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An In Situ Exploration of Practicing Rugby Coaches' Cognitions, Higher Psychological Functions, and Actions Using Think Aloud Protocol

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1

Abstract

2 Psychology-based research has been a characteristic of empirical enquiry in sport
3 coaching for over fifty years and cognitive function is widely accepted as a
4 fundamental component of sport coaching expertise. Within the academic literature,
5 much empirical research on coaches' cognitions has tended to adopt retrospective
6 approaches, such as post-session interviews or stimulated recall, thus capturing
7 participant recall after the incident, training session or competition. Methods such as
8 these that rely on participants' retrospective recall are prone to memory decay,
9 reordering of accounts (Lyle, 2003), and confirmation bias. The aim of this research
10 was to collect a different type of data to what is generated with retrospective
11 approaches and, rather, capture coaching cognitions *in situ* using Think Aloud
12 Protocol. The data captured were broken down into meaning units and analysed using
13 a Reflexive Thematic Analysis. Situated in the practice of 6 experienced rugby
14 coaches, findings revealed that Think Aloud Protocol generated rich data. However,
15 engaging Think Aloud Protocol was problematic as the site of enquiry was
16 confounded by multiple social interactions and required coaches to provide frequent
17 instruction and feedback. The interaction between cognition and action is
18 conceptualised by the tentative offering of a conceptual model which includes
19 cognitive triggers and thresholds. The implications of these findings can help
20 academics and coach developers to understand the complexity of capturing coaches'
21 *in situ* thinking within dynamic social environments.

22 *Keywords: coaching, psychology, thinking, methods, pedagogy, interactive*

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25 What coaches think (cognition) during *in situ* practice has received limited empirical
26 attention. Lyle and Vergeer (2013) list a number of contributory elements to
27 cognition; for example, judgement and decision-making, reasoning, problem solving,
28 mental models and knowledge structures. With a focus on these features of cognition,
29 a great deal of emphasis has been placed on their prevalence and function in
30 performers/athletes, particularly, skill acquisition (Fitts & Posner, 1967; Renshaw et
31 al., 2019). However, the corresponding body of work focusing on coaches is much
32 less extensive. The research described in this paper is intended to be a contribution to
33 this area of study and more specifically, sessional-interactive pedagogy.

34 Effective sport coaching is cognitively demanding and requires coaches to
35 observe, think and act (Lyle & Cushion, 2017; North, 2017). It is clear, therefore, that
36 cognitive activity is a characteristic of coaching expertise and, therefore, of interest to
37 both researchers and practising coaches. This is evident in fields of enquiry that have
38 focused on, for example: naturalistic decision-making, which seeks to examine
39 coaches' mental operations when practising (Harvey et al., 2015); professional
40 judgement decision-making, which emphasises a blended approach of classical and
41 naturalistic decision-making to inform actions (Collins & Collins, 2021); coaches'
42 knowledge that includes professional, interpersonal and intrapersonal (Gilbert & Côté,
43 2013; Saury & Durand, 1998); cognitive management strategies during *in situ* practice
44 (Debanne & Fontayne, 2009) and cognitive capacities that enable coaches to regulate
45 and engage strategies to coordinate cognitions and actions in a logical sequential
46 fashion. (Kennedy et al., 2021). This existing literature has contributed towards the
47 development of a partial picture of coaching cognitions. Nevertheless, it has been
48 suggested that there is a need to attend to the real-world practice setting of *in situ*
49 coaching, namely *how* the sessional (e.g., practice structure and type of sport) and

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50 interactive features (e.g., pedagogical approach and face-to-face interaction) can
51 influence, constrain and enable cognitive processes (Lyle & Muir, 2020).

52 In the first instance, it is necessary to clarify what is meant by cognition. As to
53 what constitutes our understanding of cognition in this study, Bayne (2019) offers a
54 detailed and practice-related explanation: *“all the activities and processes concerned*
55 *with the acquisition, storage, retrieval and processing of information regardless of*
56 *whether these processes are explicit or conscious”* (p. 609). This definition offers a
57 useful way forward but does not capture the contextual application of cognitive
58 functions (Kennedy et al., 2021). We make the assumption that cognitive activity is
59 impacted by and, in turn, influences the contextual behaviour and practice of coaches.
60 This study, therefore, is an attempt to explore coaches’ cognitions in a practice
61 context – embracing, rather than reducing the complexity of the site of enquiry. For
62 the purposes of this research and in simple language, cognition is considered to be the
63 ‘thinking’ - activities and processes - that occur ‘inside the coach’s head’, while
64 operating in a particular coaching environment and context. This provides a parallel
65 focus on cognition and the social-technical-tactical interactive research setting.

66 In order to illustrate and categorise the types of cognitions that may arise
67 within such research, we draw upon the concept of higher psychological functions
68 (Vygotsky, 1977). These can be considered types of conscious deliberate thinking into
69 which specific cognitions can be grouped. Mason’s (2002) concept of ‘noticing’ is an
70 example of a higher psychological function; one that has been incorporated by Jones
71 et al. (2013) in their notion of ‘orchestration’. Cognitions can be understood as
72 activities and processes that contain ‘content’ or ‘subjects’ (i.e., something to think
73 about), whereas higher psychological functions offer a way to group cognitions

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74 according to their similar characteristics and allow us to attend to the content of our
75 thinking.

76 Previous research in sport coaching that has sought to understand better the
77 cognitive processes of coaches has typically employed retrospective methods; for
78 example, stimulated recall, pre- and post-game interviews and verbal cues (Cloes et
79 al., 2001; Harvey et al., 2015). Retrospective methods that rely on participants'
80 retrospective recall and are intended to offer a reflective account of 'thinking' and
81 behaviour are associated with an array of potential problems including memory decay,
82 rationalisation of subsequent behaviour, confirmation bias, and attempts to appear 'in
83 control' (image management) (Lyle, 2003). The means of stimulating recall may also
84 be open to selection bias. As an alternative to retrospective approaches, Ericsson and
85 Simon (1993) proposed Think Aloud Protocol to capture the verbalizations of *in situ*
86 cognitive processes within different domains. More recently within the field of sport
87 coaching, Think Aloud Protocol has been used as a knowledge elicitation method
88 with athletes (Whitehead et al., 2016; Whitehead et al., 2018) and as a mechanism to
89 facilitate reflection in-action and on-action (Swettenham & Whitehead, 2021).
90 Neighboring domains including teaching (Cowan, 2019) and nursing (Banning, 2008)
91 have explored the use of Think Aloud Protocol to understand the *in situ* cognitive
92 processes of students and trainees whilst undertaking tasks with fewer peripheral
93 distractions (e.g., time-pressure and need to socially engage). Nevertheless, Think
94 Aloud Protocol has not been trialed to capture the cognitions of practicing coaches
95 operating in complex, timebound and social environment. Within a rugby specific
96 context, Mouchet et al. (2014) explored the in-game communications of rugby
97 coaches and reported the use of coaching routines, interventions and communications
98 as being context dependent and of a personalised nature. Additionally, Hall et al.

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99 (2016) remarked on the complexity of coaching practice, suggesting that activity type
100 and coaching behaviors warrant further investigation. Therefore, this study is intended
101 to ‘get closer’ to the act of coaching by using Think Aloud Protocol and thus allowing
102 contemporaneous data collection of cognitions which underpin coaching behaviours.

103 Much of the academic literature employing Think Aloud Protocol within sport
104 coaching has focused on tasks that: 1) take place in environments with limited
105 external or peripheral distractions, and 2) have a defined sequence with a clearly
106 expressed outcome (Whitehead et al., 2018; Whitehead et al., 2016). This has allowed
107 participants ‘cognitive space’ to exercise some measure of deliberation over
108 decisions. However, this does not adequately represent the cognitive tasks that a
109 dynamic, evolving and interactive situation, such as a team sport training session,
110 requires of the sport coach. Previous attempts to reduce the complexity of the activity
111 may present fewer problems for the researcher but the result is, at best, a partial
112 insight into cognitive expertise. The purpose of this study is therefore twofold. First,
113 to offer a novel insight into coaches’ *in situ* cognitions by using Think Aloud Protocol
114 to study sessional behavioural approaches that coaches’ employ whilst practising in
115 context-dependent situations with a high cognitive load (Jääskeläinen, 2010). Second,
116 to examine the strengths and weaknesses of Think Aloud Protocol as a method to
117 explore *in situ* cognition in coaching.

118

119

Method

120 The purpose of this study was to use Think Aloud Protocol to capture the *in situ*
121 cognitions of six practising Rugby Union coaches. This study was underpinned by a
122 realist ontology (i.e., reality exists beyond the limits of the researcher’s
123 understanding) and post-positivist epistemology (i.e., researcher background and

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124 position impacts on what is observed) (Smith & McGannon, 2018). By engaging
125 Think Aloud Protocol in this context and asking coaches to verbalise ‘live’ thoughts,
126 the data that were generated would expose the marbling of cognition, feedback and
127 instruction. For clarity, we view cognition as mental activities and processes which
128 cannot easily be seen. We consider feedback to be the coach’s selected articulations of
129 what they have perceived to the players. Instruction is deemed to be the coach’s
130 speech to players with a view to intentionality and providing player/sessional
131 direction. The dynamic and interwoven nature of cognitions in an ‘open’,
132 unconstrained practice arena is an inescapable feature of *in situ* coaching and
133 teaching. Therefore, the approach taken in this research was to embrace this
134 complexity and, as a consequence, contribute to our knowledge about cognitions in
135 the moment.

136 Participants and setting

137 A purposive sample of six male Rugby Union coaches was selected based on their
138 experience, coaching qualifications, and role within the Rugby Football Union (e.g.,
139 Rugby Development Officer, Coach Developer, etc.) or a Premiership Academy.
140 Coaching qualifications within the group ranged from Levels 2-4, with all individuals
141 being employed in full-time professional coaching positions. The range of coaching
142 experience was from 7-25 years.

143 In total, each of the six coaches was observed on two occasions, i.e., 12
144 sessions were recorded, with an average length of 50 minutes. The sessions lasted for
145 between 30-90 minutes and were characteristic of what the coaches deemed to be a
146 ‘representative’ session and part of their overall schedule. This ensured that coaches
147 were able to keep to their routines and therefore, cognitions that were captured could

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148 be considered as ‘naturally occurring’ as opposed to artificially generated as a result
149 of a coaches’ atypical coaching session. Male and female players (aged between 12-
150 18 years of age) took part in the coaching sessions. Their levels of ability ranged from
151 of having been recently introduced to the sport to competing at junior academy level.

152 Think Aloud Protocol overview

153 Think Aloud Protocol (TAP) has the capacity to generate different levels of data.
154 Level 1 verbalisation is the vocalisation of inner speech which requires no cognitive
155 effort to provide whilst performing a task; Level 2 verbalisation is the articulation of
156 thoughts that are not originally in a verbal format or code. These thoughts might
157 conceivably be represented in terms of mental models or images. This level of data is
158 concerned with discovering what the subject is focusing on and is not revealed within
159 Level 1 data. Level 3 verbalisation requires subjects to rationalise and explain their
160 thought processes; for example, why they chose to make an intervention in a session
161 (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). For the purposes of this research and in accordance with
162 Ericsson and Simon (1993), Level 1 and 2 verbalisations were collected, as it was
163 considered that the time required to *explain* the ideas, hypotheses and motives at
164 Level 3 would disrupt the flow of coaching processes (Whitehead et al., 2016).

165 Procedures

166 Prior to its implementation, all coaches were briefed on how TAP would be
167 conducted, what equipment would be used, and how this might impact the training
168 session. Specifically, coaches were instructed to verbalise, where possible, what they
169 were thinking during the coaching session. It was suggested that this might include
170 aspects such as observations of coaching drills, what was deemed to be ‘working or
171 not working’ and emotions. The coach and researcher undertook a 30-minute ‘run

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172 through' prior to the session. During this time, the coaches walked through the set-up,
173 activities and goals of their session, including the layout of equipment. This time
174 allowed coaches to verbalise their thinking (e.g., how they were setting up activities).
175 During the run through, the researcher was present to listen in, but also to provide the
176 coaches with any further information in terms of how much and what level of
177 verbalisation they were offering (Birch & Whitehead, 2020). This presented the
178 opportunity to speak with coaches and emphasize that they did not need to *explain*
179 their thought processes, but instead, simply to verbalise the thought itself. Feedback to
180 coaches regarding the level and quantity of their Think Aloud verbalisations was
181 offered during and after the run through in order for coaches to understand better what
182 was expected as part of the protocol. Coaches were encouraged not to deviate from
183 their typical structure and style of coaching. The recording of the sessions began when
184 the coach formally gathered the players and ended when the coach had delivered his
185 closing messages to the players.

186 *Apparatus*

187 All 12 coaching sessions were recorded using a video camera attached to a wireless
188 audio receiver. The audio receiver was placed in the coaches' pockets and was
189 attached to a microphone on their collars. The video camera was placed either at the
190 side or end of the pitch to capture all players within the frame. The camera was fixed
191 to a tripod and was rotated by the researcher, as required, to ensure that the coach and
192 players remained in the centre of the screen. The purpose of the video recordings was
193 to assist with analysis and add a vital layer of context to the Think Aloud Protocol
194 audio data. The capturing of both audio and video data allowed actions and coaching
195 behaviours to be observed, thus providing a useful contextualisation.

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196 *Ethics*

197 Ethical clearance was sought and subsequently approved by the University ethics
198 committee and written consent was provided by all participant coaches in the study.
199 All data that were generated and captured, including video and audio files, were
200 stored on a password protected laptop and external hard drive in line with the
201 University's ethical procedures. In the presentation of results, pseudonyms have been
202 used where coaches have mentioned players' names.

203 *Data Analysis*

204 The aim of this study was to use Think Aloud Protocol to understand better the *in situ*
205 cognitions of practising coaches. In this fashion, this study is intended to overcome
206 limitations of retrospective methods (Lyle, 2003) and contribute to the coaching
207 literature (Whitehead, 2018; Swettenham & Whitehead, 2021) with a unique focus on
208 coaches' cognitions. The following data analysis, therefore, was designed to analyse
209 the Think Aloud Protocol audio data and make sense of *how* and *what* coaches were
210 thinking during the coaching sessions. The primary researcher was a qualified rugby
211 coach and this knowledge was used as a resource throughout the data analysis phases.

212 Phase 1: The audio content from the audio/video recordings from each of the
213 coaching sessions was transcribed verbatim. This process facilitated deep researcher
214 immersion in, and intimate familiarisation with, the data (Joy et al., 2023).

215 Phase 2: The transcripts were read in full to initially generate some ideas that helped
216 in the formulation of themes. Subsequently, the data were broken down into meaning
217 units and coded using researcher familiarity with the data and a reflexive approach
218 drawing on and refining the initial themes (Braun & Clarke, 2019; Joy et al., 2023). In
219 this fashion, coding was both a process and an output. The data were analysed and

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220 themes of higher psychological functions (e.g., noticing, questioning and problem
221 solving) were developed. Once completed, an independent researcher in the field of
222 Sport Coaching was asked to verify the categorisation of the meaning units under the
223 theme headings. Resulting from this this process, there was an 80% agreement rate
224 (Whitehead et al., 2018). The remaining units of disagreement were assembled into
225 groups of according to similar differences a mutual decision taken about their
226 categorisation in order to ensure that all meaning units were categorised. In total,
227 1337 meaning units were created and coded.

228 Phase 3: Once the initial framework of higher psychological functions was created,
229 the data were further analysed inductively in order to make sense of and create second
230 order themes (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). This provided the specific detail or
231 ‘content’ of, for example, *what* or *who* coaches were noticing (e.g., technical, tactical
232 aspects). In total, 815 meaning units were coded as cognitions (Table 1). A further
233 522 meaning units revealed themselves to be instruction or feedback and,
234 consequently, these were coded as ‘actions’ as seen in Table 2.

235 **Results and Discussion**

236 The developed higher psychological functions are depicted in Table 1. Significantly,
237 noticing and questioning were prevalent in all sessions. Noticing developed primarily
238 through Level 2 verbalisations, as coaches appeared to be more at ease when they
239 were physically distanced from players and with no immediate need to engage
240 verbally with them.

241 **Table 1**

242 Reflexive Thematic analysis of *in situ* higher psychological functions

243 [TABLE 1 HERE]

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244 The results in Table 1 revealed the range of questioning used within sessions. These
245 questions were directed both at players and as part of the coach's inner thoughts.
246 Significantly, questioning can be considered as both a cognition and an action (L&
247 Jornet, 2013). However, it is assumed that, in this instance, questions were
248 representative of the coach's cognitions prior to such an action and, therefore, were
249 included within the broader theme of diagnostic cognitions.

250 A significant amount of the data collected (522 meaning units) could be
251 categorised as 'instruction' and 'feedback' (actions), the scale of which reflects their
252 importance and use by coaches. Actions manifested in four different ways: direct
253 instruction to players, collaborative instruction to players, feedback during drills, and
254 feedback during interventions (interventions in this instance are recognised to be
255 occasions when the coach stopped the session to deliver information). Examples of
256 coaching actions are displayed in Table 2 and were consistent across all coaching
257 sessions.

258 **Table 2**

259 Reflexive Thematic analysis of captured *in situ* coaching actions

260 [TABLE 2 HERE]

261 The analysis of results below begins with the developed higher psychological
262 functions (noticing, questioning, problem solving and deductive reasoning). These are
263 populated with session content and followed by the resultant actions (instruction and
264 feedback).

265 **Noticing**

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266 In total, eight second-order themes were developed under the category of noticing.

267 For the purposes of this discussion, six of these themes are elaborated upon below,

268 which, reflects their significance within the results.

Quality of the session

270 The perceived quality of the session was something that all coaches frequently
271 considered. As an illustration of noticing the quality, Coach #6 verbalised, “Loads of
272 dropped passes. Loads of imposition. Loads of people not running lines. Loads of
273 people passing the ball badly. Which is not what we want at all, but ok”. The use of
274 the word ‘badly’ signifies an internal judgement that has been made by the coach
275 (McMorris, 2015). The coach finished his thought by acknowledging that it was not
276 ideal, but that it was “ok”, suggesting that he was not ready to act immediately. This
277 implies that coaches accept an element of variability in performance and may take a
278 view that the standard of performance at a given time is ‘good enough’ for the
279 purposes of the goals within the session (c.f. Simon’s theory of bounded rationality or
280 ‘satisficing’ (Simon, 1956)). The incident outlined above was notable because of the
281 resultant action and feedback from the coach (upon further examination of the original
282 transcript) who said “Come in. Couple of things boys just to make the exercise
283 work... I just let you do that because I just wanted to get our hands going” (Coach
284 #6). Coaches afford their players or teams some latitude against expectations, but this
285 is likely to fluctuate as a result of a number of factors, such as the stage in the session
286 or the individual players involved.

Inter-player communication

288 Coaches took into account the level of verbal inter-player communication, most likely
289 because of the potential contribution to team performance. To begin with, the coaches

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290 commented on the incidence of communication, without passing judgement on its
291 quality. For example, “So, the lads are just starting to talk.” (Coach #2). However, as
292 sessions unfolded coaches began to notice more nuanced and performance-related
293 details. For instance, one coach was focused on the source of the inter-player
294 communication: “let’s have a look, are we getting the information from out wide?”
295 (Coach #3). The theme of inter-player communication is perhaps unsurprising as the
296 sharing of information between players is more likely to increase the effectiveness of
297 a team. As a result, coaches invested time in diagnosing communication issues - when
298 this was happening and if it was appropriate.

Technical evaluation

300 Research has suggested that technical concerns are always high on coaches’ priority
301 lists (Latinjak et al., 2018). However, safety concerns are also important in the context
302 of the physical contact nature of the game, in which incorrect technique may result in
303 injury to a player (Podlog & Eklund, 2007). Whilst referring to the technique of
304 clearing opposition players from the ruck, one coach explained, “Poor on the clear
305 out, body position’s been bobbing really. I know it’s cold and everything, but you just
306 look at it and there’s a few” [bobbing refers to the height of the player’s head and
307 shoulders] (Coach #2). In this example, the coach was noticing the height of his
308 player’s head in the contact area. However, the cognition has two aspects. First, the
309 element of safety is an ongoing consideration. Second, correct technique increases the
310 chance of winning the ball and improving performances.

Positioning on field and use of space

312 The theme of positioning and use of space was mentioned by all coaches. Again, this
313 is unsurprising in an interactive team sport. It was evident that coaches were

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314 consistently noticing where players were in relation to each other, the ball and the
315 opposition, and how space between players could be exploited. For example, Coach
316 #6 verbalised, “They crossed the gain line, but they are now outside the outside post”,
317 illustrating that they were aware of how much forward and lateral progress their team
318 needed to make. This implies that the coach had a mental model of *where* players
319 needed to be on the field and *what* they were required to do in order to gain advantage
320 on a particular play. This is an example of coaches operating with a performance
321 model - focusing on the utilisation of space within the session as part of the technical
322 component of the model.

Tactical evaluation

324 Tactical evaluation, although initially similar to ‘positioning and use of space’, offers
325 a slightly different set of principles (Gray & Hall, 2015). This theme is based on
326 collective team effectiveness, hence the strong evaluation aspect, suggesting that, in
327 appropriate drills, coaches were constantly assessing the impact of player or team
328 behaviour on tactical effectiveness. For example, one coach mentioned, “Good
329 enterprise from the defence... allowing people to get back and recover” (Coach #3).
330 The coach was making a judgement about the defensive unit, evidenced by his, albeit
331 short, rationale. In this instance, the coach revealed that his attention was on a
332 particular group of players, working together to achieve a particular goal or outcome.
333 The coaches’ noticing of tactical issues involved a judgement or diagnosis, as a
334 potential catalyst to determine whether they needed to spend time resolving the
335 problem.

Decision-making (of players)

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337 The findings identify player decision-making as something that is highly person-
338 specific, contextual, and situational. As an example of how a coach's prior knowledge
339 of a player was used when evaluating a player's decision-making skills, Coach #5
340 stated, "The guy on the ball now is a very capable player, probably just lacks a bit of
341 confidence in himself. But all his passing and decision-making has been spot on". The
342 coach was able to focus on an individual player and take into account a range of
343 factors that could influence the players' decision-making. The reference to the
344 player's personality and mental state implies that the coach was able to recognise
345 individual player resources and how these personal and situational factors have the
346 capacity to impact on the player's performance.

347 Coaches also noticed players' decision-making in specific drills and how these
348 impacted on tactical outcomes. Whilst observing a drill in action, Coach #6
349 verbalised, "That's a very early kick option, I understand they don't want it to be the
350 same attack". This suggests that the coach was not expecting the kick to occur and,
351 again, was utilising a simulation model to match the decision against his expectations
352 of how the play would unfold. Shortly afterwards, the coach followed up his
353 statement about the kick with a justification of the decision – "I understand they don't
354 want it to be the same attack". This implies that the coach could take mitigating
355 factors into account when evaluating the need for subsequent action. Although the
356 coach noticed the superficial and surface level errors that the players were making, he
357 was able to problem solve *why* they were making these decisions, note *what* was
358 needed and *how* the problem could be remedied later in the session.

359 **Questioning**

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360 The extended mind (Robbins & Aydede, 2009) offers a useful perspective into how
361 questioning, as a higher psychological function, but also as an action, has the ability
362 to extend into the social environment (i.e., the coaching session). In this instance,
363 coaches verbalised their cognitions into their (coaching and players') environment.
364 The players can respond to the extended cognition by amending their actions or
365 justifying them verbally through dialogue or physically through game-based actions.
366 As part of this analysis, questioning is viewed as a cognition, but manifests as both an
367 action and tool which coaches use within sessions. In total, 6 themes evolved under
368 the main category of questioning, of which, 5 are discussed below in accordance with
369 their prevalence.

Questioning player communication

371 Coaches tended to focus on *how* players were able to pass information from one to the
372 other during activities. For example, when speaking to a player one coach asked, "Ok,
373 and how are you passing that information on to the players? Because you were doing
374 it at times in that game" (Coach #3). Although this evolved as an action, the cognitive
375 antecedents of questioning were significant as the coach wanted to understand *if* the
376 player was aware of how he was communicating. In this instance, the question also
377 serves as a mechanism to prompt or remind the players to communicate during a
378 game or drill.

Questioning what players are seeing

380 Questions, first as cognitions and then as actions, allowed coaches to understand the
381 players' perspective: first, the player's conscious in-session deliberations; second,
382 what they were recognising in the session and in themselves; and third, what had
383 prompted them to make decisions on the pitch. In the case of one coach, he asked a

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384 relatively simple question to a player, “who is the player in the most space?” (Coach
385 #2). This question implies that the coach was wanting to gain more information about
386 *how* and *what* the player was seeing, and, perhaps, testing the player’s understanding.

387 Similarly, a different coach gave an instruction immediately followed by a
388 string of questions to his players, “fellas let’s be feeding it in, what defenders have we
389 got, or might we have? Ok where are they coming from? Do we need to fix? Do we
390 need to straighten up? Do we need to go back at them?” (Coach #1). It is reasonable
391 to suggest that these questions were intended to be rhetorical, as the coach didn’t give
392 an opportunity for the players to answer him and they followed an initial basic
393 instruction. The flow of questions to the players is likely to have been a reinforcement
394 mechanism for reminding players about previous advice/information, and inviting
395 them to question themselves about their level of awareness of what was required
396 (Debanne & Fontayne, 2009).

Questioning of game (rules) and tactics (strategies)

398 A number of coaches questioned players on their understanding of the rules of the
399 game. For instance, one coach asked a player, “ok, so now, if the ball goes to the
400 floor, what are you going to do? Can the ball go on the ground?” (Coach #2). From
401 this, it is possible to infer two possibilities; first that the coach was merely cognitively
402 questioning if the player was aware of the rules or laws of the game; but second, and
403 arguably more likely, the question allows the coach to identify a mistake or
404 irregularity with the player’s performance and therefore, address these issues through
405 subsequent coaching actions. We can perhaps assume that the coach’s performance
406 model incorporates adherence to the laws of the game, on which his verbalisations
407 were based.

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408 Tactical/strategic knowledge of the game was a prevalent theme in most
409 coaching sessions, evidenced by Coach #3 who asked a player, “and if they spread,
410 what do you do then?”. This questioning of players’ tactical knowledge is again likely
411 to be a ‘check and challenge’ mechanism – partly probing for a ‘judgement call’, but
412 also a simple reinforcement or awareness exercise.

413 *Questioning of session or drill goals*

414 Most coaches did not explicitly state the session goals at the beginning of the session.
415 However, during conversations and by inference from their subsequent verbalisations,
416 it was evident that coaches were working towards a set of goals. The questioning of
417 player knowledge and awareness about session goals demonstrated the accompanying
418 cognitive activities. For example, a coach asked, “What are we trying to promote in
419 this game?” (Coach #1). In this instance, the coach was establishing expectations
420 about the goal context, most likely as part of a broader programme of work, and then
421 using this device to assist players to notice any deviance away from this. Their
422 questions acted as a mechanism to steer the session back on track. In a different
423 example, a coach asked a question and then explained a condition he was going to
424 impose on the drill, and finally repeated his original question - “What challenges have
425 we got in this narrow channel then? Every time you retreat now, I’m going to pull a
426 player out, to start off with. So, you might be, ok, the fourth player holding back with
427 me and Ben, you might be going 3 on 3, you might be going, 3 on 2, what challenges
428 are we getting immediately in this channel?” (Coach #1). The way in which the coach
429 presented the information by a question-condition-question formula helped to provide
430 a frame of reference for the players to reflect upon the coach’s questions and the
431 reasons for his ‘conditions’. This demonstrates how questions accompanied by

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432 contextual information give the players a narrower degree of focus and information
433 about what they ought, actively, to focus on.

434 Problem Solving

435 Problem solving was mostly evidenced through player-coach or coach-coach
436 conversations. As a case in point, one coach explained to his player, “The only time
437 you’d want to roll someone is if you come in at a bad angle and you’re not able to get
438 to a lever, or if you got to the ruck quite late, and there’s a lot of bodies there you just
439 need to take him out” (Coach #2). Although not explicitly stated, the coach was
440 identifying the problem (wrong choice of ruck technique) and offering a solution to
441 the problem. Problem solving requires three things: 1) noticing the issue (in this
442 instance, the angle of approach), 2) use of a schemata-based knowledge framework
443 (Lyle, 1999) to suggest one or more solutions, and 3) the opportunity for the player,
444 through trial and error, to internalise the solution. Coaches often problem solve using
445 simulation and performance models to identify what they notice is ‘out of place’. This
446 function might be better divided into problem identification, problem hypothesis, and
447 identifying solutions. Having recognised the issue, coaches refer to previous examples
448 or developed schemata to ‘place’ the problem in context. This might be a mix of
449 deliberative and less-deliberative cognition, but subsequently the coach communicates
450 the associated solutions in verbalisation.

451 Deductive reasoning

452 Deductive reasoning was mostly evident through coach-player conversations and was
453 exemplified by meaning statements that were longer and offered an often extended
454 narrative. For example, one coach mentioned “So now, the thing is, early on I’ve done
455 a lot more intervention than I would have wanted to. So now is the chance to really

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456 get them playing and let them just have a go at doing stuff knowing that there is no
457 whistle, and they are managing this” (Coach #5). In this instance, the coach revealed
458 that he had deviated from his session plan. However, he extrapolated from this that his
459 subsequent ‘standing back’ from the drill would have a positive effect on the players,
460 as they would be less aware of or reliant on the external cues coming from the coach’s
461 whistle.

462 Instruction

463 Two types of instruction were developed: direct instruction to players and
464 collaborative instruction. Direct instruction was the prevalent activity within all
465 coaching sessions. However, it seemed that collaborative instruction (seeming to
466 involve the players’ acquiescence in the decisions) is a deliberate and supportive
467 strategy, designed to engage and motivate players. In one instance, a coach gave an
468 instruction when setting up a drill, “this game is going to be a tackle game, we’re
469 going to take the principle of the stuff that we’ve done with me around the contact
470 area. We’re going to put it into a game, it’s going to be an overloaded attack game, so
471 you’re going to need to make sure you were defending like you were with Tom and
472 Finlay, ok it’s like making a cake, we’re putting it altogether now.” (Coach #2). This
473 indicates a certain level of prior reasoning that the coach considered pre-verbalisation;
474 for example, taking what was learned earlier on in the session and encouraging the
475 players to apply it in a conditioned game scenario. The instruction, in this case, also
476 contains elements of explanation (rationale), relevance, and quality. This provides an
477 indication of how instructions might act as an end point to multiple prior cognitions.

478 Feedback

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479 Feedback evolved in two distinctive ways - during drills (contemporaneous with
480 activity) and during the coaches' interventions. These interventions were largely
481 delivered in periods between drills, during which coaches could offer feedback in a
482 more considered and reasoned fashion. Whilst players were engaged in the task,
483 feedback from coaches tended to be short, sharp, and specific about a technical or
484 motivational point. Coaches made several statements such as, "Jonathan, good work"
485 (Coach #1). This type of feedback could be perceived as more motivational than
486 instructional and might be more frequent in micro-management settings during drills,
487 in which there is little time to offer detailed technical/tactical feedback. As an
488 alternative example, another coach offered feedback to a player, "ok, so Charlie, don't
489 worry about lifting him, you're just there then, you're going to come forward and get
490 out of his way so you can track through, alright?" (The lifting in this case refers to
491 raising a person to catch the ball from a line out) (Coach #2). This time-constrained
492 deliberation and action was not an intervention, but a natural pause in the stop-start
493 flow of the session. Most coaching sessions have a characteristic 'flow' and are
494 interwoven with natural pauses and breaks. This results in coaching sessions being
495 different in style and approach, with variations in the type and quantity of feedback
496 that is provided. Nevertheless, it seems that coaches are able to respond, perhaps in a
497 less-deliberative fashion, by combining the noticing of a technical or quality issue,
498 with a judgement of the need or value in vocalising a response. We might speculate
499 that the less-deliberative responses are of a general, often motivational/hustling nature
500 and the interventions reflect a speedy recourse to the coach's mental models.

501 Interventions and implications

502 Coaches continually sought to gather information through noticing and questioning.
503 This provided a stream of information for coaches to interpret, question, problem set

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504 and solve, reason and act upon. The gathering of data by the coach was part of their
505 embedded routines and an essential precursor before making any decisions.

506 Noticing is the first, and arguably most important, of these processes, for
507 without the identification of an issue or prompt to action, there can be no subsequent
508 cognitive routines (Mason, 2002). Noticing developed in three distinctive ways: *how*
509 the session was going, *what* the players were doing and *what* the players appeared to
510 know. These three considerations summarise what coaches were focused on and were
511 embedded within their cognitive routines. The use of questioning suggests that
512 coaches verbalised this cognitive process to act as a tool to verify and challenge what
513 had been noticed. In some cases, the act of questioning served as a deliberate
514 mechanism to engage with players and facilitate the gathering of information. As
515 such, the action of questioning could be viewed as a strategy to shift the decision-
516 making environment from non-deliberative to semi-deliberative, allowing coaches
517 opportunities to problem solve rather than operating in a reactive fashion or
518 depending upon heuristics (Collins & Collins, 2021). In turn, this notion is supported
519 by Mouchet et al. (2014) who reported coaching routines and interventions being
520 highly contextual and of personal nature.

521 Overall, there were few examples in this study to support the notion of
522 problem solving and deductive reasoning, and these were mostly inferred, rather than
523 naturally emerging from the data. The dynamic, reactive nature of the micro-
524 management of the sessions may prompt problem recognition, with a subsequent
525 reflection and reasoning to follow if immediate solutions prove inadequate. Problem
526 solving and deductive reasoning were revealed through longer composite quotations,
527 often in the form of a ‘chain-of-instruction’ demonstrating the coaches’ logical
528 thinking. This suggests that these higher psychological functions occur, but the

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529 structure and conduct of the sessions and methodological limitations are likely to be
530 responsible for their relative absence in this study.

531 Although coaching can be viewed as a flow of serial events (Lyle & Cushion,
532 2017), cognitive processes are different. Rather, they operate in an intermittent style,
533 e.g., notice, question, notice, question, problem solve, question etc., until a threshold
534 is reached, manifesting in a decision about whether to offer feedback or provide
535 instruction – or to do nothing (Harvey et al., 2015). Consequently, any of the
536 contextual conditions (e.g., if the team lost their last match in a particular fashion)
537 might provide a ‘weight of importance’ given to the cognition, resulting in the
538 breaching of thresholds and activation of triggers, or interventions.

539 As a consequence of using TAP and the capturing of data including coach-
540 player interactions, the prevalence of instruction and feedback within sessions was
541 highlighted. Although the quality of instruction and feedback was not explored in this
542 study, it is acknowledged that instruction and feedback are essential components of
543 coaching and, when provided in an appropriate fashion, have the capacity to improve
544 team/player performance (McMorris, 2015). Finally, coach instruction and feedback
545 can be viewed as part of emergent cognitive routines, ‘checkpoints’ intended to
546 influence player understandings and behaviours.

547

548 A conceptual model of the relationship between higher psychological functions 549 and actions in a micro-management setting

550 Sessional-interactive coaching practice has been revealed as an intense and dynamic
551 manifestation of cognitions (including noticing) and action. This finely tuned balance
552 portrayed coaching as a dynamic, yet not chaotic, process, with the coach or teacher

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553 often acting as the conductor (Bowes & Jones, 2006; Jones et al., 2013). Figure 1
554 demonstrates how the cognitions and actions can be considered situated,
555 interdependent in relation to each another and a vital component of decision-making
556 (Harvey et al., 2015; Mouchet et al., 2014). The data paint a picture of a coaching
557 process that is complex and, yet, had a degree of order. This was, in part, due to the
558 micro-management of the sessions and in the context of sport-specific requirements
559 such as team sport, high level of physicality, need for technical and tactical precision,
560 and invasion game tactics (Lyle, 2010).

561 **Figure 1**

562 A conceptual model of the relationship between higher psychological functions and
563 actions in an interactive micro-management setting

564 [FIGURE 1 HERE]

565 In Figure 1, problem solving and deductive reasoning have been grouped together as a
566 result of their perceived similarities within this context. Although these higher
567 psychological functions were evident, it is acknowledged that they were not as
568 frequent as ‘noticing’ and ‘questioning’. This may reflect the narrower focus in the
569 study and the emphasis on what might be termed the micro-management of the
570 session.

571 This exploratory conceptual model illustrates how the higher psychological
572 functions are interlinked and dependent upon one another. For example, when
573 coaches notice something, it often prompts some form of questioning to gain more
574 information. Whilst problem solving and deductive reasoning could be viewed as a
575 result of the ‘noticing – questioning’ pattern of thinking, they may prompt further
576 noticing and questioning to gauge whether the solution in the form of feedback was

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577 indeed correct (Lyle & Cushion, 2017; McMorris, 2015). These higher psychological
578 functions operate serially and in concert, each one contributing towards the coach's
579 knowledge and providing coaches with opportunities to test their understanding and
580 make necessary interjections.

581 These four higher psychological functions influence the type of instruction and
582 feedback that the coach will provide. It is possible to view the move from cognition to
583 action as a result of a threshold being breached (Harvey et al., 2015; Lyle, 2002),
584 which triggers a subsequent coaching intervention. However, the issue of *when* the
585 coach acts provides a layer of complexity as to what constitutes a breach of a
586 threshold. There were several examples in the TAP data in which coaches
587 acknowledged an issue but decided not to take any immediate action. Importantly,
588 only once a trigger has been activated does it lead to a resultant action from the coach.

589 The conceptual model includes a number of those emergent contextual factors
590 such as goals, player relationships, knowledge of players and performance outcomes.
591 Although these wider contextual factors were not explicitly considered a part of study,
592 they were evident in the coaches' verbalisations, and it is acknowledged that they
593 exist and influence cognitions and action. However, it is unclear based on the findings
594 of this study *how*, or to what extent, they might underpin or influence what happens
595 during the coaching sessions. It might be reasonably speculated that this 'background'
596 knowledge forms part of the coaches' modelling of the coaching process and would
597 be evident in performance (both individual and team), goal and simulation models.

598 **Conclusions and limitations**

599 This study has, to some extent, captured and explored cognitions of *in situ* practising
600 rugby coaches. By drawing on the concept of higher psychological functions, this

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601 research has usefully conceptualised the types of thinking in which coaches engage.
602 Specifically, coaches were required to notice a wide range of sessional features,
603 diagnose problems and act under the pressure of time. Those tasks, therefore,
604 demanded the engagement of a range of higher psychological functions including
605 noticing, questioning and reasoning in order for coaches to operate efficiently and
606 effectively. The findings suggest that the specificity of the environment, in this
607 instance, a micro-management setting, impacts on the types and patterns of higher
608 psychological functions that coaches can engage as part of a pedagogical approach.

609 Finally, Think Aloud Protocol has been demonstrated to capture rich *in situ*
610 data in a micro-management coaching setting, yet is limited and fallible because of
611 the social relationships that exist and the consequent need for coaches to filter the
612 appropriateness of their verbalisations. This was retrospectively shared with the
613 researcher by some of the coaches. In addition, sport coaching happens in a time-
614 bound serial fashion, meaning that coaches are often not in control of the speed of
615 what occurs. This means that much cognitive ‘material’ is therefore unable to be
616 verbalised as the act of coaching requires action and intervention. In addition,
617 cognition can be conscious or subconscious, in turn this illustrates the difficulty and
618 indeed limitations of capturing subconscious cognitive processes. Put simply, there is
619 an inherent need for coaches to provide instruction and feedback as integral parts of
620 the coaching process – each of which constrains the coaches’ verbalisations.

621 Whilst the use of Think Aloud Protocol has provided insight into the cognitive
622 processes of coaches practising *in situ*, sessions that demand high levels of coach-
623 player interactions place restrictions on how much data can be collected using this
624 method. For example, at times, it was observed by the researcher that some coaches
625 expressed difficulty with verbalising their thoughts due to the need to deliver

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626 feedback and interact with players. Therefore, some verbalisations were intentionally
627 quiet. This, therefore, was problematic for the researcher to know to what extent
628 coaches were verbalising their cognitions within sessions. However, a greater focus
629 on how coaches are trained using this method is likely to impact both the quantity and
630 quality of data. For example, it may be more beneficial to have coaches practice
631 Think Aloud Protocol in coaching sessions, rather than during session run throughs.

632 In terms of research quality and rigor, this study presents a reflexive account
633 of the methodological and procedural issues that were faced, such as, the problems
634 that coaches encountered when attempting to verbalise cognition in the act of
635 coaching. This study demonstrates credibility by the explicit sharing of quotations
636 from the coaches and the elaboration of how the data link to aspects of the wider
637 context. In terms of credibility, the extended discussion conveys a level of rich
638 description, which helps to contextualise selected quotations. Moreover, this is
639 important in bridging some of the more abstract concepts (e.g., higher psychological
640 functions) with the real-world verbalisations.

641 Finally, in conjunction with cognitive processes, coaches are also presented
642 with the issue of if, when, and how to respond. Clearly, the relationship between
643 cognition and action is inherently complex - not all cognitions lead to action as
644 coaches have an internal threshold of acceptability. Consequently, this research has
645 drawn upon the notion of triggers and thresholds to explain how the link between
646 cognition and (delayed) action can be considered.

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