that consideration be given not only to situational factors and overt behaviors, but also the cognitive process and individual differences which mediate relationships between antecedents, leader behaviors and outcomes. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 212)

To objectively evaluate the actual behavior of coaches in a field setting, the Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS) was developed. With this system, several carefully trained observers record the behaviors of the coaches, noting on portable recorders the situations in which the behaviors occurred. These behaviors turn out to be either reactive or spontaneous. Reactive behaviors are responses to a specific player behavior, as when a coach instructs after an error. The coach, for example yelling encouragement to his players as they go on the field, initiates spontaneous behaviors.

Other studies have used the CBAS to assess specific coaching behaviors and the ways in which they affect young athletes. These behaviors relate in general to a leadership style that emphasizes a positive approach to coaching and fall into categories of positive reinforcement, general technical instruction and general encouragement.

(Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 213)

### **6.2.2 Multidimensional model of sport leadership**

Another interactional model developed specifically for sport or physical activity is the multidimensional model of sport leadership. Chelladurai's (1978) model posits that leader effectiveness in sport will vary depending on the characteristics of the athlete and constraints of the situation. According to Chelladurai, an athlete's satisfaction and performance depends in three types of leader behavior: required, preferred and actual behaviors. The situation, leader and members lead to these three kinds of behavior, so they are called antecedents. If put into interactional terms, in this model, the leader characteristics compose the personal factor, whereas situational characteristics and member characteristics are the situational factors.

(Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 214-215)

### **6.2.3 Leader behaviour**

In many situations, the organizational system itself dictates behaviors, and people are expected to conform to the established norms. For example, physical education teachers are expected to behave in certain ways in front of their students, fellow teachers and parents. Similarly, coaches are expected to behave in specific ways with reporters, other coaches, and spectators. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 216)

Group members have preferences for specific leader behaviors. Personality variables as well as age, gender, and experience influence a member's preference for coaching and guidance, social support, and feedback. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 216)

Actual leader behavior is simply the behavior that the exhibits, such as initiating structure or being considerate. According to Chelladurai (1993), the leader's characteristics, such as personality, ability, and experience affect these behaviors directly. Actual be-

havior is believed to be indirectly affected by group preferences and what the situation dictates. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 217)

### **6.3 Leadership scale for sports**

The Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) was developed to measure leadership behaviors, including the athletes' preferences for specific behaviors, perceptions of their coaches' behaviors, and coaches' perceptions of their own behavior. The LSS has five dimensions: Training (instructional behaviors), democratic behavior (decision-making style), autocratic behavior (decision-making style), social support (motivational tendencies) and positive feedback (motivational tendencies).

(Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 217)

### **6.4 Components of effective leadership**

Personal traits alone do not account for effective leadership, although some common components of effective leaders have been identified. Research has also identified general strategies to produce more effective leadership in physical education, sport, and exercise settings, including manipulating situational factors and promoting certain group member characteristics. Four general components are a leader's qualities, leadership style, situational factors and the followers' qualities. The four components of effective leadership are really a composite of many different approaches to the study of leadership. No one approach is best – they all make some contribution to understanding what makes effective leadership. Consistent with the interactional model, the four components together show that behavior is best understood as an interaction between personal and situational factors. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 220)

#### **6.4.1 Leader's qualities**

Although there isn't one distinct set of essential core personality traits that will ensure that a person will become a leader, successful leaders appear to have many qualities in common. Bill Parcells, successful football coach and winner of two Super Bowls, discussed what he believes to be keys to successful leadership: Integrity, flexibility, loyalty, confidence, accountability, candor, preparedness, self-discipline and patience.

(Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 221)



In addition to the points that Bill Parcells makes, researchers have identified several additional characteristics of successful leaders including, intelligence, optimism, intrinsic motivation and empathy. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 221)

#### **6.4.2 Leadership styles**

Coaches can effectively mix democratic and autocratic leadership styles. Different leadership behaviors are more optimal in various situations as seen through the multidimensional model of sport leadership and LSS. The challenges in determining what styles best suits the circumstances are whether individuals are flexible enough to adapt their dominant style to a particular leadership situation. The appropriate coaching style depends most on situational factors and member characteristics. One aspect of style that has been researched is how coaches make decisions. In fact, coaching effectiveness largely depends on making good decisions and the degree to which athletes accept those decisions. (Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 222)

#### **6.4.3 Situational factors**

A leader should be sensitive to the specific situations and environment. Leaders need to consider several situational factors that are relevant to planning for effective leadership in sport. Some of these factors are: Is the sport a team or an individual sport? Interactive or coactive? What is the size of the team? How much time is available and does the group have a particular leadership tradition?  
(Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007, 222)

## **7 Empirical Part**

### **7.1 Project Planning**

The project planning started with researching existing literature. This included literature concerning ice hockey coaching in general and different kinds of evaluation methods. We were able to find many different models of evaluation forms and used them to create our own form. The literature we were able to find and use came from areas such as leadership, feedback, overall coaching, and teaching and evaluation methods.

After we had taken a look and studied the literature found and thought to be useful, we started framing the main areas what were to be evaluated. We wanted to think about the ones using the tool and what, for example a Head of Coaching would like to see from his coaches on the ice. First we created and determined the main evaluation areas and started making a clear and easy to use evaluation form. When the main areas were clear, we started to define them and think about an effective way to evaluate them. This resulted in a user guide that opens up the areas and gives criteria for evaluation. To make the tool complete we felt that an evaluation feedback form was needed to summarise the gathered information of the practice evaluation form and to give more effective and correct feedback.

We wanted to define what things should be done and taken into consideration at each ice session. We also would like to emphasise that this evaluation package gives tools and a direction for evaluation and that the evaluation areas are guidelines, not the only correct ones.

### **7.2 Project Implementation**

As we had collected literature from various areas concerning our project, we started to look for ideas on what we should include in our evaluation form. We took a look at different evaluation forms that we had found, and analyzed them. The information we gathered from this helped us to find the areas we wanted to be evaluated, and also the

esthetics of the form. We wanted to have clear, effective evaluation areas as well as a clear, easy to use form.

For the evaluation form itself, we first decided the main emphasis areas and this way created frames for the evaluation form. Each evaluation area was defined and divided into three to four smaller points. After that we needed to create a way to evaluate the areas. We came up with a point system from 1 to 4, 1 being the lowest and 4 being the highest score. These numbers are defined as follows; 4 - excellent, 3 – good, 2 – satisfactory, 1 – needs improvement, n/a - not available for evaluation.

An important thing for us is that the one evaluating feels that this tool gives guidelines for evaluation and that he or she would not feel like these were demands to them, rather give them a picture about how coaching can be evaluated.

We divided the workload evenly between ourselves during the project. When we started to work on the main areas, we divided them so that each had parts to write. After both of us had finished our own parts, we sat down and evaluated what we had written and made changes if needed.

We started first with the practice evaluation form and the main evaluation area of teaching techniques. In this area we tried to get the emphasis to concentrate on the various teaching techniques a coach uses during a practice session. These techniques are the body on which the coach relies on to communicate with the players. Then we divided the area in to the following emphasis points that are ones to look for during evaluation:

Use of whiteboard; consists of how often the coach uses the board, how the coach uses the board and how the coach draws on the board.

On-ice presence; this emphasis point covers how the coach presents him/herself on the ice consisting of three main areas; positioning, how the coach is positioned on the ice during drills; is the drill visible for the coach, can the coach guide and give feedback. Use of voice, how the coach uses his/her voice, can all of the players hear what the coach is saying, direction of explanation and feedback and body language; how the coach acts on the ice, does the coach present him/herself professionally.

Pre-ice preparation; how the coach prepares the players and assistant coaches before the practice session, do the players know what to expect during practice, do the assistant coaches know how the practice will be run and do they know their responsibilities.

The second part was feedback. This evaluation area we wanted to consist of how and to whom the coach gives feedback. The key is to look for certain aspects on how feedback is given:

Team – feedback focused on the whole team as a collective group.

Individual – feedback focused on an individual; does the coach give feedback only to a certain individual, does the coach observe and notice all the players.

Guiding – feedback focused on guiding a player; does the feedback relate to an overall area or skill being learned (e.g. team play system).

Correcting – feedback focused on correcting a player; does the feedback relate to a certain skill being learned or the execution of the drill.

Overall feedback – does the coach give overall feedback after a drill/practice session?  
Does the coach end the practice session with feedback?

Third, we concentrated on the organization on ice. In this part we wanted to evaluate how the practice session is run technically. The key areas to be evaluated were practice plan, use of ice surface and use of assistants. We saw that these were the three most important factors from a technical aspect of on-ice coaching.

Fourth and last part of the form is practice content. We wanted to concentrate on content of the practice session, what is actually done on the ice. The following areas are to be considered during evaluation were; does the coach follow the practice theme, are the drills run from simple to complex and drill effectiveness.

In addition to the four different evaluation areas there is a feedback/evaluation box beside each section. In this area there is space to give more accurate feedback of the evaluated area as well as elaborate on the give evaluation. This area is also to be used to give a final conclusion of the evaluated area.

After we had finished the frames for the practice evaluation form, we started to make a evaluation feedback form to support the tool. The evaluation areas are the same as in the practice evaluation form, but the content of the areas is different. The contents are divided feedback in mind into strengths, weaknesses and recommendations.

As these two forms came together, we felt that in order to have a clearway of using the forms, a user guide was needed. In this user guide, the evaluation areas are defined as well as the criteria for evaluation.

### **7.3 Project Assessment**

As a result we came up with two evaluation forms, the practice evaluation form and the evaluation feedback form, as well as a seven-page user guide.

We were satisfied with the outcome. In the end we were felt that we were able to cover the most important coaching evaluation areas. The main concern was, that were we able to make a good enough way to evaluate and is the numerical evaluation effective. We wanted to have a tool that was clear and easy to read and use. We also wanted to make it as simple as possible not to confuse the evaluator. We wanted that the tool would be nice and motivating to use. The ultimate goal was to make the tool quite easy to read and easy to understand and to bring forward the core information in each of its sections.

We think that we were able to achieve that goal and to cover the basic information that is important to know in coaching evaluation. The idea was to cover the information in the user guide that, would be needed to be understood when looking at the last part of the user guide where we had the coaching guidelines for the ice hockey club.

We tested the tool in our own club in UAE and also asked opinions from coaches and colleagues as well as physical education teachers. We made small corrections after we got feedback, but the work itself was not changed due to the feedback being positive.

The package was given to the UAEIHA as a part of their coaching education program. It has also been given out to Abu Dhabi Ice Sports Club.

## 8 Summary and Discussion

The objective of the practice evaluation form was to enhance the evaluation of coaches. We wanted to make a form that covered the basic areas that are present in ice hockey coaching. As a result, the outcome was positive and we felt that this was a useful tool for head of coaches and coaching instructors.

As we started planning we wanted to think from the view of a head of coaching or a coaching instructor. We wanted to think what would we as head of coaches want to evaluate and what are the areas that we would want to see in daily coaching. We think that we were able to keep that thought in the back of our mind the whole way when working on the project.

As we went through the literature, we chose to use Moston's Theory as the basis for our teaching styles. This style was familiar to us since it was used in our teaching at our university. It is also very common and useful style to use in physical education and sports in all.

As a whole, the practice evaluation form, the evaluation feedback form and the user guide are a good package. We kept the forms to one page and the seven-page user guide is extensive enough to give a thorough explanation of the two forms.

A big challenge was finding the correct way to evaluate the areas. We were not sure in what would be the right way to evaluate and spent a lot of time comparing different evaluation methods before ending up in the numerical system. Another challenge was framing the main evaluation areas, what areas we would include and what we felt were not necessary to have in the form. We ended up with these four areas, but there are many other areas to evaluate, for example off-ice coaching could have been a part of the evaluation.

The planning and making of the tool helped us in our daily work as coaches. It helped us to look at things from a different view. We evaluated each other's produced materials and discussed if we had reached the outcomes that we wanted to reach within

each subject. We reviewed the material and made changes if there was a need for changes or additions. We also used outside evaluators to evaluate the effectiveness of the tool.

We hope that the user guide will be used on a daily basis by head of coaches and coaching instructors. This will make the observation and evaluation of coaches more active meaning that it is more consistent. We also hope that this tool would become as a part of head of coaches weekly or monthly routine.

This way the education and development of coaches would be a part of the club policy during the whole season. As a result of this, the development of coaches, players and ice hockey as a whole would go forward.

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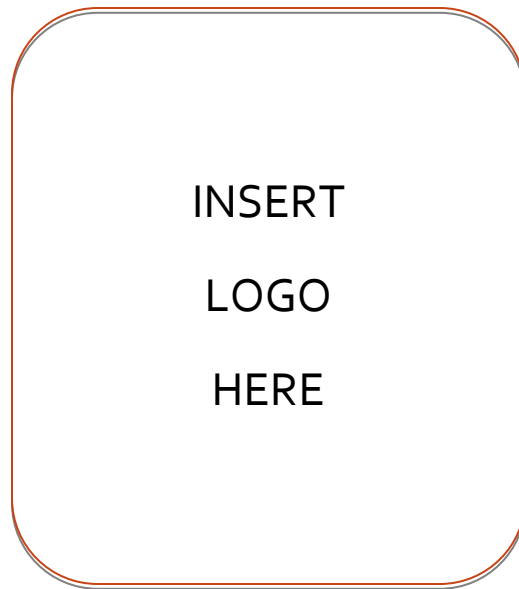
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## **Attachment**

Attachment 1. User Guide and Practice Evaluation & Feedback Forms



# USER GUIDE

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PRACTICE EVALUATION & EVALUATION  
FEEDBACK FORMS

## Table of Contents

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## 1. OVERVIEW

This user guide will help to use the practice evaluation and evaluation feedback sheets. It will define the given evaluation areas and give you an explanation of what is wanted to look for inside these areas.

The evaluation areas are broken down into smaller sections to help you understand what is needed to evaluate. These sections will be defined in few sentences to explain what to look for.

The practice evaluation and evaluation feedback sheets are designed for Head of Coaching and Coaching Instructors as well as for self evaluation. The actual evaluation is based on the demands and visions of a Club, Head of Coaching or Coaching Instructor. This package is a tool to help them with coach evaluation.

## 2. CONTENT

The practice evaluation sheet consists of two main parts; main information of practice session and evaluation areas to be evaluated

### 2.1. Practice session information

This part of the sheet consists of basic information of the practice session.

**Coach** – Coach in charge of running the practice

**Team** – Team or age group participating in the practice

**Date** – Date on which the practice is held

**Players** – The number of players participating in the practice

**Assist. Coaches** – The number of assistant coaches participating in the practice

**Place of evaluation** – The area of the rink where the evaluator is positioned (e.g. on the ice, in the stands, on the bench)

**Duration of practice** – The total length of the practice in minutes

**Use of ice time** – The amount of time that is active work (e.g. a drill is in action) versus the time that is non-active work (e.g. coach explaining practice, general break in drills)

**Helping tools used** – The aiding tools used on the ice (e.g. cones, nets, pucks)

## 2.2. Evaluation area

The different evaluation areas are located in this part of the sheet. Each area has a main topic which is the broken down into smaller sections. There is an evaluation box as well as an area in which there is space to write feedback and elaborate on the give evaluation.

### 2.2.1. Evaluation

The evaluation of the given areas is to be done in a point system. There are five different options to choose from:

- 4 – The level of the given evaluation area is **EXCELENT**:
  - ✓ Is able to perform to the level demanded, masters the evaluation area.
- 3 – The level of the given evaluation area is **GOOD**:
  - ✓ Is able to perform to the level demanded, but deficiencies inside the evaluation area.
- 2 – The level of the given evaluation area is **SATISFACTORY**:
  - ✓ Is fairly able to perform in the level demanded, but right elements inside the evaluation area can be seen.
- 1 – The level of the given evaluation area **NEEDS IMPROVEMENT**:
  - ✓ Not able to perform to the level demanded, large deficiencies inside the evaluation area, further instruction needed.
- n/a – The level of the given evaluation area is not available for evaluation

### 2.2.2. Feedback/Elaboration

In this area there is space to give more accurate feedback of the evaluated area as well as elaborate on the given evaluation. This area is also to be used to give a final conclusion of the evaluated area.

## 3. AREAS OF EVALUATION

There are four main areas of evaluation on the practice evaluation sheet; Teaching techniques, Feedback, Organization and Practice content. In the following, these areas will be broken down into smaller sections to help define the wanted aspects of evaluation.

### 3.1. Teaching techniques

In this area the emphasis is to concentrate on the various teaching techniques a coach uses during a practice session. These techniques are the body on which the coach relies on to communicate with the players. The following emphasis points are ones to look for during evaluation:

**Use of whiteboard** – Consists of; 1. How often the coach uses the board, 2. How the coach uses the board (is it visible to all the players, is the orientation of the board efficient for a given drill), 3. Drawing on the board (use of the correct symbols)

**On-ice presence** – This emphasis point covers how the coach presents him/herself on the ice consisting of three main areas:

1. **Positioning** – How the coach is positioned on the ice during drills; is the drill visible for the coach, can the coach guide and give feedback.
2. **Use of voice** – How the coach uses his/her voice, can all of the players hear what the coach is saying, direction of explanation and feedback
3. **Body language** – How the coach acts on the ice, does the coach present him/herself professionally

**Pre-ice preparation** – How the coach prepares the players and assistant coaches before the practice session; do the players know what to expect



during practice, do the assistant coaches know how the practice will be run, do they know their responsibilities.

### 3.2. Feedback

This evaluation area consists of how and to whom the coach gives feedback to. The key is to look for certain aspects on how feedback is given:

**Team** – Feedback focused on the whole team as a collective group.

**Individual** – Feedback focused on an individual; does the coach give feedback only to a certain individual, does the coach observe and notice all the players.

**Guiding** – Feedback focused on guiding a player; does the feedback relate to an overall area or skill being learned (e.g. team play system).

**Correcting** – Feedback focused on correcting a player; does the feedback relate to a certain skill being learned or the execution of the drill.

**Overall feedback** – Does the coach give overall feedback after a drill/practice session? Does the coach end the practice session with feedback?

### 3.3. Organization

Evaluating this area consists of how the practice session is run technically. These key areas are to be evaluated:

**Practice plan** – 1. Has the coach prepared a practice plan, is it done to the standard of the club 2. Is the plan followed out on the ice?

**Use of ice surface** – Does the coach use the ice surface efficiently when running the practice?

**Use of assistants** – Does the coach use assistant coaches efficiently?

### 3.4. Practice content

In this area the emphasis is to focus on the content of the practice session, what is actually done on the ice. The following areas are to be considered during evaluation:

**Follows practice theme** – Are the drills run following and supporting the theme of the practice session?

**Simple to complex** – Are the drills run progressing from simple warm up drills to more complex drills?

**Drill effectiveness** – Are the drills run containing the aspects of the skill wanted to teach?

## 4. EVALUATION FEEDBACK SHEET

This sheet is to be used to give overall feedback to the coach together with the practice evaluation sheet. There are three different parts which are to be filled; Strengths, Weaknesses and Recommendations.

# PRACTICE EVALUATION FORM

Coach \_\_\_\_\_ Team \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_ Players \_\_\_\_\_ Assist. Coaches \_\_\_\_\_

Place of evaluation \_\_\_\_\_ Duration of practice \_\_\_\_\_ Use of ice time, active/non-active: \_\_\_\_/\_\_\_\_

Helping tools used \_\_\_\_\_

## 1. TEACHING TECHNIQUES

	4	3	2	1	n/a
✓ Use of board	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
✓ On-ice presence	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
✓ Pre-ice preparation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

OVERALL EVALUATION

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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### FEEDBACK / ELABORATION

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## 2. FEEDBACK

	4	3	2	1	n/a
✓ To team	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
✓ Individual	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
✓ Guiding	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
✓ Correcting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
✓ Overall	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

OVERALL EVALUATION

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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### FEEDBACK / ELABORATION

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## 3. ORGANIZATION

	4	3	2	1	n/a
✓ Use of ice surface	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
✓ Practice plan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
✓ Use of assistants	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

OVERALL EVALUATION

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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### FEEDBACK / ELABORATION

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## 4. PRACTICE CONTENT

	4	3	2	1	n/a
✓ Follows practice theme	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
✓ Simple → Complex	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
✓ Drill effectiveness	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

OVERALL EVALUATION

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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### FEEDBACK / ELABORATION

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# EVALUATION FEEDBACK FORM

Coach \_\_\_\_\_ Team \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_/\_\_\_/\_\_\_ Players \_\_\_\_\_ Assist. Coaches \_\_\_\_\_

Place of evaluation \_\_\_\_\_ Duration of practice \_\_\_\_\_ Use of ice time, active/non-active: \_\_\_/\_\_\_

## 1. TEACHING TECHNIQUES

- ✓ Use of board
- ✓ On-ice presence
- ✓ Pre-ice preparation

### STRENGTHS:

### WEAKNESSES:

### RECOMMENDATIONS:

## 2. FEEDBACK

- ✓ To team /individual
- ✓ Guiding / Correcting
- ✓ Overall

### STRENGTHS:

### WEAKNESSES:

### RECOMMENDATIONS:

## 3. ORGANIZATION

- ✓ Use of ice surface
- ✓ Practice plan
- ✓ Use of assistants

### STRENGTHS:

### WEAKNESSES:

### RECOMMENDATIONS:

## 4. PRACTICE CONTENT

- ✓ Follows practice theme
- ✓ Simple →Complex
- ✓ Drilleffectiveness

### STRENGTHS:

### WEAKNESSES:

### RECOMMENDATIONS: