HAAGA-HELIA
University of Applied Sciences

Athlete-centred coaching in team environment for young athletes

Janis Zarins & Joona Savolainen

Bachelor Thesis
Degree Programme in Sports and Leisure Management
April 2016

HAAGA-HELIA
University of Applied Sciences

Abstract

Date of presentation

Degree programme

Authors Janis Zarins and Joona Savolainen	**Group** DP11
Title of thesis Athlete-centred coaching in team environment for young athletes	**Number of pages and appendices** 58+12
Supervisor Markus Arvaja	

Nowadays, in sports world there is a lot of talk about athlete-centred coaching and individual athlete development, and coaches try to use these approaches more often. Rarely you hear these approaches being used together, not to mention in an ice-hockey scene. There are still many ice-hockey coaches that use coach centred coaching style which focusses on success of a trainer and often results with development of improper behaviours among players and drop-out of sports.

The first objective of this case study is to research how to improve athlete engagement, enjoyment and development during participation in sports. The second objective is to develop an environment where athlete empowerment would be encouraged, and implement it in a team. The third objective is to present the development, implementation and assessment of tools for growth of self-image and goal-setting in team environment.

The objectives were met in this case study, done through one ice hockey season. An athlete centered environment was created during the process of this case study in two age groups. This proved to be effective in encouraging players to try new skills and creativity during practices and games which improved athlete engagement and enjoyment.

The self-evaluation, goal-setting and goal achievement assessment tools proved to be effective, and some of the players showed high increase in their self-directedness and motivation which was seen through the team practices, games and during self-imposed training on their free time.

The project provided benefit to, both, players and coaches. It was an interesting journey through one ice hockey season that opened new perspectives to development of the team and the players.

Keywords
Athlete centred, Empowered athletes, Motivation, Individual development, Team environment, Self-image

Table of contents

1 Introduction 1
2 Athlete centred coaching 3
2.1 Coach centred coaching style 3
2.2 Athlete centred coaching style 3
2.3 Obstacles of athlete centred coaching 5
2.4 Benefits of athlete-centred coaching 5
2.5 Empowered athletes 7
2.6 Why children participate in sport 9
3 Creating athlete centred coaching environment 13
3.1 Athlete centred philosophy 13
3.1.1 Team goals 14
3.1.2 The practices 14
3.1.3 Game-day 15
3.1.4 Communication with players 15
3.1.5 Communication with parents 16
3.1.6 Administering consequences 17
3.2 Key components of athlete centred coaching 17
3.2.1 Teaching games for understanding 18
3.2.2 Questioning 18
3.2.3 Team culture 19
4 Developing healthy motivational climate 20
4.1 Achievement goal theory 20
4.1.1 Mastery oriented climate 21
4.1.2 Performance oriented climate 21
4.1.3 Effects of mastery oriented climate 22
4.1.4 Effects of performance oriented climate 23
4.2 Self-determination theory 24
4.3 TARGET 25
4.3.1 Tasks 26
4.3.2 Authority 26

4.3.3 Recognition ... 27
4.3.4 Grouping ... 27
4.3.5 Evaluation ... 27
4.3.6 Time ... 28
4.3.7 Adapting TARGET ... 28
4.4 Self-awareness ... 29
4.4.1 Self-regulation theory ... 30
4.5 Goal setting ... 33
4.5.1 Goal types ... 34
4.5.2 Research on goal setting ... 35
5 Athlete centred coaching in Dornbirn Bulldogs ... 37
5.1 Creating athlete-centred coaching environment in Dornbirn Bulldogs ... 37
5.1.1 Setting of team goals, rules and consequences ... 37
5.1.2 Motivational climate ... 38
5.1.3 The practice and competition ... 39
5.1.4 Communication ... 40
5.2 Developing and implementing tools for individual athlete development ... 41
5.2.1 Developing self-evaluation sheet ... 41
5.2.2 Developing S.M.A.R.T-goal setting sheet ... 45
5.2.3 Implementation and observations of the tools ... 47
5.3 Results ... 48
5.3.1 Athlete centred team environment ... 48
5.3.2 The tools for individual athlete development ... 50
6 Discussion ... 52
References ... 55
Appendices ... 59

1 Introduction

Why does a player engage in an activity such as a practice or a game of hockey? How can the engagement of an athlete in a sports activity be increased? How to increase the fun factor and improve development of athletes as individuals and as a group? The motivation for this thesis has come from seeking answers to these questions, making it the first objective of this thesis.

Many studies and researches have explored these questions, nevertheless, many sports organisations and coaches still emphasize on personal success and winning, rather than fun and development of young athletes. Too often the choice and control is taken away from the athletes encouraging them to become robotic in their actions and thinking. This disempowering form of coach control actually contradicts to why many athletes participate in sport. (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 13-14.)

On the other hand, in athlete centred coaching, an atmosphere is created where continuous player growth is ensured with every practice and game. In this process, the emphasis is placed on empowering an athlete. In other words, through training, empowered athletes and teams gain some control over what happens in their sporting life and general lifestyle. If athletes truly learn and take ownership of the direction of the team or competition, enjoyment and success is more likely. (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 14, 16.) Therefore, the second objective of this project is researching what is athlete centred coaching, what it consists of and how to implement it in a team environment.

Some of the difficulties that lay within the athlete centred coaching approach are that players are not used to it. Never having experienced anything but traditional, coach-centred approach to leadership, athletes may be confused and even resist coaches who promote thinking and creativity by asking questions. If not handled correctly, as a consequence to the process of questioning, coaches may appear not to be sure or confident in tasks concerning the sport. (Kidman 2005 ,41.)

We felt that there is a lack of research specifically concerning individual athlete development in an athlete centred coaching environment. Therefore, during this thesis, we will present a model for an individual approach to athlete centred coaching in a team environment. The model implements self-evaluation and goal-setting as tools to promote athlete empowerment. The tools were, both, self-made as well as taken from different sources.

At the beginning of the project, the vision was to implement self-evaluation and goal-setting tools for every individual player in two age groups, which were u13 and u15. The main emphasis during this process was to gain practical knowledge whether players would become more self-aware, understand the process of learning, take action and contribute to their own development, as a result of the implementation of the above-mentioned tools. Therefore, making the creation, implementation and the assessment of self-evaluation and goal setting tools the third objective of the thesis.

This thesis is written as a case study and consists of three parts. As the first part of this thesis, an in-depth theory concerning athlete centred coaching is presented. The second part of this thesis displays a process of planning and implementing an athlete centred coaching environment in Dornbirn Bulldogs youth ice hockey club. During this part, development and implementation of self-awareness and goal-setting tools are displayed. The thesis ends with a result section which displays and analyses the observations and the outcome of the process in second part of this project. During the last part of this thesis, a discussion segment is included in which issues relating to creation implementation of athlete centred coaching environment and individual athlete development program are discussed.

2 Athlete centred coaching

2.1 Coach centred coaching style

In the professional era, the performance objectives of many coaches depend on winning. For coaches like these, the pressure in this must-win environment becomes so great that coaches may exploit their power by taking the choice and control away from the athlete in an attempt to ensure their athletes are winning. When a coach takes total control and athletes have basically no say in the decision-making, the approach is called coach centred coaching. This disempowering form of coach control actually contradicts to why many athletes participate in sport. (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 13-14.)

This coaching style includes a prescriptive method where the choice and control is taken away from the athlete. This coach-centred approach drills specific knowledge in athletes limiting them to a form of learning that emphasises memorising rather than understanding or solving problems. This limited approach encourages athletes to be robotic in their actions and thinking. In such environment, the players do not feel like they have an active role in contributing to or being a part of their learning. (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 13-14.)

A coach-centred coach is a person who coaches for himself, uses the power given to him to dominate and considers athletes, whether consciously or unconsciously, only as means to an end in achieving their own goals and dreams (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 13-14).

2.2 Athlete centred coaching style

Oppositely to the coach centred coaching, if athletes truly learn and take ownership of the direction of the team or competition, success is more likely. From the athlete's perspective, the meaning of success is rarely winning. (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 14). Lynn Kidman, (2005, 38) compliments this by mentioning that when it comes to success, striving to win is more important than winning itself.

"A basic tenet of the athlete-centred sports model is the enhancement of the holistic health and well-being of the athlete through the pursuit of excellence in sport" (Miller & Kerr 2002, 147). This can be achieved through the following eight characteristics of athlete-centred coaching:

- Mutual respect amongst athletes, coaches, and other members of the sporting community.
- Understanding that sport is an important part, but not the entirety of the athlete's life experience.
- Recognition of the athletes as a whole and developing people, who need support in all aspects of their health (i.e., physical, psychological, social).
- Athletes are empowered by being active, informed participants in their program design and policy development (i.e., goal setting, training).
- Clearly defining, agreeing upon and following the athletes' and coaches' rights and responsibilities.
- Development of athletes' leadership, teamwork and decision making skills.
- Furthering of athletes' self-knowledge, self-esteem, and moral integrity.
- The building and maintenance of a partnership style coach-athlete relationship.

(Clarke, Smith, & Thibault 1994; Kidman 2005, 38; Miller & Kerr 2002, 140-153.)

In athlete centred coaching, an atmosphere is created where continuous player growth is ensured with every practice and game (Mitchell 2013).

At a general level, athlete centred approach describes a process by which people gain control over the decisions affecting their lives. When a coach considers athletes first and gives them choice and control, the athletes become empowered. In other words, through training, empowered athletes and teams gain some control over what happens in their sporting live and general lifestyle. This is possible because through athlete centred leadership the power is shared with the players. (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 16.)

An empowered athlete has authority and is able to engage actively and fully in shaping and defining his own direction. Therefore, it is important to mention that a relevant part of athlete-centred coaching is ensuring that athletes take ownership of their own learning and direction (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 16-17.)

2.3 Obstacles of athlete centred coaching

Athletes themselves, however, are often the most vocal critics of athlete centred coaches, therefore presenting a major obstacle to the implementation of such leadership style. Never having experienced anything but traditional, coach-centred approach to leadership, athletes may be confused and even resist coaches who as a result of incorrect use of questioning may appear to be unsure or unconfident in tasks concerning the sport. (Kidman 2005 ,41.)

When asking a player to respond to a question for the first time a coach should initially express a theoretical opinion, or intellectually relate to the sports experience, otherwise, athletes who are not used to the athlete centred approach may be baffled, disappointed or rebellious (Kidman 2005 ,41-42).

To overcome these problems one needs to "sell" the new approach to one's athletes. A coach needs to explain why he is doing this and how it is going to help the athletes. (Kidman 2005, 40.)

2.4 Benefits of athlete-centred coaching

Some of the main advantages of an athlete centred coaching are that athletes are motivated to learn and have a greater understanding and retention of both, tactics and skills. A coach who empowers athletes also facilitates their learning but does not control it. This approach is clearly beneficial given that athletes must be self-sufficient in their performance, decision-making and option choosing while participating in their sport (Table 1 and 2). Athlete-centred approach encourages athletes to become self-aware and self-sufficient, allows them to make informed decisions and emphasises individual growth and change. (Kidman, Thorpe & Hadfield 2005, 17.)

Table 1: Practices that characterize coach-centred and athlete-centred coaches (Kidman & Davis 2006.)

Coach-Centred Coach	**Athlete-Centred Coach**
• Provides an environment of dependency. • Expects the team to conform to his/her ways of doing. • Speaks to rather than listens to the athletes. • Tells athletes only what he/she thinks they need to know to suit his/her needs. • Has a "winning at all costs" attitude, which promotes unfair or illegal practices. • Treats the team as one, rather than as individuals. • Makes the decisions for the athletes or team. • Asks closed and redundant, or few questions. • Criticises mistakes. • Uses threats or punishment to coerce athletes into following coach's expectations of behaviour. • Promotes fear of failure.	• Provides a safe and confirming environment. • Listens to athletes and takes them seriously. • Reinforces values and morals through facilitation of team's goals and the coach's own actions (role model). • Values all athlete's contributions equally, but accepts each athlete as a unique individual. • Gives athlete responsibility to encourage accountability for their actions. • Assists athletes in establishing team and individual goals and values; goals should be multiple (outcome goals should NOT be the only ones). • Asks questions of his/her players; encourages problem solving and critical thinking. • Provides information to players about their performance and other matters related to the team. • Answers questions, encourages players to ask questions and seek knowledge.

Table 2: A comparison of characteristics of athletes who are coached by athlete-centred and coach-centred coaches (Kidman & Davis 2006.)

Coach-centred Athletes often:	**Athlete-centred Athletes often:**
• Have their goals set for them. • Feel as if they do not have a say in any direction. • Lack enthusiasm. • Are treated as a means to an end. • Compete "robotically". • Display anger and stubbornness. • Listen to the coach's way. • Have a disrespectful attitude. • Are defensive when challenged. • Get easily frustrated. • Feel that there is no respect or trust from the coach. • Are encouraged to be individuals and therefore show uncooperativeness. • Lack confidence and competence to make informed decisions.	• Set their own goals and have an intrinsic desire to reach them. • Enjoy their sport. • Show enthusiasm. • Develop self-efficacy and confidence in their ability and are enabled to control results produced by their skill and effort. • Understand that they contribute and take responsibility for their learning and direction. • Are accountable for their actions. • Feel that they are important because of coach's actions in understanding the athletes (e.g. listening, empathy). • Understand that there is a mutual trust and respect. • Are more coachable because they have freedom and choice. • Are highly committed to achieving levels of excellence. • Are willing to engage totally in what they believe.

2.5 Empowered athletes

Jones (2011, in Kidman 2005, 23) points out that before implementing athlete-centred coaching approach, coaches must understand the process that athletes go through to become empowered. None of the aspects of this process come automatically. For

every situation, the coach's response or interaction depends on the team environment and the impact of coach's approach of individual athletes. Arai (1997, in Kidman 2005, 23) suggest that in becoming empowered, individuals move through four stages in this order:

1. Becoming self-aware.
2. Connecting and learning.
3. Taking action.
4. Contributing to their own learning.

Arai (1997, in Kidman 2005, 23.)

In the first stage, coaches help to raise the athlete's level of awareness. To determine if they are empowered, athletes should assess themselves and begin to increase their self-awareness. It is important for athletes to establish how committed they feel and how important this sport is to their life. Self-aware athletes also understand why they make certain moves and react in certain ways, why they perform the way they do and their own body movement. A coach can help athletes to improve their self-awareness by asking meaningful questions. For example, "Why did you move there?" or "How do you think you can get that pass away quicker?", these questions will help the athletes to focus their thought on what they are doing. (Kidman 2005, 24.)

In stage 2 athletes determine their role in learning. To gain an understanding of their own responsibility for learning, athletes must first change their view of what learning is. The most important step is for them to understand that they need to be part of their own learning. The coach's role is to provide support, to be a mentor and act as an information source so that athletes can begin to expand on their choices and opportunities. (Kidman 2005, 24.)

In stage 3 athletes apply the new information about themselves and learning so that they can take action in the empowering process. They engage in new activities and begin to become decision makers through expressing their own ideas. In this stage, athletes act in an empowered manner, they ask questions, they answer questions and

they participate with awareness of their own performance. At this stage, they begin to become part of the learning process. The coach's role is to encourage and support the athlete's ideas and sense of self-expression. (Kidman 2005, 24.)

Finally, in stage 4 athletes contribute to their own learning by processing their own thinking and gaining an understanding that enhances their ability to solve problems and make decisions. They contribute to the vision and goals of the team and of themselves. The coach's role here is to encourage the growth of this individual. (Kidman 2005, 24.)

In summary, empowered athletes:

- Set their own goals and have an intrinsic desire to reach them.
- Enjoy their sport.
- Show enthusiasm.
- Develop self-efficacy and confidence in their ability.
- Understand that they contribute to and take responsibility for their learning and direction.
- Are accountable for their actions.

(Kidman 2015, 24.)

2.6 Why children participate in sport

According to Cheffers (1994, 6), understanding of why people move, what happens when they move and how they move, contributes to the structuring of successful coaching processes.

Every athlete has their own thoughts about their participation in sports, including different reasons for participating, desires, interests, involvement and commitments. Sports offers an environment for where athletes can gain a sense of competence, achievement and recognition. (Kidman 2005, 41.)

Many surveys and investigations have been made to unravel the reason why children participate in sports and become members of a team. According to Cox (2002, 108), these are the most common answers:

- To have fun and enjoy the sport.
- To learn new skills and to improve on existing sports skills.
- To become physically fit and healthy.
- To enjoy the excitement of challenge and competition.
- To enjoy team atmosphere with friends and make new friends.

(Cox 2002, 108.)

Jason Devos (27.09.2014) in his article "Change in Canadian soccer means new leadership required" writes about a survey that the Ontario Soccer Association had done not too long ago at Grassroots level. This was done as an answer to London United soccer club president who suggested that, amongst other things, kids are leaving soccer because there is no trophy for them to win. The objective of this survey was to sit down with the players and find out why they play the game, why it is important to them, and what role they want adults to have in their soccer experience. During this questionnaire, two questions were asked to the kids which are presented below in forms of figures 1 and 2 along with the results of the survey. "It is really important to me that I" (Figure 1), illustrates the response that the kids gave to a question of what is important to them in soccer and clearly shows that playing well, learning new skills, playing fairly, being with friends and having fun are more important to kids that winning.

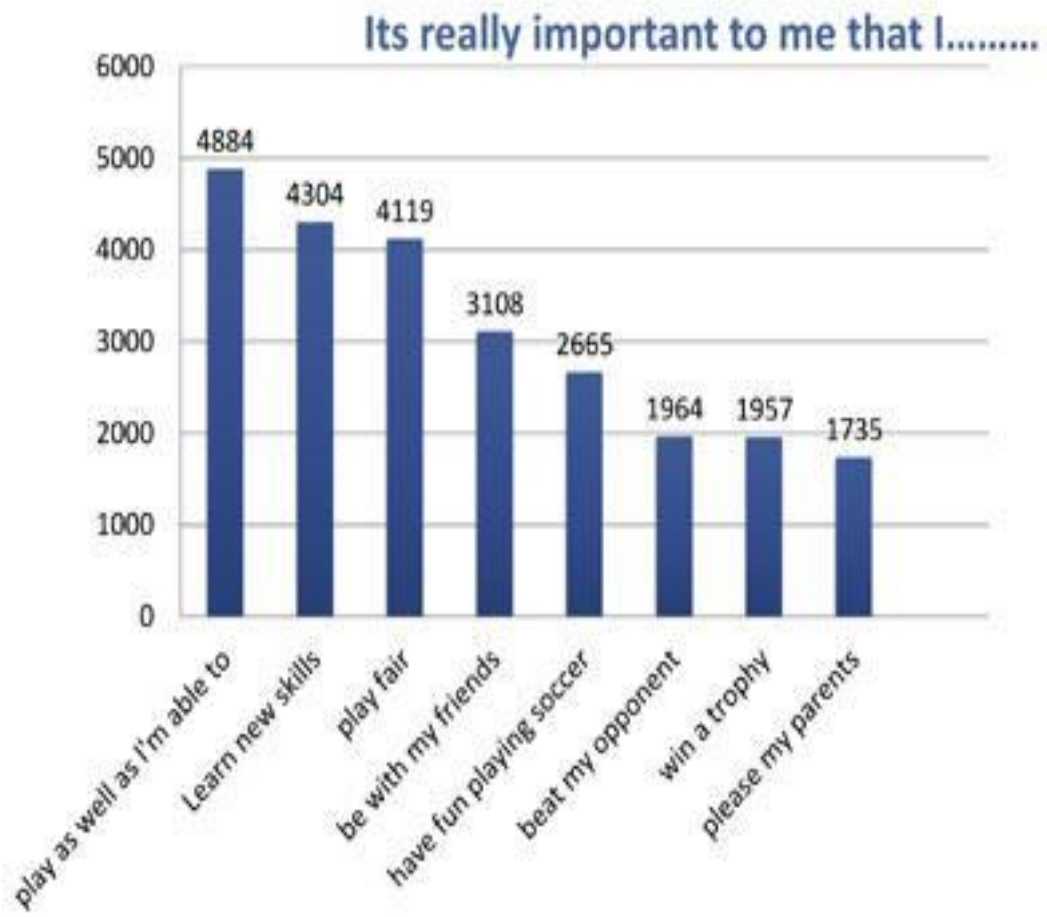

Figure 1: It is really important to me that I… The vertical axis indicates the number of kids, and on the horizontal axis in a declining order visible is the opinion of the kids involved in the survey. (Jason Devos 27.09.2014.)

The adults should (figure 2), demonstrates the opinion of the kids when asked what the role of adults should be in the youth sports and yet again underlined is the fun factor, willingness to learn, and the desire for autonomy. Lynn Kidman, Rod Thorpe and David Hadfield (2005, 16) in their book "Athlete-centred Coaching: Developing Inspired and Inspiring People" also shares this idea by mentioning that the key to athlete-centred approach is a leadership style that adapts to the needs and understandings where athletes are encouraged to learn and have control of their participation in sports.

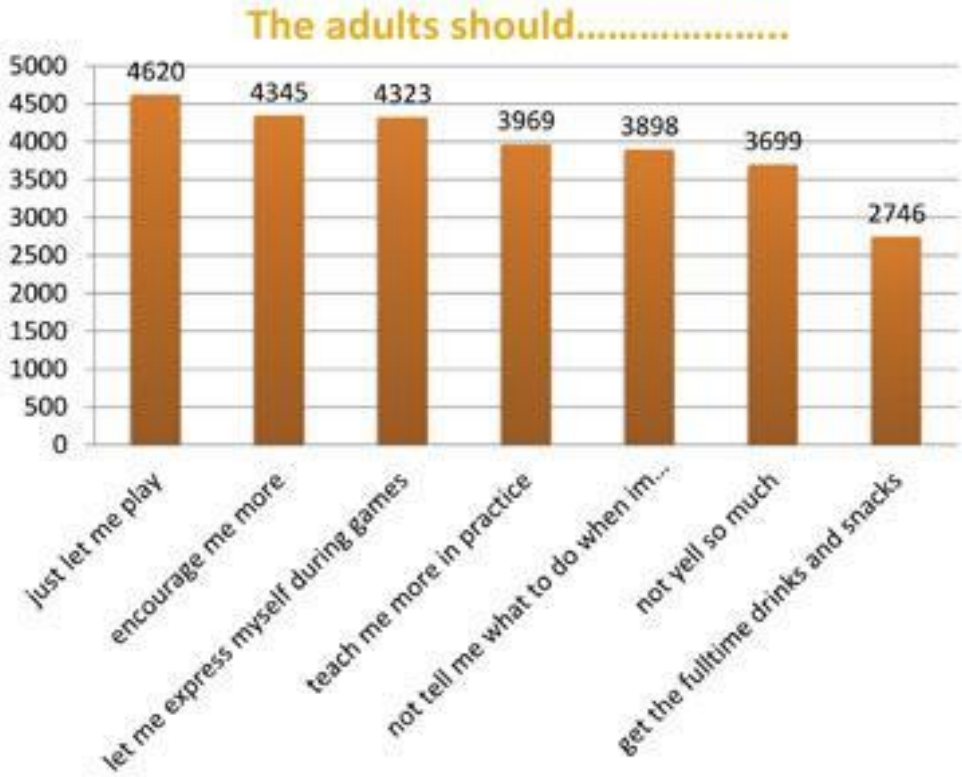

Figure 2: The adults should… On the vertical axis demonstrated is the number of the kids and on the horizontal axis in a declining fashion demonstrated are what the roles of the adults should be in youth soccer in the opinion of the kids themselves. (Jason Devos 27.09.2014.)

3 Creating athlete centred coaching environment

Participation in sports is claimed to provide specific education that enhances the attainments in all the domains of learning (i.e. physical, cognitive, psychological and social). Furthermore, sport has been considered a means by which children can learn values and discipline as well as develop morally and socially (Kidman 2005, 36).

Coakly (2009), however, mentions that there is a lack of research to conclusively show that participation in organized sports programmes leads to appropriate values, attitudes and morals or other characteristics traditionally associated with involvement in sports (Kidman 2005, 36). Fullwider (2006), Shields and Bredemeier (2001), Stoll and Beller (2000) point out that, in fact, significant sources indicate that participation in sports leads to acquiring of inappropriate values and attitudes (Kidman 2005, 36).

Thus, involvement in sports alone does not, as a direct consequence, lead to development of positive social values. Rather, coaches and other significant adults contribute in both positive and negative ways to the building of character and moral development. Therefore, in youth sports, it appears that a number of social influences produce a clash of values between the adults' expectation of success and the expectations of the children. Since coaches and other adults have such high influence on the sports experience of the kid, they have the responsibility to consider which expectations are their own and which belong to children. (Kidman 2005, 36.)

3.1 Athlete centred philosophy

Diefenbach and Lauer (2009) suggested that coaches should develop a coaching philosophy that embraces goals commonly related to youth sport, which, in turn, include the personal and social values and the life skills that can be learned by participation in the sport: character, morals, teamwork, resilience, sportsmanship, fair play, time management, and the value of hard work. Hammermeister (2010) adds that to ensure a coaching philosophy is athlete-centred it is required that these objectives are not compromised for the purpose of increasing the chances of winning. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 4.)

In addition to being presented in the form of a written document, the coach's philosophy should be communicated through the many decisions that are made directly relating to the team and its players, as well as in the coach's conduct. Martens (2004) reminds that a coaching philosophy is not expressed only by what the coach says, but also by what the coach does. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 5.)

3.1.1 Team goals

Team goals can be a powerful motivator. Allowing athletes to be involved in the process of goal-setting can not only increase their commitment but also provide the coach with valuable information about the team. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 5.)

3.1.2 The practices

Furthermore, involving players in the process of planning the practice will allow the athletes to take ownership of their learning, increase the retention of important skills and ideas and advance their understanding of what their team must improve upon. This in return will improve the efficiency of the practice as well as increase the commitment of each individual player. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 5.)

The ratio of practice to play time should be based on age and maturity, and seriously considered in the process of creating an athlete centred environment. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 5.)

As mentioned by Wirsberg (2007), development of a process focus will enable athletes to manage their emotions and arousal during competition. In other words, the athletes should be taught to focus on the process of performing technical and tactical skills versus simply using an outcome to measure success. Convincing players that practice is a place where errors are expected, an environment where athletes can take risks without fear of failure opens the door for improvement and growth. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 5.)

3.1.3 Game-day

According to Woodman & Hardy (2001), competitions can be a source of anxiety for athletes, but having structured processes for game day can help with this and make the day more enjoyable for players as well as team staff (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 6).

Wrisberg (2007) suggests that, during games, focusing on task performance goals instead of outcome goals will enable athletes to evaluate improvements in their own ability, as opposed to the outcomes they achieved or how they did relative to other athletes or opponents. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 6.)

3.1.4 Communication with players

To create a truly athlete centred environment, it is important to have an effective communication between athletes and team staff. Martens (2004) has mentioned that effective communication is necessary not only for athletes to improve their skills, but also to develop a positive relationship with the coach. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 6.)

Establishing interpersonal relationships between players and coaches has been found to assist in creating a learning environment that is comfortable for both parties, and subsequently be more productive. Engaging in one on one, player to coach, interactions during every practice will help achieve this goal. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 6.)

In addition to the information mentioned above, individual weekly meetings with players should be scheduled during which they would be encouraged to share concerns, problems and ideas to the coach. This has the potential to be an effective forum for communicating strategies intended to help the player increase opportunities for playing time and development. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 6.)

Communication with players is critical in developing and maintaining quality coach-

player relationships, without which many teaching-learning opportunities would be lost. Equally as important, relationships forged with players can last a lifetime. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 6.)

Different communication techniques can be applied to make sure the information is absorbed better and retained for a longer period of time. One of the most widely used ones is the "sandwich method" and describes a process during which feedback of performance is relayed to the player. The feedback beginning with a praise to make the person more receptive and open up to the conversation, followed by corrective feedback to improve the desired actions and ended with a positive comment to increase the motivation of the player. (Betof 2009, 121.)

3.1.5 Communication with parents

According to McGladery, Murray and Hannon (2010, 6), parents can be the most valuable resource a youth sports coach have, however, coaches often try to refrain from talking with parents. Being available and communicating with parents from the beginning can help the coach avoid later conflict with parents.

Although many coaches avoid phone calls from parents, an athlete centred coaching philosophy suggests that a coach is willing to work with parents for the benefit of an athlete. An "open-door policy" is said to reinforce the notion that, for the purpose of helping an athlete achieve his goals and objectives associated with participation, a collaborative effort is encouraged. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 6.)

The subjects the coach deems eligible for discussion with parents should be communicated during the preseason meeting conducted with all parents (e.g. perhaps the coach believes discussions regarding playing time should occur between player and coach only while discussions involving academic performance should involve parents). The coaching philosophy and players' expectations should also be shared and discussed at this meeting. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 6.)

3.1.6 Administering consequences

Team rules are essential for maintaining organization and proper behaviour. If rules for participation are clearly identified and communicated at the beginning of the season, athletes are forced with the choice of complying with the rules or breaking them. Therefore, consequences for choosing to break rules should also be clearly established and communicated. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 7.)

During the process of administering consequences, the adult should be fair, consistent, and explain the rationale behind the decision making process. Consequences that are athlete centred have been determined to be appropriate and contribute to the learning process, both on and off the field. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 7.)

By using the team rules as a guide, a team should be allowed to participate in determining consequences for player misconduct. When held accountable by their peers, players will take ownership of their actions and, if necessary, consequences. (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 7.)

During this process, one should express caution, for if a coach outlines rules and consequences for breaking them, he must enforce the consequences even if doing so means sitting a star player during an important game (McGladery, Murray & Hannon 2010, 7).

3.2 Key components of athlete centred coaching

Kidman and Lombardo (2010, 24) highlight three major components of an athlete-centred approach:

1. Teaching games for understanding.
2. Questioning.
3. Establishing a quality team culture.

3.2.1 Teaching games for understanding

Teaching games for understanding (TGfU) is a game approach that has been adapted and modified in various contexts and under various names, including "Play Practice" and "Game Sense". The common feature across these variations is that a purposeful game is used for athletes to learn a skill, technique or tactical understanding of a sporting activity. Launder (2011, in Kidman & Lombardo 2010, 25) points out that the ability to use an understanding of the rules, strategy, tactics and, most importantly, oneself to solve problems posed by the game or one's opponents is the basis of TGfU. The TGfU model is understanding in action and providing opportunities to enhance an athlete's ability to respond or make decisions. (Kidman & Lombardo 2010, 26.)

Developing games to meet learning outcomes are the key in planning and designing the games. Some of the ideas around which games could be developed include freeze replay, attacker and defender ratio, altering the size and the shape of the playing area, primary and secondary rules, playing time and conditions applied to the game. (Australian Sport Commission 1997, in Kidman & Lombardo 2010, 25.)

3.2.2 Questioning

Butler (1997, in Kidman & Lombardo 2010, 26) points out that the technique of questioning is a way of helping athletes in learning how to solve a problem. It is not just a matter of asking questions. Effective questioning performed by the coach requires purposeful questions phrased in a way that encourages the athlete to respond. Stimulating questions are an extremely powerful way of inspiring athletes and enhancing intrinsic motivation. Questioning also engages athletes at a conscious level, increasing their concentration and thus their intensity, which transfers to the game where the pressure is great.

Athletes will undertake problem solving with enjoyment and ever-increasing effort if given the opportunity. By creating their own solutions athletes gain more self-awareness, the subsequent enhancement of their performance is well documented (Cassidy et al., 2009 in Kidman & Lombardo, 2010, 26). For example, athletes who

take ownership of the content of their learning will remember, understand and apply it more effectively than those who are told what to do, when to do it and how to do it. When they solve problems through coach's questions, athletes discover, explore, create and generally experiment with a variety of movement forms, skills and tactics. (Kidman & Lombardo 2010, 27.)

3.2.3 Team culture

One way to encourage self-reliance is to pursue a quality team culture in which athletes gain responsibility for establishing and maintaining direction for the team. According to Thompson (2003, in Kidman & Lombardo 2010, 27), "team culture consists of values, rituals, shared vocabularies, two-way communication and feeling of family". Without quality team culture, success, learning and winning are difficult.

Many athlete-centred coaches have multiple ways of developing the vision and the values of the athletes on their team. Whatever values are developed for each team, it is important that the team understands the actual meaning and intent of each value, and that they agree to buy into that value. If the athletes themselves develop the vision, values and expectations, they take ownership of them, live by them and take responsibility for monitoring each other. (Kidman & Lombardo 2010, 28.)

4 Developing healthy motivational climate

Motivational climate has been identified as an influential construct for determining and developing students' motivation in physical education and youth sport (Prichard 2012, 4).

It is known that physical education lessons and sports play an important role in influencing participation in physical activity and adopting a healthy lifestyle. However, even the most skilful students cannot learn if they are not motivated to learn according to Archer (1993) and Xiang, Bruene, and McBride, (2004). Teachers and researchers should, therefore, know how to motivate students to participate in physical education lessons and other learning environments. (Ilker & Demirhan 2012, 2.)

During the last decades, a large number of investigations have supported two important motivation theories: achievement goal theory presented by Nicholls (1989) and self-determination theory mentioned by Deci and Ryan (1985), Deci and Ryan (1991) and Ryan and Deci (2007). The aim of these investigations was to find motivational strategies focused on the achievement of more positive consequences in the sports environment (e.g. the practice bond). (Moreno, Cervelló & González-Cutre 2010, 390.)

4.1 Achievement goal theory

In recent years, studies examining relationship between goal and cognitive strategy use have proposed that cognitive, affective and behavioural responses of humans are affected by achievement goals, in accordance to Duda and Nicholls, (1992); Duda, Olson and Templin, (1991); Duda and Whitehead, (1998); Dweck and Leggett, (1988). These studies mostly revealed that achievement goals are positively related to deep cognitive strategies and participation in academic activities. (Ilker & Demirhan 2012, 2.)

According to Ames (1992), research on achievement goals began in the late 1970s when Carol Ames, Carol Dweck, Marty Maehr, and John Nicholls explored individuals'

purposes for engaging in behaviour in an achievement situation. Their research was conducted independently, but the four psychologists also exercised a collaborative effort that led to the identification of two separate types of achievement goals that are performance goals and mastery goals. The goals represent two distinct reasons for approaching and participating in achievement tasks as well as different conceptions of success and outcomes. (Prichard 2012, 23.)

The achievement goal theory postulates that people can have two predominant dispositional goal orientations in achievement contexts, such as the sports context, which are created by a social influence. Athletes who simultaneously have a high mastery and performance orientation, or athletes who simultaneously have a high mastery orientation but low performance orientation, show the highest levels of adaptive motivational patterns than those with a low task orientation. (Roberts, Treasure, & Kavussanu 1996; Standage & Treasure 2002 in Moreno, Cervelló & González-Cutre 2010, 390.)

4.1.1 Mastery oriented climate

According to Ames (1992), a mastery oriented climate is characterized by a focus on individual improvement, effort and cooperative learning (Prichard 2012, 4).

In a mastery climate, children work at their own level on a variety of tasks. They are actively involved in decision making and work in small groups of mixed ability. Instructors and coaches privately recognize and give feedback related to effort and improvement. Opportunities for maximum practice time are provided, which offers flexibility based on varying proficiency levels among children. (Prichard, 2012, 4-5.)

4.1.2 Performance oriented climate

Dweck (1986) explains that performance oriented climate is based upon ability and a sense of self-worth. In this concept, ability is believed to be non-malleable and is demonstrated by outperforming others, surpassing normative based standards, or by achieving success with little effort. Public recognition of superiority is especially

important to performance oriented achievement. Attention is directed toward achieving normatively defined success. Ames (1992) mentions that when an individual adopts a performance goal, that person's self-worth is determined by his or her ability to perform and achieve the normative standard of success. Consequently, expanding effort can threaten their self-image when the outcome may be construed as a failure. (Prichard, 2012, 23.)

In a performance climate, tasks are absent of variety and completed independently or in ability-based groups. The instructor or coach controls all decision-making power and fosters social comparisons by recognizing those who outperform others (Ntoumanis & Biddle 1999). (Prichard 2012, 5.)

4.1.3 Effects of mastery oriented climate

Ames and Archer (1988, 260, 265) determined that students who perceived an emphasis on mastery goals in the classroom, as a result, used more effective cognitive strategies, fostered long-term use of learning strategies a, preferred challenging tasks, had a more positive attitude toward the class and had a stronger belief that success follows from one's effort.

An overwhelming majority of existing literature suggests that perceptions of a mastery climate have positive results among youth in the context of physical activity. In previous studies, students who perceived a mastery climate also reported numerous advantageous psychosocial cognitions:

- Higher enjoyment and satisfaction during a physical activity (Ntoumanis and Biddle 1999).
- High perceived competence and beliefs that effort leads to success (Cury et al. 1996).
- Increased persistence and preference for challenging tasks (Morgan and Carpenter 2002).
- Plans to be active in the future (Ntoumanis and Biddle 1999).

(Prichard 2012, 5.)

Evidence overwhelmingly suggests that creating a mastery climate in physical education classes will yield significant cognitive and affective benefits in youth. On the other hand, a question arises whether educators who create a performance climate could potentially encumber their students. (Prichard 2012, 15.)

4.1.4 Effects of performance oriented climate

A review of previous studies on performance goals presents some variation in findings. For example, Ames (1992) proved that performance goal is related to incompatible motivational patterns such as low persistence when encountering difficulties and using superficial learning strategies. On the other hand, Harackiewicz et al. (1997) determined that performance goal is positively related to academic performance in college students. Similarly, Xiang and Lee (2002) observed that performance goal is positively related to mastery behaviours in fourth and eleventh grade students. (Ilker & Demirhan 2012, 2.)

"If the focus of learning is on social comparison and evaluation is based on normative standards, students in physical education classes are likely to perceive a performance oriented climate and are more likely to show ineffective motivational responses, decreased motivation and enjoyment" (Prichard 2012, 15).

A study by Marsh and Peart (1988) demonstrated disadvantageous effects of a performance climate on young females' self-image and perceived physical ability. Adolescent females were split into two groups for a 14 session aerobic program in their physical education classes. One group was a cooperative intervention program that focused on creating a mastery climate while the other intentionally fostered a performance climate by making intraclass comparisons salient and publicly recognizing top performers. Individuals from both groups demonstrated equally significant physical aerobic improvement, and members of the mastery intervention group reported cognitions that mirrored these physical gains. Students in this group expressed an enhanced self-image as well as an increase in their perceived physical ability. However, those in the performance intervention program expressed an overall

belief that their physical fitness levels had decreased and reported a decline in the perception of their physical appearance. (Prichard 2012, 15.)

4.2 Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory (SDT) establishes the existence of different types of motivation, depending on the level of self-determined motivation, which form a continuum ranging from intrinsic motivation (i.e. the most self-determined type of motivation), to extrinsic motivation (i.e. motivation from external sources), to amotivation (i.e. the less self-determined type). Hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation indicates that positive consequences decrease from intrinsic motivation to amotivation, at an affective, cognitive and behavioural level, as visible in the Figure 3: The self-determination continuum. (Moreno, Cervelló & González-Cutre 2010, 390-391; Deci & Ryan 2002, 42-44.)

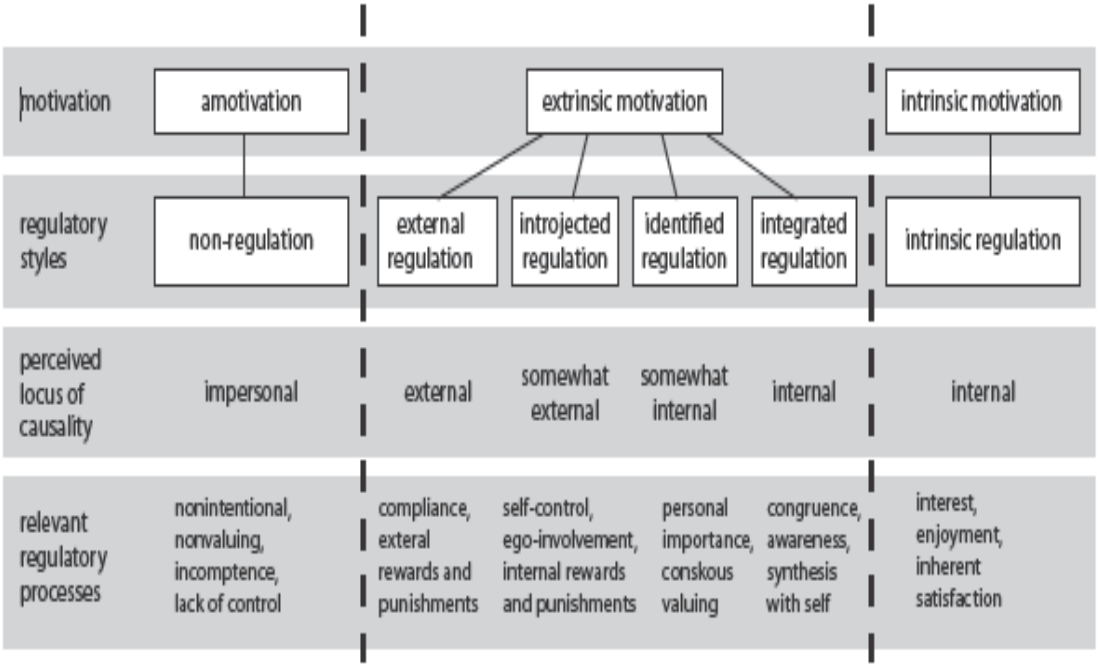

Figure 3: The self-determination continuum. Presented are types of motivation with their regulatory styles, locus of causality and corresponding processes. (Ryan & Deci 2000, 72.)

These results have been demonstrated by several studies, which have found a positive relation between self-determined motivation and the following:

- Pleasure (Goudas, Biddle & Underwood 1995).
- Interest (Li 1999).
- Effort (Chian & Wang 2008; Ferrer-Caja & Weiss 2000).
- Positive emotions (Brière, Vallerand, Blais & Pelletier 1995).
- Performance (Gillet, Vallerand & Rosnet 2009).
- Exercise adherence (Oman & McAuley 1993; Ryan, Frederick, Lepes, Rubio & Sheldom 1997).
- Flow.

(Moreno, Cervelló & González-Cutre 2010, 391.)

On the other hand, non-self-determination has been associated with anxiety and sports dropout (Brière et al. 1995; Sarrazin, Vallerand, Guillet, Pelletier & Cury 2002 in Moreno, Cervelló & González-Cutre 2010, 391).

Self-determination theory, according to Deci and Ryan (1985), and Ryan and Deci (2000), is a major social cognitive theory of motivation and focuses on social factors that influence various forms of motivation through their influence on the perception of autonomy (i.e. self-determination), competence, and relatedness. Therefore, SDT underlines the role of the environment in fuelling peoples' perceptions of the three fundamental psychological needs in contexts such as sport. (Mallett 2005, 417.)

4.3 TARGET

Epstein (1989) first proposed a multidimensional model called TARGET acronym to identify and adjust key elements of the learning environment and promote a desired motivational climate. The TARGET acronym stands for tasks, authority, recognition, grouping, and time. (Prichard 2012, 4.)

4.3.1 Tasks

According to Ames (1992), designing tasks and learning activities is a key element in the construction of the desired environment. Students' conception of tasks influences their approach to learning as well as impact how they use their time. Tasks that are challenging and diverse foster a willingness to put forth effort. When students perceive meaningful reasons for engaging in a task or activity (e.g. developing an understanding of the activity), they are more willing to pursue learning in a manner consistent with a mastery goal. (Prichard 2012, 10.)

Diversity in task structure is more engaging and does not allow for gloating, which also allows fewer opportunity to engage in social comparison. This is advantageous because performance differences among peers are less likely to translate into perceived ability differences and threaten competence cognitions. (Prichard 2012, 10-11.)

4.3.2 Authority

As mentioned by Ames (1992), authority refers to the placement of responsibility in the given environment. In a climate that promotes mastery goals, students should be given decision making opportunities and leadership roles. An environment in which the teacher controls all decision-making is supportive of performance goals. (Prichard 2012, 11.)

Using rewards or other external sources of motivation to encourage students to engage in a particular activity or achieve certain results is also an indication of a performance oriented motivational climate. Even if development is demonstrated or ability is perceived to be high upon completion, the reasons for participation are likely not intrinsic, but rather a means to an end. (Prichard 2012, 11.)

Suggestions to involve students in decision making include requesting input regarding prioritization of tasks and ideas for lessons or practice sessions. Ryan, Connell and Deci (1985), remind that this delegation of responsibility must be accompanied with proper support for the preparation and application of a lesson or practice plan.

Without this support, the experience of added responsibility and autonomy can be discouraging and counterproductive for children. (Prichard 2012, 11.)

4.3.3 Recognition

Ntoumanis and Biddle (1999) have written that environments in which students are recognized individually and praised for their efforts and improvement are distinctive of a mastery oriented motivational climate. Making social comparisons or recognizing normative performances in front of an audience will surely foster a performance oriented climate. For a majority of students, receiving praise for effort and improvement during tasks helps to reemphasize the importance of the learning process. Using the reward of public recognition as an extrinsic motivator is believed to guide children towards valuing the outcome over the process and emphasizing ability as a predetermined quality. (Prichard 2012, 11-12.)

4.3.4 Grouping

Forming groups with the intent to promote cooperative learning and peer to peer interaction must be done regardless of ability in order for the climate to be perceived as mastery oriented. If groups are formed based on ability, students are more likely to adopt performance goals and engage in inadequately adaptive motivational responses. Such responses include attribution of failure to lack of ability or learned helplessness. These responses to failure are based on the child's perception that the opportunity to succeed is not within their control, in accordance to Dweck and Leggett (1988). (Prichard 2012, 12.)

4.3.5 Evaluation

Ames (1992) mentions that the way in which students are evaluated is one of the most influential factors on their motivation. According to Ames and Ames (1984), depending upon how evaluation is integrated (i.e. frequency of evaluation, criteria, methods and standards) students may be oriented toward different goals and obtain different motivational approaches. (Prichard 2012, 12.)

In particular, social comparison has been coherent with the development of performance goals. Comparing scores, times or accomplishments between students in a physical education classroom can have disadvantageous effects on an individual's motivation. Ames (1984), has written that children's self-evaluations regarding their ability are significantly more negative when they are focused on winning, outperforming their peers, or reaching a normative standard compared to when they are focused on giving maximal effort, improving their personal performance, or just participating. (Prichard 2012, 12.)

Based on Graham and Golan (1991), in classrooms where students focused on self-improvement rather than comparison with their peers, they displayed superior recall of material. (Prichard 2012, 12.)

4.3.6 Time

Ntoumanis and Biddle (1999) write that, whenever possible, allowing flexibility and ample opportunity to practice and complete a task increases the likelihood that children will form mastery goals. On the other hand, allocating a time limit for learning or completing a task supports the formation of performance goals. Not completing a task in the allotted time can be interpreted as a failure to meet the normative or set standard and can also naturally lead into social comparisons. (Prichard 2012, 13.)

4.3.7 Adapting TARGET

Ames and Archer (1988) mention a number of significant and helpful ways to adapt the TARGET structures to ensure clarity when attempting to create the intended motivational climate (Prichard 2012, 5). Below, outlined are the principal distinctions between a mastery and performance climate:

- Definition of success (personal improvement versus a comparison to peers).
- Value (on effort, learning, and improvement versus natural ability).
- Reasons for satisfaction (maximum effort versus outperforming others).
- View of mistakes (part of the learning process versus failure).

- Reasons for effort (learning processes versus an attempt to show superiority).
- Evaluation criteria (making progress versus a comparison to peers).

(Prichard 2012, 5.)

4.4 Self-awareness

"Knowing yourself is the beginning of all wisdom."
(Aristotle.)

Cambridge Business English Dictionary (2015) defines self-image as the way a person feels about his or her personality, achievements and value to society.

Self-awareness is about understanding oneself in a way that allows one to understand who he really is and why he does things in a certain way. By developing self-awareness, a person can gain control over oneself in certain situations. (International Business Skills Courseware 2010, 9.)

Being self-aware requires reflection and reflection requires a person to think about oneself with regards to one's own actions, feelings, interactions and thoughts. Reflection can be performed by oneself or with the help of others. Often people naturally reflect when things have gone wrong (i.e. discuss or think about why it went wrong and what could have been done differently to change the outcome). Just as important as reflecting on failure is reflecting on success or when the outcome is even better than expected. (International Business Skills Courseware 2010, 9; Bandura 1991, 250-251.)

Through reflection, a person can understand oneself better and this could allow an individual to:

- Gain more control and make better decisions.
- Be more flexible and confident in one's approach.
- Help oneself deal with challenges in a more positive and less stressful way.

- Interact better, communicate more effectively and understand interpersonal relationships more fully.
- Reduce stress levels and gain more enjoyment.

(International Business Skills Courseware 2010, 10.)

Therefore, it could be understood that self-awareness can lead to personal development as an individual has identified their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats through reflection and analysis. An individual should strive to understand what areas need further improvement, as well as what advantages they might have. All of these things can impact on what type of personal development an individual might want to consider undertaking. (International Business Skills Courseware 2010, 10.)

4.4.1 Self-regulation theory

Self-regulatory systems are at the centre of everyday processes. They not only mediate the effects of most external influences but also provide the very basis for purposeful action. Most of purposive human development is guided by forethought. Through forethought people motivate themselves and guide their actions to achieve their goals that are set based on their self-image. (Bandura 1991, 248.)

Bandura (1986), points out that self-regulation operates through a set of psychological sub-functions that must be developed and mobilized for a self-directed change. (Figure 5). According to Bandura and Simon (1977), neither intention nor desire alone has much effect if people lack the capability for exercising influence over their own motivation. (Bandura 1991, 248.)

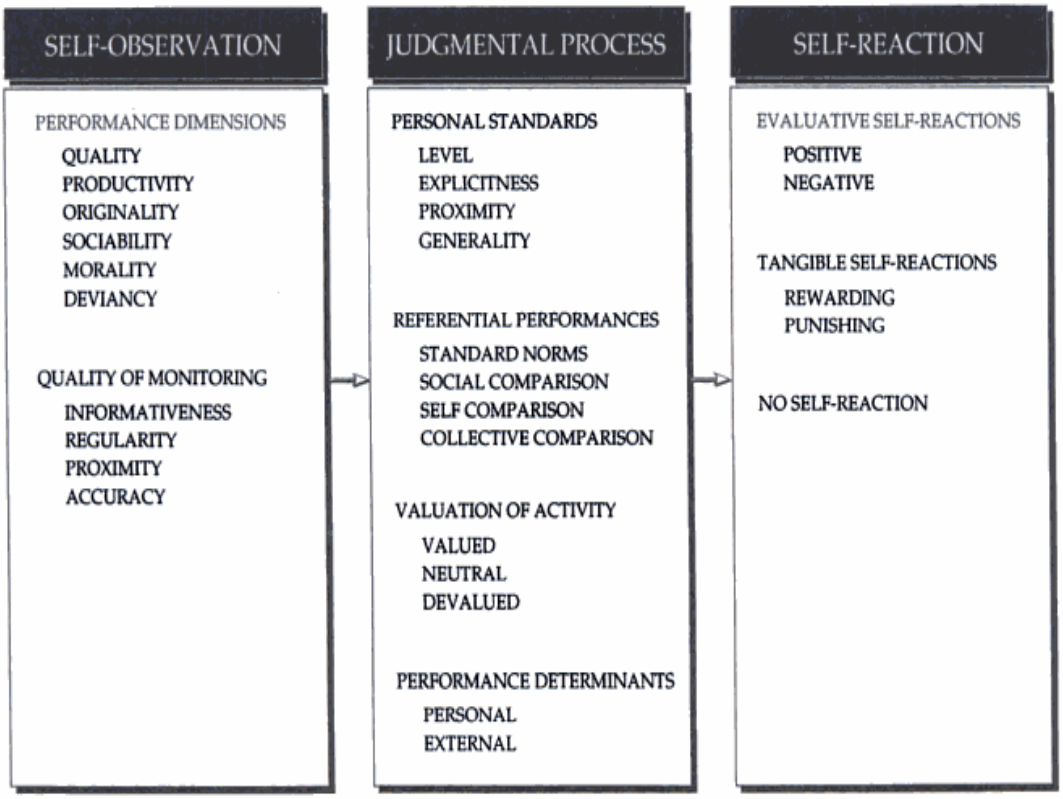

Figure 5: Structure of self-regulation system through motivation, action of internal standards and self-reflective influence (Bandura A. 1991, 249.)

Through the process of self-observation one can influence one's motivation and actions by paying adequate attention to his own performance, the conditions in which it occurs, and to the immediate and long term effects produced. Therefore, the success of self-regulation partly depends on committed, consistent, and accurate self-monitoring. (Bandura 1991, 250.)

Self-image and self-beliefs have significant influence in selecting which aspects of one's functioning are given the most attention and which ones are ignored, how they are perceived and how performance information is organized. According to Kupier, MacDonald and Derry (1983), mood states also influence how one's performance is self-monitored and cognitively processed. (Bandura 1991, 250.)

"Self-observation serves at least two important functions in the process of self-regulation. It provides the information needed for setting realistic goals and for evaluating one's progress towards them." Contributions to self-directed change can

also be achieved by other dynamic actions that pay close attention to one's thought processes and actions. (Bandura 1991, 250.)

Actions give rise to self-reactions through judgmental function that includes several secondary processes:

- Personal standards for judging and guiding one's actions play a major role in the application of self-directedness. Whether a given performance is regarded favourably or negatively will depend upon the personal standards to which it is evaluated.
- Behaviour is more prone for regulation when it produces independent objective indicators of adequacy through the process of social referential comparison.
- People care more about their performance when engaged in activities that are significant for them. They exhibit little effort on devalued activities.
- People are most likely to take pride in their accomplishments when they perceive their successes as a result of their own abilities and efforts. They do not gain much self-satisfaction when they identify their performance as heavily dependent on external aid or special situation supports.

(Bandura 1991, 253-255.)

Performance judgements set the occasion for self-reactive influence. Self-reactions provide mechanisms by which standards regulate courses of actions. The self-regulatory control is achieved by creating incentives for one's own action and by anticipative affective reactions to one's own behaviour depending on how it measures up to internal standards. Therefore, people pursue courses of action that produce positive self-reactions and refrain from behaving in ways that result in self-disapproval. The self-motivational incentives can be either tangible outcomes or self-evaluative reactions. Most people, however, value their self-respect and self-satisfaction derived from a job well done more than they do material rewards (Bandura 1991, 256-257.)

Many factors can influence whether self-observation will enlist self-reactive change. As mentioned by Bandura (1991, 251), some of these factors are relating to the attributes

of individuals, others to behaviour, and still others to the nature and type of self-monitoring:

- One must be clear of how he is performing. Self-observation enhances performance when evidence of progress is clearly visible, but it has little effect when there is considerable vagueness about the results of one's course of action.
- Self-observation close in time rather than distal performance provides continuing information and thus a great opportunity to bring self-influence on one's behaviour while it is still in process.
- Attending to one's accomplishments is encouraging, whereas dwelling on failures can be discouraging and undermine one's sense of efficiency. Therefore, the degree and direction of change resulting from self-monitoring will partly depend on whether attention is primarily focused on personal successes or failures.
- People differ in their self-monitoring orientations in the extent to which they guide their actions in terms of personal standards or social standards of behaviour. Those who have a firm sense of identity and are strongly oriented toward fulfilling their personal standards display a high level of self-directedness. Those who are not much committed to personal standards adopt a practical orientation, adapting their behaviour to fit whatever the situation seems to call for.

(Bandura 1991, 251-253; Gottman & McFall; Snyder, 1987)

4.5 Goal setting

"The tragedy in life does not lie in not reaching your goal. The tragedy lies in having no goal to reach."–Benjamin Mays

Locke, Shaw, Saari and Latham (1981 in Taylor & Wilson 2005) stated that the term goal refers to attaining a specific level of proficiency on a task, usually within a specified time limit. Goal setting has been used in many settings (e.g. sports and

working life) to increase motivation and facilitate behaviour change (Gould 2006; Locke & Latham 1990, in Weinberg & Gould 2007, 346).

More than 90% of the studies (more than 500 together) show that goal setting has a consistent and powerful effect on behaviour, whether it is used with elementary school children or professional scientists. Moreover, goal setting effects have remained consistent with more than 40 000 participants, using more than 90 different tasks and across 10 different countries. Goal setting is a behavioural technique that most definitely works. Locke and Latham (1990) display the goal setting principles and the factors influencing goal achieving in figure 4. (Weinberg & Gould 2007, 346.)

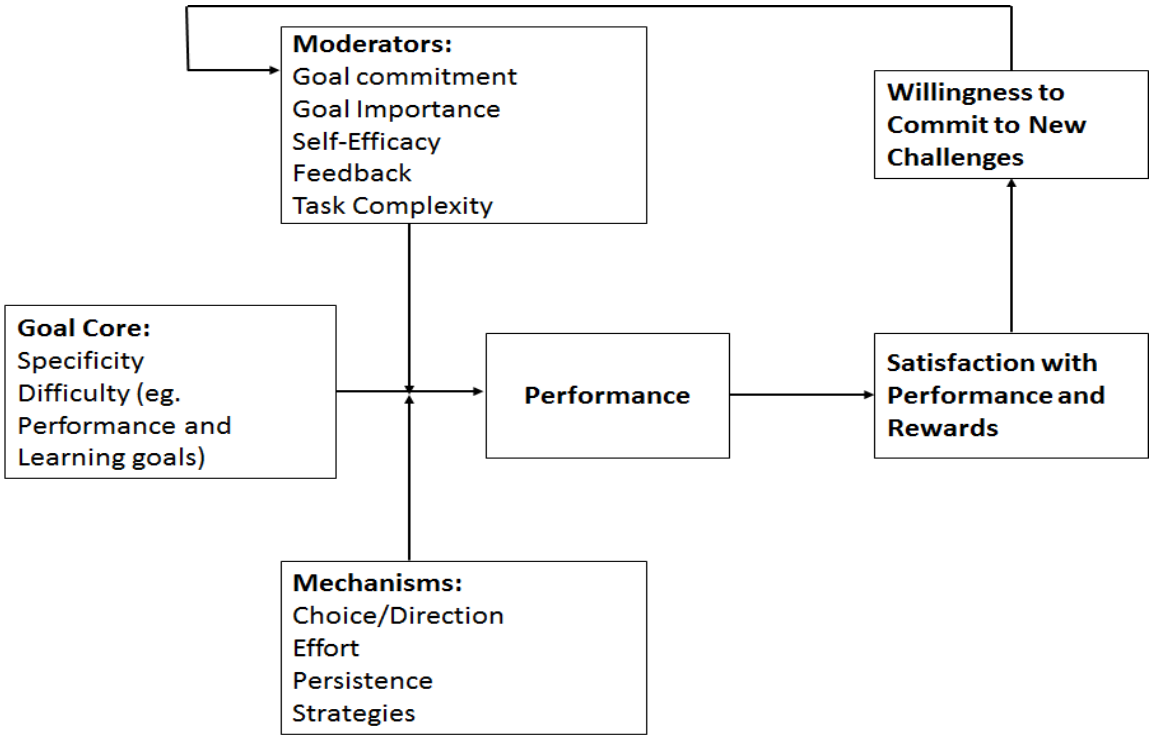

Figure 4. Essential Elements of Goal-Setting Theory and the High-Performance Cycle (Locke & Latham, 2002)

4.5.1 Goal types

In the sport and exercise psychology literature, goals have been viewed as focused on outcome, performance or process (Burton, Naylor & Holliday 2001; Hardy et al. 1996 in Weinberg & Gould 2014,745).

Outcome goals typically focus on a competitive result of an event, such as winning a race, earning a medal, or scoring more points than an opponent. Thus, achieving these goals depends not only on one's own efforts but also on the ability and performance of one's opponent. A person could play the best hockey game of one's life and still lose, and thus it would be perceived as a failure to achieve one's outcome goal of winning the match. (Weinberg & Gould 2014, 745.)

Performance goals focus on achieving standards or performance objectives independently of other competitors. Thus providing more flexibility and control for the competitor. Running a mile in 6 minutes 21 seconds is an example of a performance goal. (Weinberg & Gould 2014, 745-746.)

Process goals focus on specific actions an individual must engage in during a performance to execute or perform well. For example, a basketball player may set a goal of squaring up to the basket and releasing the ball at the peak of his jump. Interestingly, research by Kingston and Hardy (1997) has shown that process goals are particularly effective in positively influencing golfers' self-efficacy, cognitive anxiety, and confidence. (Weinberg & Gould 2014, 746.)

Athletes and exercisers should set outcome, performance, and process goals because all three play important roles in directing behavioural change in accordance to Burton et al. (2001). A study by Filby, Maynard and Graydon (1999) concluded that combination of goal strategies produce significantly better performance than simply relying on one type of goal. (Weinberg & Gould 2014, 746,748-749.)

4.5.2 Research on goal setting

Detailed summaries of the research literature on goal setting can be found in Locke et al. (1981) and Locke and Latham (1984). In brief, these reports included the following points:

1. Difficult or challenging goals produce better performance than moderate or easy goals. The higher the goal, the higher the performance.

2. Specific goals direct activity more effectively and reliably than vague or general goals.
3. Short-term goals can be used as a means of attaining long-term goals.
4. Goal setting only works if there is timely feedback showing performance or progress in relation to the goal.
5. Before feedback can be given, performance must be measured. The act of measuring performance itself often leads to spontaneous goal setting when there is no formal goal setting program.
6. Goals must be accepted in order to be effective.
7. Goal attainment is facilitated by a plan of action or strategy.
8. Competition affects performance by raising goal levels rather than by increasing goal commitment.

(Locke & Latham 1985, 206-209; Bandura 1991, 251.)

5 Athlete centred coaching in Dornbirn Bulldogs

The vision and objective of this project was to develop self-aware and empowered athletes in attempt to improve individual player development in a team environment. Furthermore, to create an atmosphere itself where development and mastery could thrive. At the beginning of the project two age groups were selected for this process. The age groups were 12 to 13-year-old and 14 to 15-year-old kids. The kids and parents were informed that the project would take place, and the objectives and possible outcomes of the process were explained.

5.1 Creating athlete-centred coaching environment in Dornbirn Bulldogs

Before the beginning of the season, we had to formulate an athlete-coaching philosophy with the objective of improving the development of personal and social values as well as life skills. During the steps of creating athlete centred philosophy, processes like goal setting, rule setting, consequence administrating, creation of a healthy motivational climate and usage of different coaching styles were discussed. After our philosophy was formed, we presented our ideas to the club and they approved the project.

5.1.1 Setting of team goals, rules and consequences

Team goals can be a powerful motivator, allowing athletes to be involved in this process can not only increase their commitment, but also provide the coach with valuable information about the team. Therefore, at the beginning of the season several meetings were set with the whole team in both age groups with the purpose of setting team rules and goals. During the meetings, players were divided into smaller groups ranging from 3 to 5 players in each to encourage every player to contribute and actively participate in the process.

While divided into smaller groups, everyone had to come up with at least one rule and goal for the team. The groups then presented their ideas to the whole team encouraging everyone to speak up and be comfortable in speaking in front of the team.

The team then voted which goals would be kept, however the final decision would belong to the coach. At the end of the meeting certain situation and dates were set during which the progress towards team goals would be evaluated.

During the process of goal setting, three different type of goals had to be mentioned and set:

- Performance goal
- Outcome goal
- Process goal

The players were encouraged to recognise the difference between the goal types and the possible benefit of each one.

When the rules were accepted by the team and the coaches, appropriate consequences had to be decided and set, so that everybody would know the outcome of the certain actions. The players agreed that when they would choose to break the rules they would, at the same time, accept the consequences of their actions. To strengthen their commitment, the players had to put their signature on a sheet of paper where the team goals, rules and appropriate consequences were combined.

5.1.2 Motivational climate

Part of creating a healthy motivational climate was to develop mastery oriented atmosphere with a purpose of improving motivation and individual player development. To promote mastery oriented climate, it was communicated to the players that the success will be viewed as their hard work and development instead of performance outcomes like goal scoring. Furthermore, once a week, the players had an opportunity to choose which practice to participate in from the following ones:

- Skating technique development practice.
- Puck Control/ Passing practice.

- Shooting/ Goal scoring practice.

The players were encouraged to choose a group based on their self-evaluation and goal setting tools. After one month the groups were reviewed and opportunity to switch to another group provided. During these practices players with mixed abilities from two different age groups were present.

At the beginning of the season individual meetings took place to determine the motivation of participation of every player as well as expectations for the upcoming season. The meeting also played a role as an introduction to the upcoming self-evaluation and goal setting tools.

Team building activities were organised to strengthen the bonds between previous teammates and at the same time let the players get to know the new kids. It was important during this process to mix up the players and make sure everyone takes up an active role during the activity. Different activities and games were played to let the kids realize that every person brings value to the group and that teamwork is the key to success.

5.1.3 The practice and competition

Three key components that were implemented in everyday activities to facilitate athlete centred coaching were games for understanding, questioning and creating of quality team culture.

At the beginning of the season, the players were informed of particular coaching methods that we might use, including questioning, to make sure players understand the benefits of the process and would gain the most benefit from it. For example, instead of telling a player to make a pass in certain situations we would ask the player what he saw at the moment and if there were any other options that he would consider trying next time.

Different kinds of games were a big part of practicing. We tried to use the approach called "Teaching games for understanding" (TGfU) as much as possible. The basics of TGfU are to provide opportunities to enhance athlete's ability to respond to a problem solving situation and make decisions. Developing the games to meet learning outcomes is the key to planning and designing the game. For example, we used different size playing area, rules, amount of the players, pucks and playing time to meet the wanted learning outcome.

Quality team culture is important in everyday activities to make the training is more effective and enjoyable. It was crucial for us to make the players feel like they are an important part of the group and contribute to the success of the team as well as recognize and accept their role during the process. Every player had to have a role not only on the ice but in the locker room as well. For the captain and alternate captain positions a closed vote was organised however the final decision was later made by the coach and rotated only when necessary. Other tasks that were often rotating from player to player over the season are listed below:

- Cleaning the locker room.
- Picking up the pucks.
- Leading the warmup and cooldown.

At the beginning of the season we had to determine the role of competition. It was decided that games would be viewed as a tool for development as well as opportunities to tests out one's ability and growth. At the same time, it provided an opportunity to perform as a group and have fun. Furthermore, we emphasized that failures should be viewed as a process of learning and stepping stones towards success if properly reviewed.

5.1.4 Communication

To create a truly athlete centred environment, it was important to have an effective communication between us and the athletes. To make sure we could effectively coach

the players and use the necessary methods and techniques, we had to create a common ground of trust and respect for each individual. Otherwise the players would not be as willing to apply the information that we provided in their physical or mental development. To create an environment of trust and respect we had to show interest in every player as an individual as well as demonstrate belief in their abilities to perform and develop.

Proper communications tactics to improve the efficiency of information absorption and not diminish team cohesion were introduced to the players that could be used during games and practices. A key point for this was to teach the kids to treat other players the same way as they would like to be treated during situations of failure or success. Furthermore, tactics like "the sandwich method" were introduced to improve the feedback players could relay to other teammates.

5.2 Developing and implementing tools for individual athlete development

At the beginning of this project we decided that individual approach to athlete centred coaching would be one of the objectives of the thesis. We decided that we would use self-evaluation and goal-setting tools to see whether they would bring about the results of player empowerment. We picked self-evaluations and goal-setting tools based on the information gathered and reflected in the theory section.

5.2.1 Developing self-evaluation sheet

We talked about empowered athletes in the theory part of the thesis and the first step to become empowered is to become self-aware, that is why we provided self-evaluation sheets (Appendix 4) to the players to enhance their understanding of their ability and identity as a hockey player and a person.

In the self-evaluation sheet, evaluations would be done by using the scale from 1 to 5, with 1 being the lowest and 5 being the highest. To make it easier for the players we used explanations as shown below:

1. Cannot keep up with the other players in certain skill.
2. Below average in the terms of particular skill.
3. Average in the terms of particular skill.
4. One of the best in certain skill.
5. The best in the team in the certain skill.

The self-evaluation sheet was divided into five categories featuring game situations, technical, tactical, mental and physical skills.

Game situations were described as processes in which players should be involved whenever they are on ice for a team to function properly. These situations are listed below as follows:

- **Scoring**- ability to score or to help a teammate score.
- **Winning Space**- get the puck towards opponent's net by carrying or passing the puck.
- **Supporting space**- create space for puck carrier by skating away from him or to a specific area (e.g. driving the net).
- **Supporting the puck**- getting to an area where the puck carrier can pass the puck to you.
- **Covering**- defending non-puck.
- **Stealing the puck**- ability to steal the puck (or help a teammate steal the puck) with a check or with your stick carrier.

Technical skills were introduced as the basis of the on ice performance of every individual as well as the team as a whole. Every player had to recognise their own ability and evaluate themselves in these aspects:

- **Shooting**- ability to shoot the puck towards the net with good technique, accuracy and strength from different positions.
- **Passing**- ability to receive and move the puck with high accuracy, speed and quality

- **Puck control**- ability to control and protect the puck.
- **Skating**- ability to move and manoeuvre on the ice with great speed while moving forwards or backwards with good technique.
- **Checking**- ability to use one's body to hinder or stop the opponent's movement as well assist in retrieving the puck.
- **Receiving checks**- ability receive a check made by an opponent and retain stability, and puck.
- **Stick Check**- ability to use the stick to retrieve the puck.

Tactical skills were introduced as an ability to understand and read the game. Tactical skills were also explained to be closely connected to the player's ability to recognise and accept their role within the team. The list mentioned below includes the tactical skills that were provided to the players for their self-evaluation:

- **Screening**- standing in front of the goalie preventing him from seeing a shot.
- **Fakes**- using dekes to make an opponent think you are going to do something different from what you will actually do.
- **Smart Shooting**- shooting with a purpose (e.g. quick shots, shooting for rebounds).
- **Timing**- arriving at the right place at the right time.
- **Positioning**- being in the right place at the right time.
- **Communication**- talking with teammates on the ice during both offense and defence.
- **Gap Control**- keeping a small distance between yourself and the player you are trying to cover.
- **Angling**- forcing puck carrier to a specific area of the ice (e.g. to the boards).

Mental skills were introduced as the players' ability to use one's technical and tactical skills to their full potential. Mental skills were also mentioned to have a great impact on one's development as a hockey player and as a person. The skills the players had to self-evaluate are listed below:

- **Determination**- desire to make the most of every opportunity.
- **Courage**- willingness to make the play which is best for the team in all situations (e.g. go to the net, take a check to make a play).
- **Confidence**- belief in your abilities.
- **Patience**- using available time and space to create opportunities for successful plays.
- **Decision Making**- making the best decision on the ice in the moment.
- **Understanding of Game**- knowledge of common game systems and team tactics.
- **Risk Management**- avoiding high risk plays (e.g. skating in front of your own net with the puck).
- **Trust**- trusting that your teammates will do their jobs on the ice.

Physical skills were described to the players as essential for any physical activities. The physical skills mentioned below were outlined as beneficial to one's performance on ice:

- **Coordination**- ability to control one's body and execute new movements better.
- **Speed**- ability to move quickly across the ground.
- **Strength**- the maximal force you can apply against a load.
- **Anaerobic endurance**- performance of shorter, high-intensity exercises that do not mainly rely on oxygen.
- **Aerobic endurance**- perform low-intensity activities for longer than several minutes.
- **Flexibility**- the range of limb movement around joints.

After the players would return the self-evaluation sheet, the coaches would fill in the "coach's assessment" section on the same paper (Appendix 4) so that the kids could simultaneously see the coach's opinion and compare the similarities and differences. The coach's assessment section would be filled in after the player assessment section so that it would not influence a player's self-image. After this process would be

completed, the participant could see the differences between his and the coach's view on the player's performance and ability and therefore develop an accurate self-image.

The idea was that when the self-evaluation process would be completed the players could better see in what areas of their game they were doing well and which ones had to be developed most. The evaluations would be repeated at the beginning, middle and end of the season.

5.2.2 Developing S.M.A.R.T-goal setting sheet

The idea behind goal setting was to help players realise their potential as well as motivate them in achieving it. We introduced the goal-setting framework in general so the players would have an idea on what kind of goals they would set for the season and could set them more effectively. We wanted players to be active during the process of goal-setting because that would enable them to take more ownership and commitment.

We wanted to use some kind of form where goals would be written down because then it would be more concrete, not just an idea. We found many types of goal setting forms, but we thought that S.M.A.R.T-goal setting sheet (Appendix 1) would be best in our case because we were working with young athletes and it has been used in studies in similar situations. In research conducted by McDonald (2012), the effects of S.M.A.R.T. goal setting and self-monitoring intervention on physical activity and fitness in middle school students were investigated. The results suggested that teaching students about S.M.A.R.T. goal setting may be a potentially effective strategy for increasing fitness for middle school students and worthy of further investigation.
The S.M.A.R.T. goal setting sheet mentioned and used by McDonald (2012) in her research mentioned above consisted of five main components:

- **Specific goals**- What do I want to accomplish? Why do I want to accomplish this? What are the requirements? What are the constraints?
- **Measurable goals**- How will I measure the progress? How will I know when the goal is accomplished?

- **Achievable goals**- How can the goal be accomplished? What are the logical steps I should take?
- **Relevant goals**- Is this a worthwhile goal? Is this the right time? Do I have the necessary resources to accomplish this goal? Is this goal in line with my long term goal?
- **Time-Bound goals**- How long it will take to accomplish this goal? When is the completion of this goal due? When am I going to work on this goal?

(McDonald 2012.)

After setting the goals we needed a way to evaluate the progress of the players. Therefore, we decided to make a progress evaluation. For the progress evaluations we used short term goal achievement assessment (Appendix 3) and long term goal achievement assessment (Appendix 2). We used the short term assessment during the monthly meetings with the players. The short term goal achievement assessment consists of three components:

- Rating from 1-5, as 5 is the best and 1 is the worst, how well did I achieve my goal?
- How did I achieve my goal? - what was difficult, what kept me motivated?
- Did this bring me closer to my long term goal? How?

The long term goal assessment was used in the last meeting of the season. It also consisted of three components:

- Rating from 1-5, as 5 is the best and 1 is the worst, how well did I achieve my goal?
- How did I achieve my goal? - which short term goals got me closer?
- How did this improve my performance?

Both assessments were done by, both, the athlete and the coach.

5.2.3 Implementation and observations of the tools

The implementation to the tools consisted of three steps. First step was introduction and explanation of the tools as well as potential benefits it could provide. The second step was to hand out the self -evaluation and goal setting sheets and receiving the answers. The third step was to review the progress and create a plan for further development.

As the process of handing out the self-evaluation sheets began, the first obstacle was discovered. Some players were interested to see how self-evaluation could help them and for some it took over two months to return the paper. After players returned the paper we filled in the coach's section and the self-evaluation tool was completed. When the tool was completed we had a second meeting with the players to go over the differences in the player's view on their own performance and the view that we as the coaches had. For most of the players it was the first time that they had to perform self-evaluation, therefore we understood the opinions would differ. Some players had similar thoughts about their personal performance as the coach's, however some players had a big difference in the opinion on how they were doing compared to the trainers. At the end of the same meeting the S.M.A.R.T- goal setting sheets were introduced and handed to the players and, as well as a date for the return of the tool set. We wanted that the players to set at least one long term (season goal) and one to three short term (goal for one month) goals so that the short term goals would take the player closer to the achievement of the long term goal.

During the process of goal setting the same problem as with the implementation of the self-evaluation tool was met. Some players were clearly more driven in their personal development with the help of the provided tools. On the other hand, some of the kids did not want to put in the time and effort. This resulted in some players returning the goal setting sheets the next day or during the same week, for others it took up to three weeks to return the tool, and some of the players did not return the tool at all.

When the goal setting sheets were returned, a third individual meeting was set during which we, together with each player, evaluated the target each player had set for

themselves. Yet again for most of the players, this was the first time when they had to write down their goals on a piece of paper or on a computer. Some players had realistic and detailed goals, however some players had unrealistic goals with vague strategies mentioned on how to achieve their targets. After going over the goal setting sheets with each player some of them had to repeat the process to make sure the exercise would be beneficial. For the players who had set realistic goals and had some strategies on achieving their targets, we helped to formulate an action plan in more detail that could be exercised on ice or at home. Furthermore, a date for progress evaluation was set. At the end of the meeting the decision on which special practice group (i.e. skating technique practice group; puck-control and passing group; shooting and scoring group) the player would attend was determined by the player and accepted by the coach in order to support their goal achieving.

During the progress evaluation, we wanted to hear the player's opinion on whether the self-evaluation and goal-setting tools were helping them become more self-aware, direct and motivated in the process of development. At the same time, we wanted the players to evaluate their progress in accomplishing the short term and long term goals. We used short term goal achievement assessment form (Appendix 3) to see the player's thoughts on their progress. Also, we gave our thoughts on the player's progress and discussed the next steps that could be taken to achieve the long term goal. If needed, new goals were set and new action plans were made. This process was repeated once every month. In the last meeting of the season, we reviewed the overall process towards the long term goal. We used long term goal achievement assessment (Appendix 2) to see the progress and steps towards the long term goal.

5.3 Results

5.3.1 Athlete centred team environment

The reason for implementing athlete centred coaching style in Dornbirn Bulldogs organisations was to understand the needs, purpose and motivation children have for participating in ice hockey, as well as increase the fun factor and improve the development of athletes as individuals and as a group. The results that came from

creating athlete centred team environment were hard to define and varied between players. However, we believe that by implementing athlete centred philosophy we gained an opportunity to understand the players better, therefore, providing more fun during the practices and games as well as improve the player development.

We discovered that at a general level athlete centred approach describes a process by which people gain control over the decisions affecting their lives. With the purpose of ensuring player's engagement, fun and growth. When a player gains an opportunity to make choices and partially control the direction of their development, the athletes become empowered. The ability and the rate in which one becomes empowered, however, depends on each player independently, since each athlete is different.

To ensure that the athlete centred approach would work we had to create an athlete centred team environment as well as create a healthy motivational climate.

One of the tools used during this season to improve the team cohesion and directedness was goal setting. Though hard to measure we believe that having shared goals provided direction for the whole team, therefore, improving the will to succeed as a team and develop better team cohesion. The reminding of the team goals during certain situations proved to be a good tool for improving motivation and discipline.

As a result of creating mastery oriented climate, the players were not afraid to try new skills and creativity during practices and games. As the season progressed the players showed a better understanding of the game situations due to implementation of TGfU and questioning.

At the beginning of the season, most players were hesitant to speak their mind when we would ask them questions about the game or practice situation and what could be done to improve. As the season progressed the players became more confident in their opinions and could answer the questions quickly and more effectively.

It was important to create a group of players that would support each other in, both, success and failures. This task proved to be the most difficult one due to a difference in the skill level and the cultural mind-set of the players. Often the team cohesion was good, however, when the going got tough the team cohesion started to break apart and players became more selfish in their behaviour, both, on and off the ice.

5.3.2 The tools for individual athlete development

The purpose of implementing the self-image and goal-setting tools for individual players was to develop empowered athletes. (i.e. become more self-aware, understand the process of learning, take action and contribute to their own development). This goal was achieved for the majority of the players. As the season progressed the players developed more and more accurate self-image and could identify the areas of the game and their personality they were good at and the ones that were holding them back. Furthermore, some of the players showed high increase in their self- directedness and motivation which was seen through the team practices, games and during self-imposed training on their free time. At the same time, however, there were players that did not show interest in applying the self-evaluation and goal-setting tools due to lack of time or otherwise.

At the beginning of the season, players had difficulties with goal setting. In the meeting during which the goals were reviewed, this struggle became apparent. Although we went through the goal-setting theory with every player, they still did not know how to properly formulate and set goals. The players had set vague and not realistic goals and many players had to redo their goal-setting due to this problem. As the season progressed the players got better in setting more specific and realistic goals and therefore were able to achieve their objectives more effectively.

The evaluations-part was aimed to enhance a player's self-awareness but also to follow up the on a player's performance and goal achievement. The evaluations proved to be an important factor in the whole process as the evaluations would enable the coach to get more information from the player's view about their own performance and therefore direct the practices in a certain direction to furthermore improve

development. It was clear that it extended the amount of communication between the player and the coach. As it turned out, the players gave feedback and reinforcement to themselves through the evaluations as parts of it were presented back to him during the meetings as reinforcement.

6 Discussion

At the beginning of this thesis, three objectives were mentioned. The first goal of this thesis was to discover how to increase an athlete's engagement in sports, fun factor and development. This goal was achieved and reflected in the theory section as well as implemented in a team environment. We found the answer to this objective within athlete centred coaching philosophy and therefore continued to research and apply the methods that we discovered to our own teams. To improve athletes' engagement in sports, fun factor and development we created a mastery oriented environment in which the players were encouraged to show creativity, ask questions, set goals for themselves, work on mastery of skills at their own pace and play a lot of games.

Different methods can be used to provide many benefits for individual player development, however, they should be applied correctly to ensure the right changes in the behaviour of the athletes. Therefore, in our opinion, before applying an athlete centred coaching approach to his team a coach should first study the athlete centred coaching style and develop a plan of its implementation.

During this season as a result of the highly individual approach to athlete development, some of the team related processes and values were lacking. For future reference, to further increase the fun factor and improve athlete development, a proper team culture should first be created.

The model of creating an athlete centred environment in our teams, provided earlier in this thesis, worked well and provided chances for the players to make decisions, solve problems, interact with other players and have fun. It is important to mention, however, that every player is going to react differently to the implementation of this training environment. In order to reduce chances of confusion, at the beginning of the process, we mentioned that some changes would be made in the training processes, and explained why and how these changes will affect the sporting environment. It is important to mention that progressive transitioning to athlete centred coaching should be planned and implemented in order to develop an empowered athlete who would be

active in their own development as well as support the growth and enjoyment of others.

The creation of healthy motivational climate and team culture played a big role in the overall enjoyment and development of the team. It is crucial to create a group of player that enjoy each other's company and support one another. We used methods like team goal and rule setting, team building events and creation of mastery oriented climate to create a good team cohesion. We felt that the methods we used did help the team become more cohesive, however, did not create an atmosphere of supportiveness that would persevere even in difficult situations. Many methods still exist that were not explored or implemented that maybe would have tackled this problem.

To improve the cultural mentality more meetings with parents could have been made to explain the best way they could support the development as well as sports enjoyment of their children. In Durbin Bulldogs Organisation, however, the communication between coaches and parents was limited therefore restricting this process.

The results brought by the implementation of the tool were positive and therefore can be used to increase the self-awareness of the players, teach goal setting and improve self-reactive influences.

During the process of self-evaluation, the players were encouraged to use their teammates as a measurement to perceive their own ability, therefore creating a performance based atmosphere. This affected each age group differently. This did not affect the older group much since they had experienced peer comparisons before. On the other hand, the players in the younger group, as a result of this process, saw each other as rivals therefore possibly creating tension between the each other, which resulted in lower team cohesion. This could be avoided if players would evaluate their current ability to what they believe their potential is. As a result, players would also demonstrate their ambitions.

As mentioned before, goal-setting was used to affect the behaviour of the players in order to achieve possible changes. One main thing in setting goals should be that the goals should be concrete and the communication to support the goal-setting should be as clear as it could to avoid the unnecessary confusion between the player and the coach. The confusion is reduced by strong communication and that is enabled by the trust that should be visible in the player-coach relationship. The trust is built over time but the clarity of the roles, ways to communicate and the sense of cooperation are perceived things to speed up the process.

At the end of this process, we felt like it was beneficial to the team, to players as individuals and us as coaches. However, we also felt like this process could be improved. For example, a written form could have been made, where players would reflect their feelings regarding the athlete centred coaching environment and the team climate. Even though these feelings and thoughts were discussed with the players, it was not put on a paper in a written form to combine the information and therefore providing a better opportunity to analyse the data.

During the creation of this thesis, we have learned a lot about athlete centred coaching and how to implement athlete centred coaching in a team environment. More importantly, we learned about ourselves and our personal coaching styles. During this process, we began to critically develop and analyse our own coaching philosophies. We realized how important is to work with players individually to improve their development. This process brought us to notice, ever increasingly, the personalities of the players. That helped us to discover the best ways to communicate and motivate each player.

The framework of individual athlete development in athlete centred coaching environment provided in this case study could be used as a foundation for other coaches to adapt this coaching style to their teams. To inspire other coaches to try this method we provided the necessary information and guidelines for creating and implementing this coaching philosophy. It is our hope that other instructors will learn from our successes and mistakes to provide better education.

References

Ames, C & Archer, A 1988. Achievement Goals in the Classroom: Students' Learning Strategies and Motivation Processes. American Psychological Association. Journal of Educational Psychology, pp 260, 265.

Bandura, A. 1991. Social cognitive theory of self-regulation. Organizational behaviour and human decision processes 50, pp. 248-287.

Betof, E. 2009. Leaders as Teachers: Unlock the Teaching Potential of Your Company's Best and Brightest. American Society for Training & Development, pp. 121.

Cambridge Business English Dictionary. 2015. Self-image. Cambridge University Press. URL:http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/british/self-image. Accessed: 07 Jul 2015.

Cheffers, J. 1994. From theory to practice. Sport Science Review, pp. 6.

Clarke, H., Smith, D. & Thibault, G. 1994. Athlete-centred sport: A discussion paper. Federal/ Provincial/ Territorial Sport Police Steering Committee.

Cox, R. 2002. Sport Psychology – Concepts and Applications. McGraw-Hill, pp. 108.

Deci, E. & Ryan, R. 2002. Handbook of self-determination research. Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press, pp. 42-44.

Devos, J. 2014. Change in Canadian soccer means new leadership required. Bell Media. URL: http://www2.tsn.ca/blogs/jason_de_vos/?id=460345. Accessed: 29 Jan 2015.

International Business Skills Courseware, 2010. Self-Awareness and Personal Development, British Business Professional Skills Development, pp. 9, 10.

Ilker, G. & Demirhan, G. 2012. The effects of different motivational climates on students' achievement goals, motivational strategies and attitudes toward physical education, Pamukkale University, Denizli, Turkey; Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey 2., pp. 2.

Kidman, L. 2005. Athlete-centred coaching: Developing inspired and inspiring people. Christchurch, New Zealand: Innovative Communications, pp. 23-24, 36, 38, 40-42.

Kidman, L. and Davis, W. 2006. Ecological Task Analysis Perspectives on Movement. Human Kinetics.

Kidman, L. & Lombardo, B. 2010. Athlete-centred Coaching: Developing Decision Makers, 2nd edition. Innovative Print Communications Ltd., pp. 24-28.

Kidman, L., Thorpe, R. & Hadfield, D. 2005. Athlete-centred Coaching: Developing Inspired and Inspiring People. Innovative Print Communications Ltd., pp. 13-14, 16-17.

Locke, E. & Latham, G. 1984. Goal setting: A motivational technique that works! Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall.

Locke, E. & Latham, G. 1985. The application of goal setting to sports. Journal of sport psychology, 7, pp. 205-222.

Locke, E. & Latham, G. 2002. Building a practically useful theory of goal setting and task motivation, A 35-year Odyssey. American Psychologist, pp. 705-716.

Locke, E. & Latham, G. 2006. New Directions in Goal-Setting Theory. Current Directions in Psychological Science, pp. 265-268.

Locke, E. & Latham, G. 1985. The Application of Goal Setting to Sports. Sport Psychology Today, 7, pp. 205-222.

Mallett, C. 2005. Self-Determination Theory: A Case Study of Evidence-Based Coaching. The University of Queensland, Australia, pp. 417.

McGladery, B., Murray, M. & Hannon, J. 2010. Developing and Practicing an Athlete-Centred Coaching Philosophy, YouthFirst: The Journal of Youth Sports, Volume 5 Issue 2, pp. 4-7.

McDonald, S. 2012. The Effects of a S.M.A.R.T., Goal Setting and Self-Monitoring Intervention on Physical Activity and Fitness in Middle School Students, pp. 2-7.

Miller, P.S. & Kerr, G.A. 2002. Conceptualizing excellence: Past, present, and future. Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 14, pp. 140-153.

Mitchell, J. July 21, 2013. Match day coaching: Using an athlete-centred approach. coachgrowth.wordpress.com, URL: https://coachgrowth.wordpress.com/2013/07/21/match-day-coaching/. Accessed: 27 Jan 2015.

Moreno, J. Cervelló, E. & González-Cutre, D. 2010. The achievement goal and self-determination theories as predictors of dispositional flow in young athletes. Anales de psicología, 2010, vol. 26, pp. 390-391. -399.

Prichard, A. 2012. Motivational climate in physical education and youth sports, North Dakota State University of Agriculture and Applied Science, pp. 4-5, 10-13, 15, 23.

Ryan, R. & Deci, E. 2000. Self-Determination Theory and the Facilitation of Intrinsic Motivation, Social Development, and Well-Being, American Psychologist, pp. 72.

Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2007. Foundations of Sport and Exercise Psychology 4th edition. Human Kinetics, pp. 346.

Weinberg, R. & Gould, D. 2014. Foundations of Sport and Exercise Psychology 6th edition EBook. Human Kinetics, pp. 745-746, 748-749.

Appendices

Appendix 1, S.M.A.R.T- short term goals-setting sheet (empty)

S	Specific	What do I want to accomplish?	
		Why do I want to accomplish this?	
		What are the requirements?	
		What are the constraints?	
M	Measurable	How will I measure my progress?	
		How will I know when the goal is accomplished?	
A	Achievable	How can the goal be accomplished?	
		What are the logical steps I should take?	
R	Realistic	Is this a worthwhile goal?	
		Is this the right time?	
		Do I have the necessary resources to accomplish this goal?	
		Is this goal in line with my long term objectives?	
T	Time-bound	How long will it take to accomplish this goal?	
		When is the completion of this goal due?	
		When am I going to work on this goal?	

Appendix 2, S.M.A.R.T- short term goals-setting sheet (filled)

S	Spezifisch	Was will ich erreichen?	Dehnbauer und Flexibler werden, Condition verbesser.
		Warum will ich dies zu tun?	Verlief bei Sportlichen Aktivitäten.
		Was sind die Voraussetzungen?	Jeden Tag dehnen und wiederholen, joggen gehen.
		Was sind die Einschränkungen?	Keine Faulheit zeigen.
M	Messbar	Wie messe ich meine Fortschritte ?	z.B. ob ich nächten Tag weiter nach vorne kommen ob ich das nächste mal länger oder schneller jogge.
		Wie werde ich wissen, wenn das Ziel erreicht ist?	Wenn ich dem Ergebnis zufrieden bin.
A	Erreichbar	Wie kann das Ziel erreicht werden?	Tägliches dehnen, wiederholen, sleigern.
		Was sind die logischen Schritte?	Sich immer weiter steigern und das Ziel vor Augen haben.
R	Realistisch	Ist das ein lohnendes Ziel?	Ja, kann mir im Tor bei manchen Situationen nützlich sein komm nicht so schnell aus der Puste.
		Ist dies der richtige Zeitpunkt?	Ja.
		Habe ich die erforderlichen Voraussetzungen, um dieses Ziel zu erreichen?	Ja.
		Ist das Ziel im Einklang mit meinen langfristigen Zielen?	Ja.
T	Terminiert	Wie lange wird es dauern, um dieses Ziel zu erreichen?	2-3 Wochen.
		Wann ist der Abschluss dieses Ziel durch?	Wenn ich es erreicht habe und zu frieden bin.
		Wann werde ich auf dieses Ziel hinarbeiten?	Jetz.

Appendix 3, S.M.A.R.T- long term goals-setting sheet (empty)

S	Specific	What do I want to accomplish?	
		Why do I want to accomplish this?	
		What are the requirements?	
		What are the constraints?	
M	Measurable	How will I measure my progress?	
		How will I know when the goal is accomplished?	
A	Achievable	How can the goal be accomplished?	
		What are the logical steps I should take?	
R	Realistic	Is this a worthwhile goal?	
		Is this the right time?	
		Do I have the necessary resources to accomplish this goal?	
T	Time-bound	How long will it take to accomplish this goal?	
		When is the completion of this goal due?	
		When am I going to work on this goal?	

Appendix 4, S.M.A.R.T- long term goals-setting sheet (filled)

S	Spezifisch	Was will ich erreichen?	Position besser einhalten, Technik verbessern.
		Warum will ich dies zu tun?	Wichtig für meine spielerrischen Fortschritte.
		Was sind die Voraussetzungen?	Hartes training, dizipline.
		Was sind die Einschränkungen?	Keine Faulheit zeigen.
M	Messbar	Wie messe ich meine Fortschritte ?	z.B. ob ich nächte mal die übung richtg und besser machen
		Wie werde ich wissen, wenn das Ziel erreicht ist?	Bei zufriedenheit, aber man kann es immer steigern
A	Erreichbar	Wie kann das Ziel erreicht werden?	Wiederhohohlungen, hartes Training.
		Was sind die logischen Schritte?	Schritt für Schritt daran arbeiten, wiederholen und steigerung der übungen.
R	Realistisch	Ist das ein lohnendes Ziel?	Ja, den es hilft mir im Tor.
		Ist dies der richtige Zeitpunkt?	Ja.
		Habe ich die erforderlichen Voraussetzungen, um dieses Ziel zu erreichen?	Ja.
T	Terminiert	Wie lange wird es dauern, um dieses Ziel zu erreichen?	Ende Eistraining
		Wann ist der Abschluss dieses Ziel durch?	Wenn ich mit dem ergenbnis zufrieden bin.
		Wann werde ich auf dieses Ziel hinarbeiten?	Bei jedem eistraining

Appendix 5, Long Term Goal Achievement Assessment (empty)

Person	Goal	Rating 1-5	How did I achieve the goal? • Which short term goals got me closer	How did this improve my performance?
Players view				

Appendix 6, Long Term Goal Achievement Assessment (filled)

Person	Goal	Rating 1-5	How did I achieve the goal? • Which short term goals got me closer	How did this improve my performance?
Players view	• Position bessere einhalten • Techink verbessern	4	• Flexible werden • Condition verbesser	• Ich könnte bewegen besser • Ich könnte den Puck abfangen besser

Appendix 7, Short Term Goal Achievement Assessment (empty)

Person	Goal	Rating 1-5	How did I achieve the goal? • What was difficult • What kept me motivated	Did this bring me closer to my long term goal? How?
Players view				

Appendix 8, Short Term Goal Achievement Assessment (filled)

Person	Goal	Rating 1 -5	How did I achieve the goal? • What was difficult • What kept me motivated	• Did this bring me closer to my long term goal? • How?
Players view	Dehnbauer und Flexibler werden	4	• Zeitmangel • wollte die erste Torfrau zu sein	• Ja • Bessere Mobilität für Technik

Appendix 9, Self-evaluation sheet (empty)

Rate yourself on a Scale of 1-5		
	Player Assessment	Coach Assessment
Game Situations		
Scoring- Ability to score or to help a teammate score	0	0
Winning Space- Get the puck towards opponent's net by carrying or passing the puck	0	0
Creating Space- Create space for puck carrier by skating away from him or to specific area (ex: driving the net)	0	0
Supporting the Puck- Getting to an area where the puck carrier can pass the puck to you	0	0
Stealing the Puck- Ability to steal the puck (or help a teammate steal the puck) with a check or with your stick	0	0
Covering- Defending non-puck carrier	0	0
Technical Skills		
Shooting	0	0
Passing	0	0
Pass Reception	0	0
Puck Control	0	0
Skating	0	0
Checking	0	0
Receiving Checks	0	0
Stick Check	0	0
Tactical Skills		
Screening- Standing in front of the goalie preventing him from seeing a shot	0	0

Fakes- Using dekes to make opponent think you are going to do something different from what you will actually do	0	0
Smart Shooting- shooting with a purpose (ex: quick shots, shooting for rebounds)	0	0
Timing-Arriving at the right place at the right time	0	0
Positioning- Being in the right place at the right time	0	0
Communication- Talking with teammates on the ice during both offense and defence	0	0
Gap Control- Keeping a small distance between yourself and the player you are trying to cover	0	0
Angling- Forcing puck carrier to a specific area of the ice (ex: to the boards)	0	0
Mental Skills		
Determination- Desire to make the most of every opportunity	0	0
Courage-Willingness to make the play which is best for the team in all situations (ex: go to the net, take a check to make a play)	0	0
Confidence- Belief in your abilities	0	0
Patience- Using available time and space to create opportunities for successful plays	0	0
Decision Making- Making the best decision on the ice in the moment	0	0
Understanding of Game- Knowledge of common game systems and team tactics	0	0
Risk Management-Avoiding high risk plays (ex: skating in front of your own net with the puck)	0	0
Trust-Trusting that your teammates will do their jobs on the ice	0	0
Physical Skills		

Coordination	0	0
Speed	0	0
Strength	0	0
Anaerobic Endurance	0	0
Aerobic Endurance	0	0
Flexibility	0	0

Appendix 10, Self-evaluation sheet (filled)

Evaluation von 5 bis 1: 5-Zehr gut (Beste in mannschaft) 4-Gut (Ein bischen besser wie andere spielers in mannschaft) 3-Mittelmäßig (Gleiche als andere spielern) 2-Ungenügen (Nicht so gut wie die meisten spielern) 1-Immer schwierig (Nicht mithalten kann mit andere spielern)		
Spielsituationen		
	Spieler	Coach
Torschiessen- helfen ein tor zu schiessen	4	3
Gewonnener platz- puck in den freien raum spielen (mit pass oder laufen)	4	4
Hilfe spieler mit puck freier raum suchen das mein mitspieler mir den puck zuspielen kann	4	4
Puck vom gegner nehmen mit gutem check oder forcheck	4	4
Spiele gegen man ohne puck	4	4
Technik		
Schuss	4	4
Pass	4	4
Annmen Paass	4	4
Puck kontroll	3	4
Schlid shue laufen	5	5
Korpespiele	4	4
Anneme checks	4	4
Puck checks	3	3
Taktik		
Dem goalie die sicht nehmen beim schuss	5	4
Einen schuss antaeuschen das eine anderer winkel entsteht	4	3
Ueberlegter schuss muss nicht immer hart sein platziert und fuer den nachschuss	4	4
Zu richtiger zeit am richtigen ort	4	4
Am richtigen platz sein	4	4
Viel reden in der angrivszone und verteidigungszone	3	3
Nicht zu grossen abstand lassen zwischen dir und dem gegenspieler. 1 stocklaenge	4	4
Gegner an die bande druecken kein foul	4	4
Character		
Das beste aus jeder situation machen	4	4
Den willen das spiel zu machen was ist das beste fuer die mannschaft	5	5

An dein vorhaben glauben	4	4
Ruhe behalten kuehlen kopf behalten fuer den richtigen spielzug	4	3
Schnell denken	4	3
System der mannschaft kennen aufbau mannschaftstaktik was der trainer angibt	5	4
Nicht zu riskant spielen keine querpaesse	3	3
An die mannschaft glauben und an dich	4	4
Kondition		
Die koordination	4	4
Die Geschwindigkeit	5	5
Die Kraft	4	4
Die Ausdauer	4	4
Die Flexibilität	3	3