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1	Developing team decision making: A holistic framework integrating both on-field and
2	off-field pedagogical coaching processes.
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#### Abstract

This paper explores the complexity of developing decision-making skills in team 34 sports. Research from the domains of motor control, perception and pedagogy 35 (Teaching Games for Understanding and Game Sense) has significantly enhanced 36 37 our knowledge of decision-making in sport. However, such studies although contributing knowledge, have explored elements of decision-making in isolation 38 and many have failed to consider the naturalistic context in which decisions are 39 Additionally research has often ignored the complexity of exploring 40 made. decision-making within a team setting. Using the Naturalistic Decision Making 41 paradigm, this paper proposes two interconnected models designed to develop 42 individual/team decision making. Model 1 presents a layering approach where 43 performer's cognitions, situational factors and the performance setting are 44 explored. Model 2 places this framework in the context of on-field and off-field 45 training/competitive environments. It is envisaged that this paper will open 46 discussions as to how researchers and practitioners develop decision-making skills 47 in team sports. 48

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**Keywords**: reflective practice; team sports; tactical; mental models; team development

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#### 53 Introduction

It has been well documented that perception is vital to the development of decision making (hereafter DM) in team sports (Williams, 2009). Unfortunately, limited consideration has been directed towards exploring the influence of the playing context in which such decisions are made (cf. Bar-Eli, Plessner, & Raab, 2011) and the significant role of the player's own subjective, cognitively-based perception relating to these situations. Consequently, coaches need to appreciate how the playing context influences what information players perceive, attend to and prioritise whilst playing.

Our point here is that 'mainstream' sport science research seems to have addressed too 61 narrow a band of the factors which, through complex interplay, enable the DM process to take 62 place in high pressure, time limited settings. Moreover this is often performed with initially 63 disparate groups of players in ways that seek to gain their commitment, buy-in and, eventually 64 cognitive investment to build a shared understanding. For example, perceptual elements are 65 66 clearly crucial, and a substantial literature has addressed this in sports settings. There is a comparative dearth of research however, which shows how individual perceptions can be 67 made more similar and, even more crucially, how these more common perceptions can be 68 used to generate common but effective DM strategies and outcomes. Simply put, coaches 69 seem to be waiting for science to address what is a central but neglected concern. 70

Of course, DM in team sports is much more than a collection of separate activities (Williams, 2009). Rather, it requires a complex and dynamic integration of several elements and processes, which simultaneously and dynamically interact. These processes include the interaction between situational/tactical aspects (e.g., teammates, opposition, area of the pitch) and strategic factors (team philosophy and match objectives), both of which must be similarly applied by all team members, often without any overt in-game communication, through the development and application of a Shared Mental Model or SMM (Richards, Collins, &Mascarenhas, 2012).

#### 79 Developing team DM: What do we know and what do we need?

Confusion still exists amongst practitioners and researchers with regard to the precise mechanisms which should be used to develop expert decision makers within applied sporting contexts. Williams (2009) recognises the valuable contribution of existing research in the area of DM, but suggests that investigating perceptual skills in isolation of the performance setting may have inflated the contribution these make in competition.

Of course, we acknowledge that the motoric and perceptual elements of technique are 85 fundamental to the development of DM skills in team sports. A significant amount of research 86 has identified the perceptual cognitive skills which are essential to the DM process (Starkes & 87 Ericson, 2003; Williams, 2009). Such research informs us about a wide range of factors, 88 including what cues skilled performers use to assess the opposition's movements (Williams, 89 2009), what stimuli are identified in recognising play patterns (Klein, 1993; Williams 2009) 90 91 and at what stage this information is attended to in dynamic play situations (North & Williams, 2008). In addition, research has highlighted the importance of visual search 92 behaviours in skilled performers (Williams, 2009) and the need to use cue identification and 93 anticipation to inform DM (Caserta, Young, & Janelle, 2005; Williams, 2009). Other crucial 94 elements have been comparatively neglected, such as how commonality of perception is 95 encouraged and how this information, once established, can best be used to generate optimum 96 styles of DM through essential cognitive processes, both within individuals and across teams. 97 As a vital next step therefore, practitioners need to take responsibility for understanding and 98 99 designing training environments that integrate the player's subjective cognitive perceptions of the situations within the context of the performance setting. 100

The development of high quality team decision makers therefore appears to be more 101 complex than just facilitating a perceptual recognition or problem solving approach in training 102 environments (although both of these significantly enhance our understanding of the process). 103 Numerous theories relating to DM exist (see Bar-Eli et al., 2011) but only a limited number 104 explore the process of DM in the sporting context. Each of these theories provides a valuable 105 contribution to our understanding of the DM process in sport. However, most explore an 106 aspect of DM in isolation and ignore the complexity of the dynamic competitive situations in 107 which several components interact. 108

We propose that the nature of DM in invasion sports lends itself to the Naturalistic 109 Decision Making (NDM) paradigm, where decisions in sport are performed in complex and 110 often unpredictable conditions, in pressurised situations and with extreme time constraints 111 (Klein, 2008). NDM researchers seek to investigate how experts perform tasks in dynamic 112 environments which have ill-structured problems, shifting and changing objectives, time 113 constraints, include multiple players and are influenced by organisational goals. All these 114 characteristics are representative of high performance team sport environments. 115 116 Unfortunately, such a real world approach, heavily laden with contextual information, has 117 often been neglected in perception-action research where such information has a bidirectional link between perceptions and actions (Beilock, 2009). Accordingly, this paper will explore the 118 119 specific NDM theories of Recognition Primed Decision making (RPD), Situational Awareness (SA) and sensemaking (Klein, Phillips, Rall & Peluso, 2007) in context of the 120 proposed framework (see Figure 1 and 2). Each approach makes a valuable and distinctive 121 contribution individually but when collectively integrated, they provide a comprehensive 122 justification of the possible mechanisms through which DM might be developed in sport. 123 Supporting our integration of these constructs within a single framework, Bar-Eli et al. (2011) 124 proposed that our understanding of the DM process will only be improved by applying 125 theories directly into the sporting environment. The authors suggest that specific situations 126

may require the development of specialised models that can be applied to the dynamic contextof the sporting setting (Richards et al, 2012).

As applied practitioners working with elite sports teams developing DM skills, we propose 129 that there are three factors that are worthy of consideration. Firstly, in examining the context 130 of the situation, we need to be cognisant of the unique characteristics of the team, such as 131 tactical plans and the team's philosophy; such aspects guide the application of the team 132 developing a SMM (Richards et al., 2009, 2012). Secondly, presuming that team players are 133 134 attending to, perceiving and valuing elements of the performance display in a similar fashion, then subsequently such team philosophy and game plans will shape players' actions thus 135 directing what information players then attend to. Thirdly the literature needs to present, test 136 and refine DM models and explore how DM characteristics can best be developed in team 137 players. This paper proposes that team DM is developed by layering information (Figure 1) 138 using two dual processes (Figure 2) which illustrates the interaction between an off-field 139 reflective environment and the on-field in action training and competitive environments. 140

The framework highlights how individual cognitive thought processes can be collectively 141 developed in a progressive manner to establish a collective mind set (Weick & Roberts, 1993) 142 and develop shared mental models (Oranasanu & Salas, 1993) of performance which can then 143 be effectively communicated on the field of play. The complexity of developing team 144 decision making is too dynamic and multifactorial to be illustrated singularly in one simple 145 diagram. The framework proposed in this paper consists of two interconnected models. We 146 147 believe it is only when elements relating to DM are explored holistically in a connected manner can we truly understand the process of developing team DM. The holistic elements 148 manifest themselves in several ways. For the moment, consider the importance of combining 149 perceptual and decision making elements of motor control, the social support generated 150 within a team by self-constructed elements such as key terms and the integration of these 151 within a practical and effective model. All these elements are combined in the approach we 152

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describe, leading to the use of the term holistic as a hopefully justifiable description. The
reader is referred to Richards et al (2012) for an illustrated example of the framework being
applied to an international netball team.

#### 156 The two model process – How each contributes

Model 1 illustrates the psychomotor processes which are required to develop a shared team 157 cognitive thought process, which itself is positioned within the context of the team's playing 158 philosophy. We advocate that developing team DM skills requires pedagogical process to 159 extend beyond enhancing individual cognitions to integrate the development of shared team 160 cognitions (Oranasanu & Salas, 1993) and the development of a connected thought process 161 (Weick & Roberts, 1993). Such processes require information to be seen and valued in the 162 same way by all team members, resulting in the construction of SMMs of performance. 163 Player's individual cognitive thought process are collectively co-ordinated through the 164 pedagogical process of layering information outlined in Model 1, which facilitates members 165 of the team valuing, perceiving and interpreting information in the same connected manner. 166 The ability of all team members to perceive and value dynamic playing situations in the same 167 way, facilitates key information being more effectively attended to and communicated. 168 Model 1 therefore outlines the concepts which necessitate the development of five layers of 169 information which are required to develop team DM (see Figure 1 – what to coach). Each of 170 the layers involves feedback and feed-forward mechanisms, facilitating a cyclical process for 171 continual learning and development of playing constructs. Although illustrated separately to 172 provide clarification for the reader, the five phases continually interact and define each other. 173 Through the process of player empowerment, each of the layers addresses the development of 174 cognitive structures (RPD), mental models (MM) and shared mental models (SMM) and the 175 contextualisation of these structures in the specific environmental situations (Situational 176 177 Awareness).

178 Model 2 in the second section of the paper illustrates the pedagogical process involved in co-ordinating individual perceptual representations of playing situations, so a collective team 179 cognitive thought process can be obtained. The second model (Figure 2 - how to coach) 180 demonstrates an empirically tested framework that illustrates the interaction between the slow 181 deliberate reflective off-field environment and the rapid on-field competitive environment 182 with the focus of developing team DM. We argue that team DM is developed through a 183 combination of two very different DM paradigms. A slow deliberate reflective off-field 184 training context (more akin to Classical Decision Making; CDM) where mental models are 185 constructed and which simultaneously connects to the in-action high pressurised on-field 186 environment (aligned more with the NDM theoretical approach; see Klein et al, 2007); where 187 mental models are applied and used to inform in action decisions collectively as a team 188 (Merola & Richards, 2010; Richards et al., 2012). It is proposed that team decision making 189 requires the complex interaction of psychomotor (e.g. technical execution, cue identification, 190 interpretation of situational information and physical movement etc.) and psychosocial 191 192 processes (e.g. creating of a shared vision and common language amongst coaches and players within the context of shared team philosophy). The creation of pedagogical processes 193 which address psychomotor and psychosocial mechanisms are outlined in Model 1 and 2 and 194 195 results in the effective identification, interpretation and communication of key information in competitive situations, eventuating in successful team play. 196

# Model 1- Developing decision-making in team sports: Cognitive layering and contextualisation

Model 1 proposes that the complexity of improving and developing DM skills in team sports demands that we consider the integration of three components; the technical skills required to be executed, the tactical understanding of the play when performed in real-time; and the coordination of all of these aspects by players collectively as a team; all within the particular context of the situation in which the decision is framed (Richards et al., 2012).

# 205 Developing a performance vision: Layer 1.

206 The initial phase of the model (Figure 1) involves the establishment of the performance vision (which includes team trademarks and generation of concepts) which contribute to the team's 207 playing philosophy. The establishment of the team's concepts is crucial as these provide the 208 209 framework that will direct attentional focus and determine how knowledge is clustered (Merola & Richards, 2010). Constructing these concepts in this early phase is initially shaped by the 210 coach's vision of what the 'ideal' performance will ultimately look like for this particular set of 211 players (an *alpha version* of the performance vision, see Richards et al., 2012). Only when this 212 alpha version of performance is established can it be divided into small aspects of play: for 213 example, an attacking centre pass in netball or an attacking pattern of play in hockey. 214

During the sporting programme, the coach's vision of performance is reshaped as players are 215 actively encouraged and empowered to contribute to the performance vision (Bate & Richards, 216 2011; Merola & Richards, 2010). The incorporation of the player's perspective (bottom-up 217 218 approach; Richards et al., 2009; 2012) reshapes the coach's initial vision (alpha version) and results in the construction of the new final beta version. This refinement process is crucial in 219 gaining buy-in from players and will facilitate a deeper and more meaningful engagement with 220 221 the DM process. The outcome of which is the establishment of a shared team perception, shared language and collective thinking; players are genuinely empowered as they are working within a 222 structure which they helped to create. 223

This collective performance vision (beta version) results in the construction of MMs that represent key aspects of performance. Mental models have been simply defined as '... internal representations of the external world... [which] represent the experts understanding of the situation' (Serfaty, MacMillan, Entin, & Entin, 1997, p.235). They provide information about a situation to initially direct attention, then rapidly classify the information and interpret meaning

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from it (Rouse et al., 1992). MMs are only valuable to the individuals who construct them (Westbrook, 2006) so it is important that coaches facilitate opportunities for players (both individually and collectively) to contribute to the development of MMs and subsequently SMMs (Eccles & Tenenbaum, 2004). The development of a team specific, SMM would demonstrate a collective understanding of a situation in which players are able to execute the specific roles in a coordinated manner to achieve the same perceived outcome (Richards et al., 2009).

Serfaty et al. (1997) elaborate on the concepts of MMs stating that '... expert memory 235 236 consists of an array of patterns with information items grouped and indexed by their relevance for problem solving in the domain of expertise' (p. 235). This perhaps accounts for the 237 difference between the tactical MMs of an advanced sport performer and those of a novice. 238 The creation of such cognitive internalised structures by players (Richards et al., 2009) 239 provides a framework to structure, order and prioritise relevant information, thus facilitating 240 correct decisions. The formulation of these MMs also enables individuals to learn and 241 comprehend the nature of the situation more quickly (Ross, Battaglia, Phillips, Domeshek, & 242 243 Lussier, 2003).

The establishment of the shared performance vision enables information to be transferred and integrated from a top-down knowledge process (alpha performance vision) and a bottom-up knowledge process (MMs and SMMs – developed by players and coaches) simultaneously (Richards et al., 2009). It is these two interactive processes, which are instrumental in shaping the development of DM.

The top-down knowledge process provides the framework in which the beta version of performance can be subdivided into relevant playing aspects. This division enables aspects of performance to be identified and split into more manageable chunks and priorities (e.g., attacking play patterns might be a priority). These key aspects of performance (each one relating to the performance vision) are then rebuilt through the bottom-up knowledge process. Such MMs incorporate players' skill sets, individual roles, team principles of play and recognition of situational factors. This process enables players to cluster information and construct internalised plans (Bates & Richards, 2011; Richards et al., 2012), which facilitate improved DM at an individual, unit and team level.

### 258 *Perceptual drive and technical execution: Layer 2.*

Technical executions have a direct link to both tactical and strategic layers of the DM process. 259 There is a complex exchange of knowledge and information across the respective knowledge 260 layers, which dictate that several cognitive processes are occurring simultaneously. Shared MMs 261 are driving a top-down approach, influencing cue identification. In this process, players' 262 commonly agree a weighting scale for which factors in any display are the most pertinent. 263 Simultaneously, perceptions of environmental cues (bottom-up) are governing the recognition of 264 tactical patterns (utilising experience), which, in turn are determining what technique will be 265 executed by the player. This process is complex but of relevance here, as the process by which 266 cues are recognised and interpreted determines the action (preparatory movement) taken by 267 individual players prior to the execution of technical skills, therefore resulting in superior skill 268 execution. Notably, Starkes, and Ericsson (2003) confirmed that the way in which technical and 269 tactical skills interact is complex and not well understood. 270

271 Importantly, the development of sport skills requires two-stages (Dunn, 2006). This includes the player acquiring a range of technical skills, as well as an established link to where and when 272 in the game context they would be used. Dunn (2006) also proposed that the level of tactical 273 knowledge in novice performers and their DM ability could exceed their technical ability to 274 execute these skills in a performance context. This further reinforces the importance of technical 275 276 skills, which are continually emphasized by elite coaches. Indeed, we would suggest that the limited ability to execute skills influences the tactical options taken within a playing context. For 277 example in field hockey, a player without the technical ability to produce an aerial pass would 278

remove that tactical option; in short, they would not look for it so hardly ever see it. Similarly, the limited technical ability to pass using either hand in netball/basketball determines the tactical decision that is made. The way in which this technical deficiency impacts on DM has yet to be discerned although, anecdotally at least, it seems that players without a particular skill fail even to consider, let alone see the options related to their weakness. Unsurprisingly therefore, French, Spurgeon and Nevett, (1995) concluded that technical skill was a distinguishing factor in determining a player's performance level.

It therefore appears that the layering approach outlined in this paper presents a possible rationale for building decision-making knowledge (technical, tactical and strategic) as a mechanism to develop DM capabilities. Furthermore, the layering of information must consider the technical component performed within the tactical situation, so that both are contextualised within the performance vision (objective). In light of this, we propose that different theories located within the NDM paradigm could collectively (rather than singly) provide the best possible framework for developing team DM.

Pertinent to such challenges, RPD (Klein, 1998) proposes a dual system, which integrates 293 intuition and subjective analysis of the situation. The application of RPD (see also Klein, 1993) 294 to team sports enables us to gain an understanding of what cues are attended to, together with 295 how they are prioritised and used to inform and influence decisions. In field hockey for example, 296 at a basic level the cues from where an attacker is carrying the ball and the angle of the stick will 297 inform the defender of potential moves that the attacking player might take. Hence, these cues 298 299 facilitate decisions as to what actions the defender might initiate, such as which technique for tackling will be implemented. At a more complex level these technical cues, combined with 300 identified elements from the tactical environment (thus combining layers 2 and 3 of the DM 301 process), would inform what decisions might be taken at an individual level and collectively at a 302 defensive team level (action involving multiple players). By contrast, a reliance on a cue-only 303 driven approach (bottom-up) would often result in DM errors such as defending the option being 304

'shown' by the attacker but permitting a pass which carries greater threat to the team. Clearly,
reliance on intuition alone is too risky as pattern matching can generate flaws in perception
(Klein, 2008).

Klein's (1993) cue based RPD model incorporates both intuition and analysis of situations (Klein, 2008) and can be used to some extent but not solely, to explain basic DM in sport. However, as proposed in the first model (Figure 1) there also needs to be an established link of technical skill proficiency to the competitive context (Bock-Jonathon, Venter, & Bressen, 2007). This lends additional support to the layering of technical, tactical and strategic approaches as proposed in this paper.

### 314 *Tactical and situational awareness development: Layer 3.*

This third layer of the model indicates the development of cognitive knowledge structures (MMs 315 and eventually SMMs) relating to tactical play, which incorporate situational factors and visual 316 cues. DM at the expert level requires both individuals and teams to adapt their knowledge to the 317 complexity of the situation in which they are playing (termed macro-cognition; see Klein 2008). 318 319 Making effective decisions requires MMs to be constructed that are unique to specific situations (e.g., attacking play from the left defense). The nature of the situation (for example attacking 320 verses defensive situations) will require a different DM engagement. Such cognitive 321 322 representations are driven by the experience of the player and the playing philosophy established by the team (utilising top-down knowledge processing). This process occurs simultaneously, as 323 the player is actively perceiving their current performance context (location on field, position of 324 teammate and opposition, plus other contextual factors); making sense of the current performance 325 situation they are participating in (bottom-up knowledge processing) within the context of the 326 327 team playing philosophy (top-down knowledge processing). To gain an understanding of these concepts within the performance context warrants the additional inclusion of a situational 328

awareness framework as a theoretical approach to justify the importance of the environment inwhich decisions are made.

331 Situational Awareness (SA) proposes a hierarchical model (Endsley & Garland, 2008) 332 consisting of three levels. Level 1 involves the perception of important cues. Level 2 is 333 concerned with the comprehension of these cues and level 3 allow individuals to predict future 334 situations by integrating past experience to the situation. Caserta and Singer (2007) proposed that 335 level 3 Situational awareness distinguishes elite from non-elite performers in any domain.

Pertinently for applied practice, this paper proposes that such situational specific knowledge structures (MMs/SMMs) are developed through the combined interaction of off-field, slow reflective deliberate environments (team meetings etc.) and on-field dynamic training/matches environment (see Figure 2). The development of MMs for specific situations enables players and teams to attend to information that is agreed as being significant. Players then prioritise and order this information so that the correct course of action can be followed (Bate & Richards, 2011; Thevenot, 2009).

As a further element, combining the contributions of RPD and SA, Klein et al's (2007) 343 concept of sensemaking makes a valuable contribution to enhancing our understanding of 344 how MMs are developed. Sensemaking goes beyond the comprehension of environmental 345 cues and the reader is encouraged to read Klein et al, (2007) for a comprehensive account of 346 The Data-Frame Sensemaking Theory. Sensemaking proposes an approach in which the 347 experience of the individual (we propose also the experience of the team) can be used to 348 'frame' (comprehend) a playing situation. As the players and team collectively 'frame' the 349 situation (place it in context of previous experiences), data points (performance cues) in 350 competition can be interpreted and collectively responded to. Sensemaking facilitates the 351 performer (we argue also the team) establishing connections and relationships between 352 environmental cues. Such visual perceptions are contextualised within previous playing 353 experience (individual/team). The construction of slow, deliberate, learning situations, 354

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whereby individuals are empowered to reflect and contribute to providing a solution (Figure 2), results in the content of these situations being internalised and stored by players/teams (Richards et al., 2009, 2012). This produces an increasingly robust mental model where, in future situations, information perceived in the environment is matched, enabling rapid execution of technical and tactical skills (Bate & Richards, 2011).

While we await investigation of sensemaking in sport, the implication for coaches is that the 360 information necessary to formulate MMs and SMMs requires development in a progressive and 361 362 logical manner. This will incorporate the perception of the situation together with cue recognition. As generations of the playing concepts develop, both in variation (specific to 363 situations) and detail, the playing philosophy of the team moves from providing the simplest 364 answer to a more complex, strategy-based approach as multi-play patterns are developed. In this 365 regard, the update of information we gain relating to MMs enables the models to be modified and 366 refined in light of new experiences (Kessler, Duwe, & Strohmer, 1999). The engagement in slow 367 deliberate reflective processes during off-field team meetings not only updates team MM/SMMs 368 but creates a simulation environment where solutions are discussed which relate to future playing 369 370 situations. This team simulation process (Klein, 2008) contributes to an improvement in the 371 consistency of team decision in a competitive context. It is a crucial facet through which SMMs are developed as genuinely shared, rather than just a conglomeration or averaging of different 372 373 individuals viewpoints. In short, what is developed is a real shared vision - a team vision rather than some political compromise. The team parameters which impact on shaping the 374 development of a team's vision are multifactorial (see Richards et al 2009) and include 375 player/team maturity, empowerment process and experience to mention only a few. 376

# 377 Strategic development: Layer 4.

In the fourth stage of the model, team members are perceiving the situation (perceptual cues, knowledge structures) in the same way by placing the same value on key markers (cues) in the environment. Through having a common perception, the team can now generate a reduced

number of plausible options (playing actions) by having a commonly agreed assessment of the 381 situation. Where an obvious playing option has been perceived this will be taken. Difficulty 382 arises when several options present themselves which all relate to achieving the same team 383 outcome. In such situations we would argue that the agreed team SMM (players perceiving the 384 situations the same) results in the team intuitively considering perhaps only one or two possible 385 options. Notably, however, this intuitive understanding has arisen from the slow deliberate 386 reflective team meetings and associated discussion. Thus, through 'satisficing' (see Simons, 387 1957), the team collectively takes an option, which will produce a successful outcome. 388

The final challenge for sports coaches developing DM skills in a team context is the 389 construction of communication and coordination processes. The success of team performance is 390 reliant on tasks being simultaneously performed by multiple or cooperating individuals. 391 Therefore, individual's tasks, language, thinking and schema need to be coordinated and 392 integrated (Eccles & Tenenbaum, 2004). In team sport, success will frequently be determined, 393 not only by the contribution of the team member's skill-sets (layer 2) but also through the 394 395 coordinated and integrated manner in which the perception, decisions and actions of the team are executed. In order for the team to perform in this coordinated manner, members must share a 396 common perception of the objectives of the task (game plan) and the approaches required to 397 achieve success (team principles of play). This shared approach or common way of thinking is 398 developed through SMMs and represents the highest strategic level of DM required at the elite 399 levels in team sports. 400

Although SMMs have been recognised as a method for studying skilled performance in teams (Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Converse, 1990), the exploration of SMMs in a sporting context has been limited. Yet it seems logical that the integration of multiple tasks and roles of individuals need to be communicated and coordinated in environments where the dynamic nature and speed of task execution limits discussions. At the same time, situations must be similarly perceived if they are to be collectively responded to in order to achieve the team's objective. Bridging this 407 apparent conundrum, SMMs provide a structure for teams to share a common perception of the 408 expected outcome of a situation (winning a game) and the process required to achieve this 409 (understanding of the coordination of individuals' roles). SMMs also act to speed-up and ease 410 communication. For example, Heath (1991), working with a baseball team, highlighted how 411 developing SMMs reduced the need for prolonged and explicated communication within the 412 team.

#### 413 Beta vision of performance: Layer 5.

When collectively performed, the development of the SMM at the strategic level results in 414 delivery of the beta-version of performance in the competitive setting (Richards et al, 2009). This 415 will, in theory, consistently produce the 'ideal' performance. Of course, this vision of 416 performance is continually being reshaped and developed by coaches and players throughout the 417 duration of the team's life cycle. The extent to which this final stage is successful is very much 418 419 influenced by the quality of the previous layers of tactical recognition, technical execution of skills and the development of shared cognitive frameworks. In practical terms, some would 420 421 propose that it is rarely, if ever, achieved. However, pursuit of this ideal through the methods described above is arguably the best way in which high levels of performance can be realised. 422

# 423 Model 2 – Developing rapid high-pressure decision-making through slow deliberation

Figure 2 presents a dual process model in which rapid, high-pressured, team DM can be 424 425 developed in dynamic competitive situations, through slow deliberate conscious off-field learning combined with on field experience in games and training. The model has been empirically tested 426 and proved successful in field-hockey (Richards et al., 2009); football (Bate & Richards, 2011; 427 Merola & Richards, 2010) and netball (see Richards et al., 2012). The model proposes that, in 428 order to develop team DM skills, practitioners need to develop dual learning systems which 429 incorporate a slow deliberate reflective environment (off-field) and a dynamic performance 430 environment (on-field) where applied experience and knowledge is ascertained and 'automated'. 431

Both of these environments integrate the knowledge structures presented in the first section ofthis paper.

Such dual processes draw parallels and relevance to other DM research situated outside of 434 sport in two respects. Firstly, there is considerable evidence that people make decisions by 435 utilising their previous experiences (Klein, 2008; Lipshitz, 1993). The recognition that an 436 individual uses previous experiences to make decisions in real-world situations is reliant on both 437 their perception and recognition of the situation. Secondly, the proposal that DM requires dual 438 439 systems, which are responsible for directing attentional focus has been substantially investigated (Epstein, 1994; Evans 2008). Examples include Kahneman (2003) proposing his System 1 and 440 System 2; and perhaps more significantly in context of this paper, the work by Eysenck, 441 Derkshan, Santos and Calvo (2007) on Attentional Control Theory. Both of these approaches 442 propose that decisions cannot be made solely on the intuitive instincts of an individual. The 443 process ideally involves both intuitions and analysis of the situation (a dual system). 444

445 Eysenck et al. (2007) also made reference to a dual system and proposed that individuals have a goal-directed attentional system and a stimulus driven system. In pressurised situations, 446 according to Eysenck et al. (2007), there is less reliance on the goal-directed attention system 447 (our equivalent of the top-down system) and more reliance on the cue driven system (cf. Bishop, 448 Duncan, Brett, & Lawrence, 2004) to shape decisions (our bottom-up approach). This would 449 explain the decrease in quality of DM evident in highly pressurised matches, supporting the need 450 for a dual system. In these circumstances, players often revert back to processing instant cues in 451 452 their environment, which is often less helpful as it is not informed by the large context (game objectives) in which the decision is made. So there appears to be growing and independent 453 support for the principle that the complexity of DM requires more than one system to process 454 information. 455

Model 2 illustrates the cyclic link where knowledge is developed simultaneously in both off-456 field and on-field environments (dual process). The integration of the off-field environment 457 (e.g., team discussion and reflection) into the coaching process, in which performers are 458 empowered to discuss and explore aspects relating to play; combined with on-field experiences 459 results in the development of enhanced team DM. The cycle relationship between on-field and 460 off-field environments facilitates the development of a team direct stimulus system (off-field) and 461 an intuitive experienced based system (on-field) team decision making framework. The off-field 462 environment facilitates the development of robust SMM which players personalised to their 463 playing position and in doing so construct internalised plans (understanding of their own role in 464 that specific situation, Richards et al, 2009). The establishment of the SMM and internalised 465 plans are utilised in future playing situations, allowing deployment of enhanced rapid DM skills 466 (Richards et al., 2012). 467

468 Model 2 (see Figure 2) presents a three phase approach to developing team DM. The model incorporates both feedback and feed-forward mechanisms, creating a cyclic link between 469 470 continual learning and the evolution of playing constructs. The three phases are distinctly different and are responsible for developing cognitive structures (MMs/SMMs outlined in model 471 1) in relation to the specific performance contexts. The creation of these knowledge structures 472 473 facilitates the players (individually or collectively) attending to agreed information in the performance environment. Once information is attended to, it is prioritised and ordered in 474 relation to agreed principles of play, enabling the correct action of play to be executed 475 individually or collectively as a team. 476

477

# [INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE]

478 *Model 2: Phase 1* 

The first phase of the model highlights the establishment and generation of playing concepts.
The complexity of these concepts (MMs) will very much depend on the performance level
parameters of the individuals and the team. Constructing a shared understanding of the team's

objectives allows the development of team principles. These principles also allow the concepts to be recognised in play and are essential in establishing subsequent SMMs. Establishing a shared player perception of playing concepts (playing philosophy) and the generation of playing principles that underpin these playing concepts, results in the development of a shared language that can be used to further develop teamwork (Mascarenhas & Smith, 2011).

#### 488 *Model 2: Phase 2*

The second phase of the model relates to the development and enrichment of knowledge structures. A combination of empirical and experiential evidence suggests that, in order to develop rapid DM skills in individuals and teams in competitive situations, the process of slow, deliberate learning is required. Without this, developing a team's understanding of concepts and transferring such knowledge to competitive situations is limited, resulting in a 'recipe' or 'Standard Operational Procedure' style of DM, often choreographed by the coach.

Most playing concepts (phase 1) are developed through team meetings of various styles, 495 where the use of video and performance analysis is increasingly common. In most situations, 496 497 clips are presented to the players where aspects relating to the video are reviewed. Through slow deliberate and conscious team discussions, the video is explored and a group decision is 498 made with regard to the best option to take. Reflecting on these situations and identifying the 499 500 important aspects of each clip enables SMMs to be constructed. This employs a slow deliberate approach to DM to develop a subsequent NDM application in the performance 501 setting. Engaging in such slow deliberative processes enables similar situations in future 502 games to be responded to at a quicker rate and more successfully (cf. Mascarenhas, Collins, 503 Mortimer, & Morris, 2005). 504

The creation of this slow, deliberate environment must also address the development of knowledge structures that are specific to the situation. Reviewing the situation at a descriptive level is not sufficient to improve DM. The development of more elaborate, often multiple

option SMMs for specific situations can more effectively guide the attention of the performer 508 to the relevant aspects of the display. This shared perception also facilitates a collective 509 approach to the situation where individuals have a clear understanding of their own role in the 510 situation, as well as the action required by others within the context, in addition to 511 understanding the actions being performed by the opposition. A shared perception and 512 common understanding of situations produces a higher level of connectivity between players 513 as well as an agreed team approach to addressing the situation. This also leads to the 514 development of a common language, enabling players to have an agreed understanding of a 515 situation where the execution of action by multiple players can be verbalised in just one or 516 517 two words (Richards et al., 2012).

As the playing concepts develop both in variation (specific to situations) and detail, a parallel development occurs with established, team specific SMMs. Original, simple SMMs develop in complexity to match the increasing complexity of multiple patterns of tactical play. This deliberate knowledge environment then shapes both the development and interaction of offfield and on-field practices.

# 523 *Model 2: Phase 3*

In the third phase of the model, the cognitive structures are applied to the competitive situation. The application of these structures to the performance setting enables individuals to execute technical and tactical skills successfully. Additionally, the team specific SMM facilitates greater and more effective connective play. This is evident in multiple play patterns being created by teams. The shared perception of the preferred option is recognised and communicated by teammates, resulting in coordinated actions of multiple players.

The link between the slow deliberate environment (where constructs are created) and the applied environment (where the constructs are executed) is facilitated by an interacting pair of feed-forward and feedback mechanisms. These mechanisms enable the complexity of SMM to be developed as the team progresses to higher playing standards. The mechanisms also provide a process where the models are continually evaluated for their effectiveness, as boththe individual and the team reflect both on and in action.

#### 536 Conclusion and moving to the next step

In this paper we presented an empirically tested framework for developing team decision 537 making. The model has been developed over 15 years of elite coaching practice and is 538 informed and influenced by both academic research and practical understanding. 539 We apologise if the level of referencing is a distraction to readers but, we suggest, the complexity 540 of team decision making requires the integration and understanding of several key concepts. 541 each originating from a specific and different discipline. Each of these disciplines (motor 542 543 control, social psychology, cognitive psychology, NDM and pedagogical preprocess) have influenced our understanding of how team decision making is developed. Unfortunately, 544 however, many authors (both applied and academic) have to date explored decision making 545 through use of these various disciplines in isolation. We have focused not just on the 546 messages from several disciplines but, more particularly, on their integration; considering the 547 548 interactive and complimentary influences as well. We commend this approach to practitioners and researchers alike. 549

In summary this paper presented a five stage framework which incorporates a holistic 550 551 approach to developing team decision making. The paper addresses the development of rapid high speed DM processes (in competition) whilst integrating the development of SMMs and 552 cohesive structures within the team's social milieu. Reflecting this essential complementarity, 553 554 we suggest that the development of individual and team DM skills in sport cannot be developed effectively without the use of a slow, deliberate, off field reflective environment 555 and the application of this slow deliberate thinking into the applied tactical knowledge 556 environment (performance context). The decision making process is complex and 557 multifactorial as it involves classical and naturalistic approaches; on-field and off-field 558 559 environments and the integration of top-down and bottom-up approaches. We would stress that much of what is proposed here has been tested empirically in high level sport. This is a genuinely workable solution to a real life issue. By providing coaches with the step-by-step logic through which the model has been derived, we hope that the understanding of these parallel processes has been developed to the degree necessary to enable them to take and apply the model in their own team settings.

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