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What are we trying to achieve?

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The nature of sports coach development in China: What are we trying to achieve?

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Abstract

Coach education and continuing career development have become a significant focus of global discussion within the sport domain. Current mainstream strategies for developing and assessing coaches in most countries, including China, are based on competency-based systems. However, there are many shortcomings of this system, especially when considering the varied practical challenges and needs of coaches and athletes; in short, such an approach does not facilitate enough adaptability. The purpose of this article is to critically review the literature, exploring both competence- and expertise-based coach development systems and their implications for coaching practice in China. Firstly, we introduce and discuss the competency-based approach, including its strengths and weaknesses and how this applies within the Chinese development system. Next, we introduce and evaluate an alternative, expertise-based development system characterised by adaptability and greater inclusiveness within the coaching domain, which is underpinned by a distinct set of cognitive decision making skills from the coach's perspective. In addition, we expand this discussion by explaining the implications of this approach for coach assessment and offer some future suggestions for research in this area.

Keywords: decision-making, education, expertise, social milieu

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43 **The nature of sports coach development in China: What are we trying to achieve?**

44 Globally, coach education and continuous professional development (CPD) have been a
45 significant focus of discussion and research as coaching becomes increasingly recognised as a
46 profession in its own right. Such discussion is truly worldwide (e.g., Callary & Gearity, 2019b),
47 including in the United States (Aoyama, 2003; Gilbert et al., 2009), New Zealand (Cassidy & Kidman,
48 2010), Canada (Edwards et al., 2020), the United Kingdom (Nelson et al., 2013) and China (Guan &
49 Zhang, 2008; Zhang, 2010). At the same time, research has identified that informal learning,
50 including self-directed learning experiences (Wright et al., 2007; Reade et al., 2008), past sporting
51 experiences (Stewart & Sweet, 1992; Cushion et al., 2003; He et al., 2018) and interactions with
52 other coaches (Abraham et al., 2006; Cassidy & Rossi, 2006) can all play a valuable role in coaches'
53 development and career advancement. However, the impact and role of formal learning cannot be
54 ignored, despite some evidence reporting its lack of impact for coaches' learning (Nelson et al.,
55 2013; Piggott, 2015). Indeed, we argue that achieving a coherent and complementary balance across
56 formal and informal activities is at the heart of effective coach development systems (see He et al.,
57 2018). Consequently, this article will address key outcomes and underpinning philosophy to ensure
58 improved effectiveness within the profession.

59 Taking China as the focus of this *Practical Advances* article, there is limited and only very
60 recent literature that shows a competency-based (teaching *what to do and how*) development
61 system to be characteristic of most formal coach education in mainstream sports (Chen & Chen,
62 2022). Specifically, there are two systems of coaching in China, one is the elite sports system and the
63 other is a school (mass sports) system, managed by the General Administration of Sports (GAS) and
64 the Ministry of Education (MoE), respectively. Both the GAS and MoE adopt a skill grading system as
65 a way of developing and promoting sports coaches' skills. Comparable with systems in other
66 countries, both have clearly defined the duties, qualifications, approval procedures and employment
67 methods for the different coaching levels, with the assessment organised by the appropriate level of
68 institution to evaluate theoretical knowledge and professional competence (Chen & Chen, 2022).

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69 Where the system in China differs, however, is the requirement for coaches to improve their political
70 awareness, publish academic articles at an international level, as well as demonstrating elite success
71 with athletes, for the highest grade of accreditation. Moreover, proficiency in a foreign language has
72 become one of the essential requirements for coaches in the revised grading system (State Ministry
73 of Personnel & National Sport Commission, 1994). Notably, this foreign language requirement has
74 been identified as a barrier to coach development with regards to understanding and speaking
75 English (He et al., 2018). In summary, the coaching pathway in China can be viewed as very formulaic
76 in terms of criteria that need to be achieved, with a focus on high academic qualifications and
77 international coaching success as requirements for the highest-level of accreditation.

78 Despite the competency-based system in China producing many successful coaches of elite
79 athletes, the problems it has revealed are diverse. Firstly, the development of coaches under the
80 school sports system is restricted by the influence of the 'Juguo Tizhi' policy; that is, the whole
81 country should focus on supporting the development of elite sport and specific sports with a strong
82 national identity (e.g., table tennis and football). Secondly, according to the regulation governing
83 coaches' development, senior coaches must submit a special application to the GAS to advance to
84 national level under the school system (General Administration of Sport of China, 2003). However,
85 details of this special application process are vague and unclear, which presents a barrier for
86 qualified coaches to progress (Chen & Chen, 2022). Thirdly, as the role of school coaches is often
87 played by college and university physical education teachers (not full-time professional coaches),
88 their CPD training and skills assessment is often lacking and aligned to the narrow agenda of the
89 government's policy, which affects the professional competence of school and mass coaches (Li,
90 2006). Fourthly, even for elite coaches, Wu and Wang (2016) found that their education level and
91 research capacity (i.e., academic skills) was low because they mostly entered their position following
92 retirement as athletes, which limited their opportunity for further development under a
93 competency-based development system. Reflecting the current approach, CPD in China can be
94 viewed as placing a large emphasis on theory at the expense of applied practice and/or experience

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95 (Wu et al., 2016). In this way, current coaching materials attach greater importance to traditional
96 disciplines (e.g., biomechanics and physiology) rather than the more holistic needs of coaches, such
97 as sports psychology, relationship management and motor skill development. Indeed, the idea of
98 interdisciplinarity, which is a prominent feature of participant development in the UK coaching
99 system (e.g., Bailey et al., 2010), is not strongly featured within the Chinese coach education agenda.
100 For instance, understanding how to use an interdisciplinary approach might include the effective
101 presentation of technical information to an athlete during the process of making small refinements
102 to their movement (Carson & Collins, 2017). Accordingly, a coach may offer video feedback and
103 consider the nature of verbal communication with the athlete to reflect the psychological challenge
104 involved when trying to interpret the information (e.g., being encouraging, guiding and sympathetic
105 to any confusion/misunderstanding/frustration/worry). In addition, the coach may utilise social
106 factors by providing an example of another athlete who is held in high regard, with similar body
107 dimensions and who can demonstrate the effective technique and/or demonstrated desirable
108 psycho-social skills (e.g., being open with their support team, having realistic goals throughout a
109 competitive season etc.) necessary to complete the intervention previously. Furthermore, the
110 interactive nature of these disciplines in applied practice, in addition to the decision making to
111 design and apply an optimum 'blend' for the context, are both lacking. As a result, the current
112 competency-based development system in China warrants critical evaluation.

113 Given the issue discussed above, research should begin to address many aspects of the
114 Chinese sports development and education system, including its aims and practices. In contrast to
115 competency-based (teaching *what to do and how to do it*) development systems, the current
116 coaching development literature proposes that a more appropriate expertise-based (teaching *what*
117 *to do, how* and understanding *why*) approach is more appropriate to meet the needs of different
118 sport participants (Collins et al., 2015b). Accordingly, in an attempt to accelerate the development of
119 coach education in China, the purpose of this paper is to present our insights as coach developers on
120 this important, yet relatively unaddressed (see Callary & Gearity, 2019b), topic. Specifically, we will

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121 comment on the literature exploring how coach education has been developed and assessed, the
122 most current approach and its implications for coaching practice in the context of our current
123 scientific knowledge regarding systems in China.

124 **What are we Developing and Assessing within Coach Education?**

125 **Competency-based Development Systems**

126 Within coach development programmes, presentation of what the coaching process consists
127 of has profound implications for how a coach conceptualises their work and for how the sports
128 industry understands high-level coaching. In this regard, a competency-based development system is
129 common in coach education that provides prescriptive actions for coaches within teaching materials
130 and syllabi, specifies training time and 'competency units'. In short, teach *this*, in *this* way.
131 Importantly, competencies are taught as a set of behaviours that a coach must be able to
132 demonstrate, such as a sporting technique (e.g., how to correctly execute an overhead serve in
133 badminton), the design of training sessions (e.g., warm up, explanation and demonstration of skill,
134 practice drills etc.) and management of risks (e.g., location of participants at a safe distance when
135 learning a racquet sport; Chinese Basketball Association, 2022; Chinese Badminton Association,
136 2021; Wang et al., 2021). Following a period of practice using these competencies, coaches are
137 assessed in an environment where these same behaviours are observed and evaluated by specialist
138 examiners. Although the accreditation content varies from country to country, the model or
139 framework for training and assessment described above is very similar and this development
140 pathway is considered central to the coaching support role (Trudel & Gilbert, 2006).

141 While there is recognised merit in coaches being competent in their delivery of content and
142 some situations requiring a black and white 'if this, then . . .' approach, many have critically argued
143 that, in real-world practice, the challenges faced by coaches are often characterised by complexity,
144 interdisciplinarity and uniqueness (Abraham & Collins, 2011; Collins et al., 2015a). In other words,
145 rather than coaching solutions being right or wrong or black and white, they are often differentially
146 effective based on a large range of factors (e.g., the amount of time afforded, athlete personality,

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147 injury status, etc.) which present a more nuanced 'shades of grey' understanding. In fact, even if
148 these differences are subtle, they are often meaningful towards the level of impact on participant
149 development and performance. That is, coaching behaviour is not a programmed formula that has
150 standard answers, but rather the result of considering myriad of influencing contextual variables
151 within a very specific situation (Jones, 1997). These factors include the type and demands of the
152 sport (e.g., Harvey et al., 2013), the age of the athlete (e.g., Partington et al., 2014), the gender of
153 the athlete (e.g., Millard, 1996), the skill level of the athlete (e.g. Markland & Martinek, 1988), the
154 philosophy of the coach (Cushion & Jones, 2001) and the stage of the season (e.g., Potrac et al.,
155 2002), to name only a small number; thus, testing the depth and breadth of the coach's knowledge
156 and their cognitive decision making ability. Effective coaching is therefore considered to require both
157 a broad and deep level of relevant subject knowledge pertaining to sporting, situational and
158 contextual variables (e.g., sport-specific, pedagogy and life skills), combined with a mastery of
159 practical approaches (e.g., prioritisation, video analysis and periodic performance reviews) to plan,
160 implement, progress and review participants' pathways (see Abraham et al., 2006). Considering
161 effective coaching with these factors in mind carries with it a significant cognitive load.
162 Consequently, there is a need to develop specialist, interdisciplinary knowledge to address
163 challenges in the professional environment, rather than relying on overly-simplistic, repetitive and
164 recipe-like solutions that might not address the complicated and most important of situationally-
165 dependent issues (Hoffman et al., 2012); in short, this need cannot be met solely by the
166 competency-based development system. Crucially for coach developers, the current mainstream
167 development pathway should, at the very least, be critically considered if it is to consistently
168 produce effective practitioners (Collins et al., 2015a).

169 Empirically, evidence has supported both the beneficial and limiting role of the competency-
170 based approach. Banack et al. (2012) found that novice cross-country skiing coaches were able to
171 effectively acquire an understanding of prescriptive concepts within talent development and employ
172 them within their coaching practice in a short time period. Demers et al. (2006) also demonstrated

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173 the utility of a competency-based approach to training undergraduate university students in Canada,
174 achieved through both knowledge acquisition and practical participation within specific
175 environments. Key competencies within the programme were; making ethical decisions, practicing
176 safely, analysing performance and providing prescriptive solutions, delivering training sessions,
177 supporting athletes at competition, designing a season or 1 year programme according to defined
178 guidelines and undertaking administrative duties. Self- and peer-to-peer reflections were used in a
179 guided manner in relation to what was coached and how. However, it is acknowledged that these
180 need to be less structured in later stages and there is a growing need for coach independence. This
181 initial approach does seem to facilitate coaches to solve situational issues and offers a transition
182 from classroom learning to on-site practice by internships. Despite this competency-based approach
183 emphasising the importance of communication, it does not provide relevant training and evaluation.
184 Mason et al. (2020) also demonstrated that interaction in competency-based approaches is often
185 limited. In summary, there is need to further explore the effectiveness of this approach.

186 Indeed, the problems with the competency-based development system are varied and
187 cannot be ignored. Firstly, as discussed above, this development pathway does not suit the existing
188 professional environment or range of clients experienced by most coaches (e.g., in sport and/or
189 school settings). For instance, effective coaching relies on interpersonal circumstances in which one
190 interacts with clients/athletes/students/other colleagues. There is no doubt that the inability to
191 communicate effectively and build good relationships with participants is not conducive to improved
192 performer or team performance (Margaret et al., 2010). However, the competency-based approach
193 does not appear to provide effective training for, or evaluation of, interpersonal related issues such
194 as ethics, emotions and social skills, or at least not for the range of possible permutations within the
195 coaching environment (Carson et al., 2021). For example, in the case of basketball, football and
196 badminton coach education in China, the developmental focus is solely on theoretical knowledge
197 and practical demonstrations. In doing so, the training disregards the importance of the
198 interpersonal dimension and/or needs of each athlete (cf. Chinese Basketball Association, 2022;

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199 Chinese Badminton Association, 2021; Wang et al., 2021). Furthermore, even if a coach
200 demonstrates competence when being assessed, there is no guarantee that s/he will be able to
201 properly utilise or adapt it in practice when required to meet any change in demands. In other
202 words, acquiring a competency does not equate to making an individual competent in *transferring*
203 the knowledge and/or behaviour within the sports coaching context (Mintzberg, 2004). Conversely,
204 it is not possible to say that a person is incompetent in a role because they omit the demonstration
205 of a skill during assessment.

206 In addition, the competency-based development approach provides what appears to be a
207 comprehensive but overly simplistic certification for sports coaches. In China, the qualification to
208 become a Level E coach (i.e., who can only assist other coaches) in basketball, football or badminton,
209 requires training and assessment of 10–23 theoretical and practical competency units within 40
210 educational hours (Chinese Basketball Association, 2022; Chinese Badminton Association, 2021;
211 Wang et al., 2021). Similarly, UK Coaching (2022, 2023) stipulates that a qualified UK Level 1
212 basketball or badminton coach requires the development and assessment of approximately three
213 competency units and the fulfilment of four sets of learning standards over 40 educational hours. In
214 contrast, becoming a UK doctor requires the achievement of 16 outcomes in 5,500 training hours
215 (General Medical Council, 2011). We therefore consider it dubious and epistemologically
216 inconsistent to train sports coaches to become proficient in such a wide range of competencies in a
217 limited timeframe.

218 Furthermore, the coaching materials used for training in this framework are likely out of
219 date (e.g., Fitts & Posner, 1967). In fact, the rate at which new research findings are translated and
220 compiled into valuable material is slow within applied settings (Farrow et al., 2008). It is suggested to
221 take at least 10–20 years to apply coaching theory to practice (Rushall, 2003). Finally, even though
222 the competency-based approach is able to develop success in sport, it does not satisfy the practical
223 and global demands associated with different settings (e.g., cultural, regional and types of sports).
224 That is to say, with increased globalisation of the sports industry, working with cross-cultural teams

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225 and athletes, or in an unfamiliar social environment, has become a common challenge (Griggs &
226 Gibbons, 2014). Such challenge is truly diverse and significant, including important factors relating to
227 the coach–athlete relationship (Yang & Jowett, 2013), pedagogic approach (e.g., using physical
228 punishment; Hagiwara & Wolfson, 2013), culture (collectivist culture vs. individualist culture; Yang &
229 Jowett, 2013) and management style (Wang & Calloway, 2011). Accordingly, the competency-based
230 approach lacks consideration of these important and nuanced challenges to the delivery of training
231 practices. Therefore, coaches progressing through such a system may struggle to transition when
232 working in other contexts around the world or with different participants.

233 Despite this criticism, competency-based development can be beneficial for novice coaches
234 without practical experience. Specifically, it contributes remarkably to the early development of a
235 coach's career, for example, by systematically developing theoretical knowledge, providing guidance
236 on technical actions and managing and responding to simple risks. Indeed, the initial experience and
237 knowledge base of most coaches is often gained through 'apprenticeships of observation' as an
238 athlete (e.g., Cassidy & Rossi, 2006; Harvey et al., 2013). Although, learning from expert practitioners
239 is limited unless consideration is given to *why* coaches take the actions they do (Martindale &
240 Collins, 2010). Thus, competency-based systems provide a valuable keystone for coach development
241 in the first instance to better understand what principles might look like. However, while the
242 foundational activities in practice, including safety checks and planning of sessions, are aligned with
243 the standards trained in the competency-based framework, when the challenges encountered are
244 more esoteric and difficult, the system does not meet the needs of the practitioner and it is
245 impossible to cover all possible solutions within coach education training. As discussed above in
246 relation to the variety of contextual variables, the issues faced by practitioners in complex situations
247 are often dynamic, uncertain and unpredictable. Coaches need to work towards integrating and
248 applying interdisciplinary knowledge to achieve different training objectives to meet the diverse
249 needs of their clients and, most crucially, understand *why* they are doing what they are doing
250 (Olsson et al., 2017). For example, for athletes who are recovering from a serious illness and want to

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251 rebuild their athletic ability and confidence, coaches often need to integrate psychological and
252 communication skills to fulfil athletes' demands, rather than just designing physical sessions and
253 demonstrating movements that take into account injury history. Another example when coaching
254 young participants and/or beginners is the delivery of instructions when learning a motor skill. In this
255 instance, making the verbal instructions personally and culturally more meaningful and functionally-
256 relevant should be reflected in the content, modality and volume of instructions provided
257 (Bobrownicki et al., 2019). However, these common challenges in practice cannot be fully addressed
258 by a competency-based development system. Therefore, this framework no longer seems practical
259 for those coaches wanting further development because by its very nature it separates and isolates
260 specific procedural tasks from the complex entirety of the coaching role (see Olsson et al., 2017).

261 **Expertise-based Development Systems**

262 In contrast, expertise-based approaches address the limitations of the competency-based
263 system described above. Before proceeding to a more in-depth discussion, it is beneficial to clarify
264 exactly what we mean by expertise for better understanding. Collins et al. (2016) utilises the work of
265 Hoffman (1998) to define expertise as:

266 (a) cognitive development (progression from superficial and literal understanding to articulated,
267 conceptual and principled understanding); (b) knowledge structure (more sophisticated
268 knowledge organisation, and more elaborate mental models); and (c) reasoning processes
269 (enhanced perceptual skill, more case-based reasoning and greater reasoning flexibility). (p. 3)

270

271 In fact, this is similar to the general definition of expertise (not sport or practitioner-specific) in the
272 Chinese context: (a) solid meta-competence; (b) systematic knowledge and; (c) the ability to solve
273 practical problems (Zhiliao Haoxue, 2021). In addition, in Chinese, expertise is also considered to
274 have the capacity for continuous career progression based on personal growth (Zhiliao Haoxue,
275 2021). In summary, expertise acknowledges the necessity for thinking skills, a propensity to
276 understand differences, self- and situational awareness in the face of different performer and/or

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277 sporting demands and an ability to justify *why* coaching actions are taken and others are not. In
278 doing so, the expertise-based development system advocates *active* development of flexible and
279 adaptable cognitive factors (e.g., meta-competence) as an extension to the behaviours and
280 systematic knowledge on which the competency-based system focuses. Unfortunately, as explored
281 earlier when addressing the Chinese coach development system in sport, crucial consideration of
282 these characteristics seems to be missing when evaluating high-level coaching practice.

283 Specifically, expertise-based solutions assume that the options available to coaches when
284 attempting to solve a particular practical problem are diverse and that the best strategy usually
285 requires a combination of approaches that are adapted for each individual (Giro, 2000). Indeed, an
286 expertise-based approach can be more difficult for coaches since it comes with additional
287 procedures to ensure that an effective solution is being provided as a situation develops. As such,
288 coaches must be able to monitor their actions, their impact and the potentially changing demands of
289 the situation/performer needs. This means that, following an initial analysis, coaches must decide on
290 a most appropriate solution, track and understand the nature of a performer's progress and audit
291 their decisions in context. Based on this perspective, a focus on the cognitive factors (i.e. *why*),
292 including learning reflective, reasoning and adaptive skills (Knowles et al., 2013), becomes the focus
293 of the abilities that coaches need to develop, which is also the focus of the expertise-based
294 framework. This is clearly more in line with the needs and circumstances of practitioners working
295 with different participants than the competency-based approach's emphasis on the behavioural
296 factors alone (i.e., *what* to do and *how* to do it). With these skills comes an ability to professionally
297 develop, by working to support performers on more complex problems (e.g., assessing poor
298 performance causes across multiple factors such as fitness, imagery ability and lifestyle) and over
299 longer timescales that require higher-levels of planning and knowledge (e.g., 4 year Olympic cycles).

300 In this regard, decision-making has been recognised as key to many professions (Smith et al.,
301 2004). Therefore, understanding and improving decision-making skills is an example of what an
302 expertise-based system should embed to effectively develop coaching skills (Collins et al., 2015a).

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303 Specifically, scenario-based training and formative testing of professionals' expertise (e.g.,
304 awareness and rationalisation of situational demands) are central to this development pathway. Its
305 contribution to practitioners is diverse, including facilitating the learning of complex and
306 interdisciplinary knowledge structures, building a more complete mental model of practice,
307 providing a model of 'cognitive apprenticeship' to enable their thinking to be seen by peers and
308 themselves and developing 'cognitive authenticity' (Ross & Pierce, 2000). It is worth emphasising
309 that, unlike a competency-based system, the review of key sporting, situational and contextual
310 factors (e.g., athlete attitude, family involvement, physical attributes, time afforded, level of
311 competition, etc.) will be *prioritised* in this approach based on their weighted level of impact. Only
312 those factors that are most important in influencing the identified issues will be considered for
313 review and evaluated by the coach.

314 **Assessment within Coach Development**

315 Discussing the different assessment process of the competency versus expertise approach
316 facilitates a deeper understanding of the characteristics of, and values within, both systems. In the
317 former approach, the assessor will systematically observe the coaching process and evaluate the
318 performance of the coach against established criteria. Examples within Chinese basketball coach
319 assessment include “successful demonstration of skills for training objectives”, “reasonable planning
320 of session procedures” and “accurate and correct use of teaching language and terminology”
321 (Chinese Basketball Association, 2022, para. 3 and 4). Although systematic observation is considered
322 a valuable tool and one of the most commonly used methods to understand coaching behaviour
323 (Gilbert & Trudel, 2004), its limitations cannot be ignored (see Kahan, 1999) since it only attaches
324 importance to behavioural factors and not an understanding of an authentic coaching context.
325 Indeed, it is possible that a coach might simply copy the behaviours of another coach, or learn to the
326 criteria of the assessment which might not be suitable when presented with a slightly different
327 problem needing to be solved. In this regard, existing research has focused on mixed methods
328 approaches by combining systematic observation and interpretive interviewing (Cope et al., 2017;

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329 Hall et al., 2016). That is, not only are coaching behaviours considered, but also coaches' rationale,
330 such as why a behaviour was chosen and used, whether alternatives were considered and the
331 reasons for not choosing alternatives are explored (Collins & Collins, 2014). This idea of valuing both
332 the process and meta-processes of the behaviours associated with the key sporting, situational and
333 contextual factors is precisely the systematic approach to assessment that is central to expertise.

334 Therefore, given the limitations of the competency-based approach discussed above, we
335 deem that it is not sufficient to assess *only* 'what coaches do'. Instead, the expertise-based approach
336 is more appropriate for developing coaches because it focuses additionally on the 'why they do'
337 (and, of course, why not) that helps to develop practitioners' aforementioned frameworks of
338 thinking, reflective and analytical skills to meet the demands of their dynamic, changing and
339 interdisciplinary professions. The next section discusses the practice and impact of this approach in
340 coach development in more detail.

341 **Implications of an Expertise Approach on Coach Development**

342 Some national institutions have realised that understanding and developing coaching should
343 meet the demands of learners in each particular context (e.g., UK Coaching, 2018). Considering that
344 expert coaching places high cognitive demand on decision-making processes, training and
345 developing decision-making skills helps coaches to fulfil their career ambitions of having an impact
346 with a range of participants. In order to improve this capacity, Collins et al. (2016) suggested that its
347 development requires much thought in the form of metacognition, or in short, thinking about
348 thinking through planning, monitoring and reflecting on a coach's behalf. Given this background,
349 Abraham and Collins (2011) explored and created an integrated approach for professional
350 judgement and decision making (PJDM), of which metacognition is considered a fundamental to this
351 process (Collins et al., 2016). Within the PJDM approach, coaches must decide on and undertake an
352 on-going audit of their strategy to meet specific participant needs in relation to situational demands
353 and the coaching context. Indeed, such a process requires coaches to possess both depth and

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354 breadth of knowledge and procedural skills when formulating their intention for impact (Martindale
355 & Collins, 2005).

356 Reflecting PJDM in practice, applications regarding this approach are currently focused
357 across a range of practical contexts, including adventure sports that are characterised by diverse
358 participation motivations and demands (e.g., Collins & Collins, 2016) and within the strength and
359 conditioning domain to realise the contribution of multiple disciplines that contribute toward
360 effective athlete engagement (Downes & Collins, 2021). Specifically from our first example, Collins et
361 al. (2015b) examined the role of adaptability and creativity in PJDM and found that adventure sports
362 coaches were particularly good at recognising and managing the interdependencies of context,
363 content and individual demands. Similarly, Downes and Collins (2021) exemplified the professional
364 practise of strength and conditioning coaches by suggesting and revealing the decision-making
365 processes and emphasising the necessity of communication, confidence and flexibility for successful
366 coaching. It is therefore not surprising that PJDM plays a significant role in developing effective
367 outcomes (Collins et al., 2018).

368 Considering the importance of PJDM and how it may best be developed, Collins and Collins
369 (2021) proposed the 'Big 5' in conjunction with general expertise approaches (Cruickshank & Collins,
370 2015) to stimulate active cognitive development. Specifically, the 'Big 5' is designed as a series of
371 progressive considerations to reflect on the performance of coaching processes and outcomes
372 experienced. Firstly, coaches are prompted to focus on what happened or what the coach did during
373 the coaching process. Secondly, they are asked to consider the other options that may have been
374 available to them at the time, in order to establish a clear understanding of the events that took
375 place in the session. Thirdly, coaches should then provide the reason(s) for choosing a decision.
376 Fourthly, the Big 5 challenges coaches to consider what would need to have been different about
377 the situation/performer/etc. in order to select a different option. Finally, coaches are asked to
378 simulate their actions and behaviours in a hypothetical scenario and explore possible contingencies.
379 This structured approach gives the coach opportunities to share ideas with colleagues, to reflect

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380 critically on their coaching and to maintain cognitive honesty by thinking through alternative
381 scenarios.

382 The Big 5, as an expertise-based approach, is a combination of PJDM-based and other
383 theories in coaching development. In fact, this approach requires coaches to frequently share ideas
384 and statements with colleagues; that is, to develop coaching through social interaction (cf.
385 Stoszkowski & Collins, 2014). Through this process, coaches discuss with each other and share
386 knowledge in pursuit of progress, which is a key factor to informing a community of practice (Lave &
387 Wenger, 1996) or a learning community (cf. Gilbert et al., 2009). This interaction also helps to
388 generate shared mental models (Cannon-Bowers et al., 1993) to anticipate and cater for the actions
389 of others to manage risk (Mees et al., 2020) or to adapt training practices for motor outcomes with
390 advanced performers (e.g., Carson & Collins, 2017), for example. Finally, this structured social
391 interaction follows the cognitive apprenticeship model (e.g., Cassidy & Rossi, 2006) and other expert
392 support roles (e.g., Martindale & Collins, 2010). In summary, a number of ideas in coaching
393 development provide a significant theoretical basis for the Big 5 approach.

394 Reflecting it in practice, the feedback from 50 experienced adventure sport coaches showed
395 that the Big 5 intervention is positive and able to meet their coaching needs (Collins & Collins, 2021).
396 Furthermore, this approach is recommended to improve the coaching of outdoor instructors (Mees
397 et al., 2021) and football coaches (Price et al., 2023). Considering the obvious importance of the
398 expertise approach in coach education, however, the amount of research attempting to address the
399 application of this advanced developmental system in the Chinese context is notably absent. In fact,
400 changing to this system may benefit coaches in China by clarifying the use and conceptualisation of
401 specific knowledge, but more importantly, assist in the development of key inter-personal and
402 communication skills (i.e., engaging openly with the Big 5 in peer-based learning context) that do not
403 exist in current coach development systems (i.e., Chinese Basketball Association, 2022). However,
404 residential training approaches are the most common method for training coaches in China and are
405 already criticised by researchers in China due to its inaccessibility with modern life and work

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406 demands (Ma et al., 2004; He, 2019). This approach might therefore be challenging since adaptive
407 expertise takes longer to develop, if it is possible at all.

408 In summary, there is a broad recognised need for more research on the process of coach
409 development from the coach developers' perspectives, including their applied lived experiences
410 (e.g., Callary & Gearity, 2019a), learning by E-Portfolios (Dray & Howells, 2019) and workplace
411 learning (Leeder et al., 2019) when delivering coach development programmes. Therefore, we
412 encourage this direction of research in general and by focusing on the Big 5 application and impact
413 specifically, for diverse sport needs and with different cultural backgrounds such as in China.

414 Conclusion

415 After discussing both competency-based and expertise-based development systems, this
416 article has demonstrated the significant and important contribution the latter could provide to
417 coaches in China to improve their coaching skills. To be clear, this does not mean that the
418 competency-based approach is not helpful to practitioners. For example, it can be used to a greater
419 extent during early stages to develop theoretical knowledge and necessary practical competencies.
420 However, when considering more advanced coaching situations and how a coach education system
421 might best prepare early career coaches to progress to these stages, the limitations of a
422 competency-based approach becomes apparent. Notably, this article has highlighted the need for
423 greater nuance within the professional coaching environment, which has implications for coach
424 training content and assessment demands. Therefore, an expertise-based approach that focuses not
425 only on *what* and *how* coaches work, but also on decision making factors to understand *why* those
426 actions (and *why not* others) were taken, is suggestively more appropriate in meeting the dynamic
427 and complex professional environment faced by coaches.

428 In practical terms, the need for an expertise-based approach to coach development is
429 growing increasingly more important with the globalisation of the sports industry. Indeed, this is
430 reflected, for example, by the transfer of athletes/players across professional sporting leagues (e.g.,
431 in football) from many European countries to China (e.g., Paulinho from Tottenham Hotspur FC to

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432 Guangzhou Evergrande and Oscar from Chelsea FC to Shanghai Port FC). Furthermore, coaches are
433 also moving to and from China to take up professional coaching opportunities at academies, national
434 organisations and with teams around the world (e.g., PGA, 2020; Tao et al., 2019). Domestically
435 within China, an expertise-based approach may also enable greater participation in sport, for
436 example by broadening the sports available or the nature of participation within those sports (Collins
437 & Carson, 2022). Accordingly, there is an increased need and benefit that can accrue from offering
438 an approach that embraces, is inclusive of and tailors for different peoples' needs. There are
439 undoubtedly differences between cultures around the world, but recognising and learning how to
440 negotiate these differences and adapt practice to improve a range of outcomes (e.g., performance,
441 competitiveness, enjoyment or health) is essential within the global context. In order to accelerate
442 progress in China toward this approach, future research should address some of the limitations
443 presented in this article due to its somewhat speculative nature due to an absence of research, by
444 assessing existing coaching practice and coaches' understanding through observation and interview
445 methods. Finally, we recognise that the social environment also plays a part in any implementation
446 of new coach education approaches and research should sensibly consider important factors within
447 this domain in China.

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