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Self-Talk and Sprint Performance in Youth Footballers

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Self-Talk and Sprint Performance in Youth Footballers

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by

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to examine the effects of motivational and instructional self-talk in male youth footballers. A total of 47 participants aged 12-14 years were tested for 10 metre sprint times, before and after self-talk interventions were undertaken. Results showed that instructional self-talk had a significant impact on performance, and was more effective than the motivational self-talk or the control intervention. This is thought to be due to the higher technical focus of instructional self-talk, which could provide greater benefit to youth athletes with un-refined movement patterns. These results indicate that explosive tasks such as sprinting could be looked at as a more precision-based action. This research could help coaches with their physical training programmes, while future research could examine the effects in girls, change the timing of self-talk, investigate any differences by age within the range of youth athletes, or employ self-talk in a pre-competition setting.

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The outcome of a game of football (soccer) and performance within a match can be affected by a wide range of variables (Stolen et al, 2005). Football's intermittent and highly-demanding nature allows for a variety of movements (150-250 different actions within a match) to be performed on a regular basis (Andrzejewski et al, 2015). Elite European players can cover 10-13.5 kilometres per game, undertaking a sprint once every four minutes, and a high intensity action or movement every 60 to 70 seconds (Stolen et al, 2005; Andrzejewksi et al, 2015).

Faude, Koch and Meyer (2012) found that sprinting in a straight line was the most frequent action observed in German *Bundesliga* (National League) players in the lead-up to 360 goals across the 2007/2008 season. The specific frequencies and natures of movements vary depending on position played and individual skill levels, however it is evident that the ability to repeatedly undertake physically challenging efforts is vital to successful play (Andrzejewski et al, 2015). The large physical exertion required in football, along with the fact that professional players make over 1,000 changes of direction per game and change speed or intensity roughly every 5 seconds means that sprinting is an important component of performance (Faude, Koch and Meyer, 2012).

The Scottish Football Association's Player Pathway encourages coaches to work on 'individual physical development' for players aged 12 years and above (Scottish FA, 2016). Sprinting, like any physical action, has both physical and mental components (Andrzejewski et al, 2015; Morris and Summers, 1995). Of the mental components, self-talk is one of the more important in preparing for and delivering successful physical performance (Jarvis, 2009; Morris and Summers, 1995; Van Raalte et al, 2015). Self-talk – defined as: "*a multi-dimensional phenomenon, focusing on athletes' self-verbalisations*" (Hardy et al, 2004) – is

possibly an under-developed aspect of performance psychology (Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011).

The Theory of Cognition suggests that mental processes can both impact, and be impacted by, changes in physiology, environment and experience (Mahoney and Avener, 1977). Much of the knowledge around this comes from the work of Piaget, who constructed the Theory of Cognitive Development in 1936 (Cox, 2012). In terms of this study, it can be suggested that time spent learning and practicing self-talk can be used to impact performance through using cognitive techniques to affect a behavioural change (Ellis, 1976; Tod and Lavallee, 2012). Furthermore, it is possible that self-talk could be used to help an athlete reach their Zone of Optimal Function (Z.O.F.) (Hanin, 1997, 2000). The Zone of Optimal Function is a combination of mental factors, largely arousal and anxiety, which allows an individual athlete to facilitate best performance (Cox, 2012; Jarvis, 2009). Following the notion that a person's behaviour can be influenced by what they say to themselves, a number of cognitive behavioural change techniques have employed self-talk as a key factor (Ellis, 1976, and Meichenbaum, 1977; as cited in Hatzigeorgiadis et al, 2008).

There are four possible mechanisms which attempt to explain how self-talk could influence performance: Cognitive, Motivational, Behavioural and Affective (Tod and Lavallee, 2012). First is the cognitive mechanism. Self-talk is said to be able to heighten the efficiency of an individual's informational processing and attentional focus (Hardy et al, 1996). An increase in concentration thanks to the employment of self-talk and key words can decrease the frequency and severity of interfering (and often negative) thoughts. However, further research is needed in this area (Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011; Tod and Lavalle, 2012). Second is the motivational mechanism. With a focus on self-efficacy, using self-talk – regularly,

though not exclusively, motivational in nature – has been attributed to prolonged persistence, as well as benefiting performance on a challenging task. However, some doubt remains over self-talk having a direct effect on self-efficacy. Thirdly, a behavioural-based mechanism has been suggested. Following effective self-talk it is said that behaviour can change to actions more desirable for performance. This mechanism has been seen as particularly helpful for athletes in an early stage of learning (S.O.L). Fourthly, the affective mechanism highlights that self-talk can positively influence anxiety (Nieuwenhuys et al, 2008; Wilson, 2009; Wilson, Wood and Vine, 2009). Further research will be necessary in order to confirm a relationship explicitly linking self-talk to cognitive content and affect (Edwards, Tod and McGuigan, 2008; Tod and Lavallee, 2012; Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011). It is suggested (Hatzigeorgiadis et al, 2009; Tod and Lavallee, 2012) that the four mechanisms work in parallel to bring about a change in movement or performance by affecting moderators such as self-confidence, self-efficacy and anxiety.

For this study, it is likely that the motivational and behavioural mechanisms will have the largest impact on performance. The motivational mechanism could impact self-efficacy and increase task-specific confidence in relation to sprinting, while the behavioural mechanism could affect performance by improving sprint technique.

Not all self-talk cues work to the same extent (Hatzigeorgiadis, 2007). It is important that self-talk is specific for, and relevant to, the athlete (Jarvis, 2009; Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011). Early research suggested that a number of factors may impact on how useful self-talk can be as an aid for development or for performance (Hardy, 2006). Athlete ability and experience, the training or competition setting and the characteristics of the task being executed may all affect the influence effect of self-talk (Mahoney & Avener, 1977). There is evidence that

novice athletes benefit from self-talk in different ways, and perhaps to a different degree, than more experienced sporting individuals (hardy, 2006; Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011). Athletes with less experience and/or a lower skill level might use self-talk to guide themselves through tasks, and aid memory by 'chunking' pieces of important information. This could relate to new skills, processes or movements (Miles and Neil, 2013). The timing of when the self-talk is executed by an athlete may also affect the impact it has, though the need for further research has been identified (Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011).

In Gammage, Hardy and Hall (2001) self-talk was found to have five main functions (arousal, mastery, drive, general and specific), across two categories (motivational and cognitive). The motivational category comprises of arousal, mastery and drive aspects (Smith, Smoll and Cumming, 2007; Hatzigeorgiadis et al, 2009; Hardy, Begley and Blanchfield, 2014). The cognitive functions of self-talk are either general – using self-talk in terms of broad strategy – or specific, where self-talk is used to facilitate learning (Hatzigeogiadis et al, 2009). The first function lends itself to the use of motivational self-talk, while the second leans more towards instructional self-talk. An example of a motivational self-talk phrase could be *"up!*" for a weightlifter performing a bench press. In football, a player may utter "*it's still nil-nil*" in order to keep themselves in a state of high concentration. Instructional self-talk could be *"slow away*" for a golfer to move their club head slowly backwards before unleashing a powerful drive. More specific to football, a player might use self-talk phrases such as "*cushion*" in order to prepare them to take a high quality first touch.

One of the most important peer-reviewed syntheses of self-talk was undertaken by Hardy in 2006. Initial research looked at self-talk in one of two ways – comparing positive and negative self-talk, and comparing motivational self-talk to instructional self-talk. Historically,

there has been a presumption that positive self-talk benefits performance while negative self-talk is detrimental to success (Hardy, 2006; Kahrovic et al, 2014). However, Rotella, Gasneder, Ojala and Billing (1980) suggested that this was not the case for elite skiers (Gammage, Hardy and Hall, 2001). Tod, Hardy and Oliver (2011) noted that 67% of self-talk studies featured instructional self-talk, while 41% of studies looked at comparing two different types of self-talk. Most self-talk research to date has examined university-age students, perhaps due to the ease of accessibility for university-based researchers.

There is some debate regarding whether or not psychological interventions can explicitly improve sporting performance, or rather help achieve a higher level of consistency (Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011). Moreover, there remains some debate as to which type of self-talk is best. Furthermore, the way in which psychological interventions work is of interest to many (Hatzigeorgiadis et al, 2009; Tod and Lavallee, 2012; Van Raalte et al, 2014). There has been great progress in the field of self-talk, particularly within the last 20-30 years, with research shifting from so-called first generation research ("what happens, does X impact Y?") to examining the mechanisms of performance change (Edwards, Tod and McGuigan, 2008; Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011).

In 1998, Theodorakis et al found that while positive self-talk may have had a beneficial effect on injury rehabilitation, it did not decrease the anxiety of injured athletes during rehabilitation fitness testing. Although there has been some support for the claim that self-talk improves performance in experimental settings (Dagrou, Gauvin and Halliwell, 1992; Van Raalte et al, 1995; Weinberg, Smith, Jackson and Gould, 1948) it can be contended that results are not conclusive in field-based research (Dagrou, Gauvin and Halliwell, 1991).

Self-talk has been found to act beneficially across a number of sports – for example, self-talk aided elite cricketers (Miles and Neil, 2013) in their batting performance through attentional focus and informational processing. Swimmers saw good performance facilitated by using self-talk to decrease interfering thoughts (Hatzigeorgiadis et al, 2004). In softball, motivational and instructional self-talk were found to be more beneficial to throwing accuracy than unrelated self-talk, while motivational self-talk had enhanced effects compared to instructional and unrelated self-talk for throwing distance (Chang et al, 2014). Linner (2010) observed changes in self-efficacy in golfers through self-talk, which in turn affected performance. This evidence lends support to the argument that self-talk can be used to aid performance, or at least shape pre-performance routine. However, it is worth approaching these results with caution due to the lack of transferability in relation to the tasks examined and the task of sprinting within a game of football. For example, the precision-focussed, closed skills involved in golf contrast to the unpredictable nature of a team sport such as football.

Positive self-talk with a negative valence – "*don't wimp out*" – was found to aid marathon runners (Van Raalte et al, 2015). This study was noteworthy in that is has been unusual to see self-talk applied with an opposite valence to its nature (Hardy, 2006; Van Raalte et al, 2015). Marathon running shares endurance and cardiovascular similarities with football, but differs in that it is mainly undertaken at a steady pace (Faude, Koch and Meyer, 2012. Edwards, Tod and McGuigan (2008) advocated the use of motivational and instructional self-talk for experienced rugby players. While research from rugby is more relevant to football than other sports, this study examined jumping, as used in line-outs, which are exclusive to rugby. Footballers also undertake jumping actions, but the ability to jump high or sprint fast would

be useless in either sport without appropriate technique, timing and tactical awareness. These findings could help shape a programme of training to attain physiological benefits for rugby players or footballers, which could then benefit performance. Specific to football, self-talk has been linked to an improvement in penalty kick taking – a precision-based task – in girls (Johnson et al, 2004) and positive self-talk training has shown improvements in self-confidence in youth players (Kanniyan, 2015). An increase in self-confidence could be argued to help performance by entering the Z.O.F., whether taking a goal-kick or sprinting.

Theodorakis et al (2000) proposed that certain tasks may lend themselves more to certain types of self-talk. This is known as the task-matching hypothesis (Mahoney and Avener, 1977; Theodorakis et al, 2007; Tod Hardy and Oliver, 2011). Motivational self-talk has been found to be more beneficial for condition-based tasks, relying generally on either power or endurance (Theodorakis et al, 2000; Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011). The use of motivational self-talk has been linked to increased effort, enhanced self-confidence and facilitating mood changes (Linner, 2010). Alternatively, precision- or skill-based tasks require higher levels of attention in order to achieve quality technical execution. As such, instructional self-talk has been viewed as more beneficial in this type of situation, in order to focus on the important points and kinaesthetic aspects of movements (Hardy, 2006; Hardy, Begley and Blanchfield, 2014; Hardy, 2015). As instructional self-talk is often more technical in nature it can lend itself to a higher number of words. This may take longer to say, leading to a lower intensity in its verbalisation and a lessened effect on performance. (Hardy, 2006; Hatzigeorgiadis, 2007).

A major academic issue in football is the delay from the production of high-class research to its delivery in coach education settings (Williams and Hodges, 2005; Farrow, Baker and McMahon, 2008; Ford et al, 2010). Furthermore, there are three main gaps in the existing

self-talk literature. First, the least frequent age of participants is 20 years old or below (Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011). The lack of focus given to youth athletes in self-talk studies is worth exploring to examine any differences which arise between youth and adult athletes. Secondly, there is less self-talk research for explosive tasks such as sprinting (Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011) which could be seen to fall somewhere in-between the ranges precision- and condition-based. Lastly, there is a lack of studies examining self-talk in pre-competition settings, however this is not altogether surprising. It is unlikely that teams or athletes would be willing to accommodate a scientific researcher in close proximity to them during the build-up to a match (Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011). Overall, research suggests – but cannot overtly prove – that self-talk aids best performance across a range of sports (Hardy, 2006).

This study examines the effect of two different types of self-talk – motivational and instructional – on sprint performance times in male youth football players aged 12-14 years. This research aims to add to the existing body of literature and provide football coaches with ideas for best practice. The main hypothesis of this study was that sprint performance times would improve across all three testing groups – motivational self-talk, instructional self-talk and the control group. Secondly it was hypothesised that a more pronounced improvement would be seen from the instructional self-talk group. This was due to the nature of the task being performed, the potential benefit of pre-performance technical and instructional pointers, and having the same number of syllables for both the motivational and instructional self-talk phrases.

METHOD

Participants

60 players, born 2001-2004, underwent initial 10 metre sprint testing (mean age 14.18 years, sd ±0.70). 51 players attended the intervention workshops, while 47 individuals took part in the post-intervention testing. Reasons for dropping out of the study were largely due to illness or injury. The initial number of participants was chosen due to the numbers used in other studies. This, along with the remaining sample size, was confirmed as sufficient by G*Power Statistical Power Analyses.

All participants were members of the same grassroots club, participating in competitive 11-a-side fixtures. Playing experience was 6.26 years on average (sd ±2.41). General permission to undertake this study within the context of the club was given by the club Chairman. Parental permission was obtained from parents and guardians and informed consent was gained from participants. The ICFR (Informed Consent for Research) form used can be found in Appendix A. Participants were familiar with sprinting due to their playing experiences, however none had previously taken part in a scientific research study. The researcher had a valid Disclosure Scotland PVG (see Appendix B).

Procedure

All testing took place on '3G' synthetic outdoor pitches, where the participants train and play matches. Participants were initially tested on their 10 metre sprint times, measured using University of Stirling light gate equipment. Figure 1 (overleaf) shows the setup for the sprint testing.

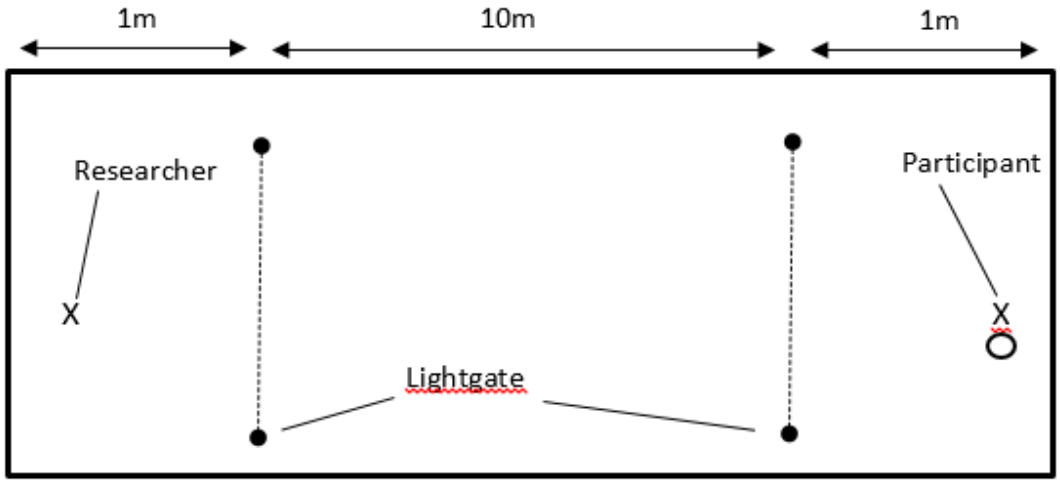

Figure 1 - Sprint Testing Setup

Participants stood at a cone one metre from the first light gate. On the signal from the researcher, they were free to begin sprinting. Following a familiarisation phase, three attempts were taken and the shortest (peak) time for each participant was used for grouping purposes. The mean times were also noted to allow for statistical analysis of both mean and peak performance. Subjects undertook testing individually, during a training session. Measures were taken to maintain a technical, low-intensity focus to the session which ran in parallel to testing. To avoid an order effect, participants did not know when in the session they would be tested.

Participants were then split into 3 groups of equal speed and age. One intervention group received information and training on instructional self-talk, another on motivational self-talk, and – to avoid a Hawthorne effect – the control group also received an intervention. The control group focused on the Winning Scotland Foundation's '*Double-Goal Coach*' programme. Each intervention workshop lasted 30 minutes. This included a presentation

from the researcher, some group discussion and training to undertake in the time leading up to the re-test. In each group, participants were given a choice between three intervention phrases related to their specific type of self-talk, as offered by the researcher (See Appendix C). Participants were able to vote due to the suggestion (Jarvis, 2009; Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011) that self-talk must be applicable and meaningful to the individual. The instructional self-talk group chose "Push Through*!*" to encourage participants to drive their knees up and arms down while sprinting, as well as to sprint the full way across the finish line. The motivational self-talk group chose "*Come On!*" in an attempt to raise their pre-performance level of arousal. Both self-talk phrases had the same number of syllables. This meant that the research could focus more on the type of self-talk used rather than the specific cue.

Re-testing took place one week following the interventions. The same training session was used, and participants were again tested individually. The relevant self-talk phrase was verbalised at a volume suitable for the researcher to hear. The phrase was repeated twice to encourage re-enforcement and manipulate focus onto the self-talk.

Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPPS Version 21) software was used for data analysis. Analyses of Variance were conducted to ensure that participants were equally spread across the three groups for peak time and age. A post-test manipulation check was in place to discover what the participants were thinking about before and during performance, in order to determine whether the self-talk was being followed (Edwards, Tod and McGuigan, 2008). Post-test data was analysed through a repeated-measures mixed-model ANOVA, along with Paired Samples T-Tests, and the results are presented below.

RESULTS

Pre-Intervention

Figure 2 shows a boxplot representing the peak times of each group pre-test.

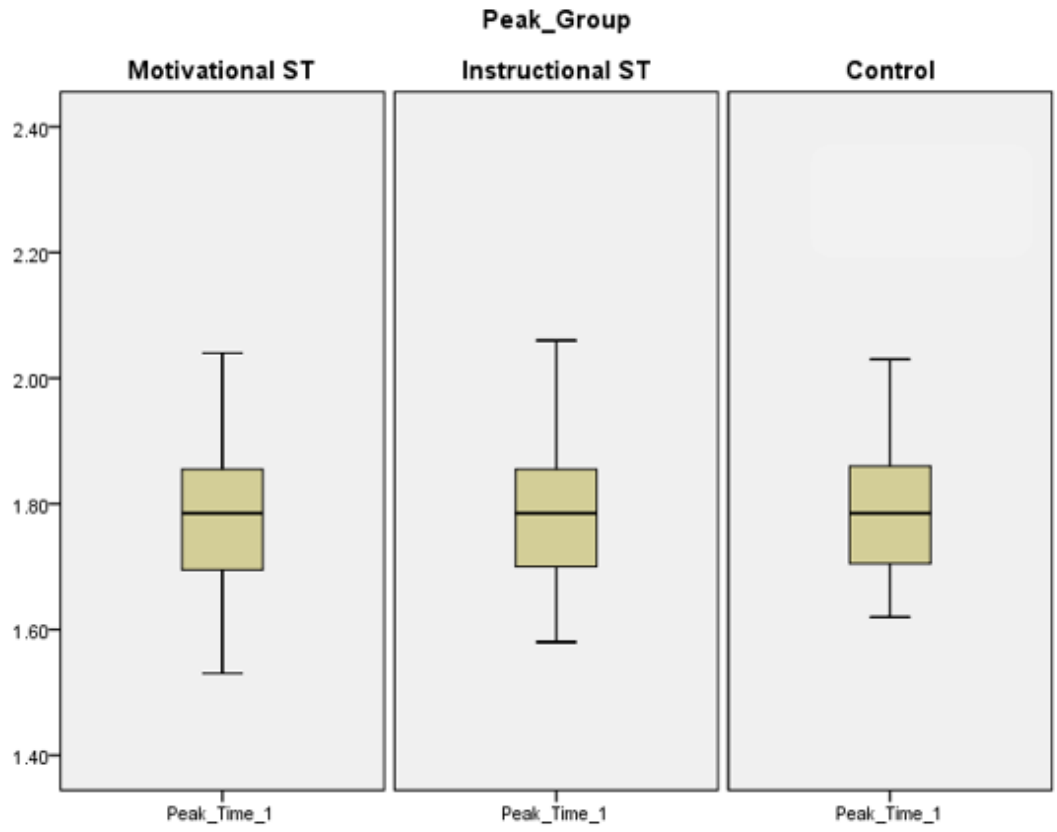

Figure 2 - Pre-Intervention Times by Group

The ANOVA test showed that there was no significant difference in sprint time across the groups (P = 0.218). The groups were also deemed equal in terms of age (P = 0.301).

Post-Intervention

Post-test, the manipulation check showed that 95.55% of participants were thinking about information relevant to their group before and during performance.

Figure 3 shows a boxplot representing the peak times of each group post-test, and Figure 4 (overleaf) shows the pre- and post-intervention times (peak and mean) for each group.

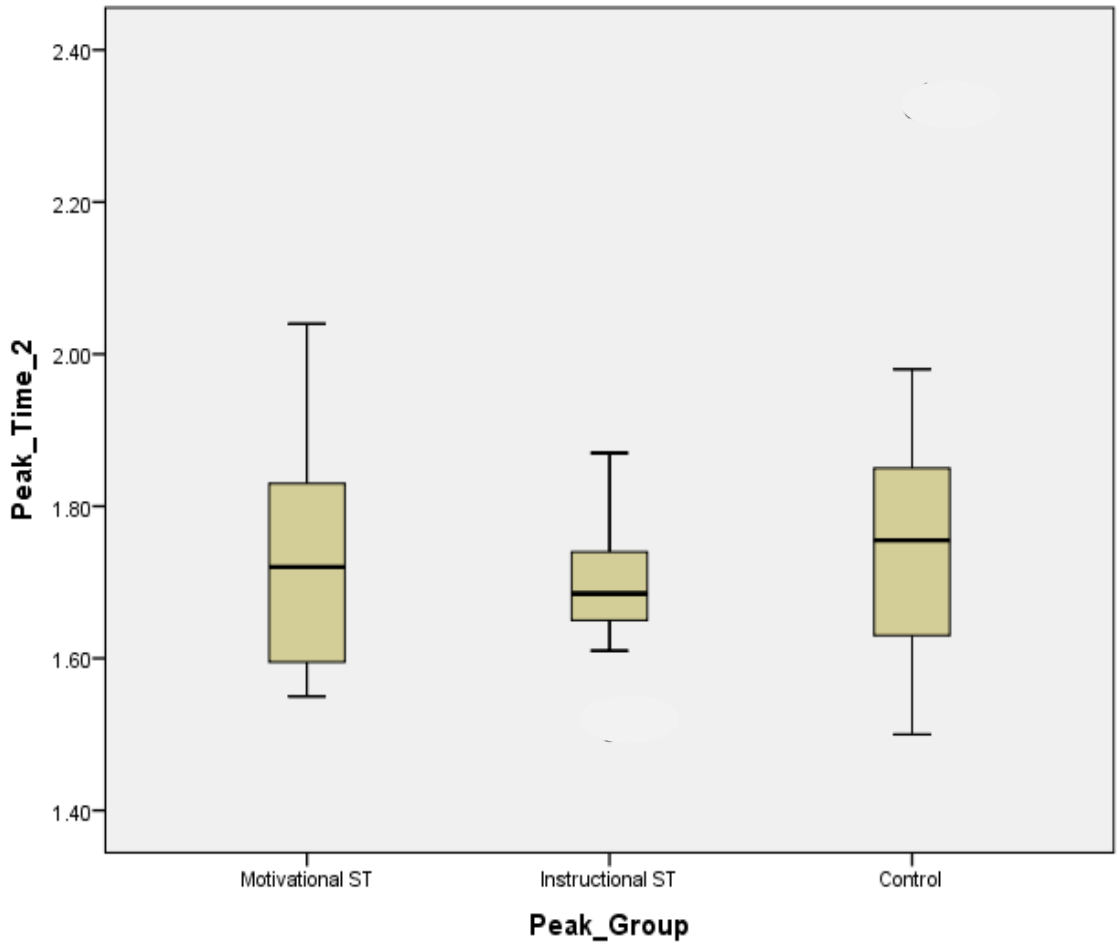

Figure 3 - Post-Intervention Times by Group

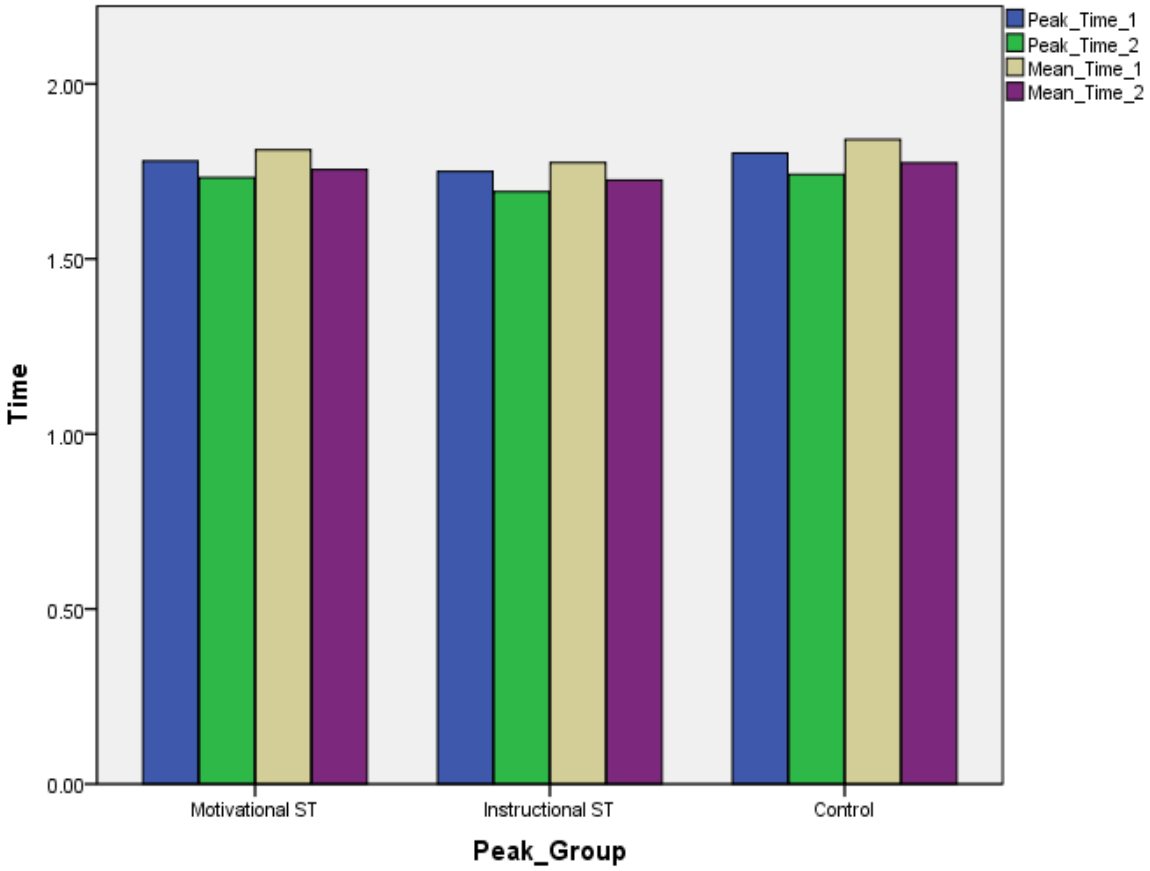

Figure 4 - Pre- and Post- Intervention Times by Group

ANOVA testing showed that some difference existed across the groups in peak and mean sprint time (*P* = .048; *P* = .042). Post-Hoc analysis showed that instructional self-talk made a significant difference to peak sprint performance when compared to the impact of motivational self-talk (*P* = .027) and the control group (*P* = .038). Instructional self-talk also had a significant difference on mean sprint performance compared to motivational self-talk (*P* = .022) and the control group (*P* = .035).

Table 1 shows the Paired Samples T-Test for the instructional self-talk group only.

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Peak_Time_1 - Peak_Time_2	.05786	.06963	.01861	.01765	.09806	3.109	13	.008
Pair 2	Mean_Time_1 - Mean_Time_2	.05000	.06645	.01776	.01163	.08837	2.815	13	.015

Table 1 - Paired Samples T-Test for Instructional Self-Talk Group

Results from the instructional self-talk group demonstrated significant difference in pre- and post-test peak (P = .008) and mean (P = .0015) times. Neither the motivational self-talk group nor the control group showed significant improvement (P > .05).

DISCUSSION

Self-talk has been linked to enhanced performance across a variety of sports and tasks within them (Hardy, Hall and Hardy, 2004. Sprinting is an important aspect of football and effective sprinting can aid performance (Stolen et al, 2005; Faude, Koch and Meyer, 2012; Andrzejewksi et al, 2015). Instructional self-talk was seen to help improve sprint performance of youth footballers when compared with motivational self-talk and a control group. Instructional self-talk was the only treatment to have a significant effect on peak and mean sprint times. The results of this study do not suggest that self-talk can drastically improve performance, but add weight to the notion that it can help to enable athletes to perform at their best on a consistent basis (Hardy, 2006). Findings of this study support the applicability of self-talk research with youth footballers (Kanniyan, 2015) and suggests that self-talk can be used to help athletes enter their Zone of Optimal Function. These results also link to both the Theory of Cognition and the Theory of Cognitive Development, in that an athlete's thoughts can have an effect on their on-field behaviours.

As with Tod, Edwards and McGuigan's (2008) findings regarding self-talk and vertical jump height in rugby players, there are vast arrays of simultaneous tactical and technical considerations within performance. The timing, location and decision-making of sprinting has a massive impact on the benefit gained, whether fast or slow. As such, this research could add to the knowledge base for coaches to use when constructing physical and mental training programmes.

In terms of the task-matching hypothesis (Theodorakis et al, 2000; Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011) these findings suggest that short-distance sprinting should be looked upon from a precision-based perspective (Hatzigeorgiadis, 2007). It is worth considering that the

instructional self-talk may have proved more beneficial because youth footballers are likely to have deficiencies in their movements and sprinting technique. The technical focus of the self-talk perhaps aided development of performance.

While testing outdoors meant that day-to-day differences – such as weather conditions – could have impacted upon performance, testing in the same location where the players train and compete can be argued to provide a greater degree of ecological validity than testing inside a sports hall, for example (Gratton and Jones, 2010; Proshansky, 1976; Schmuckler, 2001). Maintaining an otherwise consistent environment allowed for data to remain valid. It is also possible to question whether an individual more experienced in the field of self-talk interventions may have been a better leader of the intervention workshops rather than the student researcher. In addition, it may be that some participants overheard self-talk being performed by another individual, which reinforced their own intervention, and subsequently affected performance. Having only one week between the one-off interventions and the re-test may have prevented further learning taking place. Instead, a psychological training programme of longer duration might have induced more pronounced changes in performance.

Further research in this area could examine if the same results can be found in girls as they have been in boys. Research examining older footballers in a further advanced S.O.L., with more refined movement patterns, could examine if motivational self-talk is more effective. Changing the timing of when the pre-performance self-talk is employed may yield different results, as might repeating the procedures in a pre-competition setting (Hardy, 2006; Hatzigeorgiadis et al, 2011). Additionally, it may be worthwhile to examine specific age ranges

within youth athletes. For example, rather than examining 12-18 year-old athletes as a whole, participants could be tested in a number of groups: 12-14 years old, 14-16 and 16-18.

In summary, instructional self-talk was found to be most effective in affecting sprint performance times in male youth footballers. This work hopes to add to the existing body of literature in self-talk, an under-developed area of performance psychology (Tod, Hardy and Oliver, 2011). This work can provide direction for further research and provide information for football coaches striving for best practice.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – INFORMED CONSENT FOR RESEARCH FORM

INFORMED CONSENT FOR UNIVERISTY RESEARCH PROJECT PARTICIPATION

UNIVERSITY OF STIRLING

STUDENT 2111463

Introduction:

This Informed Consent for Research (ICfR) form relates to a study to be undertaken for the by student 2111463 in relation to the degree of BA (Hons) Sports Studies from the University of Stirling. This study is psychology-based and experimental in nature, involving the use of a self-talk intervention and evaluating impact on sprint performance.

Aim:

The aim of this study was to examine the effects of motivational and instructional self-talk in male youth footballers

Participation:

Participation in this study is completely voluntary and an individual may change his/her mind and withdraw from the programme at any time. All data obtained will remain confidential and be used only for the purposes of this study. The researcher has an existing Disclosure Scotland PVG in place through the Scottish FA for working with the group of young people at the football club in question – Cumbernauld Colts FC.

I, _____ (PRINT PARTICIPANT NAME) confirm that I have read all of the above information and agree to take part in this study. I understand that I can withdraw at any time and that all data obtained will remain confidential and only be used for the purposes of this study.

I, _____ (PRINT PARENT/GUARDIAN NAME) confirm that I have read all of the above information and give my parental permission for _____ (PRINT PARTICIPANT NAME) to take part in this study.

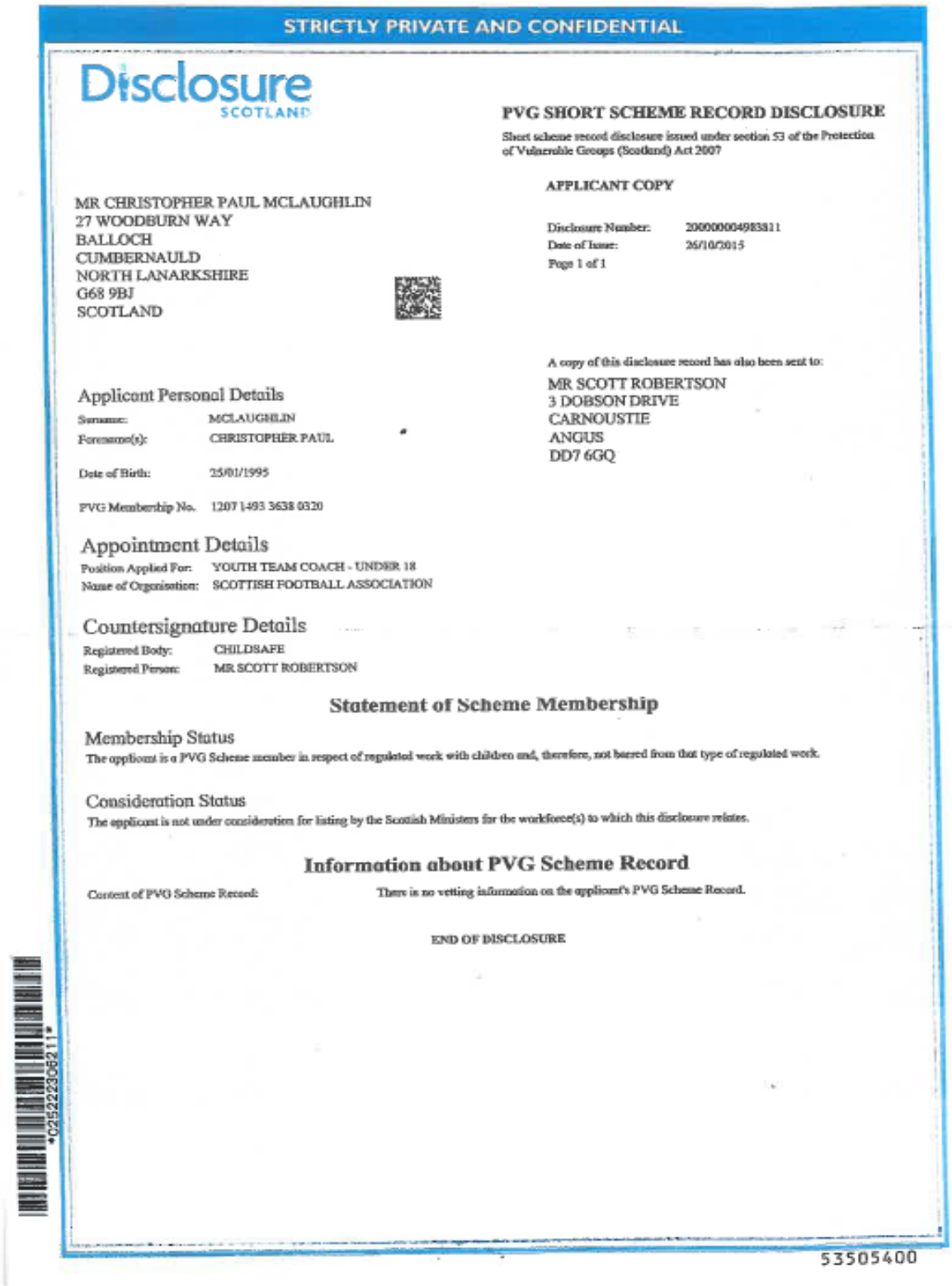
Player's signature:

Parent/Guardian's signature:

Date:

If you have any questions or queries please do not hesitate to contact the club (www.cumbernauld-colts.com) or the researcher directly on 07495940859 or chm00106@students.stir.ac.uk

APPENDIX B – PVG CERTIFICATE



STRICTLY PRIVATE AND CONFIDENTIAL

Disclosure SCOTLAND

PVG SHORT SCHEME RECORD DISCLOSURE

Short scheme record disclosure issued under section 53 of the Protection of Vulnerable Groups (Scotland) Act 2007

APPLICANT COPY

MR CHRISTOPHER PAUL MCLAUGHLIN
27 WOODBURN WAY
BALLOCH
CUMBERNAULD
NORTH LANARKSHIRE
G68 9BJ
SCOTLAND

Disclosure Number: 200000004983811
Date of Issue: 26/10/2015
Page 1 of 1

A copy of this disclosure record has also been sent to:
MR SCOTT ROBERTSON
3 DOBSON DRIVE
CARNOUSTIE
ANGUS
DD7 6GQ

Applicant Personal Details

Surname: MCLAUGHLIN
Forename(s): CHRISTOPHER PAUL
Date of Birth: 25/01/1995
PVG Membership No. 1207 1493 3638 0320

Appointment Details

Position Applied For: YOUTH TEAM COACH - UNDER 18
Name of Organisation: SCOTTISH FOOTBALL ASSOCIATION

Countersignature Details

Registered Body: CHILDSAFE
Registered Person: MR SCOTT ROBERTSON

Statement of Scheme Membership

Membership Status
The applicant is a PVG Scheme member in respect of regulated work with children and, therefore, not barred from that type of regulated work.

Consideration Status
The applicant is not under consideration for listing by the Scottish Ministers for the workforce(s) to which this disclosure relates.

Information about PVG Scheme Record

Content of PVG Scheme Record: There is no vetting information on the applicant's PVG Scheme Record.

END OF DISCLOSURE

025222306211

53505400

APPENDIX C – SELF-TALK PHRASE CHOICES

Self-Talk Type	Phrase Choice 1	Phrase Choice 2	Phrase Choice 3	Phrase Chosen

Motivational	*"Knees up"*	*"Push through"*	*Stay tall"*	*"Push Through"*
Instructional	*"Come on!"*	*"Let's go!"*	*"Ready"*	*"Come on!"*