

**An evaluation of a continuing professional development
programme for community football coaches delivering
Physical Education lessons in primary schools.**

by

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to evaluate a Continuing Professional Development (CPD) programme for football coaches working in Planning, Preparation and Assessment (PPA) time in schools. PPA time was introduced for all teachers in 2005 as part of a seven stage response to the 2003 workload remodelling act and aimed to support the dual aims of addressing teacher workload and raising educational standards (DfES, 2003). To do this coaches' were required to work against the definition of specified work. Specified work is defined as specified by Baalpe (2005: 4) as: "Planning and preparing lessons and courses for pupils. Delivering lessons to pupils – including distance learning or computer-aided techniques. Assessing the development, progress and attainment of pupils. Reporting on the development, progress and attainment of pupils."

The evaluation adopts a realist case study methodology which aims to understand the relationship between the initial context, mechanism for change and the initial outcomes of the CPD programme (Pawson and Tiley, 1997; Pawson, 2003; Pawson, 2006).

The delivery of the CPD programme was underpinned by constructed and situated theories of learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Kirk and Macdonald; 1998, Wenger, 1998) that emphasised the synergy of new and old knowledge encouraging the coaches to develop both practical and ontological knowledge, skill and understanding. These intended outcomes were supported by the CPD programme being delivered through a critical pedagogical perspective (Kirk, 2000) that challenged the coaches to consider knowledge, either accepting or rejecting the knowledge being presented by the programme.

The initial context findings showed that the coaches did not have the necessary knowledge, skill and understanding to work against the definition of specified work in PPA time. The initial mechanism for change highlighted that there were positive relationships between initial context and the mechanisms used in the CPD programme, which included practical coaching sessions, DVD analysis and working with other coaches. The initial outcomes further supported the mechanism of change and showed that for some of the coaches knowledge, skill and understanding had developed but also identified some mechanistic blocks that prevented the coaches from developing their knowledge, skill and understanding in relation to working in PPA time and operating against the definition of specified work; these included the coaches' relationship with schools and the support the Community Sports Trust managers provided the coaches.

The study concludes that future CPD should concentrate on how schools and Community Sports Trusts can raise the standards of Physical Education lessons covered by external coaches and how this can be

developed, as opposed to focussing more narrowly on what knowledge sports coaches require to deliver specified work and how can this best be developed. The thesis proposes that the CPD should be multi-agency and multi-structure and include schools, teachers, Community Sports Trust managers and coaches and aim to develop an ontological perspective which develops and refines the practical skills that will allow coaches to work against the definition of specified work.

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1 Introduction

The Government workforce remodelling act of 2003 (DfES, 2003) provides the broad context for this case study, with the introduction in 2005 of Planning, Preparation and Assessment (PPA) time for all teachers being the study's actual starting point. PPA time allows all teachers to have 10% of their timetable protected to plan lessons, prepare resources and assess pupils' work (DfES, 2003). This creates a timetabling challenge for head teachers especially in primary schools, where teachers have less non-contact time than in secondary schools. Who covers teachers' class room duties during this time? This study evaluates a 22 month continuing professional development (CPD) programme aimed at developing the knowledge skill and understanding of a group of football coaches, who did not have qualified teacher status (QTS) but were employed by a Community Sports Trust. The coaches already worked or were about to start work covering Physical Education lessons during teachers PPA time.

Evaluation research is reformist (Pawson and Tilley, 1997), a practical craft, designed to make social programmes, organisations or policies work better (Weiss, 1998). My background is that of practitioner, as a Physical Education teacher and Sports coach. Hence, why I was perhaps at first subconsciously and then consciously drawn to conducting an evaluative case study of a CPD programme. The programme aimed to support football coaches who were deployed to work in school curriculum time Physical Education lessons, covering teachers PPA time, to develop their knowledge, skill and understanding in order that they could meet the definition of specified work, defined by Baalpe (2005: 4) as:

- "Planning and preparing lessons and courses for pupils.
- Delivering lessons to pupils – including distance learning or computer-aided techniques.
- Assessing the development, progress and attainment of pupils.
- Reporting on the development, progress and attainment of pupils."

1.1 The researcher, research and professional identity

It is increasingly clear that when researching within the social sciences it is impossible to separate one's personal experience and expectations from the research process (Sparkes, 1992, 2002; Curtner-Smith, 2002; Dismore, 2007). Therefore, I share the view of Brackenridge, Pitchford, Russell and Nutt (2007), Sparkes (1992, 2002), Curtner-Smith (2002) and Dismore (2007), amongst others, that the research process is inherently a political one and like others, I have chosen to be transparent about who I am and my professional identity to this point in time. By adopting this approach, the aim is to move some way towards demonstrating a transparent and reflective position in relation to the research process and research product.

Between 2000 and 2006 I taught Physical Education in West London schools working in several different roles including: Physical Education teacher, School Sports Coordinator and Manager of Teaching and Learning for Physical Education and Leisure studies. Prior to this I spent 4 years working as a football (soccer) coach in the United States of America. During this time I gained the United States Soccer Federation 'A' licence, the National Soccer Coaches of America (NSCAA) Advanced National Diploma, and the NSCAA youth diploma.

On returning to England I continued to combine my position as a teacher with coaching roles. In 2000, I took a part time position as the Centre of Excellence Director at a well known and very successful Ladies Football Club where for three years I had responsibility for the development of the club's Under 10 to Under 16 aged players, seven of whom are now full England internationals with four being named in the London 2012 Great Britain Women's football Olympic squad. In 2005, I spent one season working on a part time basis as the 1st team coach for a Women's Premier League football team. I have also delivered educational courses for the Football Association's National Faculty for Education, designing, writing and delivering educational programmes for Adults Other than Teachers (AOTTs).

Since January 2006, I have worked as a lecturer in the School of Sport and Education at Brunel University, London. I have taught modules on both undergraduate and post graduate courses in Physical Education and Sports Coaching. I have also had the opportunity to provide consultancy relating to coaches working in schools for a large National Governing Body (NGB). During this time in higher education, I have experienced a gradual transition from an established and experienced physical education teacher and sports coach to a novice and inexperienced social and educational researcher. This experience has been quite singularly the most emotional, fulfilling and engaging of my professional career and has allowed me to consciously become 'more' expert (Ericksson and Charness, 1994) as an educator and social researcher. I have had the opportunity to embrace a range of professional development activities, from specific research training through taught sessions to formal tutorials with my supervisor and informal conversation over coffee with like minded and generous colleagues. This experience has pushed and shoved me to the point where at times it has felt like my brain was physically bruising. But most rewardingly it has allowed me to extend and stretch my thinking to a level where I now see the world differently.

I now have a philosophical view that at times moves restlessly between interpretive and critical (realist) paradigms and at times sits perfectly still, I am interested in both. I favour Delanty's (1997) perspective that acknowledges an intergration of interpretive (or constructivist) and realist views of social science. I have formed an epistemological perspective that is both subjectivist and interactive (Sparkes, 1992). This view has led to an ideographic methodological position that due to the evaluative real world nature

of this initial work has also directed me towards understanding the operational processes that support transformative or reformist outcomes (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). These developing perspectives are being formed out of my rather intuitive interests in both; understanding and interpretation and an increasing awareness of how I feel about and view the importance of emancipation in social and education research and practice (Bhaskar, 1978; Sparkes, 1991; Benton and Craib, 2001).

I have had over 17 years of practical teaching and coaching experience in which I have worked with a wide range of different participants with significantly different aims and motivations. Although in comparison I have spent a relatively short amount of time in higher education, the last six years have been very influential in my development as a 'more' expert researcher, educator, citizen and parent.

1.2 Purpose of the research

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the impact a 22 month CPD programme had on a group of football coaches working for a Community Sports Trust (CST) attached to a Premiership football club located in the South East of England. The coaches' role included undertaking specified work to cover PPA time through Physical Education lessons in primary schools. The evaluation adopted a case study methodology that utilised a flexible, multi-method approach to data collection and attempts to move some way to closing the gap identified by Gilbert (2002) who describes the design of research into sports coaching as primarily quantitative with the data gathered mainly through questionnaires. The multi-method approach to data collection is also consistent with established features of flexible case study designs (Robson, 2002; Yin, 2009).

The broader purpose of this study is to seek legitimate access into community based sports coaching (Costley, Elliot and Gibbs, 2010), to build a platform for further investigation into the impact, effectiveness, knowledge and understanding of sports coaches who work with children in community and educational settings. An established criticism of evaluation studies is that they are isolated one off affairs, that neither look back at previous research, or perhaps more crucially in the context of a demonstration case (Pawson, 2003) as in this study, do not look forward to future evaluations (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). The initial objective of the current investigation is to use the knowledge and understanding gained from this demonstration study (Pawson, 2003) as a starting point for building a network of primary case studies that would allow the initial intervention theories to be tested, adapted and re tested (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003, 2006). A significant part of evaluation research is to embrace the challenge of constant programme refinement in order that maximum impact can be achieved.

This would allow for the inevitable gaps in the findings from this study to be investigated further, helping to address the explicit aim and key mission of applied social sciences; that of broadening our understanding in order that we can make evidenced based decisions on policy and practice (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002; Pawson, 2006). This allows us to use empirical evidence to inform local, national interventions and policy with the security of knowing they have a reasonable chance of success in a range of different contexts (Pawson, 2006). This study is not evidence based policy evaluation (Pawson, 2006), the findings are case specific, although the thesis does point the reader in the direction of a naturalistic generalisation (Stake, 2000). This direction is more an attempt at promoting a level of reflectivity that transcends the words on these pages, allowing for past experiences to be analysed and considered in further detail, attempting to support the freeing of individuals to move their thinking beyond the limits of existing historically embedded social structures (Bourdieu, 1990). Due to the contextual open nature of social programmes they will always leave their mark regardless of success or failure (Pawson, 2006). Therefore this study does aim to develop ‘evidenced based local practice’ (Pawson, 2006: 6) from which the lessons learnt and knowledge gained can be transferred and re tested in other similar contexts, i.e. other Community Sports Trusts or through organisations that employ coaches to work in school and community contexts. The literature suggests this to be a worth while pursuit as North (2009) reports that there are 100,000 coaches currently working in school curriculum time lessons, with 90,000 working exclusively in the school context.

Additionally from a broader international perspective the study aims to contribute to the growing literature on how coaches learn and the evaluation of non-formal coach education programmes. Trudel, Gilbert and Werthner (2010) report on only four programme evaluations between 1998 –2007. Three of these studies took a significantly different methodological position utilising a quasi-experimental approach to evaluation. The fourth study by Cassidy, Potrac and Mckenzie (2006) utilised a qualitative single method approach of in-depth semi-structured interviews.

1.3 Structure of the thesis

The thesis is divided into six chapters. This chapter has acknowledged the purpose of the study, my own background and the way it has shaped my interest in understanding the processes of change, the developing relationship between sports coaches and schools, and the role evaluation has in supporting our future policy and practice agenda. It has also identified the question of interest in this study.

Chapter 2 the literature review explores the three central themes of this research project namely, the primary school context, including: Workforce remodelling, Planning, Preparation and Assessment (PPA) time and the Physical Education context; Coaching and Coach Education including: a history of coaching,

football in the community coaching, research in coaching and how coaches learn to coach, including Continuing Professional Development (CPD); while the third section looks at the literature on the history of evaluation and different philosophical approaches to evaluation research.

Chapter 3 outlines the methodology and the methods used in the study. The chapter discusses critical realism, as a paradigm for research design, theory based evaluation and realistic evaluation (Pawson and Tilley, 1997) the chapter also highlights the studies connection with the interpretive paradigm. It identifies the use of a case study methodology and discusses the choice of vignettes as the chosen approach for the presentation of findings, highlighting their uses as a rhetoric strategy for telling a 'realist tale' (Sparkes, 2002) and attempts to support Yin (2009: 189) who states that 'the case study must be composed in an engaging manner'. This chapter also addresses decisions made about participants, sample, access / ethics, instruments / procedures and data analysis.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study. The findings are presented using the realist framework of Context, Mechanism and Outcomes (Bhasker, 1978; Pawson and Tilley, 1997) and attempt to support the reader engaging in the realist methodological approach of ideographic, participative and transformative values (Sparkes, 1992). Vignettes are used to create the reality of the data and are supported by Richardson, (1990, cited in Miles and Huberman, 1994: 299) and Taylor and Garrett (2010) who champion that all writing serves a rhetorical function and that the reader naturally takes on the role of co-analyst through experiencing the original setting vicariously by reading the evidence and considering the writer's interpretation (Erickson, 1986).

Chapter 5 discusses how the findings from the study contribute new knowledge on coaches and coach learning and explores approaches to how sports coaches are prepared and deployed in schools. It questions the initial context and the content of the coaching qualification the coaches gained through the Football Association and places this discussion in the broader national context of the high number of coaches working in schools (North, 2009). The chapter also highlights the mechanisms from the CPD programme that reacted favourably with the evolving context as well as discussing the issues relating to the blocking mechanisms that worked against change.

Chapter 6 concludes the study and aims to place the new knowledge generated through the study in a broader national context that encourages us to reflect on the consequences and challenges brought about by new policy. It highlights the need for continuing social research into community coaches and their relationship with teachers and schools in order that problems can be solved and solutions can be generated from empirical evidence. This aims to create a degree of confidence in relation to the

implementation of mechanisms for change which have a reasonable chance of being successful in similar but different contexts.

1.4 Research questions

Like most researchers / writers working at the early stages of their career I came to writing this introduction towards the end of the writing up process. I hope that it has supported your interest in the study and developed a feeling of anticipation regarding what is coming next (Kirk and Casey, 2012). In line with this thinking I have chosen to place the research aims and questions here at the start of the reader's journey in order that there is a clarity regarding what the study is aiming to achieve.

A key aim of this evaluation research was to answer the questions; what are the mechanisms for change triggered by the programme? (Pawson and Tilley, 1997: 75). What are the social and cultural conditions necessary for change mechanisms to operate and how are they distributed within and between programme contexts? (Pawson and Tilley, 1997: 77).

The sub questions for the study have been formulated through reviewing a combination of practice, policy and academic literature. National Governing Body awards, The Football Association (2002, 2004, 2006) and FA Learning (2008, 2009, 2010) do not contain any content knowledge related to coaches delivering the National Curriculum. In addition literature on coaches' knowledge (Gilbert and Trudel, 1999, 2001 and Nelson and Cushion, 2006, Jones, 2009) indicates that coaches lack socio-pedagogical skills, a skill set that is specifically needed to work in schools and cover PPA time lessons. Therefore sub questions 1ab aim to find out if the coaches in this study had the knowledge, skill and understanding to operate successfully in this context. Literature on coach education (Nelson and Cushion, 2006, Trudel, Gilbert and Werthner, 2010) has reported that formal education routes do not provide coaches with the relevant knowledge and content to operate successfully in real world contexts (Cassidy, Potrac, Jones, 2004, Jones 2006). Coach education is not always effective, and Wayne et al (2008) reported that CPD programmes are poorly evaluated and without effective evaluation it is impossible to understand what works (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Sub questions 2ab aim to support an understanding of what parts of the CPD programme supported or indeed did not support coaches to develop their knowledge, skill and understanding to work in schools.

Hutchings et al (2009) report that head-teachers in their study stopped using sports coaches to cover PPA time due to not being happy with their ability to meet the required educational standards. Therefore sub question 3 aims to understand whether coaches who have followed a CPD programme aimed at developing their skills in order that they could operate against the definition of specified work were a viable educationally sound option for head teachers.

Sub questions are specifically aimed at finding out; 1a) what is the current context in which this group of community coaches are working in schools? 1b) are the coaches 'fit for the purpose' of working in schools and covering PPA time lessons? both, post and pre intervention. 2a) What aspects of the CPD programme worked and what did not work in supporting coaches in developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to deliver specified work? 2b) Why were these interventions successful or unsuccessful? 3) What impact did the CPD programme have on coaches' knowledge, understanding and skill to undertake their role of working in schools covering PPA time lessons?

2 Literature review

2.1.1 Introduction - Workforce Remodelling, Primary schools and Physical Education lessons

This first section of chapter 2 looks at workforce remodelling, workforce remodelling in schools, the introduction of Planning Preparation and Assessment (PPA) time, strategies used by schools to cover PPA time and how this impacts Physical Education in the primary school context. It concludes with an outline of the content contained in the coaching qualifications of coaches employed to cover PPA time.

Teachers are now being faced with an increasing emphasis on the accountability of their practice (Leithwood et al 2006; Vulliamy, 2006). In England, successive Governments throughout the last three decades have tightened their control over teachers and teaching (Vulliamy, 2006; Gibson and Patrick, 2008). Failures in education are now seen as the direct responsibility of the schools and their teachers (Webb, 2006; Gunter and Rayner, 2007). This shift in the educational landscape towards greater accountability has led to an increase in teacher workload, greater prescription regarding curriculum and pedagogy and a threat to the autonomy and professionalism of teachers and schools (Smyth et al, 2000; Thompson, 2006; Gibson and Patrick, 2008). In an attempt to support teachers maintain their autonomy as professionals, recommendations from PricewaterhouseCoopers (2001) *'Teacher Workload Study'* and DfES (2000) *'Teachers Review Body'* supported a remodelling of the school workforce, which became known as 'time for standards' (DfES, 2003).

The need to modernise the school workforce is not unique to England, similar processes have been implemented in other countries notably Australia (Vidovich, 2007) and New Zealand (Fitzgerald, 2007). Indeed workforce remodelling across all public sectors is described as vital for the successful implementation of a wider reform and delivery agenda (Office of Public Sector Reform website, accessed, August 21st 2010). Modernising of a workforce includes looking at key aspects of employees' roles (Butt and Gunter, 2005) and considering how the changing social context allows for some of the traditional tasks and responsibilities to be done differently (Hammersly-Fletcher, 2008). Remodelling has been undertaken across several sectors, including the police service, the fire service, social work and further education (Hendry, 2005). The process for re-modelling in education is underpinned by four key principles as outlined by (DfES, 2003: 3-4):

- "Standards and accountability: there is a national framework to regulate performance which both challenges and secures scrutiny of public sector workers.
- Devolution and delegation: where innovation at local level is allowed and encouraged in resolving issues on the 'front-line'.

- Flexibility and incentives: the relationship between work and the employ/ deployment of the workforce in an efficient and effective way challenges traditional contractual and cultural boundaries.
- Expanding choice: there is expanding diversity through types of provision and tackling poor quality service”.

Remodelling can therefore be viewed as an empowering process that embraces social networking aimed at building a capacity of willing and able workers who adopt new skills and cultural values (Butt and Gunter, 2005) and move from informed prescription to informed professional judgement (DfES, 2003). Ofsted (2002) highlight the role of the assistant in supporting the professional as a key component to remodelling and discuss how the assistant role can be re-conceptualised. This involves the assistant taking on more responsibility, specialising in specific routine jobs, leaving time for the professional to concentrate on other jobs that require formal training and qualifying credentials (Freidson, 2001). This has led to an increase in the number of assistant roles across the public sector (Kesler, Heron and Bach, 2005). In essence, in education, and as a direct result of the remodelling act 2003 there will be a decrease in the demarcation between teacher and teacher assistant roles (Thompson, 2006; Gunter, 2008).

The PricewaterhouseCoopers (2001) report highlighted an undeniable truth that increasing teacher workload was affecting the recruitment and retention into the teaching profession (Smithers and Robinson, 2003). This is not a specific issue to the UK; the OECD (2008) report that there are more teachers leaving the profession than students enrolling on Initial Teacher Education courses in Denmark, Germany, Sweden, the Netherlands and the UK. In the UK the combination of a Conservative Government’s regime of performance testing and New Labour’s standards agenda of national strategies caused a work overload for teachers (Gunter, 2008). Reports highlighted that teachers were working over 50 hours per week (Thomas, Butt, Fielding, Foster, Gunter, Lance, Pilkington, Potts, Powers, Rayner, Rutherford, Selwood and Szwed, 2004). Gunter (2005) reports that 95% of teachers work in the evening and weekends, the mean for a typical evening in 2003 was 1.7 hours for primary school teachers. This is not necessarily a new problem and there has been a genuine concern for some time that we will run out of teachers (DfES, 2000). At the turn of the century 58% of teachers were over the age of 40 and 40% of new teachers were leaving the profession within the first three years; it is also estimated that 300,000 teachers are not working in the role (Gunter, 2005). This is supported by Smithers and Robinson (2003) who reported that workload is the most common reason for teachers leaving the profession.

The PricewaterhouseCoopers (2001) report highlights a number of possible solutions for addressing teacher workload. These solutions include: reducing pupil taught time, increasing pupil-teacher ratios and / or new approaches to timetabling, recruiting additional teachers or supporting learning through staff other than those with qualified teacher status.

On January 15th 2003, The National Agreement on Raising Standards and Tackling Workload, the Workforce Remodelling Act (DfES, 2003) was signed by five of the six unions representing teachers and head-teachers, unions representing support staff and organisations representing teachers' employers. The National Union of Teachers (NUT) the largest union of teachers did not sign the agreement due to concerns over non-qualified teaching assistants having responsibility for whole class learning (Butt and Gunter, 2005; Stevenson and Carter, 2007), and in-turn the de-professionalisation of teachers (Thompson, 2006; Gunter, 2008). The overall aim of the agreement was to address teachers' workload (PriceWaterhousecoopers, 2001), and at the same time raise educational standards (DfES, 2003). The changes were introduced over three phases throughout 2003, 2004 and 2005. They were delivered through three main groups the Workforce Agreement Monitoring Group (WAMG) made up of unions, employers and government with a direct remit to oversee reform; the Implementation Review Unit (IRU), a team of practitioners, with the task of reviewing policy in order to cut bureaucracy; and finally the National Remodelling Team (NRT) led by Dame Pat Collarbone, with direct links to the National College of School Leadership (NCSL) and the Training Development Agency (TDA) (Gunter, 2008).

2.1.2 Time for Standards

'To achieve the demands of the next phase in raising standards, teachers will need to take a more differentiated approach to the needs of their pupils' (DfES, 2003: 8). The Raising Standards and Tackling Workload: a national agreement (DfES, 2003) highlights that we currently have the best ever generation of teachers and head-teachers and that the teaching profession is used to adapting to the demands of the economy and society. New challenges will inevitably surface and will require education to respond; by 2010 more than 80% of jobs will require qualifications of a National Vocational Qualification (NVQ) level 4 or above (DfES, 2003). Teachers will not be equipped to respond to the educational needs of our increasingly sophisticated society if they are not provided with the appropriate support and resources, most notably, time within their working day to plan, prepare and assess pupils work (Gunter, 2008; Hammersly-Fletcher, 2008). School workforce remodelling was designed to help teachers focus their time and energy on the jobs that require their specific expertise, skill and understanding (Hutchings, Seeds, Coleman, Harding, Mansoray, Mayler, Minty, Pickering, 2009). The national agreement outlines a seven point action plan for creating time for teachers to continue to raise educational standards; time for standards:

- 1) Progressive reductions in teachers overall hours over the next four years.
- 2) Changes to teachers' contracts, to ensure all teachers, including headteachers:
 - Do not routinely undertake administrative and clerical tasks
 - Have a reasonable work/life balance
 - Have a reduced burden of providing cover for absent colleagues
 - *Have guaranteed planning, preparation and assessment time within the school day, to support their teaching, individually and collaboratively*
 - Have a reasonable allocation of time which recognises their significant leadership responsibilities for their school.
- 3) A concerted attack on unnecessary paperwork and bureaucratic processes for teachers and head-teachers.
- 4) Reform of support staff and roles to help teachers and support pupils. Personal administrative assistants for teachers', cover supervisors and higher level teaching assistants will be introduced.
- 5) The recruitment of new managers, including business and personal managers, and others with experience from outside education where they have the expertise to contribute effectively to schools' leadership teams.
- 6) Additional resources and national 'change management' programmes, to help school leaders achieve in their schools the necessary reforms of the teaching profession and restructuring of the school workforce; and
- 7) Monitoring of progress on delivery by the signatories to this agreement, these included; Association of Teachers and Lecturers (ATL), Department for Education and Skills (DfES), National Association of Headteachers (NAHT), National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers (NASUWT), National Employers' Organisation for School Teachers (NEOST), Professional Association of Teachers (PAT), Secondary Heads' Association (SHA), Transports and General Workers Union (TGWU), Welsh Assembly Government (WAG). (DfES, 2003)

PPA time allows for all teachers to be released from direct contact with pupils for 10% of their timetable to plan lessons, prepare resources and assess pupils' work (DfES, 2003). In September 2005 Planning, Preparation and Assessment (PPA) time was introduced. The PricewaterhouseCoopers (2001) report highlights that the most obvious way to provide teachers with 10 per cent PPA time is simply to recruit more teachers. This solution was rejected due to the 30-40,000 additional full-time teachers it would require (Thompson, 2006). Somewhat controversially a teacher's PPA time does not have to be covered by a professional colleague holding qualified teachers status (QTS), teaching assistants can be used to

cover classes and lead learning (Gibson and Patrick, 2008; Hammersly-Fletcher and Adnett, 2009). Thompson (2006) uses a dramatic illustration to make her point in relation to non QTS (a person without qualified teacher status) delivering whole class learning, by discussing the absurd idea of brain surgery being carried out by someone who is not qualified.

For Gunter and Rayner (2007) the use of non QTS staff presents a question regarding the purpose of education and the pedagogy of teaching. They also present a moral discussion regarding teachers' professional identities (Gunter and Rayner, 2007). This is further supported by Ofsted (2007) who report that, due to the use of the wider workforce the practice in classrooms is changing, a wider range of staff are leading learning. Thompson (2006) questions whether it is appropriate for someone without QTS to be responsible for whole class learning, thus taking away the need for specialised graduate level knowledge that requires judgement and decision making skills, in favour of teaching assistants who follow lesson plans and deliver government produced materials on national strategies (Alexander, 2004; Gibson and Patrick, 2008). Advances in information technology would also allow Teaching Assistants (TA) to download lesson plans from the internet (Gunter, 2008). This type of thinking leads Thompson (2006), who references Freidson (2001) analysis of professionalism, to comment that, if this demarcation is not appropriate then re-modelling the teaching workforce is actually, in the longer term at least, the de-professionalisation of the teaching workforce. Blatchford et al (2008: 10) conclude that 'classroom based support staff now have a distinct pedagogical role, supporting and interacting with pupils'. This point is clearly illustrated by comparing the 1999 and 2003 versions of information provided for Office for Standards in Children's service and skills (Ofsted) inspectors in their Handbook for inspecting Primary and Nursery schools. Guidance provided in the earlier (1999) version of the handbook clear requires inspectors to evaluate a TA's contribution to learning, however final assessments of teaching should only be provided for qualified teachers (Gibson and Patrick, 2008). The 2003 version requires inspectors to evaluate the TAs contribution to teaching when working alone and away from the teacher with groups of pupils or whole classes, and states:

The most successful teaching assistants show many of the characteristics of good teachers ... they support teachers and often lead lessons or sessions. Where this happens, assess their contribution to achieving learning objectives in the same way as you would a teacher (Ofsted, 2002a: 68; Ofsted 2002b).

Gibson and Patrick (2008) extend the point of de-professionalisation made by Thompson (2006) and challenge central government regarding their stance on the independence of teachers to make decisions regarding their pedagogy. Despite years of government (s) reassuringly repeating a message that teachers have the power to decide how they teach, the remodelling act has shifted the demarcation

between teacher and assistants (Thompson, 2006; Gunter, 2008). Teaching assistants who deliver government generated national strategy material to small groups and whole classes could knowingly or unknowingly be acting as a channel for central governments agenda for education and pupils learning (Teacher Training Agency, 2003; Gibson and Patrick, 2008). The explicit point made by Gibson and Patrick (2008) is that an assistant is much less likely to challenge this power dynamic, as in theory they do not have the academic background to do so. This view is supported by Hutchings et al (2009) who report that the vast majority of TA's feel empowered by the new responsibilities and see it as a chance to prove themselves. In the long term this could have serious implications for the role of teachers (Thompson, 2006; Gunter, 2008). While this situation does sound unrealistic, a leaked document from the DfES known as 'Workforce Reform - Blue Skies' (Stewart, 2006) does outline that New Labour did consider the radical idea of the only person in the school having QTS being the head teacher, who would buy in learning support (Gunter, 2008). This is a reverse of the position presented by DfES/PricewaterhouseCoopers (2007), who argue that a head teacher does not need QTS status due to their role being more like that of a 'Chief Executive' or 'Chief Operating Officer'.

2.1.3 Guaranteed planning, preparation and assessment time

This study has a specific focus on how the workforce remodelling act has guaranteed all teachers 10% of their normal timetabled teaching time, to plan lessons, prepare resources and assess pupils work. A report by Blatchford et al (2008) highlights how teachers' work load has been positively affected through the introduction of PPA time. This is also supported by Hutchings et al (2009). It should be made clear that the overall aim of remodelling is to support teachers in raising standards of pupil attainment and further support the increased professionalisation of the teaching profession (DfES, 2003; Hammersly-Fletcher, 2008). PPA time is specifically aimed at providing teachers with time within their working day in which they can plan, prepare and assess differentiated work that will meet the increasingly diverse needs of the individual pupils they teach (DfES, 2003; Hutchings et al, 2009), and therefore enable teachers to raise educational standards.

Guaranteed PPA time will count towards a teacher's 1265 contractual hours (DfES, 2003). This time should be arranged in blocks of no less than 30 minutes duration as part of a teacher's normal timetabled commitments (DfES, 2003; Hammersly-Fletcher, 2008; Hutchings et al, 2009). Hutchings et al (2009) highlighted that 97% of head-teachers felt all staff in their school had their full entitlement of PPA time; however in the same study only 88% of teachers agreed with this statement. This compares with NASUWT (2008 cited in Estyn, 2009: 27) workload audit that reported 94% of teachers felt that they had their allocation of PPA time. The act has had an impact on teachers workloads, as illustrated by Yarker (2005: 170) who stated that 'an afternoon per week of planning, preparation and assessment

(PPA) time had enabled teachers to achieve real progress in dealing with their workload', particularly in primary schools where non-contact time for teachers is very different from that in secondary schools (Hutchings et al, 2009). This is further supported by three quarters of head teachers in Hutchings et al (2009) who reported that they felt that PPA time had a positive effect on their teachers' morale and subsequently the quality of their lessons. Schools in the study by Hutchings et al (2009) used a range of different strategies to provide cover for PPA time.

The Raising Standards and Tackling Workload a National Agreement (DfES, 2003) document discusses a range of different strategies for covering PPA time. These include, the reduction of managerial, administrative and clerical tasks and of pupil supervision that does not include teaching, e.g. detention and assembly duty. However, DfES, (2003: 9) state 'Ultimately, delivery of guaranteed PPA in many schools will depend upon support staff reform'. The Time for Standards (2002) reforming the school workforce outlines a number of key points in relation to what it would like to see (DfES, 2003). These points include allowing teachers to drive new, more flexible models of teaching and learning; exercising their informed professional judgement in leading a range of colleagues to enrich provision and raise standards for every pupil and being accountable for learning outcomes rather than for every step of the journey (DfES, 2003).

Hutchings et al (2009) reported that most schools use a range of different strategies to cover PPA time. These included the use of: (i) internal staff: teachers, head-teacher, floating teacher, job share teacher, a member of the leadership team; (ii) support staff, a member of the support staff who plans their own work and leads learning, a member of the support staff who follows a teacher's plan to lead learning; external teacher, specialised teacher, supply teacher or specialist coach / instructor; or grouping two classes together for activities such as singing (Hutchings et al, 2009). The majority of schools in Hutchings et al (2009) study had changed their cover arrangement since the introduction of PPA time in September 2005. In primary schools classes were most likely to be taught by support staff class-room assistants (55%) and floating teachers (38%) (Hutchings et al, 2009). Schools also used specialised sports coaches (Hutchings et al, 2009; North, 2009), head teachers, specialist teachers and supply teachers (Hutchings et al, 2009).

Primary schools had a very different challenge from secondary schools as it was very unusual for a primary school teacher to have any non-contact time throughout a school day (Hutchings et al, 2009). The WAMG (2005: 2) state:

Schools should be clear that they cannot use staff in cover supervision roles to fill gaps in the timetable created by teacher PPA time. This is because there must be active delivery of the curriculum. ... To accommodate PPA time, schools must deploy staff capable of delivering

specified work to whole classes, who have been graded accordingly. In deploying such staff, head-teachers must have regard to the HLTA standards.

They also state that *'The effective deployment of support staff should not place any additional planning burden on teaching colleagues'* (WAMG 2005: 2).

Hutchings et al (2009) also report that from a head-teachers perspective there was a trend for primary schools to use internal staff to cover PPA provision, for example, other teachers and them self the head-teacher. The main reason for this was cost, however in relation to specialist sport coaches head-teachers reported being dissatisfied with the quality of the provision provided (Hutchings et al, 2009); the lack of coaches' knowledge, skill and understanding to work in PPA time and deliver specified work has also been reported by Griggs (2008).

Hutchings et al (2009: 226) report that schools use sports coaches to provide cover for PAA provision, they report comments from head-teachers; head-teacher A, had... *'recognised [pupils] weren't getting enough PE'*, head-teacher B, discussed how consultation with parents led her to make more provision for PE... she stated *'and the answers came back over and over again, we'd like you to do more sport.'* A third head-teacher C reported that he was unhappy with the Physical Education in the school and said that *'it just seemed to make sense really to try and supplement the PE'*. Headteacher C continued:

It's games, RE and PSHCE during teachers' PPA time and it just seems to fit well because it does really. I don't feel that we are wasting children's time, whereas I do think some colleague heads who have just set up an activities afternoon where children go from one activity to the other with someone they've brought in or just a TA. I'm really not sure, ten per cent of a week is quite a lot and I think if you're going to take ten per cent you've got to add ten per cent of value to the children's curriculum entitlement time.

The same head-teacher C also noted that part of her rationale for using sports coaches was that the lesson they covered did not have to be planned by her teachers (Hutchings et al 2009). This supports the WAMG (2005) statement regarding planning. Griggs (2008, 2010) discusses his concerns regarding coaches' knowledge and understanding to work in schools and cover Physical Education in PPA time. This is further supported by Ofsted (2009) who report concerns with using sports coaches to cover curriculum lessons. The report acknowledges that coaches have specialised knowledge of sports but highlights that their pedagogical knowledge and skills are weaker and they are unable to teach the full range and content of the NCPE. Additionally the seemingly interchangeable use of the words Physical Education and Sport suggest that the head-teacher and parents in Hutchings et al (2009) study may not have a full understanding of the difference between Physical Education and Sport (Capel, 2000). This is also concerning when discussed in the context of anyone covering PPA time must be able to deliver specified work (DfES, 2002; WAMG, 2005), and the head-teacher must be satisfied that they are able to

do so. Specified work is defined by Baalpe (2005: 4) as part, or all of: 'Planning and preparing lessons and courses for pupils; Delivering lessons to pupils – including distance learning or computer-aided techniques; Assessing the development, progress and attainment of pupils; Reporting on the development, progress and attainment of pupils'. In order to carry out specified work a coach must understand their role and should be able to demonstrate their competence against this definition (Baalpe, 2005). The lack of understanding in relation to Physical Education and Sport was also demonstrated by a sports coach interviewed by Hutchings et al (2009: 227) who stated: '*qualified in a subject that's not necessarily the primary teacher's favourite*', he continued...

We run curriculum time sessions which allow the teachers to be freed up to do whatever else they want, but also allows us to put a much, not better necessarily, but a very different slant on PE from what might be taught by a lot of the teachers within primary schools.

This supports the view of head teachers reported in Hutchings et al (2009). Additionally the quote does seem to indicate that the coach is not fully aware of why he is delivering curriculum time sessions.

2.1.4 Planning Preparation and Assessment time, Physical Education and Primary Education

Initial observations suggest that many primary school teachers are choosing to have someone else cover the teaching of their Physical Education lessons whilst they are engaged in their PPA time (e.g. Stewart, 2006; Griggs, 2008; Lavin, Swindlehurst and Foster, 2008; North, 2009), although Hutchings et al (2009) report that this is not always the case with some primary head-teachers preferring to use staff with QTS or provide cover for PPA them self. In relation to primary teachers as well as their own lack of knowledge, skill and understanding in teaching Physical Education (Morgan and Burke, 2008), there are a number of additional factors that could also contribute to Physical Education being covered by someone else to release the teacher for PPA time (Blair and Capel, 2008). These include: the focus on academic achievement in making judgements on the success of a school (or teacher), resulting in the prioritisation of English, mathematics and science, a limited understanding of the role of Physical Education in schools; confusion between Physical Education and sport (Capel, 2000); and a willing pool of sports coaches who are perceived to hold relevant qualifications (National Governing Body (NGB) awards) (North, 2009) and who are readily available to cover Physical Education lessons for an hourly rate of pay (Griggs, 2010) - a situation which is perhaps not the same for, say, English or mathematics.

Gibson and Patrick (2008) discuss the NUTs decision not to sign the national agreement over their concerns regarding TAs being responsible for whole class learning. However, the NUT also highlight that they do not disagree with specialist instructors having responsibility for whole class learning (Sinnott, 2005; Gibson and Patrick, 2008). This point is developed by North (2009) who reports that there is

evidence that coaches are working in school curriculum-time physical education, this is also supported by Griggs, (2010). Therefore there is the potential for 100,000 plus coaches who do not hold QTS to be working in schools covering Physical Education curriculum lessons (North, 2009).

2.1.5 Physical Education and Primary School Teachers

The limited time spent on Physical Education in primary Initial Teacher Education (ITE) in England has been of concern over a number of years (Caldecott, Warburton and Waring, 2006; Talbot, 2008). Recently, a number of authors (e.g. Skyes, 2007; Talbot, 2007, 2008; Kelso, 2008) have reported that many primary teachers have received minimum input on Physical Education in their ITE, with Talbot (2008) estimating that 40% of all newly qualified primary school teachers have received only six hours preparation in teaching Physical Education. Caldecott, Warburton and Waring (2006) reported that as few as five hours are being spent on Physical Education in primary ITE. Carney and Armstrong (1996) found that 93% of student respondents reported they were dissatisfied with the time allocated for Physical Education on their ITE course. For example, 63% 'far too little time' and 30% 'too little time' expressed dissatisfaction with the time allocation on undergraduate programmes. This situation has prompted Talbot (2007: 8) to state '6 hours is simply not acceptable' and 'this is a national disgrace'.

The limited input of Physical Education received by primary school teachers in ITE, combined with their personal biographies and subjectivities regarding their formative experience of Physical Education and school sport, is likely to result in many primary ITE students lacking confidence to teach Physical Education (e.g. Garrett and Wrench, 2007; Morgan and Bourke, 2008). Carney and Chedzoy (1998) highlighted the relationship between an individual's formative experiences and their confidence to teach Physical Education. This is supported by Morgan and Bourke (2008) who found that most respondents in their study had a moderate level of confidence in teaching Physical Education. Combined with different challenges regarding class management, increased physical risk and specific content knowledge, this contributes to Physical Education being perceived as one of the most challenging areas of the curriculum for primary teachers to deliver (Sloan, 2010). It is also likely that primary teachers undertake limited continuing professional development (CPD) specifically focusing on Physical Education (Talbot, 2007, 2008). In light of the limited input on Physical Education in primary ITE and the resulting lack of knowledge, skill and confidence of primary teachers in teaching Physical Education, it is perhaps not surprising that in 2005 Ward reported on research that indicated a third of all primary schools were using external sports providers to cover Physical Education lessons (Ward, 2005). This is further supported by North (2009) regarding the number of coaches working in schools. However, this situation has been exacerbated by the introduction of the 2003 workload agreement for teachers (DfES, 2003).

Additionally schools may perceive it is easier to find someone who is able to come in and teach Physical Education lessons as opposed to other subjects (North, 2009; Griggs, 2010). It would be much harder to identify a group of people to cover other subjects, with the exception perhaps of music, art and foreign languages (Blair and Capel, 2008). There are several possible reasons why coaches are used for covering Physical Education lessons. First, 'PE teaching and coaching are regarded as synonymous' (Lyle, 2002: 10). This view is reinforced in Government documents and recent initiatives which use the words PE and sport synonymously, Hutchings et al (2009) also support this view. Government initiatives include the Physical Education, School Sport and Club Links (PESSCL) project, the overall objective of which was 'to enhance the take-up of sporting opportunities by 5 to 16-year-olds, with a target of increasing the percentage of school children who spend a minimum of two hours a week on high-quality Physical Education and school sport within and beyond the curriculum to 75 per cent by 2006 and 85 per cent by 2008 (Phillpots, 2010). The longer-term aim is to offer all children at least four hours of sport every week by 2010. This can be made up of at least two hours of high-quality Physical Education and sport at schools, with the expectation that this will be delivered totally within the curriculum and an additional two or more hours beyond the school day delivered by a range of school, community and club providers (teachernet, 2007). North (2009) suggests that in order to achieve this there will be a need for an additional 4200 full-time sports coaches all providing 20 hours of direct delivery per week.

Head-teachers are using sports coaches who, for an hourly rate of pay, 'coach' pupils within their curriculum Physical Education lessons (Hutchings et al, 2009; Griggs, 2010). A further issue here is that even within this group there is considerable difference in the number and availability of coaches in different sports. Football has the largest number of coaches available to teach in PPA time (scUK, 2004, 2007) therefore there are likely to be more football coaches employed in primary schools than coaches of any other sports.

Football coaches who might be employed in curriculum time are qualified through National Governing Body (NGB) awards in specific sports, mainly at levels 1, 2 and 3. Levels 1 and 2 are both open entry courses (i.e. no formal qualifications are required for entry) (The Football Association, 2002, 2004). For football coaches, both courses consist of theoretical and practical components that include at level 1: Football Association (FA) child protection (3 hours attendance), FA emergency aid, distance learning including soccer parent, laws of the game, player and coach development, club administration, review of practical sessions and assessment preparation. There is a practical assessment, with each coach delivering a practice from the course handbook. The level 2 qualification covers; skill practices, 1v 1, 2 v 2 and 3 v 3, plus small – sided games, 6 v 6. At level 2 the coach is required to conduct a minimum of 16

hours of verified coaching, supported by session plans and evaluations, plus work on an action plan as discussed with their course tutor. The theoretical input at level 2 includes; FA child protection (3 hours attendance), FA emergency aid, distance learning comprising of completing a candidate pack (The Football Association, 2002, 2004).

The level 3 qualification also contains both theoretical and practical elements (The Football Association, 2006). The theory consists of FA safeguarding children, FA emergency aid, distance learning including completing all course tasks and formulating coaching plans for assessment. Coaches again have to conduct a minimum of sixteen hours of verified coaching, supported by session plans and evaluations. They also have to produce an action plan as discussed with course tutors. The practical content of the Level 3 includes functional practices, phases of play, small-sided games (9v9). In addition, Level 3 offers support sessions aimed at assisting candidates in preparing for their final assessment. All FA qualifications include a final practical assessment. The FA awards cover mainly technical, tactical, physical and in some case psychological content knowledge for coaching football. They therefore do not necessarily provide coaches with the knowledge skill and understanding to deliver specified work (Blair and Capel, 2008).

The FA have recently introduced age appropriate coaching awards aimed specifically at supporting coaches that work with children (FA learning, 2008, 2009, 2010). However, despite the fact that the most common environment a coach works is a school (scUK, 2004, 2007; North, 2009) and that football has the largest number of coaches working in schools (scUK, 2004, 2007) these awards do not contain any information regarding NCPE and planning for intentional learning (FA learning, 2008, 2009, 2010). This is a concern when viewed in the context of what North (2009) and scUK, (2004, 2007) report on the number of sports (football) coaches working in schools. Additionally Blair and Capel (2012) make a critical point regarding the content of the FA age appropriate coaching awards not containing content to support coaches working in schools. They question why anyone who has taken an age appropriate coaching qualification aimed at working with children would not benefit from understanding what children did during their school Physical Education lessons, regardless of whether they worked in the school context or not. Coaches and coach learning is discussed in the next section.

2.2 Coaches and coaching

2.2.1 Introduction

This section provides a review of the history to sports coaching, including research on coaching and an introduction to Football in the Community (FitC). It then discusses how coaches learn their role; this is considered through a conceptual model of formal, non-formal and informal education as presented by

Coombs and Ahmed (1974) and contextualised to coach education by Nelson and Cushion, (2006) and Trudel, Gilbert and Werthner, (2010).

2.2.2 The historical context of Sports Coaching in the United Kingdom

The progression of sports coaching in Britain has moved through three distinct phases; early diffusion, stagnation and the starting point for coach development and education (Lyle, 2002). It could be suggested that with the introduction of the United Kingdom Coaching Framework 2007 (North, 2011), and national governing bodies introducing coaching qualifications that are aimed at specific coaches, i.e. The Football Association's age appropriate modules 1, 2 and 3 (FA learning, 2008, 2009, 2010), we are entering a fourth stage in the history of sports coaching, as we embrace more bespoke and specific programmes (Nelson and Cushion, 2006). Lyle (2002) states that there are no detailed accounts that chronicle the history of sport coaching, adding that this is perhaps long overdue. The early diffusion presents a 'chariots of fire' view of the ad hoc preparation of working class athletes engaged in physically demanding sports such as running and boxing in order that they add 'a little extra' to supplement their weekly wage (Maclean and Pritchard 2008). Athletic trainers were engaged for professional sportsmen, although there were no formal coach education programmes for these 'coaches,' rather they learned through an apprenticeship system (McNab, 1990; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Maclean and Pritchard, 2008). In direct contrast the gentleman amateur of the time resisted any systematic attention to preparation (Lyle, 2002; Maclean and Pritchard, 2008). The gentleman amateur viewed improvement as a direct link to natural ability and personal physicality (Lyle, 2002). This is an approach that is very much at odds with more contemporary views on skill development (Ericsson and Charness, 1994; Syed, 2010). The overall legacy of Victorian sports coaching was the amateur values associated with a 'non-professional' approach to athletic development (Lyle, 2002). This is a view that for some is still held in high regard as Taylor and Garratt (2008: 17) highlight the captain of the village tennis club 'It may seem rather old fashioned but there is still a healthy suspicion within my sport of so called professionals. The members and coaches here hold very dearly notions of the common good and volunteering for the love of the game - not what you can get out of it...'.

The progression of sport coaching during the period up to 1947 when Geoff Dyson became one of the first national coaches appointed in Britain, development in this period was relatively stagnated, Dyson himself suggested that Great Britain was 'one of the last great sport countries to turn to coaching' (Dyson, 1980, cited in Lyle, 2002: 6). However even in sports such as Football where Walter Winterbottom became the first national coach in 1946, he was team manager and FA director of coaching, but did not select any of the players in his teams (Maclean and Pritchard, 2008). Stanley Rous

developed the first official coaching course run by the FA in the late 1940's (Robinson, 2010). The more established sports did start to hold courses and conferences, mainly for teachers. However coach education on a national basis did not emerge until the 1950's (Lyle, 2002). The late 1940's and early 1950's saw the introduction of National Coaches in several of the more established sports including; Athletics 1947, Tennis 1948, Football 1949, Rugby League 1955 and Swimming 1956 (Sutcliffe, 1995, cited in Lyle, 2002: 6). Many of these coaches had education backgrounds and created coach education programmes that mainly demonstrated the hallmarks of courses that have been victim of much critique in recent times for example (Douge and Hastie, 1993; Abraham and Collins, 1998; Gilbert and Trudel, 1999; Cassidy, Jones and Potrac, 2004; Jones, Armour and Potrac, 2004) i.e. technical orientated and divorced from actual practice. The coaching programmes were often aimed at school teachers and focused mainly on participation based coaching (Lyle, 2002). Indeed, it was physical education teachers who tended naturally to assume the role of coach, mainly due to their enthusiasm for sport and their natural physical ability (Lyle, 2002). The appointment of National Coaches did have a positive impact on sport coaching in Britain, although they were never really part of a structured system of athletic development. They often became organisers, administrators and fund raisers (Lyle, 2002; Maclean and Pritchard, 2008)

In 1965 The British Association of National Coaches (BANC) was established (Lyle, 2002). It organised national conferences and provided an expanded associate membership system (Lyle, 2002). Despite this, coaching development progressed in a relatively ad hoc manner through the 1960' and 1970's with individual governing bodies working in relative isolation and relying on pioneering individuals who leaned heavily on their education backgrounds. The 1980's was the start of a more structured period for sports coaching with the introduction of the National Coaching Foundation (NCF) in 1983. The early 1980's saw the development of coaching courses to support volunteers and coaches who worked with children who wanted to participate in sport (Lyle, 2002). The 1980's and 1990's saw the introduction of sports development initiatives that supported participation coaching, for example, Champion Coaching and the TOPS programme (Lyle, 2002). The period 1983 to 2001 saw the NCF grow and add increasing structure and support to coaching and coach education, with a brief to provide non-sports specific information and education from grass roots to the elite level. A detailed history of the NCF can be found at <http://www.sportscoachuk.org>. In 2001 the NCF was re-branded sports coach UK (scUK). Highlights of this year were 30,000 coaches and teachers attended scUK programmes across the UK, membership reached 12,000, and 1st4sport qualifications, a new awarding body meeting the criteria laid down by the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA), was established.

At 12.49pm British summer time on Wednesday July 6th 2005 International Olympic Committee (IOC) president Jacques Rogge made the dramatic announcement that the city of London had been awarded the honour of hosting the Olympic and Paralympic Games of 2012 (BBC Sport, 2005). Being awarded these games provided the sporting structure within England with an impetus and long term direction. In order that the games support the nation by leaving a sporting legacy that goes beyond 2012 it was recognised that athletes of all stages and ages needed to be appropriately supported by well qualified coaches throughout all levels of participation from grass roots to elite (scUK, 2010). In 2005 scUK were set the challenge of developing the UK Coaching Framework (scUK, 2007).

Throughout 2006 and the first part of 2007 scUK undertook an extensive consultation process ending with the formulation of a final document the UK Coaching Framework (North, 2009). The vision of The UK Coaching Framework is to create a cohesive, ethical, inclusive and valued coaching system where skilled coaches support children, players and athletes at all stages of their development in sports and which is number one in the world by 2016. The framework has three phases: building, delivering and transforming. These phases will span from 2006 to 2016 (scUK, 2007). The United Kingdom Coaching Certificate (UKCC) is specifically designed to address some of the issues and criticisms of formal coach education provision (Nelson and Cushion, 2006). Lyle (2007) argues that the certificate will respond to the critiques of coach education (Gilbert and Trudel, 1999, 2001; Nelson and Cushion, 2006) that point out that there is not enough emphasis placed on the socio pedagogical skills of coaches. The development of the UKCC is seen as a significant change in how coaches are educated in the UK. But it is important to remember that the initial delivery of the certificate will be developmental (Cushion, Nelson, Armour, Lyle, Jones, Sandford and O'Callaghan, 2010). Nelson and Cushion (2006) warn of the danger of the rhetoric of the UKCC not matching with the reality. Some NGBs are not able or willing to deliver and therefore are failing to put in place coach education that adequately supports the needs of their coaches. The reality of this is seen, albeit on a small scale, through the Football Association's (FA) modules 1, 2, 3 age appropriate qualifications which do not include information to support coaches working in schools (FA learning, 2008, 2009, 2010). For example, there is no reference to teaching methods or styles (Mosston and Ashworth, 2002) in modules 1 and 2 and in the context of North (2009) there is no input on the NC or the NCPE (Blair and Capel, 2012). Indeed the FA module 1 award is titled, 'developing the environment' and makes reference to 'knowing your players', and yet no reference is made to what children do during the 6 hours a day, 5 days a week, 39 weeks a year that they spend in school (Blair and Capel, 2012).

2.2.3 Coaches in schools

North (2009) reports that there is evidence that coaches' are working in school curriculum time Physical Education. This is supported by scUK, (2004, 2007); Stewart, (2006); Griggs, (2008); Lavin, Swindlehurst and Foster, (2008). North (2009) reports on results from the coaching workforce project 2009-2016, the results suggest that this is around 150-200,000 hours per week (out of an estimated 2.6 million Physical Education hours) of National Curriculum time is being delivered by sports coaches who potentially do not have qualified teacher status (QTS). Furthermore this research suggests that in order to meet government targets regarding Physical Education provision and hours of participation there will be a need for a further 84,000 coaching hours in Physical Education per week. This will generate the need for an additional 4200 full-time sports coaches all providing 20 hours of direct delivery per week (North, 2009). This is concerning when reviewed against the literature on coaches working in schools. For example, Carney and Howells (2008: 3) stated clearly 'coaches with sport specific knowledge, but without an education background, are not the answer'. This is further supported by Talbot (2008: 7) who argued that the best quality Physical Education she has seen in primary schools has been 'delivered by primary teachers who were not physical education specialists, but specialists in children's development. . . who know the children they teach well'. For Talbot (2008), the answer is to develop the confidence and competence of primary schoolteachers to deliver high quality Physical Education.

2.2.4 Developing sports coaching

In addition to looking at the history of sports coaching it is helpful to look at research into sports coaching. Research on 'grass roots' coaches (those working with participation and developmental level children or athletes) has shown that they are normally volunteers (Albinson, 1973; Gould and Martens, 1979; Weiss and Sisley, 1984; Gray and Cornish, 1985; Barber et al, 1996; Gould and Martens, 1979; Gray and Cornish, 1985; Salminen and Liukkonen, 1996: all cited in Trudel and Gilbert, 2006: 520; scUK, 2007, 2010; North, 2009). Trudel and Gilbert (2006) describe a participation level coach as someone who supports athletes, players, students etc. to develop basic skills with an emphasis on taking part rather than competition and a developmental level coach as someone whose support is more formal and includes a competitive structure, which requires an increased commitment on behalf of the coach and the athlete. Lyle (2002: 49) describes the profile of participation level coaches as 'involvement irregular; formal organisation but loose membership; some improvement objectives but participation emphasised over practice'. Lyle (2002: 49) also states there is 'little formal progression in a very limited preparation programme'. Goals are usually short-term with the intensity of practice being low even if long term involvement, not all performance components are given attention. Research on the educational backgrounds of these coaches has shown that on average 50% or fewer had completed any

formal coach education (Bratton, 1978; Weiss and Sisley, 1984; Corso et al. 1988: all cited in Trudel and Gilbert, 2006: 521). Data specific to the UK highlights that in 2004, 38% of coaches were qualified, through NGB awards, with research in 2007 indicated that this number had increased to 50% (scUK, 2007). Coaching in the South East of England, the location of this current study, shows that 77% of all coaches active in the previous 12 months held National Governing Body (NGB) awards (Lambourne and Higginson, 2006). Trudel and Gilbert (2006) also cite research which has shown that fewer than 60% of coaches have college degrees (Gould and Martens, 1979; Hanson and Gauthier, 1988; Lee et al, 1989; Ubbes, 1991: all cited in Trudel and Gilbert: 521).

Lyle (2002) considers sport coaching to be a good example of how professional work classifications change over time. The registrar general's social class index interpretation of sports coaching as 'sports instruction', classifies coaching as a 'skilled manual occupation for which a university degree is not required' (cited in Lyle, 2002: 200). This interpretation does not fit with Lyle's view of the sport coach and, indeed, the professional classification of coaches has changed over time. Lyle (2002) pointed out that an 'updated standard occupational classification' (Office for National Statistics, 2000) classifies sport coaching in Major Group 3 – associate professional and technical occupations' (cited in Lyle, 2002: 200). He continues that the education and training characteristic of an associated profession demonstrates a lengthy period of full-time training and usually a formal period of induction - not a description that is currently associated with sports coaching (Lyle, 2002).

Trudel, Gilbert and Werthner (2010) report on research studies carried out between 1998 and 2007 that evaluate the effectiveness of coach education. They report on these studies by dividing them into three categories: small scale coach education programmes (four studies), university based coach education programmes (four studies) and large scale coach education programmes (six studies). Trudel et al (2010) provide a brief description of the programme interventions and the results of the programme. The small scale coach education programmes align themselves to a non-formal situation, i.e. they are not delivered through a NGB or a university degree programme and fit with the description of non-formal learning provided by Coombs and Ahmed (1974). The four small scale studies reported were Trudel, Bernard and Boileau (2000); Coatsworth and Conroy (2006); Smith, Smoll and Cumming (2007) and Cassidy, Potrac and McKenzie (2006). The first three studies used experimental designs and attempted to understand behaviour change in coaching practice. The fourth study, Cassidy et al (2006) had the smallest sample size and utilised qualitative methodology of in depth semi-structured interviews aimed at gaining an understanding from each coach of their perceptions of taking part in the theory based intervention programme. Trudel et al (2010) highlight it is extremely difficult to determine the effect of coach education programmes, even if you have control over content and delivery, the sport

in which the study takes place, the researcher and course tutor, and are able to separate coaches into control and experiment groups. The last point is interesting in that it refers to an experimental research methodology the choice of Trudel, Bernard and Boileau (2000); Coatsworth and Conroy (2006); Smith, Smoll and Cumming (2007) - i.e. the first three studies highlighted by Trudel et al (2010). An experimental design is a research methodology that only reports on the outcomes of a programme intervention and does not tell us anything about the mechanisms for change (Pawson and Tilley, 1997, Pawson, 2006).

Pawson and Tilley (1997) and Pawson, (2006) write from a realist perspective with an interest in how context and mechanism work together to produce outcomes. They argue that an experimental approach is flawed if our aim is not only to report outcome but to consider what is 'best practice'. Conroy and Coatsworth (2004) writing from a positivist or experimentalist perspective disagree, highlighting that the search for best practice in coach education may be completely pointless as coach education programmes and indeed all social intervention programmes work differently in different contexts with different people. Trudel et al (2010: 139) concluded that 'there is no substantial body of evidence to support the wide spread long-term effectiveness of coach education training programmes, even in highly controlled and small scale quasi-experimental settings'. This view is also supported by Smith, Smoll and Cumming (2007: 40), who also conclude that 'because of the lack of true experimental design, or comparison to alternative coach interventions, we cannot rule out the possibility that simple receiving an intervention (regardless of content) will help change coaches behaviour'.

2.2.5 Football (coaching) in the Community

It is well established that English football clubs have deep roots with their communities (Mellor, Brown, Blackshaw, Crabbe and Stone, 2003; Brown, Mellor, Blackshaw, Crabbe and Stone, 2004). However, since the 1960's there appeared to be a serious split between football clubs and their local communities (Watson, 2000; Mellor et al, 2003; McGuire, 2008). Mason, (1988) and Holt, (1996) have questioned the extent to which professional football clubs represent their local communities. Mellor et al (2003: 9) provide us with several reasons for this: the relocation of many 'traditional' English urban communities during post-war 'slum' clearance programmes', large-scale immigration into many English cities from the Indian subcontinent and the Caribbean during the 1950s and 1960s; football clubs being increasingly regarded as 'nuisances' from the 1960s because of hooliganism and associated problems; and the growth of 'out of town' supporters of successful football clubs who do not live in the immediate locale of clubs that they support.

In the late 1970's, following a Government white paper on sporting participation, an attempt was made to make professional football clubs more accessible to their fan base as a strategy to help combat

football hooliganism as a significant social problem (Watson, 2000; Brown et al, 2006; McGuire, 2008). In 1978 the Sports Council spent £1 million of the Labour Government's money to launch 39 community schemes at professional football clubs and 10 at professional rugby league clubs (Mellor, et al 2003). Igham (1981) reported that the schemes were a success, but required more money to develop their work. Despite this recommendation 'Football in the Community' gradually disappeared after the Sport Council stopped their funding (Mellor et al, 2003).

In 1986 a second attempt at using the power and aura of professional football clubs to reach out to their wider communities was developed by the National Football in the Community programme who piloted six community-based schemes with clubs in the North West of England; Bolton Wanderers, Manchester City, Oldham Athletic, Bury, Manchester United and Preston North End. The schemes were funded by the Footballers' Further Education and Vocational Training Society (FFE&VTS), the educational branch of the Professional Footballers' Association (PFA) (Brown et al, 2006). At the same time, but unconnected to these Northern based schemes, football community projects were being organised in London. Three professional football clubs worked with the Greater London Council to try and bring clubs closer to their communities. The club involved were Arsenal, Fulham and Millwall (Mellor et al, 2003).

During the 1990's FFE&VTS continued to grow and incorporated some of the independent London Clubs (Mellor et al, 2003). In 1991 under a new framework of management that included the FA, the Football League and the Professional Footballers Association, the Football in the Community scheme developed a new business plan with clearer aims and objectives. These were refined again in 1996 as the schemes attracted new funding from the Football Trust and commercial sponsors such as Adidas, Wagon Wheel and Pizza Hut (Mellor, et al 2003). The aims were to:

- Encourage more people (especially children) to play football.
- Encourage more people (especially children) to watch football.
- Promote closer links between football clubs and the community.
- Encourage more people to support their local club.
- Maximise community facilities and their community usage at football Clubs.
- Provide temporary and/or gainful employment and training for unemployed people.

Since the 1990's the role of professional football clubs in promoting sporting and social change has grown significantly (Mellor et al, 2003). By 2003, ninety community schemes were in operation and the National Football in the Community programme was delivering structured football coaching to over 1

million children per year (McGuire, 2008). In the early part of the twenty-first century the Football in the Community Programme has grown in stature and role, indeed Watson (2000: 112) states that football in the community is 'the game's best kept secret'. Watson (2000) reports that there are significant differences between community schemes located at a premier league football club and one that is located at a football league club. Schemes that are attached to premier league clubs generally employed more members of staff and generate more than £250,000 per annum, while schemes attached to lower division football league clubs usually employed fewer staff and had an annual turnover of between £10,000 and £15,000 (Watson, 2000).

2.2.6 What does Football in the Community do?

With the change of Government in 1997 and New Labour's social inclusion agenda there was an opportunity to use the power and aura of professional football to engage disadvantaged groups, including ethnic minorities, women, the disabled and those from a lower socio-economic background (McGuire, 2008). There has been an increased interest into how football can help solve community issues such as social and economic regeneration, public health, educational standards, community safety, crime reduction and the tackling of social exclusion (Brown, Crabbe, Mellor, Blackshaw, & Stone, 2006). However there has been very little strategic thinking on behalf of government, sport or NGBs (Brown, et al 2006). The social inclusion agenda became aligned with Football in the Community's 'core business' (Brown, et al 2006) - although, interestingly, the top four activities that Football in the Community senior managers identified as core business were in school programmes, after school coaching, soccer schools (including holiday courses) and Saturday clubs (McGuire, 2008). Coaching children has always been a core part of a community scheme's role, but senior managers comment on how the current social climate is making working with children increasingly complex (McGuire, 2008). They identify that working with children is an area that Community schemes need additional training and support (McGuire, 2008). This is further supported by Brown et al (2006: 70) who report that they witnessed many highly skilled and motivated community staff throughout football who were 'professional in their engagement with the community'. However, they also report that there is a:

...sense of unease amongst both delivery staff and managers about a new need to understand different ways of working and different agendas. This is not surprising. The vast majority of frontline community staff we encountered during the research have professional backgrounds as football players or coaches. Few, if any, have any professional training or experience in youth, health, education, or social work despite being regularly required to deliver educational sessions to young people which aim to address a wide range of important social problems.

Indeed, the Brown et al (2006: 76) report further suggests that Football clubs work with the Premier League, the Football League and the FA to *'design various methods to educate and inspire staff at all levels of the game about the possibilities of engagement with communities and new social agendas'*. They also recommend that they should respond to *'where gaps in provision are evident, work with the Football Foundation in order that it can take responsibility for developing a coherent response'*. From the perspective of the Football clubs Brown et al (2006: 76) are equally clear that clubs should, *'acknowledge and identify skills gaps amongst their staff'*. In order to do this, they should *'Make available staff time and/or funding wherever possible for additional staff development'*. Brown et al (2006) report significant gaps in provision of football in the community programmes.

2.2.7 Coach learning

This section looks at how coaches learn to coach from two perspectives, learning context and learning theory. It also questions some of the socio cultural challenges faced by all coaches in their acquisition of knowledge, skill and understanding.

The search to understand how coaches learn their role is challenging due to the lack of clarity regarding the different terms used to describe how coaches are prepared for coaching (Nelson and Cushion, 2006) - for example; coach learning (Lyle, 2002), coach education (Martens, 2004), coach training (Smoll, Smith, Barnett, 1993), coach development (Gilbert, Cote and Mallet, 2006) and continuing professional development (Cushion, Armour and Jones, 2003). The term 'coach learning' (Lyle, 2002) is presented as an all-encompassing heading that allows us to conceive that coaches can and do learn their role in different physical, cognitive, emotional and hierarchical settings (Cushion et al, 2003; Nelson and Cushion, 2006; Lohman, 2006 and Merriam and Caffarella 2007). Jarvis (2006) adds to this debate by proposing that it might be more appropriate to talk about learning that takes place in situations that are formal, non-formal or informal.

Research has shown that current formal coach education programmes are having a limited impact on actual coaching practice (Schempp, Templeton and Clark 1998; Cushion, Armour and Jones, 2003; Armour and Potrac, 2004; Irwin, Hanton, Kerwin, 2004; Abraham, Collins and Martindales 2006; Wright, Trudel and Culver, 2007). Jones (2000) argues that formal coach education courses do not develop the necessary intellectual skills required, i.e. independent and creative thinking skills. This leads Nelson and Cushion (2006) to question the term 'coach education' and argue that it lacks conceptual clarity. The criticism of formal coach learning programmes is largely based on the image or assumption that these programmes have an educational role (Bergman-Drewe, 2000; Jones, 2006; Cushion et al, 2010). Nelson and Cushion (2006) state that formal coach learning programmes could be more appropriately labelled

as 'coach training' or in extreme cases 'indoctrination'. However, research into how coaches learn to coach suggests that their coaching knowledge, skill and understanding is influenced and supported by a mix of formal (NGBs, coach education programmes) (Irwin, et al, 2004), non-formal (Schempp et al, 1999), informal (Jones et al, 2003) and directed (Jones et al, 2004) environments. According to Coombs and Ahmed (1974: 8) formal learning can be defined as something that takes place in an 'institutionalised, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured educational system'. Non-formal learning is defined as 'any organised systematic, educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide select types of learning to particular subgroups in the population (Coombs and Ahmed, 1974: 1). Examples of non-formal learning include coaching conferences, seminars, workshop and clinics. Informal learning is identified as being 'the lifelong process by which every person acquires and accumulates knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences and exposure to the environment (Coombs and Ahmed, 1974: 1). Research highlights that coaches experience informal learning through their previous experiences as an athlete, informal mentoring, practical coaching experience and social learning through discussion with like-minded peers (Cushion, Armour and Jones, 2003; Irwin et al, 2004; Jones, Armour and Potrac, 2004; Abraham, Collins and Martindales 2006; Wright, Trudel and Culver, 2007). This view is supported by Werthner and Trudel (2006) who, with regards to coach learning agree with Lyle (2002) that coaches learn to coach through a combination of formal, non-formal and informal opportunities, and by Lemyre, Trudel, and Durand-Bush (2007) who interviewed thirty six youth sport coaches and found that formal coach education programs were only one of many opportunities to learn how to coach.

In an extensive review of literature on coaching and coach education, Trudel and Gilbert (2006) conclude that coaches learn to coach through two main pathways large scale coach education programmes (formal) and personal experience (informal). Significantly, when coaches have been asked to comment on the value of formal coach education they do not seem to favour it as much as more informal highly contextualised learning that invariably takes place through actual coaching and observation of coaches (Sammela, 1995; Jones, Armour and Potrac, 2004). Nelson and Cushion (2006) encourage researchers to be clear about the type of learning context they are investigating. This is an important point as research (which supports Schempp et al (1998); Bloom and Salmela, (2000); Trudel and Gilbert (2006)) indicates that coaches do engage in non-formal learning activities, but this is often missed as literature separates coach learning into two camps, formal (large scale coach education) and informal (learning through experience) (Trudel and Gilbert, 2006). This makes it difficult to differentiate between the formal and non-formal learning environments in which coaches learn.

An example of coaches developing their knowledge, skill and understanding through non-formal or informal approaches to learning is presented by Cassidy and Rossi (2006) and Cushion (2006) who both highlight how situated learning through the development of communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) can support coaches' education. This approach to the development of practice places the learner in the real world context and hypothesises that learning takes place through a social system of engagement and interaction between established member of the community and newcomers i.e. an apprenticeship model to learning. Etienne Wenger (1998) one of the founding researchers of the concept of community of practice along with Jean Lave (Lave and Wenger, 1991), highlighted that communities of practice form organically.

Culver and Trudel (2006) conducted two studies on coaches' education through situated theories of learning and communities of practice. The first examined if coaching communities of practice did indeed form organically. They found that despite coaches sharing the same working space they do not necessarily form a community of practice. The coaches in their study communicated effectively with each other but the content of the communication was mainly about organisational and administrative aspects of the club. In the second study they conducted an intervention study that attempted to address the issue of coaches prioritising the time to meet. The findings from the study highlighted that an important factor in developing functioning communities of practice is that leadership is required (Culver and Trudel, 2006). The importance of leadership in communities of practice is also reported by Culver, Trudel and Werthner (2009) whose study looked at a youth baseball league. The findings show that the community of practice was initiated and did develop while the technical director was in position. However this initial positive finding reversed when the technical director left the post and the leadership was removed.

2.2.8 Non-formal learning

This thesis reports on an evaluation of a non-formal learning programme for a specific set of coaches, i.e. community coaches who are working in Planning Preparation and Assessment (PPA) time.

Cushion et al (2010) highlight that non-formal coach learning presents a particular subgroup of the coaching population (i.e. community coaches) with alternative sources of information to that presented through their formal structure i.e. NGB awards. Trudel, Gilbert and Werthner (2010) report that between 1998 and 2007 only four non-formal coach learning programmes have been reported on by Trudel et al (2000); Conry and Coatsworth (2004); Coatsworth and Conroy (2006); Cassidy et al (2006), Smith et al (2007) and Smoll et al (2007). Cushion et al (2010) also add Kidman and Carlson (1998); McCullick et al (2002) and Culver and Trudel (2006, 2008) to this list. Cushion et al (2010) highlight CPD

(Cushion et al, 2003; Armour and Yelling, 2002, 2004a, 2004b, 2007) as an example of a non-formal learning context.

2.2.9 Continuing Professional Development

Much of the literature on CPD has come from education and physical education (Armour and Yelling, 2004ab, 2007; Armour and Duncombe, 2004) although the term CPD is used in literature on sport coaching (Cushion et al, 2003; Jones et al 2004; scUK, 2004). Craft (1996: 6) defined CPD as being ‘all types of professional learning undertaken by teachers beyond the initial point of training’. Nelson and Cushion (2006) highlight that coaching is different from teaching as it is possible to practice without any formal qualification which is not the case for teaching (DFE, 2012). However, as discussed, a central theme of this thesis is that the remodelling act (2003) does allow for people without QTS to cover lessons in which teachers are taking their PPA time. This point is illustrated by North (2009) who reports that only 53% of the 1.2 million individual coaches hold a NGB qualification, which has increased from 38% in 2004 (scUK, 2004). With this in mind, Nelson and Cushion (2006: 255) develop Craft’s definition to read ‘all types of professional learning undertaken by coaches beyond initial certification’. They clarify that coaching in the UK is an emerging profession with only 5% of the 1.2 million coaches’ working professionally (full-time), a status which also differs from teaching.

Despite the majority of research on CPD coming from education (Armour and Yelling, 2004ab, 2007; Armour and Duncombe, 2002) and an awareness that teaching and coaching share many similarities (Jones et al 2004; Jones, 2006; Jones 2007) and are bound together by the need to operationalize pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1999), we are warned not to fall in the trap of assuming that teachers and coaches are the same (Nelson and Cushion, 2006). There are ontological differences developed through different patterns of socialisation (Lawson, 1983, 1986; Curtner-Smith 1999, 2001).

Literature on CPD for teachers’ is critical of the one-day or weekend course that has no follow-up (Armour and Yelling, 2004ab, 2007). For Armour and Yelling (2007) it is becoming very clear that the traditional one day off-site course is largely ineffective in supporting teachers in advancing their pedagogy and, in turn, their practice. This model is based on a linear view of learning that has its roots in a behaviourist theory of learning (Slavin, 2003). Behaviourist theory promotes a knowledge hierarchy between CPD provider and participants, i.e. teachers or coaches (Armour and Yelling, 2002). This type of CPD is usually delivered outside of the learners’ context (Armour and Yelling, 2002).

Armour and Yelling (2007) argue that if CPD is to have true value and meaning, with the aim of making genuine advances to practice, it must surely embrace non-routine, problematic and contextualised environments that allow coaches (teachers) to reflect and practice in the real world. This view is

further supported by results from Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman and Yoon, (2001) who used a national sample of teachers, and found that effective CPD activities typically involved a substantial investment of time, were focussed on academic content and provided practical hands on opportunities that utilised real world learning opportunities. Cushion et al (2010) suggest that these conclusions are very different from the reality of almost all other forms of CPD and non-formal coach learning. Garet et al (2001) findings are further supported by Armour and Yelling (2002, 2004a, 2004b), who also conducted research on Physical Education teachers. They found that teachers' experience of CPD was that it lacked relevance and was not coherent in how it was organised. Armour and Yelling (2004a) report that effective CPD should be: practical, relevant, capable of stimulating ideas for learning activities, delivered by a good presenter, challenging and thought provoking and provided time for reflection and group discussion. There was also a recommendation to consider cost, teacher workload and the location of the CPD (Armour and Yelling (2004ab). Armour and Yelling (2007) found that teachers viewed attendance at official CPD events as 'hoop jumping' more aimed at Curricula Vita (CV) building than professional learning. However, Armour and Yelling (2002) found that teachers valued the opportunity to engage in informal self-selecting professional learning networks. This view is also reinforced by Sparks (2002) who supports both Garet et al (2001) and Armour and Yelling (2007) by defining effective CPD as that which supports; a deepening of content and pedagogical skills; provides opportunities for practice, reflection and research; is built into the workplace and takes part in the day; is sustained over time; and is collegiate with knowledge being socially constructed. Additionally Deglau and O'Sullivan (2006) report the success of a long term CPD programme that embraces social and situated learning theories (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Kirk and Macdonald, 1998). The situated nature of CPD is further reinforced by Ko et al (2006) who state that effective CPD should be situated and grounded in every-day practice. The research findings of Garet et al (2001) and Sparks (2002) and Armour and Yelling (2007) all recommend that CPD has elements of active learning that is socially constructed through peer support. It also identifies that this should as much as possible be generated from real world examples of every-day practice (Sparks, 2002). Additionally, all studies referred to the need for CPD to be sustained over a period of time allowing the participants to reflect on their experience and give careful consideration to the consequences of future decision making (Garet, et al 2001; Sparks, 2002; Armour and Yelling, 2007).

These were all aspects of CPD provision that informed the programme theory of Blair and Capel (2011) who conducted an evaluation of a non-formal coach education / CPD programme with community based coaches working in school curriculum time, (this study). These recommendations for CPD can all be placed into a constructivist model of learning that supports a learning curriculum (Wenger, 1998) that, given time, moves learning towards being self-regulated, with coaches working in their own

context to reflect and solve organic real-world problems (Blair and Capel, 2011). The issue of context is addressed by Sparks (2002) who highlights that essentially context matters, and teachers (and coaches) need significant support to transfer information that is delivered in contexts different to their own, into the context in which they work (Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi, & Gallagher, 2007). Teachers who experience CPD of this nature, as reported by Armour and Yelling (2002, 2004a, 2004b, 2007) found that the CPD lacked relevance and coherence. This style of CPD can be aligned to a behavioural model of learning, an approach to learning that prompts passive receipt of information (Armour and Yelling, 2007). This can be described as a deficit model that assumes CPD providers must 'fill' teachers with knowledge they lack (Day and Sachs, 2004). This is in contrast to a constructivist approach to learning which fits the description of an aspirational model (Day and Sachs, 2004). An aspirational model promotes contextualised learning that is socially constructed (Vygotsky, 1978; Wenger, 1998). Cushion et al (2010) comment that this description of CPD is very different from the traditional courses that are underpinned by a behavioural theory of learning (Slavin, 2003). In support of the outcomes of these studies O'Sullivan (2007) promotes the use of participants working collaboratively in 'communities of practice' (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). However, despite this view, a number of studies have highlighted difficulties in developing and sustaining collaborative work through communities of practice, both in education (Patton and Griffin, 2008; Armour and Duncombe, 2004; Keay 2006; O'Sullivan, 2007; Patton and Griffin, 2008), and Culver and Trudel (2006) sports coaching.

Wayne et al (2008) highlight that CPD programmes have been inadequately evaluated. They continue to state that without effective evaluation, it is impossible to understand what works for whom and why (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Coalter, 2007). Nelson and Cushion (2006) also state that there is a need to evaluate the process and impact of non-formal learning activities for coaches. Therefore, if we see CPD programmes or events as social interventions aimed at reform or change (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003, 2006), the CPD programme can have a 'programme theory' which in effect we are testing (Pawson, 2003). The aim being to see which parts of the programme (theory) work and why and which parts of the programme (theory) do not work, and why (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2006). Literature on evaluation is reviewed in the next section.

2.3 Evaluation

2.3.1 The background to evaluation research

Real world research in the social sciences and education often has the purpose of evaluating something, with the intention that the findings can be used in a reformist way to make a difference and positive change to a social situation or intervention programme (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Lewis, 2001; Robson, 2002; Pawson, 2006). Writing in 1997, Pawson and Tilley describe evaluation research as a relatively

young discipline that has grown significantly but rather awkwardly in recent years. Although according to Cullen (1975 cited in Weiss, 1998: 10) if we were to search for a starting point in the story of evaluation we could go back as far as the 1660's, Cullen discusses that evaluation is rooted in the empirical study of social problems and this period saw the beginning of the search for social laws. However, evaluation as we understand it today is a relatively recent development, as early policy and intervention to improve social contexts did not plan for an evaluation component (Weiss, 1998). There is a general agreement that a modern view of evaluation has gathered pace since the 1960's with the American Government funding large scale social programmes aimed at addressing wide spread poverty (Rossi and Wright, 1984; Weiss, 1998; Newburn, 2001; Robson, 2002; Stame, 2004; Vedung, 2010). Weiss (1998) identifies that private foundations started funding evaluations of innovative social programmes as far back as the 1940s and Newburn (2001) is very precise in stating that between 1969 and 1972 federal spending on evaluation increased by six times in comparison to previous years. Weiss (1998) summarises American evaluation history. She points to the highs of the 1970s with the development of a series of social experiments aimed at evaluating policy and practice ideas prior to their implementation as well as the political 'low-lands' of the 1980s, during the Reagan administration where there was a withdrawal of public funding. Rossi and Wright (1984) highlight that, ironically, this withdrawal of funding came at a time when evaluation research was beginning to reach a higher intellectual standard. The early 1990s witnessed a partial revival, with some organisations beginning to prosper again; notably the United States Department of Education (Wye and Sonnichsen, 1992 cited in Weiss, 1998: 13). This flow of evaluation diffusion is also supported by Newburn (2001). Vedung (2010) discusses four dominant 'waves' of evaluation mainly from a Swedish perspective, but also capturing the trends in countries such as the Netherlands, United Kingdom, the USA and Canada. The chronology of the evaluative practice presented by Vedung (2010) follows a similar timeline to Weiss's earlier work.

The following section looks at how evaluation research has developed and how evaluation has become a mantra of modernity (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Lewis, 2001; Newburn, 2001). Vedung (2010) supports this notion by proposing that since the 1990's interest in evaluation has significantly increased. Vedung (2010: 263) presents a simple message in relation to evaluation and how it supports social change, stating, 'if you carefully examine and assess the results of what you have done ...you will be better able to orient forward'. The next section defines evaluation research and identifies its purpose and utility for society. It then takes a short descriptive tour around the paradigm debates highlighting the challenges that have formed a central spine in the development of evaluation theories, frameworks and methodological change. This is centred around a discussion of four different philosophical approaches to how evaluation research can be designed, namely; experimental, pragmatic, naturalistic or constructivist and pluralist (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Vedung, 2010). In the specific context of social and

educational research the case is then made for a theory driven approach to evaluation research, albeit with a constructivist twist (Delanty, 1997; Dahler-Larson, 2001), introducing theories of change (Fulbright-Anderson, Kubisch, and Connell, 1998; Weiss, 1998) and realistic evaluation (Pawson and Tilley 1997).

2.3.2 The purpose of evaluation research

This thesis is interested in evaluation research based on empirical data collected through established social science methodologies (Hall and Hall, 1996; Robson, 2002). Therefore evaluation can be defined as the 'systematic assessment of the operation and / or the outcomes of a programme or policy, compared to a set of explicit or implicit standards, as a means of contributing to the improvement of the programme or policy' (Weiss, 1998: 4). Robson (2002: 202) discusses the purpose of an evaluation being to 'assess the effects and the effectiveness of something, typically some innovation, intervention, policy, practice or service'. He continues to outline methodological acceptable approaches to this type of research, concluding with the acceptance of both fixed and flexible designs utilising quantitative, qualitative or mixed methodology (Ghate, 2001; Robson, 2002; Mackenzie and Blamey, 2005; White, 2010). Additionally he identifies that the position of evaluation in real world research is 'essentially indistinguishable from other research in terms of design, data collection techniques and methods of analyses (Robson, 2002: 204). Most evaluation studies are concerned with understanding situated programme, service, innovation or intervention in specific contexts, asking questions of why and how (Yin, 2009). This makes the case study research design appropriate for many evaluation studies (Hall and Hall, 1996; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002; Yin, 2009). White (2010) challenges this view by presenting a clear preference for quantitative approaches to evaluation investigation based on experimental and quasi-experimental methodologies. He also outlines a broader principle relating to methodological choices which adds support to Robson (2002) and Hall and Hall (1996), the principle that the appropriateness of the methodological approach depends on the nature of the evaluation being undertaken (White, 2010). White (2010) continues to state that for small and mid-size investigations, qualitative approaches may be the best suited methodology. Additionally, from a political perspective it is recognised that in order to secure funding for evaluation research from central government, there is a requirement for a clearly specified quantitative component (Mackenzie and Blamey, 2005).

Patton (1980: 15) takes a pragmatic view of evaluation research which highlights that...

'the practices of evaluation involves the systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics and outcomes of programmes, personnel and products for use by specific people to reduce uncertainties, improve effectiveness, and make decisions with regard to what programmes, personnel, or products are doing and affecting'.

Robson (2000, cited in Robson, 2002: 207) also identifies that there are some clear and definable purposes of evaluation research, that help move our understanding beyond the well-established reformist goal (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002; Pawson, 2006). These are: to find out if the client's needs are met, to improve the programme, to assess the outcomes of a programme, to find out how a programme is operating, to assess the efficiency of a programme; and to understand why a programme works or does not work (Ghate, 2001; Robson, 2000).

The purposes of evaluation research can be examined in closer detail through refining our understanding as to the explicit aims of the research design; is it primarily formative or summative? (Weiss, 1998; Robson, 2002). These terms were introduced to the evaluation community by Scriven (1967), through his discussions relating to educational curriculums. This can also be linked to the discussion on outcome versus process evaluation (Weiss, 1998; Robson, 2002). Each will be discussed separately but the primary difference is one related to purpose. Formative evaluation is intended to aid the progression and development of the programme it is supporting, information that can be fed-back into the programme to help progression (Weiss, 1998; Robson, 2002). Summative assessment focuses on the effects and the effectiveness of the programme, after the programme is finished (Weiss, 1998; Robson, 2002). This is not definitive as many programmes never truly end and perhaps quite obviously summative assessment can have a formative impact on the future development of a social programme (Weiss, 1998; Robson, 2002). This is reinforced further as the outcomes of most evaluations are neither totally negative nor positive and usually bring with them a message that supports change (Robson, 2002). This open-ended view of never ending research and the constant cry for 'more research is needed' is challenged by Pawson and Tilley (1997) who are critical of this essentially successionist and positivist (experimental) approach to evaluation design on the grounds that it requires a bottomless pit of resources, finance and time and has an insecure relationship with external validity. It is left to the originator of the terms Scriven (1991: 19) to summarise formative and summative evaluation. He provides this simple yet sufficiently sophisticated description; 'when a cook tastes the soup, that's formative evaluation, when the guest tastes it, that's summative evaluation'.

At first glance, outcome and process evaluation and summative and formative evaluation look very similar in purpose (Robson, 2002). Additionally if we trace the origins of modern evaluation research back to its beginnings somewhere between the 1940's and 1960's, the traditional task of the evaluation was to see what worked, the outcome. This was achieved through the use of experimental and quasi-experimental designs (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Weiss, 1998; Newburn, 2001; White, 2010). While this approach is still of value it is now widely acknowledged that this is only part of the evaluative picture (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Weiss, 1998; Newburn, 2001; White, 2010). Outcome evaluations are

interested in what is going on with the participants after the social intervention has taken place, whereas process evaluations examine what is going on inside the programme, as it is taking place (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Weiss, 1998; Lewis, 2001; Newburn, 2001). Weiss (1998) is clear in her explanation of how the two types of evaluation differ. She states; 'formative and summative relate to the intentions of the evaluator in undertaking the study...process and outcome have nothing to do with the evaluator's role but rather relate to the phase of the programme studied' (Weiss, 1998: 32). In an ideal situation it is possible to achieve both outcome and process understanding (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Weiss, 1998). This is a position reinforced by theory driven approaches to evaluation, notably theories of change (Fulbright-Anderson, Kubisch, and Connell, 1998; Weiss, 1998) and realistic evaluation (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Checlimsky (1997) adds to the discussion on the role of evaluation research by outlining three distinct purposes: evaluation for accountability, the measuring of results or efficiency; evaluation for development, helping existing practice or institutional strength; and evaluation for knowledge, aimed at producing a clearer or deeper understanding of a phenomena. These points are further developed and refined by Lewis (2001) who highlights that perhaps the central role of evaluation research is or should be 'Learning'. Lewis (2001) critically analyses Checlimsky's three purposes by subdividing evaluation for development into; learning about process and learning about effects. This view connects with Pawson and Tilley (1997), Pawson (2003, 2006) and others, whose key interest is finding out about 'what works for whom under what circumstances', developing an understanding of why programme theories work or don't work in any given context. As realist investigators they look for how the underlying mechanisms interact with agent and structure to produce outcomes (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003, 2006; Lewis, 2001). Lewis (2001) encourages us to be clear about the purpose of evaluation and to make a conscious attempt to inject evaluation for learning into all research. The emphasis on 'learning' suggests that evaluations purely based on outcome have distinct limitations as they are unable to provide us with answers relating to how and why the programme worked or did not work (Pawson and Tilley, 1997).

As stated the purpose of evaluation research is largely reformist with its overall aim being not to prove but to improve and learn from (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 1985; Lewis, 2001; Robson, 2002). Building on the definition provided by Patton (1980), Robson (2002) suggests that any evaluation study should only begin if it can satisfy the following criteria: utility, i.e. the evaluation data must have a realistic chance of being used by some audience (this is a key point for Weiss (1998) who paid particular attention to evaluation utilisation); feasibility, i.e. the evaluation can be conducted in political, practical and financial terms available; propriety, it can adhere to strict ethical guidelines; technical adequacy, i.e. the evaluation be carried out by skilled and sensitive personnel. This is further reinforced by Lewis

(2001: 390) who states 'to be clear about the purpose of an evaluation, and that it is realistic, seems to me to be a cornerstone of doing good work'.

The issue of utility is a key requirement for any type of evaluation research (Patton, 1980; Robson, 2002). Evaluation studies usually focus on programmes that are politically active (Berk and Rossi, 1990) whether they are operating at a national or a local level (Robson, 2002). Indeed, in some regard, evaluation research itself is a political activity (Newburn, 2001). For example, a positive evaluation may lead to the growth of work for some participants or consequently a negative evaluation may lead to the loss of income or even the loss of position (Ghate, 2001). Therefore, the real world practice culture presents some steep challenges for evaluators, especially when data collection is required from front-line workers who potentially have the most to lose from a negative evaluation and are most likely to experience an increased workload as a result of research activities (Ghate, 2001). Evaluators often have to negotiate around a range of interested parties from policy makers, funders, senior managers to practitioners (Newburn, 2001). The results of most evaluation studies, both process and outcome, will have their supporters, critics and sceptics depending on the political position or real world role from which the results are being interpreted (Robson, 2002). However, the different parties are bound together through undertaking the act of evaluation (Newburn, 2001), further reinforcing Weiss's (1989) warning relating to how programme theories cannot be unaffected by politics and that all evaluation is conducted in a political environment (Berk and Rossi, 1990). Therefore it is perhaps wise and helpful to encourage a research culture that does more to develop 'good enough' as opposed to 'perfect' evaluation methodologies (Rossi, Freeman, Lipsey, 1999). This approach has the potential to create a more reflective space in which the evaluation research community can respond to these and other methodological challenges in a creative (Ghate, 2001) and theoretically informed way (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). The discussion on 'good' and 'perfect' methodologies can be viewed as a philosophical one that re-engages with the paradigm debates of old; positivism with its roots firmly placed in an objective epistemology and an external ontology that values dealing with social initiatives and programmes as 'independent variables' or 'treatments' (Newburn, 2001), versus the interpretive and critical paradigms that bring alternative values associated with the social world being a complex process of human understanding and interaction that should be seen to be working with and through an interactive process (Newburn, 2001) and sit more comfortably within a paradigm embracing a subjective epistemology and internal ontology (Sparkes, 1992, 2002). The philosophical perspective one values will position thinking on flexibility and approach towards questions for investigation and methodology (Curtner-Smith, 2002).

2.3.3 Approaches to evaluation research

Experimental or quasi-experimental design has its epistemological roots in a 'successionist' understanding of causality (Pawson and Tilley, 1997) and sits within a positivist paradigm (Van der Knaap, 2004). An experimentalist perspective to evaluation is neutral objective research (Vedung, 2010). The approach utilises methodology of pre-tests, post-tests and control groups and attempts to exclude every conceivable external mechanistic force in order that the experiment is left with one single secure causal link (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2000). Experimental methods of evaluation research dominated the 1960's, 1970's and 1980's (Rossi and Wright, 1984; Weiss, 1998 Newburn, 2001; Robson, 2002; Stame, 2004; Vedung, 2010). Indeed Campbell and Stanley (1963: 3) went as far as stating that the experimental approach is 'the only available route to cumulative progress'. More recently the view that experimental or quasi-experimental methods represent the 'gold standard' of evaluation research has been challenged (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Fullbright-Anderson, 1998; Weiss, 1998; Oakley, 2000; Newburn, 2001) for not being able to provide us with information about how or why social programmes or interventions work (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2002, 2006). Recently White (2010: 153) has challenged the views of Newburn (2001); Oakley (2000); Pawson and Tilley (1997); Fullbright-Anderson (1998) and Weiss (1998) amongst others, by stating that 'recent years have seen an increased focus on impact evaluation'. He argues in favour of a greater use of quantitative approaches to attribution, and proposes the use of quasi-experimental and experimental methods. However, White (2010) also agrees that qualitative methods are often the best available for small to mid-size evaluation projects. Despite this challenge an experimental design is still a popular choice for the evaluation of coach education programmes - for example in Trudel et al's (2010) account that three of the four non-formal coach education programmes they reported had utilised a quasi-experimental design.

One of the clear challenges of utilising an experimental approach to social research is the difficulty of securing random application of participants to both experimental and control groups (Pawson and Tilley, 1997), this becomes ethically challenging (Oakley, 2000). It is either impracticable or impossible due to the complex social nature of the evaluation (Oakley, 2000; Newburn, 2001; Pawson, 2003). There is a clear acknowledgement that researching the social world with its open, complex and dynamic system is very different from the laboratory controlled research of a scientist investigating the natural world (Cohen et al, 2000; Robson, 2002). Cohen et al (2000: 214) discuss how this sort of research design is not actually possible in educational research and cite Kerlinger (1970) who in the context of social and educational research refers to the quasi-experimental situation as a 'compromise design'. An experimental approach to investigating social change takes an ontological position that seeks to create control functions that support the validity of causal claims (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). What the

experimental approach to programme evaluation does is provide descriptions of outcomes, it is not able to provide explanations or discussion of how or why programmes work or fail (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003). Randomized experimental design evaluations fail to understand the theories and ideas that bring mechanism and contexts to life, or not as the case maybe (Chen and Rossi, 1983). The quasi-experimental approach to evaluation is therefore fragile on the strength of its external validity (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). This fragile state has direct links to the successionist theory of causation upon which experiments are based (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Stame, 2004). The experiment allows us to know that something has changed from position A to B but it does not help us to understand why it has changed (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Stame, 2004). The experimental evaluation society seems slow and awkward in responding to this challenge and are really only consistent in one thing, that is the constant call for more time (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). This leads to an enduring issue that is constant throughout the decades of experimental evaluation rule, the debate about the level of empirical support necessary before one can recommend that a particular programme works (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). The experimental approach works as a predictor of social change through a build-up of outcome patterns, over time patterns will become clearer and the ability to predict outcomes will become more secure (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Evaluation undertaken through an experimental approach is aimed at supporting the decision-making of the end users in being more rational, scientific and grounded in facts (Vedung, 2010). However, the obvious flaw with this methodological reasoning is that this approach to fostering casual links takes time and potentially requires an unlimited bank of human and financial resource (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). This is a significant issues when studying social issues as society is ever evolving, an open system that is subject to constant change (Robson, 2002). This is a view that is not shared by Mayne (2001) who comments that an evaluation study that is based on the outcome is probably still the best way to address the attribution problem, if there is the time, money and expertise. There are many researchers from the evaluation community that suggest that attribution, linking observed changes in behaviour to the intervention being studied is very challenging, if not impossible (White, 2010). Therefore White (2010) suggests that we alter our expectations to look for a causal contribution as opposed to complete attribution. This is perhaps a more straight forward leap when looked at in the context of an experimental evaluation design, as a common finding of an evaluation could then read X caused outcome Y to change by P percent (White, 2010).

The pragmatic view of evaluation research as promoted by Patton (1980) is located in an epistemological view that the validity of knowledge is secured in the policy framework in which it is set, and is therefore pragmatically acceptable (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Mark and Henry (2004) refer to this as a symbolic use of evaluation research, aimed at justifying a pre-existing position. The methodological approach is heavily based on the craft skills of the researcher, using techniques such as

sampling, interviews, questionnaires and data analysis (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). The pragmatic view of evaluation begins with the position that stresses the political usefulness with a key requirement being for the study to be designed in such a way that it supports the decision-makers' objectives (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Mark and Henry, 2004). Therefore, the evaluation programme can become a political feasibility exercise that is influenced by such issues as cost effectiveness (Pawson and Tilley, 1997), thus creating an ontological position through which researchers attempt to understand the controlling powers of the social world they are investigating. There is a sense that the pragmatic approach to evaluation compares to an unsatisfactory Physical Education lesson which is more about 'being busy, happy and therefore good' (Placek, 1983) than any clear intentional learning. So despite the pragmatic approach to evaluation being relatively user friendly it is methodologically empty (Pawson and Tilley, 1997).

The naturalistic or constructivist position is a dialogue orientated form of evaluation that arrived at a similar time to Patton (1980) and his pragmatic views. However naturalism offers us a different focus for evaluation and takes us from a political to a social agenda (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). The core values of a naturalistic position to evaluation are about developing clarity in order to understand the nature of what it is you are evaluating (Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Pawson and Tilley, 1997). There is a clear view that all social programmes are multi-dimensional and complex processes relating to human understanding and interaction (Dahler-Larson, 2001). This develops an opinion that all social programmes can work if there is enough 'will' (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Programmes will work through a continuing process of persuasion and negotiation that presents change through the increasing participant's choice (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). This presents an opportunity for a great deal of learning to take place, providing the opportunity for all stakeholders to understand their own position more clearly (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Mark and Henry (2004) highlight this as being a conceptual use of evaluation research that has an established interest in enlightenment and the general learning that results from evaluation research. The naturalistic approach therefore supplies the potential for stakeholders to revise their thinking and practice to be more informed and advanced than it was prior to the evaluation process (Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Mark and Henry, 2004).

The naturalistic views have led to significant change in the evaluation community. The first, and perhaps most notable, is the change of interest from 'outputs' to 'processes' (Rossi and Wright, 1984; Pawson and Tilley, 1997). This leads to an approach that differs significantly from the experimentalists and the pragmatists and goes to great lengths to accommodate the participants or the 'stakeholders' (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). This approach is characterised by the qualitative nature of the data collected. The evaluator assumes the roles of ethnographer with an extended period in the field attempting to work

with all stakeholders (Guba and Lincoln, 1989) to form a joint construction or evaluation of the issue; it aims to empower and educate. The approach utilises an open-ended position that sees findings as future constructions that are by their very nature open to continuing negotiation and on-going processing. This view also sits closely to a realist position of on-going negotiation and a continual search for improvement and progression (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2006). Critics of the naturalistic approach to programme evaluation point their finger towards its failure to acknowledge the overt power dynamic inherent in any process that is committed to negotiation (Pawson and Tilly, 1997). Even Guba and Lincoln (1989), themselves supporters of a naturalistic approach to evaluation, identify that data collected through a constructivist investigation is nothing more than another construction on the never ending road towards consensus, or in other words simply another version of what has gone before. They highlight that neither findings, problems or solutions can be transferred from context A and generalised into context B (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Dahler-Larson (2001) highlights how Pawson and Tilley (1997) take a very narrow position on understanding naturalism or social constructivism as a paradigm for evaluation research. He is critical of Pawson and Tilley's (1997) over reliance on Guba and Lincoln's (1989) interpretation of social constructivism and evaluation. Furthermore, Guba and Lincoln's (1989) constructivist orientated views on generalisation and causality are rejected by Dahler-Larson (2001; 336) who is clear that naturalism or social constructivism does not 'refuse generalisation of evaluation results, and indeed constructivism does accept the concept of causality'. What social constructivists are clear about is that social interventions or programme theories operate within clear contexts and therefore are social constructions that could have been developed elsewhere (Dahler-Larson, 2001). This concept is developed further by Dahler-Larson (2001) who highlights the importance of understanding organisations, values, roles and constructions in order that a reliable causal link can be established informing us why A leads to B in some contexts and not others. Despite this argument for causation and generalisation the experimental fraternity would lay further critique at the naturalistic or constructivist approach to evaluation by highlighting that in contrast to the scientific experimental tradition with the ontological position of object reality, the naturalistic position rests on an ontology that denies objective reality, instead highlighting that realities are social constructions of the mind, there is no objective truth on which inquiries can converge (Sparkes, 1992; Vedung, 2010). Therefore, instead of producing truths as is the explicit requirement of the positivist driven experimentalists, naturalistic evaluation generates 'broad agreements, consensus, political acceptability and democratic legitimacy' (Vedung, 2010: 270).

Finally, there are acknowledgments to the pluralist vision of evaluation with its most eminent proponents being Cronbach (1982) and Rossi and Freeman (1985). Their combined perspective on evaluation attempts to include the endearing qualities of the previous three approaches, i.e. the rigour of the

experimentalist, the practical application of policy of the pragmatists and the empathetic approach to stakeholders of the naturalists (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Pluralism attempts to do everything and calls for depth and breadth when evaluating a programme. However, perhaps the most fundamental issue or flaw with a pluralist view of evaluation is that there are never enough resources to research everything, which leads to them having trouble locating their starting point. It is therefore inevitable that there is a continued lack of clarity (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). This point is summarised by Shadish, et al (1991: 425 cited in Pawson and Tilley, 1997: 25) 'To the extent that evaluators try to do everything Rossi recommends, they will do little well. To the extent that they pick and choose among the options, they will not be comprehensive. Some priorities are needed'.

Perhaps the most enduring legacy to come from pluralism was the reflective thinking that led one of its founding scholars, Rossi, to first raise the issue of theory driven evaluations, (Chen and Rossi, 1983). Pluralist thinking had evolved to consider how 'theory' could be utilised and support our understanding and approach to evaluation (Pawson and Tilly, 1997), although the overall position of Chen and Rossi (1983) was aimed more at providing a programme's missing theory rather than understanding how the programme's existing theory worked to support social change (Stame, 2004). However, in an era that was still dominated by an experimental approach to evaluation that placed great value on knowing the outcome, they developed a view that what we actually need to understand is; what it is about a social programme that actually makes it work? Theory driven approaches to evaluation are discussed in greater detail in chapter 3.

3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This evaluation study adopts a case study methodology of one Community Sports Trust (CST) located at a Premiership Football Club (PFC) in the South East of England. The study is influenced by a critical realist explanation of society (Bhaskar, 1978; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson 2006), but has a clear connection with the interpretivist or constructivist paradigm. Beck (1996) argues that realism and interpretivism are not mutually exclusive, he states that naïve interpretivism does not see behind the constructions of social actors, and naïve realism neglects the extent to which social actors and science construct reality. While there are some clear differences between the ontological and epistemological views of some realist and some interpretivist researchers there are also some clearly established connections, for example both sides are united in their support for emancipatory critique (Delanty, 1997). Indeed Delanty (1997) goes as far as stating that interpretivist's who want to retain the possibility of critique are best advised to join forces with critical realists. Delanty (1997) arrives' at a realist / interpretivist position that aims to examine how reality is constructed by social actors who define what is to count as knowledge. To support this thinking further in relation to this study, and in terms of critical realism and realist or realistic evaluation there are two differing strands when it comes to onto-epistemological assumptions (Sparkes, 1992). One of the strands is closely related to positivism and the other relates to interpretivism. As stated this study adopts an onto-epistemological understanding that connects with the interpretive paradigm in that it adopts an internal-idealist ontology and a subjectivist epistemology (Sparkes, 1992: 38). This onto-epistemological positioning has direct links to the methodology and the multi methods of data collection used in this case study, in which qualitative data was given priority, as intended, but was supported by quantitative data.

Therefore this study seeks to identify foundations for understanding the complex social and historically constructed synergies that underpin a critical realist methodological approach to the study of social life, that of Context, Mechanism and Outcome (Bhaskar, 1978; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2006). A critical realist perspective is interested in how the Context, Mechanisms and Outcomes work together to form an interpretation of society and in this study specifically social intervention and change (Bhaskar, 1978; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002; Pawson, 2006). In other words it is interested in developing an understanding of why intervention programmes are successful only in so far as they introduce the appropriate mechanisms to groups in the appropriate contexts (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Coalter, 2007). Pawson and Tilley (1997: 125) explain that within the realist approach 'each evaluation within a problem area is seen as a case study, and the function of the case is to refine our understanding of the range of Context Mechanisms and Outcomes which seem to have application in that domain'. This view is supported and refined by Pawson (2006: 24) who states that 'whatever the intervention, it

can only work as intended if the subjects go along with the programme theory and choose to use the resources as intended'. Realist investigators '*work*' in order to trigger the mechanism that they are studying to ensure that they have the potential to be active within its applied social context (Bhaskar, 1978; Benton and Craib, 2001; Robson, 2002). Robson (2002: 33) suggests that the secondary dictionary definition for mechanism is helpful - 'arrangement and action by which a result is produced'.

In this study a realist formula is considered in relation to the evaluation of a CPD programme aimed at supporting football coaches to work within the school curriculum undertaking specified work to cover Physical Education (in PPA time) in primary schools. The study is interested in understanding the impact of the mechanisms within the context of the CPD programme. In order to achieve this the study utilised a flexible, multi-method approach to data collection, in an attempt to move some way to closing the gap identified by Gilbert (2002) who describes the design of research into sports coaching as primarily quantitative with the data gathered mainly through questionnaires. The multi-method approach to data collection is also consistent with established features of flexible case study designs (Robson, 2002; Yin, 2009). Additionally, the choice of a realist paradigm or at least the adoption of an alternative philosophical model to inform the investigation into sports coaching practice would be welcomed by Cushion (2007) who discusses how, until recently research into coaching practice has been heavily influenced by a positivist paradigm. Finally, a multi-method case study approach supports the rhetoric of what participants say and reality of what participants do, in the context of the social world in which they operate. It is therefore supportive in answering the study's realist inspired questions, regarding why or why not and how the CPD programme worked (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; White, 2010). The why and how questions being asked in this investigation also support the choice of a case study as a methodological approach (Yin, 2009).

3.2 Evaluation – a theory driven approach

Theory based approaches to evaluation such as Theories of Change (Fulbright-Anderson et al, 1998; Weiss, 1998) and Realistic Evaluation (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2006) have become popular designs for the evaluation of social programmes (Mackenzie and Blamey, 2005; Blamey and Mackenzie, 2007). The rise in popularity of theory-driven approaches is a direct attempt to address some of the limitations of previous successivist based approaches to evaluation, i.e. experimental approaches (Wimbush and Watson, 2000). Theory based approaches highlight the need to uncover what aspects of an intervention have or have not been successful (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Theories of Change (Fulbright-Anderson et al, 1998, Weiss, 1998) comprise of two main components 'implementation theory', this describes the implementation of the programme, and 'programmatic theory', the mechanism that make things happen (Stame, 2004). Realistic Evaluations (Pawson and Tilley, 1997) are

based on a generative theory of causality. The theory is clear that it is the interaction of people embedded in a context who exchange theory/practice with mechanisms to generate change (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Some of the similarities of theory orientated approaches are that they embrace the views of the participants, consider programmes in their context, utilise all appropriate methods, are committed to internal validity (Stame, 2004).

The starting point for a more general discussion on theory driven evaluation begins by outlining some straight forward logical thinking. If we take the generally accepted view that evaluation seeks to discover whether a social intervention or programme has worked and why it has worked, and we acknowledge that social programmes are theories (Pawson, 2003), it is acceptable to state that evaluation is theory testing (Pawson, 2003). Social programmes are theories, despite the fact that they come in a variety of forms, shapes and sizes etc. They all utilise a core hypothesis that 'if we provide these people with these resources it may change their behaviour' (Pawson, 2003: 472). Therefore, a significant part of the evaluation research remit is the commitment to programme refinement, moving backwards and forwards between programme theory and data from empirical case studies; between abstraction and specification (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Theory, in its simplest of forms, provides an explanation of why things occur (Gatton and Jones, 2004), based on evidence and careful reasoning, or 'the attempt to explain phenomena by going beyond our common-sense everyday explanations, and beyond our immediate sense experience' (Benton and Craib, 2001: 186). Therefore, theory fills the sizable gap in evaluation research by creating the connection between generalisation and specification (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003). Theory supports a cumulative position and is about producing mid-range evidence based on ideas that offer explanations (Pawson and Tilley, 1997), thus generating the sort of theory that is flexible and abstract enough to up-hold a range of programme approaches and yet concrete enough to stand the real world test of programme implementation (Pawson and Tilley, 1997).

It has been stated by more than one eminent scholar that there is 'nothing as practical as good theory' (Lewin, 1952; Weiss, 1995; Pawson, 2003). This statement drives a position that encourages us to reflect on how we can use mid-range or programme theories to support our understanding of why social interventions work or indeed do not work, for whom they do work or do not work, and under what circumstances (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002; Pawson, 2006; Coalter, 2007). If we have established that the central purpose of evaluation research is to continually refine, evolve and adapt policy and practice (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Lewis, 2001; Pawson, 2003, 2006 etc.), evaluations need to be directed towards supporting a cumulative effect (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). The realist understanding

of cumulative effect is, to a large extent, based on the lessons learnt from two of the evaluation approaches previously discussed in chapter 2 constructivist and experimental.

For constructivists, all programmes and contexts are bespoke and therefore it is impossible for problems or solutions to be generalised from one programme to the next (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Although, as stated in chapter 2, this is a rather narrow view of social constructivism as presented by Guba and Lincoln (1989) and challenged by Darher-Larson (2001), who discusses that a constructivist approach to evaluation is not based solely on just another social construction and therefore it does acknowledge issues of power and deny generalisation of results; and does accept the concept of causality (Darher-Larson, 2001). What constructivism does insist on is that programmes and programme theories are all social constructions and therefore they could be made differently (Darher-Larson, 2001). Therefore, a constructivist approach is not opposed to theory-based evaluation but consistent with it (Darher-Larson, 2001). The philosophical integration of the constructivist and realist paradigms is also promoted by Delanty (1997). A popular constructivists' perspective identifies cumulation as being impossible and therefore they stop trying (Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Darher-Larson, 2001). This explanation seems plausible and certainly appears to be a view shared by many regarding the context specific social world (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Experimentalists have an alternative view that has its foundations in the concept of programme uniformities. Experimentalists view cumulative impact from a different perspective, identifying that not everything is transient and unreliable (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). In fact our day to day existence is, to a large extent, about our ability to recognise order and similarity. However, they acknowledge that evidencing cumulation is plagued with uncontrollable external issues (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). There is a constant request by experimentalists for more time to empirically evidence cumulation (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003). Again, this explanation seems plausible - a clear and assessable picture of the social world as viewed by many (Pawson and Tilley, 1997).

3.3 Realist Evaluation

The focus for this case study is now narrowed with the acceptance for this study of critical realism and realistic evaluation (Basker, 1978, Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2006), a philosophical approach to evaluation that concentrates on understanding the components of Context and Mechanism which account for an Outcome. Therefore evaluation is based on the Context, Mechanism and Outcome configuration (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003, 2006; Stame, 2004). As stated on page 44 the realist overview is presented with a constructivist inclination (Sparkes, 1992; Delanty, 1997; Darher-Larson, 2001) which supports an overall subjective and interactive epistemological position (Sparkes, 1992). This epistemological position highlights the need for the evaluation approach to place a clear

emphasis on understanding the process as opposed to just the outcomes (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Newburn, 2001). Therefore this research moved away from the experimental designs and random control trials that found great popularity in the 1960's, 1970's and 1980's and which are firmly attached to the positivist paradigm and an objectivist epistemology (Sparkes, 1992). With specific reference to this thesis the context of critical realism and evaluation, with a constructivist, lean (Sparkes, 1992), is seen as supportive as there is a transparent acknowledgment of wanting to understand the operational mechanisms that lead to transformative or reformist outcomes (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Weiss, 1998), albeit in this instance at a local level. This supports an understanding of why this programme worked or did not work (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2006; Coalter, 2007).

The critical realist perspective towards the reformist outcome of the evaluation research process is a modest and realistic one (Pawson, 2003). It does not demand the secure transferability of knowledge but rather the continual betterment of practice (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003; Pawson, 2006). This point links to White (2010) regarding sole attribution or part contribution of an intervention programme to behaviour change. Realism attempts to achieve this goal by deepening the understanding and specifying the focus of programme context, mechanisms and outcomes (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003), by looking behind the constructions of social actors (Delanty, 1997). This makes clear that cumulation from a realist perspective is achieved through continual negotiation between abstract theory and empirical case studies (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Therefore, we are learning transferable lessons about programme theories rather than programmes per se (Pawson, 2003). 'What is transferable between cases is not lumps of data but sets of ideas', or theories (Pawson and Tilley, 1997: 120). Each evaluation is seen as a case study, with the realist investigator working hard to understand how the programme outcomes are achieved (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002). The realist approach to evaluation is based on a generative model of theory causality, highlighting that it is not programmes that support change but people (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003, 2006). These are firmly located in their context and, when exposed to an intervention, do something to ignite the mechanism potentially leading to an outcome of social change (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Stame, 2004). This is based on an understanding of the relationship between mechanism and context; which then attempts to use the empirical evidence to generate an understanding or explanation of what works for who in what circumstances (Pawson and Tilley, 1997, Robson, 2002; Coalter, 2007).

Pawson and Tilley (1997); Byrne (1998); Weiss (1998); Pawson (2006) and Coalter (2007), all contend that an experimentalist predominantly positivist or successionist approach to evaluation research only works when causes are simple and single, and are not deeply embedded in the complex social and historical relations that exist between structures and agents. Evaluation research has a basic reformist

goal aimed at helping to solve social challenges (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Findings from evaluation research are likely to have impact on the real world (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002) therefore the choice of critical realism as the philosophical lens through which to view the design of this study was seen as supportive. It allows for potentially opposing positions to be pursued; it promotes a scientific 'feel', 'albeit adventurous and chaotic science' (Van Mannan, 1988: 47) but it allows for the discussion to move towards talk of naturalistic generalisation (Stake, 2000). At the same time it presents some of the much valued emancipatory features of other critical approaches, i.e. Feminism, Constructivist structuralism and Critical realism (Bhasker, 1978; Bourdieu, 1990; Corson 1999 and Robson, 2002), albeit indirectly. A realist approach is neither exclusively nomothetic (law seeking) nor ideographic (documenting the unique) (Sayer, 2000; Pawson, 2006).

A critical realist approach allows for the acknowledgement of values and promotes a transparency regarding the author's moral whereabouts (Robson, 2002). In this sense it demonstrates the commitment of interpretive or constructivist approaches (Sparkes, 1992; Delanty, 1997; Robson, 2002). Indeed, a realist perspective allows us to be accepting of the fact that we can never be absolutely certain about the validity of any claim to knowledge (Benton and Craib, 2001; Robson, 2002). The compatibility with the interpretive paradigm is reinforced further with realist thinkers supporting the view that knowledge is a product of social and historical environment and is specific to a particular time, culture or situation (Bourdieu, 1990; Beck, 1996) This reflective position is in agreement with Manicas and Secord (1983) when they discuss how observations are tenuous and open to questioning and interpretation, they are not definitive. A reflective approach is a position presented by Benton and Craib (2001) who identify features of realism, and comment that a reflection is a feature is shared by most contemporary philosophies.

Van Maanen (1988) and Sparkes (2002) both discuss how the critical realist narrative usually distances the author's voice. However, there are times when it is both 'possible and desirable to modify the realist tale' (Sparkes 2002: 51) with the inclusion of information about the author being aimed at further persuading the reader to trust the credibility of the text (see, for example, Hanson 1992, Newman, 1992 and Jones, 2009). Furthermore, it supports a transparent view that research is not a value free activity and the biographical background of the researcher inevitably collides and influences the processes of empirical investigation (Sparkes, 1992; Robson, 2002). This view is also supported by Pawson (2006) who discuss the transformative nature of the actual act of social research and concludes there is always disruption regardless of outcome. Thus section 3.4 looks at the researcher.

3.4 The researcher

Research is not a value free activity and is therefore influenced by the biographical background of the researcher (Brackenridge, Pitchford, Russell and Nutt 2007; Sparkes, 1992, 2002 and Dismore 2007). The professional employment history of the researcher is presented in chapter 1 of this thesis. This section aims to expand on the philosophical underpinings that explain the values and beliefs brought by the researcher to this investigation. The section discusses the developing ontological, epistemological and pedagogical values, views and experiences of the researcher and how they have evolved through the time period of this study.

What does this research project mean to me? This is an ontological question that asks for transparency about how I see the world and what research and the generation of new knowledge and understanding means to me as an early career researcher. My philosophical understanding has developed exponentially during the timescale of this study. This has been developed through a number of different influences, including reading, tutorials, seminars and informal conversations with fellow research students and professors of education and social science. I am now explicitly aware of my subjective ontological position that allows me to believe that there is a reality and that it is socially constructed (Sparkes, 1992; Benton and Craib, 2001). This ontological position has, in turn, shaped my epistemological views regarding the social construction of knowledge, which has guided my overall research position and the methodological approach undertaken during this study.

A realist or theory driven approach to evaluation holds at its very centre the explicit value of wanting to understand how the mechanisms of change interact with the existing context in order to produce outcomes (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). The personal significance regarding my choice of realist methodology is that it is about people who are located in a context that is being exposed to mechanisms aimed at providing the opportunity or the resources for them to reflect which in turn provides the opportunity for them to think and act differently. When context and mechanism meet under the right conditions, social, psychological, physical and geographical, there is the chance that this synergy can lead to an outcome of social change (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Stame, 2004).

This investigation has allowed me to be clear about what I am interested in; yes the quality of Physical Education, the quality of youth coaching in a range of different educational and community contexts. But, most significantly, I am also interested in understanding the processes of social change and specifically how and why mechanisms for change react in a social context. Additionally this demonstration case study (Pawson, 2003) has allowed me to consider the value of a realist methodological position that views 'each evaluation within a problem area as a case study, and the

function of the case is to refine our understanding of the range of Context, Mechanisms and Outcomes which seem to have application in that domain' (Pawson and Tilley, 1997: 125). The study has led me to believe that a realist evaluation is a supportive methodological approach to investigating the social context and, specifically to my future as a social researcher investigating processes of change and the work of sports coaches, coach education and the development of Physical Education in both primary and secondary schools.

The developing role of the researcher

In completing this study I have had the opportunity to reflect in detail on my developing role as a researcher. I have developed a clear understanding of the importance of building respectful relationships with participants and that the researcher involved in case study research must develop or possess a set of skills and competencies that allow them to operate in the role of 'researcher as instrument' (Sparkes, 1992, Robson, 2002: 217, Chesney, 2001). This role places some very specific demands on a researcher and requires a flexible approach that does not rely on hard and fast routines and procedures (Robson, 2002). These developing skills were required throughout this investigation, as I undertook dual roles of CPD tutor and researcher. In a sense the quality of the data relied on my skill in supporting the coaches but also developing a trusting relationship that allowed the coaches to be honest and open in their responses. Robson (2002: 167) identifies a set of personal qualities required when undertaking such research, including an open and enquiring mind, being a good listener, general sensitivity and responsiveness to contradictory evidence. Robson (2002) continues to state that these are commonly regarded as skills central to a professional who works with people. Furthermore Reason and Rowan, (1981 in Sparkes, 1992: 30) comment in the context of the 'researcher as instrument' that validity 'lies in the skills and sensitivities of the researcher and how he uses himself as knower, and as inquirer'. They continue to state that 'validity is more personal and interpersonal, rather than methodological' (Reason and Rowan, 1981 in Sparkes, 1992: 30). Although I am in the early stages of my career as a researcher I am an experienced teacher and sports coach, therefore in relation to researching people in real world contexts, I have relevant and transferable professional experience that supports me in the role as researcher and researcher as an instrument. As a professional teacher who has considerable experience of working with a wide range of people, I have a specific set of skills that have been developed through a process of self-reflection, reading and discussions with colleagues. These developing skills were required throughout this investigation, as I undertook dual roles of CPD tutor and researcher. But despite having a good foundation of skills to support me in the role of researcher, having completed this study I am now even more aware of the constant need for me to

refine and develop my skills in order that I can work successful in new situations, attempting to answer different questions.

To theorise my progress as a developing researcher I have placed my experiences in the four dimensions of research presented by Fernandez-Balboa and Brubaker (2012). The four dimensions presented are survival, success, significance and spirituality (Fernandez-Balboa and Brubaker, 2012). In developing myself into the role of researcher I have certainly experienced survival, the very nature of attempting to complete a PhD on a part-time basis means that the states of stress, exhaustion, lack of balance, frustration and fear (Fernandez-Balboa and Brubaker, 2012) have all been felt. But as stated in chapter 1 the experience has been life changing and the positive side of 'survival' is that you are presented with an opportunity to sharpen skills, develop will power, courage and confidence while gaining new knowledge and expanding your experience (Fernandez-Balboa and Brubaker, 2012).

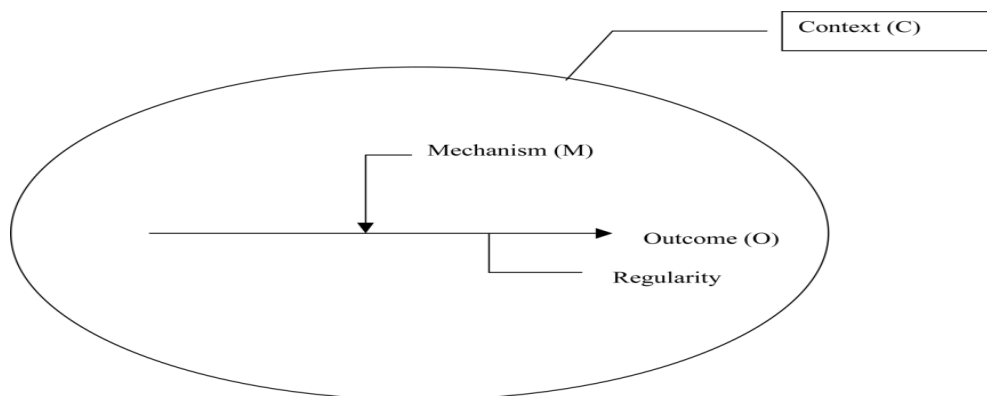
I have experienced 'success' at a technical level, insofar I feel I can confidently say that I have developed research skills and I have further developed the softer skills outlined above and by Robson (2002). In addition I feel that in developing myself into the role of researcher I am developing my understanding of 'significance' in research and being a researcher, I can see the importance of creating a healthy balance between my professional commitments and my responsibility to my family and significant others. The process of completing my PhD studies has explicitly allowed me to reflect on who I am and how I present myself to the world, I am clearer, more conscious about how I act, and attempt at all times to communicate my thoughts, feelings and actions in a constructive and ethically appropriate way (Fernandez-Balboa, 2009).

3.5 Research approach

The real world is not linear and therefore the choice of realism as a paradigm for researchers and practitioners, who wish to understand the synergies that exist between the Context, Mechanism and Outcome of a social service or innovation, is attractive (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002; Pawson, 2006). Not all realists agree on the ontological perspective of this paradigm, with some presenting a view that external reality exists independently of our awareness and beliefs about it (Bahaskar, 1978; Benton and Craib, 2001; Robson, 2002) and others highlighting an internal reality (Sparkes, 1992). This study which adopts an internal-idealist ontology and a subjectivist epistemology and associates with humanism which has clear links to the interpretive paradigm (Sparkes, 1992; Devis-Devis 2006). Therefore, realism differs from positivist science through an acknowledgement of the value laden and political nature of research (Maxwell and Delaney 1999; Robson, 2002); presenting a subjectivist, interactive epistemological position (Sparkes, 1992). Therefore there is a clear connection with the

epistemological view of an interpretive paradigm, with this realist position sharing the belief that knowledge is a social and historical product where no facts are beyond dispute and that they will constantly be open to adaptation in light of on-going practical work and an evolving context (Sparkes, 1992; Benton and Craib, 2001; Robson, 2002; Devis-Devis, 2006). Realism does not proclaim ‘perfection’ of absolute truth (Bhasker, 1978). This is a contrast to idealist or relativist theories of knowledge that rhetorically protect themselves from the possibility of being proven wrong through the rejection of independent reality (Benton and Craib, 2001). Therefore for the realist the task of science is to identify mid-range theories that help to explain the real world and support our understanding of a post-modern society and the challenges and differences it presents (Robson, 2002; Pawson, 2006).

The most commonly used explanation of realist methodological principles is that of ‘gunpowder’, ‘does gunpowder blow up when the flame is applied? Yes if the conditions are right’ (Robson, 2002: 30; Pawson, 2006). It does not ignite if the conditions are not right, if the mixture is wrong, the ground or atmosphere is too damp or there is no oxygen present. In realist terms, this would be explained by developing an understanding of how three key components are configured, i.e. context, mechanism and outcome (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002; Pawson, 2006). In the case of the ‘gunpowder plot’, the outcome (explosion) of an action (applying a flame) follows on from mechanism (chemicals in gunpowder) acting in context (particular conditions), thus allowing for a reaction to be triggered and an explosive outcome to be reached. However, if the mechanisms are not triggered because of the contextual conditions the outcome will differ, i.e. no explosion. This is illustrated in diagram 1:



$$C \ \& \ M = O$$

The basic ingredients of realist social explanation and experiment
(CMO configuration)

Source: Pawson and Tilley, 1998, Reference 18

3.6 Research methodology

A case study strategy to research investigates the case, i.e. an individual person, an institution or a situation in its context, typically using multiple methods of data collection (Cohen et al 2000; Robson, 2002; Bryman, 2004; Yin, 2009). Pawson and Tilley (1997) also present a realist approach to evaluation

as being about investigating problem areas that are identified as case studies, with the function of the case being to refine our awareness of the Context, Mechanism and Outcome configuration. Robson (2002) notes that qualitative data are almost always collected, but quantitative data can also be used (Hammersley and Gomm, 2000; Bryman, 2004; Yin, 2009). However Bryman (2004) suggests that if an investigation is based exclusively upon quantitative data it can be difficult to determine if the study is a 'case' or a cross sectional research design. Case studies usually align themselves with interpretive and critical paradigms (Curtner Smith, 2002) and attempt to see the world through the eyes of participants, although this is not always the case (Bryman, 2004).

There is a danger when using such a well-known and well-used phrase such as 'case study' that the term can often be loaded with traditional or historical meaning, for example for anyone with a legal or medical background there are some immediate connections with 'cases'. Therefore it is important that we are clear about what we mean by a case study in research terms. Yin (1994) describes a case study approach to research as involving empirical investigation of a real life context using multiple sources of evidence, later extending this Yin (2009) adds that a case study is an appropriate methodological choice when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly defined. Furthermore, Yin (2009) presents three conditions for considering a research approach: a) the type of research question posed; b) the extent of control the investigator has over actual events; and c) the degree of focus on contemporary versus historical events. By asking questions relating to these three conditions the social researcher can determine their choice of research methodology (Yin, 2009). The case study typically asks why and how questions, requires no control over behavioural elements and focuses on contemporary issues (Yin, 2009).

There are different types of case study design. Yin (2009) provides a description of some of the key characteristic of differing case study approaches. The critical case is identified by the researcher as having a specified hypothesis with the case chosen because it can provide the researcher with a better understanding of whether the hypothesis will or will not hold. The unique or extreme case is commonly focused around clinical studies. The revelatory case exists when the researcher had an opportunity to investigate a previously inaccessible phenomenon. Bryman (2004) adds to this list, the exemplifying case. This type of case study is often chosen simply because it provides an appropriate context for certain research questions to be addressed (Bryman, 2004).

The use of a case study methodology has particular relevance for research that is carried out in real world settings, allowing researchers to obtain a unique look at real people and understand the contextual and mechanistic challenges they face in their world (Cohen, et al 2000; Robson, 2002; Yin, 2009). A key feature of the case study is that it has a flexibility that allows for the research design to

evolve during the collection of data, allowing the researcher to probe further into complex social gaps that appear between structure and agent (Cohen et al 2000; Robson, 2002). Therefore the flexible nature of a case study provides support for the real world researcher who may have little control over the context which they choose to investigate (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Yin, 2009) but wishes to understand key contextualised connections between the purpose or purposes of their investigation and a theoretical framework (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002). This is possible due to the key focus of case study design being one of developing a detailed analysis of the case itself (usually through the use of multiple sources of data, for example; interviews, DVD footage, questionnaires, field notes and documents) (Robson, 2002; Yin, 2009). Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) provide further support for the key focuses of case study design, including a concern for a detailed description of events and an understanding of the individuals or groups perceptions, with the events and situations being given a voice by an active researcher who is involved in the case and who makes a purposeful attempt in the final report to demonstrate the depth and complexity of the specific social context. Although uncommon (at present), case study design can be seen to report findings from the social world in ways that are more generally recognised as the domains of a novelist or poet (Hammersley and Gomm, 2000; Yin, 2009), see, for example, Jones (2009) and Douglas and Carless (2010). Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) continue to state that a case study can be defined by the characteristics and roles of the people involved and by the boundaries of the community in which they are located. The case study methodology supports researchers in retaining the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life events (Yin, 2009). Therefore the author attempts to present an engaging narrative that finds its direction from the strands and themes that are inductively identified through analysis of empirical data (Yin, 2009). The goal of composing a good case study report is to seduce, engage and entice the reader to reflect on what is being reported (Yin, 2009). This view is supported clearly by Sparkes (2002) who develops John Van Mannan's early work 'Tales of the Field' (1988). Sparkes discusses how it is not surprising that qualitative researchers report their work using vastly different approaches, using different discourse and rhetorical strategies to persuade the reader to trust the authority of their account. Writing in 2002 he continued to highlight that there is still no comprehensive agreement on styles or formats for the novice qualitative researcher to adopt. Sparkes summarised his points by using Miles and Huberman (1994: 299) to confirm this view, an approach also adopted here:

'The reporting of qualitative data may be one of the most fertile fields going; there are no fixed formats, and the ways data are being analysed and interpreted are getting more and more various. As qualitative analysts, we have few shared cannons of how our studies should be reported. Should we have normative agreement on this? Probably not now – or, some would say, ever'.

This position on the writing and reporting of social inquiry has often been criticized for not being scientific and therefore not being able to achieve a primary aim of science as seen through positivist approach to enquiry that of prediction and control (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). What is the value of empirical investigation that only supports an understanding of the specific? This supports the well-established positivist view that the role of science is to generalise findings in order that we can better understand our chosen phenomenon (Dickenson, 1982). Therefore generalisation must be universal, unrestricted by time and space or at a minimum it must be presented in a form that is consistent everywhere, depending on the conditions being right (Kaplan, 1964). This positivist view of science and generalisation neglects to fully address the contextualised nature of the social sciences; it is challenging to imagine a study of society that is context free (Cohen et al, 2000; Lincoln and Guba, 2000). This is a point made clear by Robson (2002: xi, brackets in the original) when he writes 'to be (I hope) uncharacteristically rude, if you have not yet appreciated that positivism as a basis for social research is a god that failed then you either haven't done sufficient reading and thinking, or you are impervious to evidence'. Bryman (2004) informs us that the researcher who adopts case study methodology does not set out to generalise results, it is not the purpose of their craft, Hammersley and Gomm, (2000: 4) highlight that the researcher's main concern is 'with understanding the case studied in itself, with no interest in empirical generalisation'. However, Miles and Huberman (1994); Stake, (2000) and Yin (2009) all consider that in order to discuss generalisation in social or educational research we are required to reflect on the perspective of the end user. The case study methodology that utilises a multi-method approach to data collection supports the purpose of collecting and separating the significant from the insignificant data, with an emphasis being placed on significance rather than frequency of data (Cohen et al, 2000). The emphasis on the significance of data works to assist the reader in evolving an ontological synergy or contrast with their own personal experience and views regarding the nature of reality and, therefore, create a natural basis for one to accept or reject any call for naturalistic generalisation (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). This is also supported by Flanagan (1949, cited in Cohen et al, 2000: 184) who discusses how case study design allows for the appearance of a single data event not to be ruled out, as a single specific event may cast an important light on a situation or context and support our understanding of the issue under investigation. This is further supported by Cohen et al (2000: 184) who discuss how case study data are 'strong in reality'. Its strength lies in its colloquial, attention grabbing style, that harmonises with the reader's own experience and thus provides a 'natural' basis for generalisation. Additionally, Nisbet and Watt's (1984) identify that the strengths of case study research is that the results are easily understood by a wide audience, including non-academics. Indeed Miles and Huberman (1994) and Yin (2009) highlight that reports should be written for a specific audience, with Erickson (1986) championing the view that the reader takes on the role of co-analyst, experiencing the

original setting vicariously by reading the evidence and considering the writer's interpretation against their personal experience or view (Yin, 2009). This is an ideology also shared by Bourdieu (1990) who sees the role of social science as supporting autonomy and intellectual critique, as all writing serves a rhetorical function (Richardson, 1990 cited in Miles and Huberman, 1994: 299; Taylor and Garratt, 2010) and like the research process itself it is not innocent of power or a value free activity. These points have been summarised by Yin (2009: 188) who identifies that a key feature of an exemplary case study is one that 'judiciously and effectively presents the most relevant evidence, so that a reader can reach an independent judgement regarding the merits of the analysis'. The concept of knowledge transfer or indeed the notion of working towards a more progressive position of knowledge synergy relies heavily on how accessibly new knowledge is presented to the end user (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2009). Therefore the author is challenged with presenting findings and further discussions in a form that creates a relevance to the reader. In turn this helps to foster and grow personal meaning, thus allowing agents to connect to what Beck (1996) identified as a 'reflective scientisation' - the individual critique or evaluation of empirical investigation by a scientised public. As personal meaning regarding the nature of reality evolves, an increased access to *thinking* is facilitated. This allows for the consequences of empirical investigation to be considered at a more critically reflective level and careful thought can be given to the moral, political and broader social implications of the phenomenon under investigation (Hatton and Smith, 1995). Therefore the distinguishing feature of case study report is that human systems within them have a completeness that presents the whole data set as being more important than the sum of its individual parts, therefore supporting an in-depth understanding of the phenomena under investigation (Nisbet and Watt, 1984; Sturman, 1999).

These challenges have specific relevance for evaluation research with the aim of supporting social change that has an influence on real people in the real world (Robson, 2002). Yin (2009) identifies that for many non-specialists the case study method itself can be a significant communication device and the description and analysis of a single case can often suggest implications about a more general phenomenon. However, the points made here are not aimed at making any overt claims in the direction of generalising the findings from this single demonstration case (Pawson, 2006). Rather if only at a microscopic level, they aim to direct the reader's mind, with an acknowledgement of their role (academic, coach, teacher, or parent) towards critically reflecting on their personal experiences and encourage their thoughts to be synergised and developed using an emancipatory filter (Bhaskar, 1978). Furthermore, in an attempt to support the progression of contemporary social science and educational research and to bridge the gap between rhetoric and reality, the aim is to actively engage the reader in a reflexive process that moves their thoughts beyond the words on these pages. This reflection is based on personal reality specifically the acknowledgement of structures that exist independently of our

current knowledge and understanding of them (Bhaskar, 1978; Benton and Craib, 2001; Robson, 2002; Pawson, 2006). For example, the majority of readers will know at least one child who has just gone through or currently going through a western primary education system, whether it is a son, daughter, grandson, granddaughter, distant relation or even the boy or girl living in the house next door. This relationship, however deeply embedded in personal reality, calls upon you to consider the results of this case study in relation to the end users, the children, and to retrospectively reflect on the picture presented, allowing the data to support, shape or challenge existing views or experiences surrounding this post-modern phenomenon. For this study investigates a contemporary issue that has a direct impact on the educational experience children receive in primary school Physical Education lessons today. To further support this process, this study incorporates a cross-case analysis (Yin, 2009) allowing the reader to consider information relating to individual coaches through a holistic rhetoric, with information about individual cases being communicated through the use of themed vignettes.

By extension it should be made clear that this thesis rejects the traditional or historical view of social science aligning its thinking with the physical sciences seeking to find the lawful regularities that exist between causes and effect. A major challenge in generalising results in social sciences is the 'changeability of culture' as practices and approaches change to meet the demands of society. The Workforce Remodelling Act of 2003 and the introduction of PPA time in 2005 has changed the context of primary school Physical Education classes. Therefore our policy and practice need to adapt accordingly. The findings from this research support this assertion and provide a spring-board for further investigation into the real world context of community coaches and the mechanism that support change in their immediate contexts.

3.7 Research participants

The participants for this study were 21 Football in the Community Coaches (see table 1) employed at the Community Sport Trust of one English Premiership football club during the calendar years 2007 and 2008. Part of their work involved delivering specified work in Physical Education lessons to cover primary teachers' PPA time. All participants in the study received payment from the Community Sports Trust for their service as a coach. Eight coaches were employed in a full-time salaried position and 13 were sessional coaches employed in part-time hourly paid positions. The coaches were selected for participation in the CPD programme by the community scheme managers at the Community Sports Trust. Consent was sought from all 21 participants, it was made clear that participants could opt out of the study, and / or the CPD programme at any time and this would have no impact on their role within the Community Sports Trust. All 21 coaches gave their informed consent to take part in the study. The coaches included in the study held a minimum qualification in order that they could work in PPA time;

this was a level 2 in Football and level 1 in other sports. There were six coaches included in the study that only had a FA level 1 qualification. These coaches were either about take their level 2 qualification or would be used as assistant coaches in PPA time. During the first eleven months of the CPD programme, one of the full-time and seven of the part-time coaches left the employment of the Community Sports Trust. During the second eleven months of the study three full-time coaches left the employment of the Community Sports Trust. One of these coaches had been identified by the Community Sports Trust managers as a lead coach for the CPD programme.

3.8 Sampling

The case study adopted a non-probability sample that was based on purposeful convenience (Bryman, 2004). The case was purposive because, as the name suggests, it was chosen for a specific purpose i.e. an organisation that employed football coaches to work in school curriculum time and cover specified work in PPA time. This allowed the CPD programme to be delivered and research questions to be investigated (Cohen et al, 2000; Robson, 2002). The case was also convenient on a number of different levels; the researcher was known, in a separate but broadly connected capacity (as an ex-coach of one of the club's senior teams) to the Community Sports Trust, thus providing convenient access to a relevant case (Costley, Elliot and Gibbs, 2010). The timing of the project was also of convenience for the Community Sports Trust as they were beginning to expand their work programmes into curriculum time delivering specified work and covering PPA time; they were therefore receptive to the proposed study. The Community Sports Trust was also geographically convenient for the researcher who lived and worked a commutable distance from the Trust's head offices and the Football club's training ground, which would be the central location for the study. Additionally Cohen et al (2000) and Robson (2002) discuss that non-probability samples are often used in small scale, case study research. They explain that this approach is less complicated and less expensive to organise and is perfectly adequate for researchers who do not set out to scientifically generalise their results beyond the sample being studied. This is further supported by Bryman (2004: 100) who simply states that 'social research is also frequently based on convenience sampling'. Furthermore, Bryman (2004) identifies that non-probability based samples, although not generalizable can provide a springboard for further research through gaining access to difficult hard to reach communities. This is a point that is made in the introduction to this thesis which identifies the broader purpose of this study; to support or create legitimate access aimed at developing a network of connected case studies that have the opportunity to test and re-test programme theories in order that local and national intervention and policy can be based on a secure network of local yet generalizable evidence.

Table 1 The coaches

Coach No: and Pseudonyms for the coaches featured in vignettes	Age	Gender	Graduate (G) / non graduate (NG)	Level of FA coaching qualification	Years as a community football coach
1 - Wayne	22 - 27	male	NG	2	4 – 5
2	18 - 22	male	NG	3	Under 1
3	18 - 22	male	NG	1	Under 1
4 - Frank	33 - 37	male	NG	3	10 – 15
5	33 – 37	male	G	3	2 - 3
6	22 - 27	male	G	2	Under 1
7	18 - 22	male	NG	1	2 – 3
8	33 - 37	female	G	1	1 – 2
9 - Peter	22 – 27	male	G	2	5 – 6
10 - Steven	18 - 22	male	G	3	1 - 2
11	22 - 27	male	NG	2	Under 1
12	28 - 32	male	NG	2	4 – 5
13 - Karen	22 - 27	female	NG	2	3 – 4
14	22 - 27	male	G	2	Under 1
15	22 - 27	male	NG	2	Under 1
16	38 - 42	male	NG	2	4 – 5
17	28 – 32	male	NG	2	5 – 6
18	28 - 32	male	NG	2	1 – 2
19	22 - 27	male	G	1	1 – 2
20	33 - 37	male	NG	2	Under 1
21 - Gareth	22 - 27	male	NG	2	10 - 15

3.9 Access to the ‘case’

One of the most challenging aspects of ‘real world’ research is gaining and maintaining access to the participants as modern organisations are dynamic and complex places (Costley et al, 2010) that operate with varying degrees of tacit flexibility. The negotiation of access to a community that you have an interest in learning about is riddled with physical, moral and cognitive challenges (Costley et al 2010). It requires the researcher to establish credibility with participants that moves beyond the authority of the initial gatekeeper (Costley, et al 2010). It requires a sophisticated understanding of the dispositional nature of communities and the people who work and live within them. Access for this study was initially gained through fostering an individual rapport with a gatekeeper. This is acknowledged as a legitimate approach to gaining access by Okumus, Altinay and Roper (2007) who describe three forms of access. These include through contractual agreement, personal access to senior managers and individual rapport with a gatekeeper. The access for this study also demonstrates features highlighted by Gummesson (2000) who defines three different access types: physical access, continued access and mental access. In this study, initial access to a favourable gatekeeper or early adopter (Rogers, 2003) provided the researcher with access to a senior manager. It was at this stage that discussions regarding

the proposed project were initiated and developed. The discussion between researcher and the senior manager, an ex-professional footballer, required advanced interpersonal skills, and an open acknowledgement of past experience and reputation. The discussion provided an opportunity to address initial ethical issues regarding access and acceptance of the research project and allowed the researcher to establish his own ethical and philosophical position (Sparkes, 1992; Cohen et al, 2000). This trust building process played a significant part in establishing this project and securing the sum of £12,000 to support costs over a two year period. The discussions with the senior manager centred on the outline of the study, i.e. a twenty-two month CPD programme aimed at supporting coaches to work in schools, against the definition of specified work. The CPD and evaluation design were discussed, including issues relating to time, resources and facilities. Robson (2002) suggests the researcher is at a considerable advantage if the study is aimed at supporting practice as there is legitimacy for this support that has arisen out of the real world challenges faced by the community.

Within this study there were immediate challenges with the credibility of an outsider, although known and credible to the gatekeeper and by virtue also credible to other managers within the Community Sports Trust (Costley et al, 2010). Credibility with managers was achieved through a combination of the gatekeeper's position and his personal credibility within the Community Sports Trust. The managers also had access to word of mouth information regarding the credibility of the researcher, as a coach and educator. As previously highlighted, the researcher had worked in a different capacity as a coach with one of the club's senior teams. However, credibility in the eyes of the community coaches whose day to day work centred on the practical delivery of coaching sessions was not established. Coaches were understandably sceptical about the role of an outsider, and specifically an outsider whose day to day role was commonly perceived as being detached from their practice. It is fair to say that the day-to-day life in a university is significantly different from the day-to-day life and role of the community coach, despite the roles both involving pedagogical processes. It is easy to see how the coaches, utilising a common sense perception of a university lecturer's role, then comparing this to their perception of the knowledge and skills required to operate as a community coach, may have found it easier to be sceptical than embracing.

Robson (2002) suggests gaining trust and acceptance from participants' centres around developing respectful relationships that are based on a mutually reciprocated trust. In a sense this is about proving oneself credible within the real world context of the participants. To do this you need to do something that the participants will recognise as credible. These issues were explicitly addressed through the CPD programme theory and the mechanisms for change.

3.1.0 Ethics of Research

In proposing a research project Bryman (2004) highlights the importance of the researcher being familiar with ethical codes of practice produced by established professional associations such as the British Sociological Association, British Educational Research Association and the Social Research Association (Cohen et al, 2000). Bryman (2004) also makes reference to the good practice of a research proposal aimed at supporting a Masters or PhD qualification adhering to the ethical guidelines of the awarding universities research committee. This research project has been approved by the research committee at Brunel University (appendix 1).

The research participants in this study were all physically and cognitively able adults who gave their informed consent to participate in this study (Cohen et al, 2000). Informed consent was obtained on the first day of the investigation, and was provided by the coaches both verbally and in writing (appendix 2). Guidelines regarding the nature of the CPD programme and an explanation of the research procedures were provided to all prospective participants. It was made clear to all participants that they had the right to remove themselves from the research and / or the CPD at any time during the project and this would not have any impact on their role within the Community Sports Trust.

Bryman (2004) highlights that ethical issues in the social research process should not be ignored as the ethics of research have a direct relationship to the integrity of the investigation (Cohen, et al, 2000). Ethical discussions in social research require us to consider the values related to the research process. These revolve around issues such as how the people involved in the research are treated and which activities or relations researchers should or should not engage in with them (Bryman, 2004). Although it is often observed that virtually all research involves elements that are at least ethically questionable (Bryman, 2004). Diener and Crandall (1978) identify four main areas for consideration whether there is harm to participants, whether there is a lack of informed consent, whether there is an invasion of privacy and whether deception is involved.

‘Research that is likely to harm participants is regarded by most people as unacceptable’ (Bryman, 2004: 509). On the basis of this statement it is important to identify exactly what is meant by the term harm in relation to a social research process. Harm in the context of social research can include physical harm, harm to participants personal or group development, emotional harm relating to loss of self-esteem, or the development of stress and research participants being induced to perform reprehensible acts (Bryman, 2004).

In relation to harm, the elements of this study that could be deemed ethically questionable relate to any emotional harm that the coaches might experience as a result of the CPD programme. Specifically the

mechanisms of change and a research requirement that asked the coaches to reflect and document their experience, and therefore asked them to explicitly consider how the CPD programme impacted them. A number of the coaches reported their shock regarding how far away they were from the required standard to meet the definition of specified work and work in PPA time in schools. A strategy to prevent, or at the very least to manage, any potential emotional harm was that all data from the coaches would be reported anonymously and all data would be treated with the strictest of confidentiality (Cohen et al, 2000). This was communicated to the coaches both verbally and in writing at the start of the investigation. The process of change and the coaches developing awareness of their knowledge and understanding could have emotional and stress-related implications depending on how an individual coach perceives the experience. The process of change promotes a certain level of uncertainty, requiring a level of critical reflection that encourages individual and groups to consider their current practice or behaviour in light of how they feel about the mechanism for change that has been presented through a social intervention programme (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2006). In the context of this study, this potential ethical challenge was explicitly addressed through the CPD programme theory which was underpinned by an epistemological position that saw the CPD as centrally about knowledge synergy as opposed to knowledge transfer. This highlighted an approach to learning that asked the coaches to consider the content being presented. Philosophically, this approach to CPD required the coaches to be cognitively active either accepting or rejecting the knowledge that was presented. The epistemological approach to the development of new knowledge and understanding makes a clear and purposeful attempt to challenge the power hierarchy that naturally exists between parties, i.e. coaches, researcher / CPD tutor. The CPD programme is explicit in stating that, yes the CPD researcher / tutor does have a level of knowledge but there is an open acknowledgement that the community coaches also have a level of knowledge and it is the aim of the CPD programme to bring this together to form a developed or enhanced understanding of the phenomenon under investigation, in this case study the Context, Mechanism and Outcome relationship within the CPD programme.

3.1.1 Programme theory

The CPD programme aimed to support the coaches to think differently about their role and how they worked as a community based coach. The programme theory was reached through reviewing literature on learning theories, coaching, teacher education and evaluation e.g. (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Abraham and Collins, 1998; Fulbright-Anderson et al 1998; Wenger, 1998; Weiss, 1998; Potrac, Brewer, Jones, Armour and Hoff, 2000; Gilbert and Trudel, 1999, 2001, 2006; Bergman Drewe, 2000; Pawson, 2003; Jones, 2006, 2007; Trudel and Gilbert, 2006; Capel and Blair, 2007; Cushion, 2007; Cushion et al 2010) and through personal reflection and formative experience.

The aim of the CPD programme was to support coaches to build, develop and construct their knowledge, skill and understanding of four educational themes (pedagogy, short and medium term planning, knowledge of the curriculum and reflection) which would enable the coaches to move some way to meeting the requirements set out by the definition of specified work (Baalpe, 2005). The programme was designed to provide context and personal meaning to their work as a community-based coach and therefore enable them to develop a deeper, more sustained, understanding of the knowledge(s) that they would require in order to work as an educator within the framework of the NCPE.

The first nine months of the CPD programme were shaped around a teaching curriculum (Wenger, 1998). It comprised nine whole days (6 hour) taught sessions (once per month) and nine support days (once per month), which were delivered bi-weekly. The focus was on engaging and involving the coaches in a variety of 'hands on' learning experiences that aimed to construct and re-construct knowledge and experience through interaction among individuals and groups. The CPD programme focussed on sharing new knowledge, specifically around the four key areas of pedagogy, planning, curriculum and reflection, but it also allowed coaches to question knowledge, both new and old. This was achieved through a series of learning activities, critical tasks aimed at fostering a culture of open and honest communication in which coaches would feel supported and empowered to experiment and learn. The CPD days consisted of practical coaching, role play, group work, information sharing and DVD analysis. The support days provided coaches with one-on-one and small group input through reflective tasks such as reviewing and discussing personal coaching sessions on DVD.

The last three months of the first year of the programme progressed to a learning curriculum (Wenger, 1998). This is a curriculum approach that decentralised how individuals and groups formulate their knowledge and understanding, allowing coaches to work in a reflective way, responding to organic real world situations and problems that were drawn as much as possible from their own work programmes (Garet, et al 2001; Sparkes, 2002; Armour and Yelling, 2007). The rationale for the use of a learning curriculum in the final three months of the first year was to move learning towards being self-regulated, working in their own context to reflect and solve organic real world problems and for the coaches to be fuelled through their own intrinsic motivation (Simons, 1993). In order for this to be achieved there was an acknowledgement that the activities should be innovative and meaningful. The final 11 months of the CPD programme aimed to be as organic as the coaches would allow, attempting to capture the generation of knowledge through the creation of learning groups that were encouraged to construct and de-construct real world scenarios that evolved from their own practice. The full CPD structure is detailed in appendix 3.

Although the programme aimed to be ‘coach-centred’, i.e. developing meaning through personal experience, it was acknowledged that the coaches would need to be supported in order that they could work in a more independent manner (Armour and Duncombe, 2004; Culver and Trudel, 2006; Keay 2006; Patton and Griffin, 2008; O’Sullivan, 2007). This was particularly important as their previous experience of coach education had not consisted of such approaches to learning (The Football Association, 2002, 2004, 2006). Cushion with Kitchen (2011) highlight that a coach’s habitus is a powerful social force that coach educators should consider, particularly those whose interventions focus on philosophical and pedagogical positions. Bourdieu (1989: 18) describes habitus as ‘the product of the internalisation of the structures’ of society. Wacquant (1999 cited in Cushion and Kitchen 2011: 43) describes habitus as dispositions through which we engage with the world around us, an unconscious development through a constant exposure to particular social conditions.

This connects to an increasing swell of academic literature that identifies the lack of impact that coach education has had on actual coaching practice (Abraham and Collins, 1998; Cassidy, Jones and Potrac, 2004; Jones, 2006, 2007). The CPD programme in this study was therefore designed as a set of connected experiences utilising a range of critical pedagogical approaches (Fernandez-Balboa, 1997; Kirk, 2000) that were delivered over a sustained period of time (Garet, et al 2001; Sparkes, 2002; O’Sullivan and Deglau, 2006; Armour and Yelling, 2007), allowing the coaches to explore alternative knowledge and approaches to coaching children. It emphasised the process of providing meaningful professional development opportunities (Attard and Armour, 2006; Armour and Yelling 2007) that were both individually and socially constructed.

The programme embraced the social theory of learning or situated learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Kirk and Macdonald, 1998; Wenger, 1998; Rovengo, 2006), underpinned by a constructivist epistemology. The programme further embraced key features aimed at fostering deeper approaches to learning, that of a motivational context; this was developed through active learning, both physical and cognitive, interaction with others and a clearly established and structured knowledge base (Gibbs, 1992). Therefore, learning was seen as being both an individual and socially constructed process that encouraged coaches to reflect on their identity as a coach and what that actually meant to them in practice. It was acknowledged that the coaches had a good level of content knowledge (knowledge of football) at the start of the programme and that the CPD aimed to support them to reflect and question their own and other’s practice.

Research by Culver (2004); Culver and Trudel (2006, 2008) and Culver, Trudel and Werthner (2009) highlighted that a collaborative approach to learning through social construction and the structuring of a community of practice (CoP) (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) requires careful, appropriate

leadership/facilitation. Culver and Trudel (2008: 7) discussed the importance of 'CoPs having a competent facilitator and a certain amount of structure to act as a scaffold for learning'. The CPD programme attempted to facilitate this on a number of different levels, from course tutor/ researcher, to lead coaches and the involvement of managers and schools.

A key component of the CPD programme theory was the use of situated learning theory (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Kirk and Macdonald, 1998; Wenger, 1998; Rovengo, 2006). Lave (1988) describes situated learning theory as one in which the activity in which an individual is engaged in and the sociocultural environment are inseparable. Lave and Wenger (1991: 29) write, 'A person's intentions to learn are engaged and the meaning of learning is configured through the process of becoming a full participant in a sociocultural practice. This social process includes, indeed it subsumes, the learning of knowledgeable skills'. This perspective highlighted the importance of the coaches being able to experiment, practice and 'play out, in situ' their evolving ontological and pedagogical realities, in relation to how they had been influenced by the mechanisms for change delivered through the CPD programme. The CPD programme explicitly identified that the process of change would be supported by the coaches working in schools delivering, refining and re defining their coaching practice with the intention that the schools in which they worked would play a role of supportive but critical friend. This situated perspective to learning would allow the coaches to develop their knowledge, skill and understanding of coaching in a real world context thus providing the coaches with a social cultural context in which they could transfer the programme theories and mechanism for change into 'their reality' and allow the feedback provided by the children and their own observations of how the children react to their practice to help shape personnel and whole group processes for change. Theoretically the schools would support the coaches' development through situated learning by the organic formation of a community of practice existing between the school, the teachers and the coaches (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998 and Cushion with Denstone, 2011). The teachers would work with the coaches to support their developing knowledge, skill and understanding to work in schools. Due to the content of the CPD programme the coaches had developed their knowledge and understanding of pedagogy until recently the domain of the teacher (Cassidy et al, 2004; Jones et al, 2004), the NCPE, and the importance of planning, that they had developed through the CPD programme. Wenger (1998) presents the notion of 'boundary' as being significant to understanding the success of a community of practice. He outlines that an understanding of the boundaries (or blocking mechanisms) provides an important means of theorising the relationship between members. Newcomers to a community of practice will be confronted by boundary blocks which may prevent them being full legitimate or embraced in the community (Wenger, 1998). Cushion with Denstone (2011) comment that for coaches a curriculum could present itself as boundary object, as could teachers and schools in this study.

3.1.2 Instruments and procedures - Methods of data collection

This study utilised mainly qualitative methods, although basic quantitative methods were employed for the purpose of obtaining demographical, educational and work experience related data from the participants. Qualitative methods used in the study included open questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, videoing of practical sessions, both participant's and researcher's field notes and document analysis, i.e. planning documentation.

On January 23rd 2007, twenty one coaches who had been identified by the Community Sports Trust and subsequently invited to take part in the CPD programme convened for the first time in the education and welfare class room at the football club's training ground. The morning started at 9.30am with opening address from the Head of the Community Sports Trust. The opening address outlined the reasons why the trust had made a decision to engage in such an intervention programme and provided the coaches with a brief projection of how and where the senior and middle managers saw the trust's core business moving in the short to medium term. This centred on the generation of 'more work' and expanded on the trust's commitment to improving the part time hourly paid situation in which thirteen of the twenty-one coaches were currently employed. It was explained that this was to be achieved through the trust expanding their work programme into school curriculum time and covering specified work in PPA time. Three of the trust's middle managers were also present on this day.

The researcher/ CPD tutor then outlined and explained the specific aims of the CPD and the subsequent evaluation. The researcher gave the participants a short biography and highlighted why the area of enquiry was of interest. Time was taken to outline the ethical consideration of undertaking such a real world study. It was made clear both verbally and via written documentation (appendix 2) that all coaches had the right to withdraw from the research programme at any time without the need to explain their decision and that this would have no detrimental impact on their role at the Community Sports Trust. It was stated that all data would be confidential and that the coaches would remain anonymous throughout the study. The system for supporting anonymity was explained to the coaches. Each coach was given a number; the only person who could link the coach to the number would be the researcher. All coaches were asked to provide their written consent to agree or not, to take part in the study. All the coaches signed the consent form. It was stated that it was the intention that all interviews would be tape-recorded and that individual coaches would be asked permission for this prior to each interviews taking place.

Time was then given to answer any questions the coaches had regarding the mechanics and logistics of how the programme and evaluation would work. It was also made clear that coaches should feel free to

ask for clarification or critique any aspect of the intervention programme and subsequent evaluation. Coaches asked questions regarding the length of the programme - twenty two months, why so long?; if they would receive any recognised qualification; and if the researcher would suddenly appear in a school and evaluate or critique their lessons without any notice or consultation (Field notes, January 2007).

3.1.3 First day data collection

The participants had been pre-organised by the Community Sports Trust managers' into five groups of four coaches. Each group would rotate through four points of data collection including a questionnaire (data collected from individual coaches), a practical delivery (data collected as a group) which was videoed, a National Curriculum Physical Education (NCPE) proforma (data collected from individual coaches) and a semi-structured group interview. The practical delivery took place at the football club's training ground in an indoor purpose built facility. The questionnaire and NCPE proforma were both administered in the education and welfare classroom and the interviews took place in a meeting room in a separate building but at the same venue.

Six coaches (2, 4, 5, 9, 14 and 21) were also videoed delivering a practical coaching session on February 14th 2007. The coaches volunteered to take part in this additional data collection and were therefore a non-probability convenience sample. These coaches also took part in a semi-structured individual interview after the practical delivery. The rationale for this was to obtain further data on practical delivery and how this connected to working in schools. The practical delivery took place at the football club's training ground in a purpose built indoor facility and the interviews took place in the Community Sports Trust offices in a private meeting room.

Additionally, all 21 coaches were provided with a folder in which they were asked to collect anything they felt constituted evidence of their personal professional development, examples of this were provided and included information from the CPD sessions and increasingly from other coaches; short and medium term plans; copies of any certificates from course they had attended; reflective notes; feedback on their coaching and supporting documentation, e.g. research on lesson planning from the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority (QCA) website.

3.1.4 Questionnaires

In discussing the use of structured, semi-structured and unstructured questionnaires, Cohen et al (2000) explain that if the research design is a site specific case study then qualitative, less structured, open-ended questionnaires may be an appropriate strategy. This view is consolidated and developed by Robson (2002) who identifies that questionnaire design should be driven by the research questions. The

purpose and methodological rationale for adopting the semi-structured questionnaires in this study was to allow for a relatively large amount of standardised data to be collected within a relatively short period of time (Robson, 2002; Miles and Huberman, 1994), allowing for an agenda to be set out but does not presuppose the nature of the response (Cohen et al, 2000). The data collected had a direct relation to the core components of realist methodology, that of context, mechanism and outcome (Bhasker, 1978; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2006). The three questionnaires used in this study, January 2007, June 2007 and January 2008 (appendix 4, 5, 6) were designed with the explicit purpose of collecting data on context, mechanisms and outcome, respectively. The questionnaires were administered in a classroom context with time set for the coaches to complete and return. The questionnaires were all administered by the researcher. This use and administration of questionnaires, does of course, have some technical advantages and disadvantages, including that they allow for a relatively simple and straight forward method to the collection of data relating to demographics, qualification and the respondents attitudes, values, beliefs and motives (Robson, 2002). Distinct disadvantages of questionnaires are the masking / concealing of the individual characteristics of the respondents; for example their experience, knowledge, motivation, memory and personality (Robson, 2002). People also respond in a way that shows them in a good light, they provide a social desirable or acceptable response (Robson, 2002; Miles and Huberman, 1994).

On January 23rd 2007 twenty coaches completed a questionnaire comprising of both closed and open-ended questions. The main purpose of this questionnaire was to collect data aimed at providing the starting context for the individual coaches and the group of coaches as a whole. This questionnaire aimed to answer research question 1ab, which ask: 1a) what is the current context in which this group of community coaches are working in schools? and 1b) are the coaches 'fit for the purpose' of working in schools and covering PPA time lessons? The questionnaire asked for data on the coaches' demographic background, academic qualifications, coaching experience and how they viewed their role as a community-based football coach. This included open-ended questions on their understanding of teaching (coaching) and learning and class management. It also contained a section on how they how NGB awards support their work as a community coach working in schools and what professional development opportunities they would find supportive. The questionnaire was administered, by the researcher, in the education and welfare classroom at the football clubs training ground.

On June 21st 2007 ten of the coaches (1, 2, 4, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 19 and 21) completed a second questionnaire comprising both 5-point likert scale and open-ended questions, relating to how the taught programme sessions were supporting their work within PPA time. The questionnaire was administered at the community sports trust head office in a private meeting room. The questionnaire was aimed at

answering questions 2ab: 2a) What aspects of the CPD programme worked and what did not work in supporting coaches in developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to deliver specified work? 2b) Why were these interventions successful or unsuccessful?

At the end of the first twelve months of the programme (January 13th 2008), eleven coaches (1, 2, 4, 7, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 19 and 21) completed a third questionnaire comprising open-ended questions designed to understand the development of their knowledge, skill and understanding relating to their pedagogical knowledge and awareness of short and medium term planning, knowledge of the curriculum and reflection, as well as how they felt the structure and organisation of the programme had supported them. The questionnaire was designed to answer sub question 3 regarding the initial outcomes of the CPD programme: 3) what impact did the CPD programme have on coaches' knowledge, understanding and skill to undertake their role of working in schools covering PPA time lessons? The questionnaire was administered at the Community Sports Trust head office in a private meeting room.

3.1.5 Interviews

An interview is an exchange of ideas and views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest, it is a flexible and adaptable way of finding things out (Kvale, 1996; Robson, 2002). Knowledge is generated through the social construction of conversation. There is an exchange of words, gestures and pauses that provide data on the individual's interpretations of the issue in question (Robson, 2002). Therefore it is neither completely subjective nor objective but rather inter-subjective (Cohen et al, 2000). The non-verbal cues provide indications of agreement, disagreement or indifference, they help support the interpretation and meaning (Miles and Huberman, 1994). This inevitably raises concerns about reliability and makes it difficult to isolate biases (Robson, 2002).

The role of the interviewer is to create an environment that allows the interviewee to talk freely and openly. This is a skill that inevitably takes time and practice to develop (Cohen et al, 2000; Bryman, 2004). Robson (2002) offers some clear practical advice for the less experienced interviewer. This includes trying to listen more than you speak, phrase questions clearly and in a non-threatening way, try not to use leading questions, and try to enjoy the interview. In support of this, Mitchell (1992: 5 cited in Andrews, 2003: 1) asks us to consider, what is it like to be asked a question?' It is important to acknowledge and give careful consideration to the power dynamic in the questioning process, as being asked a question can make you feel like you are being challenged or even tested. This balance can be addressed through the interviewer giving careful consideration to the climate and environment they establish and maintain with the interviewee (Miles and Huberman, 1995; Robson, 2002).

There can be several different purposes of an interview - for example to evaluate or assess, to effect therapeutic change, to test and develop hypothesis, to gather data as in surveys and experiments and to gain peoples' opinions of views (Cohen et al, 2000). Patton (1980) provides a useful description of four different interview types, including:

- (i) Informal conversational interview, in which there is no predetermination of questions, topics or wording. This type of interview has particular strengths and weaknesses. Strengths include increased relevance of the questions, and a bespoke match to individual circumstances. Weaknesses are they are less systematic and comprehensive if certain questions don't arise out of the natural flow of the conversation, data organisation and analysis can be quite difficult.
- (ii) The interview guide approach, in which topics and issue are specified in advance with the interviewer deciding on the structure of the interview conversation. Like other approaches to interviewing there are strengths and weaknesses, these include: strengths, data collection is more systematic, gaps in data can be anticipated and closed but at the same time the interview maintains its conversational and situational style. Weaknesses of this approach are that topics may be inadvertently omitted; the flexible sequence of the wording of questions can result in different responses, thus reducing comparability of responses.
- (iii) A standardised open-ended interview, in which the exact wording and sequence are outlined in advance, all interviewees are asked the same questions in the same order. The strengths include comparability of responses, a reduction of the interviewer effect and bias, and facilitating the organisation and analysis of data. However, weaknesses are the structure does put limitations on the naturalness and relevance of the questions.
- (iv) The closed quantitative interview in which responses are fixed with the respondents choosing their answer from a set of predetermined responses. The strengths of this approach are that data analysis is simple with many short questions being asked in a short amount of time. Direct comparison can be made with comparison easy to establish. The weaknesses of this approach are that respondents must fit their responses into the predetermined categories. This can distort what respondents really mean or have experienced.

An alternative, yet comparative, framework for understanding the distinctions between different approaches to interviewing is provided by Robson (2002) who provides three different descriptions of the interview process as fully structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. A fully structured interview shares the features of a closed quantitative interview except that questions are mainly open response. The semi-structured interview shares features outlined in both the standardised open-ended interview and the interview guide. These include predetermined questions, but an adaptable use of how questions are worded, allowing for flexibility in the interviewer's choice of questions for particular interviewees. The unstructured interview takes a more conversational approach as outlined in the informal conversational interview.

Group interviews fit into the broad categories already discussed (Cohen et al, 2000; Robson, 2002). Common features of a group interview are that there is a degree of flexibility and interpretation with characteristics of both structure and open discussion (Cohen et al, 2000; Robson, 2002). It is much harder to maintain the 'turn taking' format of a traditional interview, although this is not always seen as a negative point as this is not necessarily a desired feature of a group interview as it eliminates aspects of group interaction which is a particular strength of this context (Robson, 2002). The homogeneous or heterogeneous backgrounds of the group members can have a significant impact on the environment and the outcomes that are achieved. Brown (1999 cited in Robson, 2002: 286) highlights that a homogenous group, comprising of people who have a common background, position and experience, facilitates communication in a safe context, thus promoting a fluid exchange of ideas. This can result in an unquestioning approach where all participants simply agree with each other or with the most dominant voice. A heterogeneous group come with participants with different backgrounds, positions and experience and therefore facilitate different outcomes within a group interview setting. These include the stimulation of rich and varied opinions that have the potential to inspire others to thinking and viewing things differently. However, this can also lead to a dominant voice taking over and potentially destroying the group process bringing with it an imbalance of power and perspective.

On January 23rd 2007, twenty of the coaches took part in small group semi-structured interviews, each with 4 participants (appendix 7). The purpose of the interviews was to develop an understanding of the coaches' working context and knowledge and understanding of coaching children and specifically coaching children within the school curriculum. These interviews aimed to support an understanding of the initial context in which the coaches were working and aimed to support an answer for sub-questions 1a) what is the current context in which this group of community coaches are working in schools? 1b) are the coaches 'fit for the purpose' of working in schools and covering PPA time lessons?

After 9-10 months (October-November 2007) a series four semi-structured group interviews were conducted with coaches (1, 4, 6, 9, 11, 13 15, 18 19, 21) asking about the impact of the CPD programme mechanisms, the use of video analysis and specific teaching and learning approaches (appendix 8). The interviews took place in a private meeting room at the CST's head office. The interviews aimed to support an answer to sub-question 2ab regarding how the mechanism for change had impacted on the coaches. 2a) what aspects of the CPD programme worked and what did not work in supporting coaches in developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to deliver specified work? 2b) Why where these interventions successful or unsuccessful?

In November 2008 coaches (1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 11, 13 15, 19, 21) took part in individual semi-structured interviews that asked the coaches to reflect on the impact of the CPD programme and consider the implications for their practice (appendix 9). The interviews took place in a meeting room at the Community Sports Trust's head office. The interviews aimed to support an answer to sub-questions 2ab regarding how the mechanism for change impacted on the coaches. 2a) what aspects of the CPD programme worked and what did not work in supporting coaches in developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to deliver specified work? 2b) Why where these interventions successful or unsuccessful?

In October 2009 towards the end of the second eleven months of the CPD programme and evaluation semi-structured individual interviews were used, and aimed to answer sub-question 3 regarding the outcomes of the CPD programme (appendix 10). 3) What impact did the CPD programme have on coaches' knowledge, understanding and skill to undertake their role of working in schools covering PPA time lessons? The interviews took place in a meeting room at the Community Sports Trust's head office. Coaches (1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 11, 13 15, 19, 21) took part in the interviews.

All the 21 coaches were invited to attend all the interviews and therefore the coaches self-select to be interviewed or not. This approach was adopted in order to be in line with the overall philosophical position of the CPD and the research, i.e. the synergy of knowledge through a constructivist epistemological lens. Pragmatically a self-selection process was supportive of the coaches' different work schedules and employment status.

3.1.6 Observation

The coaches' practical delivery on January 23rd 2007 and February 14th 2007 were both video recorded by a professional cameraman. For the last three months of the first year of the CPD programme coaches were split into four smaller groups, each with a lead coach selected by the Community Sports Trust managers. A criteria for selection was negotiated by the researcher and the managers of the

Community Sports Trust, and included being a full-time member of staff, with a level 2 FA qualification, and having someone who, in the opinion of the managers had the capacity to provide leadership to a small group of coaches. The four lead coaches, 4, 10, 14 and 21 were asked to deliver coaching sessions which were filmed. Observation is often used in multi-method case study or flexible design research to support additional methods such as interviews, questionnaires and document analysis. This helps the researcher distinguish between the rhetoric and reality of practice (Robson, 2002). This process of observation was made clear to all coaches who had the option of not being recorded. It was made clear from the start of this process that the video recording would have a dual purpose; firstly to form part of the CPD programme theory, with the aim of using personalised experiences to support the coaches to reflect and consider their pedagogical approaches to working with children in a school curriculum context. This approach explicitly supported by the CPD programme theories of social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1978) situated learning, (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) and critical pedagogy (Fernandez Balboa, 1997; Kirk, 2000). Additionally it was made clear that the recordings would form part of the programme evaluation. Therefore the researcher took no role in the 'live' delivery but was replaced by the professional cameraman. A DVD of the recording was given to each member of the group. The coaches were asked to watch the DVD individually, then as a group and finally with the researcher, whose role was that of critical friend. This process was derived from the intervention programme theories of social constructivism, situated learning and critical pedagogy (Fernandez-Balboa, 1997; Kirk, 2000).

There are of course, significant issues regarding the extent to which any observer affects the situation (Robson, 2002). It is impossible to know what the behaviour of the coaches and children would have been like if they had not been observed and this clearly has implications for reliability and trust in the data (Robson, 2002). However in this study this was lessened by the direct absence of anyone who was perceived to have 'more knowledge' or be in a position of power or influence, during the 'live performance'. It should be made clear that for the dual purposes of this study it was explicitly communicated to the coaches that the videoing of a practical coaching session was a supportive mechanism that had an immediate purpose of clarifying and developing the reality of their practice. It was made clear that this was not an exercise in allocating blame or with a subversive aim of holding them to account, but rather a transparent acknowledgement that this is their context, their work; these are its strengths and these are the areas that could be addressed if future practice is to move forward.

The methodological reasoning behind the adoption of creating permanent recordings of the practical delivery is that it provided key reference and data for the three key aspects of a realist explanation of society, that of context, mechanisms and outcomes (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003, 2006).

Furthermore, it supports reflection on the subjectivist epistemological position of the realist philosophy adopted in this case study (Bhaskar, 1978; Robson, 2002; Pawson, 2006). The data provides evolving contextual evidence that in turn transfers into outcome data as soon as any intervention takes place. Therefore, although video data that is collected in October 2007 initially presents itself as initial context and mechanistic data due to being part of the programme theory, it also progresses to become outcome data. Due to the CPD design and the use of the video recordings as an intervention mechanism it was also possible to collect data on how the coaches experienced this process of self and peer-review in relation to their professional development. The video recording sessions that took place in January and February of 2007 were aimed at answering the sub-questions 1ab regarding the initial context in which the coaches were working. 1a) what is the current context in which this group of community coaches are working in schools? 1b) are the coaches 'fit for the purpose' of working in schools and covering PPA time lessons? both, post and pre intervention.

In addition to the data collected on January 23rd 2007 and February 14th 2007, video recordings of the four lead coaches were collected on October 2007 at a local school. These data were aimed at supporting the answering of sub-questions 2ab and 3a regarding both the mechanism of change and the initial outcomes of change regarding the CPD intervention. 2a) what aspects of the CPD programme worked and what did not work in supporting coaches in developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to deliver specified work? 2b) why were these interventions successful or unsuccessful? 3a) what impact did the CPD programme have on coaches' knowledge, understanding and skill to undertake their role of working in schools covering PPA time lessons?

3.1.7 Observations and field notes

The participants were made aware on the first day of the study that the researcher would be making field notes throughout the duration of the investigation, therefore the observations were overt, participants were aware that they were being observed (Hastie and Hay, 2012). Yin (2009) highlights that because a case study takes place in a natural setting there is an organic opportunity for observation. Yin (2009) continues to state that observations can consist of formal or casual data collection activities. This study utilised observation data from casual data collection activities, for example direct observations were made while waiting prior to starting a formal data collection point. Additionally the structure of the CPD programme naturally allowed for periods where the coaches were active and the researcher / tutor was in a position to stand back, reflect and make notes. As Robson (2002) states observation is often used in a multi-method case study to support other forms of data. The purpose of the field notes in this study was to remember and record the behaviours, activities, events, and other features of an observation setting (Hastie and Hay, 2012). The notes were used by the

researcher to produce meaning and understanding of the social situation and culture of the phenomenon being studied. Field notes were both descriptive and reflective in their nature. Field notes were 'tidied up' as soon after completion as possible, they were labelled, location, date, time and general topic area (Hastie and Hay, 2012).

3.1.8 Content analysis – planning documents

The documents that can be accessed and that are useful to research are driven by the context in which you are working (Robson, 2002). The main focus of the text is as a supplementary method in a multi-method study (Robson, 2002). Text and documentation can be used to support the reliability of data especially in multi-method case studies (Cohen et al 2000; Robson, 2002; Bryman, 2004; Yin, 2009) and in studies that have elements of longitudinal design. Document analysis was a secondary data source in this study and was only utilised as an approach used to gather data from the planning documents created by the coaches as a direct outcome of the CPD programme. This form of document is recognised as a data set arising from an educational or school setting (Robson, 2002). The documents were analysed for content through the planning documentation structure aiming to identify if the individual sections connected together to support intentional learning. The sample of documents was based on convenience. All coaches were asked to produce planning documentation; some of the coaches provide this and other did not and this was on-going through the 2nd year of the CPD programme. This data were aimed at answering sub-questions 2ab and 3ab regarding mechanism for change and initial programme outcomes. 2a) what aspects of the CPD programme worked and what did not work in supporting coaches in developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to deliver specified work? 2b) why where these interventions successful or unsuccessful? 3) what impact did the CPD programme have on coaches' knowledge, understanding and skill to undertake their role of working in schools covering PPA time lessons?

3.1.9 Data analysis

The connection from realist case study to realist data analysis is achieved by utilising Miles and Huberman's (1994) framework for conceptualising qualitative data analysis. Their philosophical approach is firmly rooted in a realist view of society (Robson, 2002). They present data analysis as having three interlinking streams of process, those of data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing.

With regard to data reduction, qualitative data can easily become uncontrollable, especially in multi-method designs (Robson, 2002). Hence it becomes important that the researcher develop strategies and approaches that allow the data to be managed. Miles and Huberman (1994) discuss the need to reduce the data mountain through the use and production of summaries, abstracts, tables, coding and

memos. In the data reduction for this thesis tables were used to provide a visual representation in order to support first and second order coding. The starting point for data reduction in this thesis was the theoretical framework of realism, that of context, mechanism and outcome (Bhasker, 1978; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2006). Yin (2009) discusses how a theoretical framework can be used as an analytical strategy that supports the developing understanding of the data. Data were searched inductively through the compiling of tables and the use of memos and placed within one of the three realist components of Context, Mechanism and Outcome. Each component was then searched further with the aim of identifying and coding themes and sub themes. For example, planning and more specifically the coaches' increased awareness of the importance of the planning process - emerged as an outcome theme with sub themes which included barriers to planning, the relationship between schools and planning, coaches work programmes and planning, coaches not understanding planning, managers not supporting planning through the allocation of protected time, coaches getting frustrated with school because of changing timetables meaning planning became obsolete. These were all either mechanical block or evolving context.

This process of analysis was aided in the production of this thesis through the writing of 2 articles and a book chapter, see Blair and Capel (2008); Blair and Capel (2011) and Blair and Capel (2012). Miles and Huberman continue to stress that data reduction is part of the analysis and not a separate activity. The decisions regarding what to select and summarise are analytical choices.

The two peer reviewed articles that were written during the production of this thesis support the Miles and Huberman (1994) approach to data reduction, display and conclusion building as their production required the on-going processing of data to form interim reports; Blair and Capel (2008) reports on the contextual data from January 2007. Blair and Capel (2011) reports on the outcomes of the first 12 months of the intervention programme. The book chapter Blair and Capel (2012) utilises empirical data from the case study but also develops debate surrounding the use of coaches in schools and presents discussion on possible ways in which this might be successfully achieved.

The reduction and display of data was achieved through the use of several strategies outlined by Miles and Huberman (1994) including memoing. This strategy is described as anything that occurs to the researcher during the project and its analysis. In the analysis of this project memos were used during the process of 'immersing oneself in data' (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Cohen et al 2000; Bryman, 2004) through the reading and re reading of text. Hard copies of all data, raw data plus tables, were produced for the purpose of reading and memoing this approach was used as there was a strong feeling that the data needed to be both cognitively and physically processed by the researcher. The physicality of the hand written scribble, the satisfaction of finding and drawing a connecting arrow and the visual

reassurance of pink, green, yellow and orange highlights provided much comfort and clarification. It is accepted that this approach will need to be progressed for future practice, to develop the use of electronic packages that support the analysis of qualitative data, but during this early career stage it did provide support and clarity of thought. Miles and Huberman (1994) provide a detailed list of different types of memo used in qualitative analysis. This was not followed rigorously during this study. Rather the memo was used to 'spark' ideas and outline 'gaps' and to make 'attacks' on new issues that were developed through the inductive analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Robson, 2002). Robson (2002) provides a list of twelve deficiencies and the researcher acknowledges the many flaws of the human analysis, including, data overload, first impressions, uneven reliability and inconsistency, all finishing with the production of unwarranted conclusions. However it does remain clear that at this early career stage there was a need to go to the roots of qualitative analysis, by adopting traditional approaches that allowed for cognitive and physical processing.

Coding was employed as a strategy for the analysis of qualitative data. Miles and Huberman (1994) make a distinction between what they describe as first and second order codes. Coding helps the analyst to bring a degree of order and structure to groups of words or behaviours. First order coding is concerned with attaching labels to groups of associated words or behaviours, collecting them together. Second order coding attempts to look for smaller units, themes and patterns. These were the processes used in the analysis of the practical coaching and the interview transcripts.

With regard to data display Robson (2002) states 'you know what you display'. As discussed earlier in this chapter one of the aims in reporting the findings from this thesis was to display data in a way that helped the reader to develop a critical level of reflective thinking, supporting them to ignite their imagination and move beyond the words on these pages to connect, challenge and synergise with personal experiences.

The data analysis and data display processes of this thesis also utilised matrices (Miles and Huberman, 1994), i.e. tables with rows and columns. This strategy can be seen throughout chapter 4 of this thesis as the approach used to summarise the vignettes. The creation of matrices was also a process utilised to support the planning and structuring of the vignettes. The planning, construction and writing of the vignettes used data compiled from a range of different sources collected over the whole 22 month period of the study. The vignettes were constructed through using the matrices developed through the methodological framework of Context, Mechanism and Outcome and the data analysis techniques already described, i.e. coding and memoing etc. The data were searched for general themes and key moments, which were then highlighted and supported by direct quotes. Miles and Huberman (1994) highlight that it is important to identify the structure of the vignette; the formation of the vignette

structure was created through the use of the descriptive field notes that provided times, events, observations and stories. The field notes provided the chronological order of the vignettes, and provided the overarching narrative that allowed the quotes and key moments to be brought together to form the vignette. The process of constructing the vignettes became quite formulaic, yet at the same time still felt like a fluid, flexible and creative process, that required carefully negotiation between different sets / types of data, field notes, inductively generated themes and direct quotes from interviews and questionnaires. The process of constructing the vignette's had epistemological roots in the interpretive paradigm (Sparkes, 1992, Devis Devis, 2006).

It is the aim of the data display, vignettes and tables, to tell an on-going narrative that highlights the key issues and challenges that the coaches face as a direct or in direct outcome of the CPD programme. The formulation of matrices created the planning documents that allowed the vignettes to tell a coherent and clear story that builds in sophistication but retains clarity of content.

3.1.10 Using Vignettes

There are six vignettes presented throughout the findings chapter. The vignettes serve a number of distinct purposes. First, they provide the reader with the timescales for the project. These are located in the context column of the summary tables found at the end of each vignette. Second, the writing format was chosen to help guide the reader while engaging their interest, creating relevance, meaning and reflectivity (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2009). This aims to help generate an understanding of the synergies between the context, mechanisms and outcomes that have emerged from this research and support a realist methodological position of ideographic, participative and transformative values (Sparkes, 1992). Thirdly, Barter and Renold (1999) reflect that a significant value of utilising vignettes is that they capture how meanings, beliefs, judgements and actions are situationally positioned, therefore by using vignettes as part of the data analysis the aim is to create an ontological view that either identifies similarities or highlights a difference with the reader's outlook, views and experience, they aim to strike a carefully negotiated ontological balance between external realism and internal idealism (Sparkes, 1992). The vignette's aim is to create context and meaning that support the reader to accept or reject of a naturalised generalisation of the data (Cohen et al 2000; Stake, 2000). This is a position that is in agreement with Giddens (2001) who views the role of science in the context of a modern society to support institutional reflectivity.

Italics have been used to present the edited quotations that present an impression that the coaches are telling at least part of the story (Van Maanen, 1988). However, like Van Maanen (1988); Sparkes (2002) and others before me, this thesis endeavours to be agile and balanced while performing some 'fancy footwork' (Sparkes, 2002: 45). It takes key extracts of data from interviews, DVD footage,

questionnaires, field notes and documents, collected over a period of 22 months from January 2007 to October 2008 and sequences them to provide the reader with a clear and precise empirical narrative of the case being studied. The text attempts to construct a level of authority, objectivity and trust by distancing the author's voice (Sparkes, 2002) and allowing the words, views and thoughts of the coaches to be read and in turn answer the study's questions. This is of course, part illusion, as although the words and views of the coaches are used extensively throughout the findings chapter, it is the author's story not theirs. It is a story that I have inductively analysed and interpreted from the data. It is I, the author, who has orchestrated the strands and themes of the data; it is I who has attempted to present the data with a linear orderly flow in order to engage reflective thinking and support understanding.

The role of vignettes in the reporting of qualitative data are discussed by Robson (2002) who, like Sparkes (2002), also cites the work of fellow realists Miles and Huberman (1994: 304) who produced a set of guidelines on the reporting of qualitative data, point 4 reads; 'A good report should provide basic data, preferably in a focused form (*vignettes*, organised narrative, photographs or data displays) so that the reader can, in parallel with the researcher draw warranted conclusions' (italics not in the original). This view is also supported by Yin (2009) who discusses the reporting of cross case analysis through the use of vignettes, Yin (2009) provides the example of Crane (1998 cited in Yin 2009: 20) and Schorr (1997 cited in Yin 2009: 20).

3.1.11 Assessing for the quality of data

This study purposefully set out to utilise a multi-method flexible design that allowed for the triangulation of data (Cohen et al, 2000). This feature is highlighted through the collection of rhetorical data through the use of questionnaires and interviews paralleled with an attempt to collect reality data through the use of videoing practical coaching sessions (Cohen et al, 2000; Bryman, 2005).

Some of the data for this project were collected first hand through interviews and video recording. This data is seen as stronger than other data as it was directly observed. This can also be said of data that is collected in a particular context, i.e. when a participant is alone verses in a group or trusted informants, as there is the potential for participants to be influenced by other group members. Throughout this study it was clear that some of the coaches were simply more willing to give up their time or to prioritise their time differently in order to provide the researcher with an interview or to complete a questionnaire. Robson (2002) identifies this as one of the practical challenges of real world research, discussing that participants' maybe genuinely be busy or simply do not place the same value and importance on your work, and may be actually avoiding you.

3.1.12 Summary

This chapter has aimed to provide a detailed description of the philosophical and methodological position adopted for this case study evaluation. It provides details of the research approach, the methods of data collection that were used within the study and the data collection points at which data was obtained. Finally it is relevant to add a short personal reflection on my developing understanding of research methodology.

A key personal reflection from my PhD story is my developing understanding of methodology and the importance of being clear as a researcher how you see and interpret the social world. My developing methodological narrative has been a central component in supporting me to develop my thinking and practice to the extent that I now see and think about things differently. Furthermore this has allowed me to consider my practice as both an early career researcher and as an educator. My subjective ontological and epistemological position and my developing understanding of a realist theoretical model of methodology, the Context, Mechanism and Outcome synergy, has reacted with my personal and professional context allowing me greater clarity regarding what I intentionally engage in and think about. It has allowed for a more refined, critical and (*hopefully*) inspirational approach to teaching within higher education; in 2012 I was nominated for an inspirational teaching award by post graduate students at Brunel University. Additionally the process of understanding this initial investigation and specifically the methodological aspect has further fuelled my curiosity and desire to complete additional post-doctoral research from a realist / interpretive methodological position on issues relating to social change within Sports Coaching and Physical Education in both school and community settings.

4 Findings

This chapter presents the findings from this study in relation to the three components/phases of the research. Each of the sections aims to support a critical realist understanding of the social world (Bhasker, 1978) and the methodological framework of realistic evaluation (Pawson and Tilley, 1997).

The case study approach that underpins the investigation involves the use of multiple forms of data collection at all phases throughout the research. Detail of the data underpinning each section is outlined at the beginning of the three sections, along with an explanation of how it has been used within the analysis. A key consideration in the findings chapter has been to balance the commitment to 'giving the coaches a voice' (letting the data speak for itself) with the requirement to synthesise and summarise the information to allow it to be presented in manageable form. This process has been guided by the study's primary concern to be analytical and critical, giving priority to the rich and complex qualitative accounts. Within this findings chapter as a whole, therefore, the following broad approaches have been taken:

- Quantitative data had an important but relatively restricted role within the study, being primarily used to provide context for qualitative methods of enquiry. This is reflected in the coverage given to this data in the reporting of findings. This data from questionnaire surveys, is reported in summarised form within the relevant section. This acknowledges the role of the quantitative data in providing important context while also allowing the focus of the analysis to stay on qualitative data as intended.
- A variety of forms of qualitative data are used within the chapter (including individual and group interviews, observations...etc). The treatment of much of this data follows common conventions, through the integration of short quotes and written comment being used to form the narrative. In addition however, the reporting addresses the issue of illustrating how multiple factors interact in the realities of the research participants by employing additional techniques which allow more holistic perspectives to be offered:
 - **Summary descriptions of the experiences of selected individual coaches:** Short pen portraits of individual coaches are provided in the main text as a way of introducing the main actors who feature in the vignettes. In addition, fuller individualised data is also presented in the form of exemplar summaries for six selected coaches (appendix 11). These coaches were chosen as they present a representative cross section of the 21 coaches involved in the study and provide an insight into the similarities and differences in how coaches experienced and reacted to the CPD programme. The three sections that examine the initial context, mechanisms for change and the initial

outcomes of the coaches' experiences each draw on diverse data from multiple sources, which are ultimately illustrated through the vignettes. To unify this and assist the reader in establishing a more holistic view of the realities of individual coaches, the main actors who appear in the vignettes are presented through these summary descriptions in the text. The methodological purpose of this approach is to demonstrate the depth and complexity of an evolving social context, and follows Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) by attempting to provide a detailed description of the 'case'. The reporting of the individual responses to Context, Mechanisms and Outcomes is supportive of a realist methodological position to evaluation research regarding what works for whom (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003). The data supports an intellectual critique (Bourdieu, 1990) of the individual coaches and supports the epistemological position presented in the methodology which encourages the reader to adopt the role of co-analyst (Yin, 2009). Therefore the individualised coach narratives provide further Context, Mechanism and Outcome information in order that the reader can interpret and understand the 'case', allowing them to foster and reflect on the development of personal meaning that either supports or challenges their ontological views and experiences of the phenomena under investigation.

- **The use of vignettes:** While the pen portraits and exemplar summaries (appendix 11) provide individualised accounts of coach experiences, the study aims to go further than this in depicting the realities of the coach experience. To this end the technique of vignettes has been used within the analysis, to provide a detailed and 'real' picture of how the context and programme mechanism worked together to form outcomes. The six coaches whose experiences have been initially presented through the use of the individualised summaries, are further examined as actors in the vignettes. The vignettes are presented as a 'cross case analysis' or themed summaries and used as rhetoric strategies (Yin, 2009: 172; Schorr, 1997 cited in Yin, 2009: 20) aimed at supporting a constructionist ontological reality, asserting that social phenomena and their meanings are shaped by agents (Bryman, 2004) and agents' interpretations. This is consistent with theory based approaches to evaluation and specifically realistic evaluation that embrace the views of the participants and highlights that it is not programmes that support change but the people within them (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003; Stame, 2004). Therefore personal meaning is shaped through the vignettes either working in harmony or as a direct challenge to the reader's personal experience, view or intuition. The pedagogical and epistemological aim of the vignettes is to allow the

words and thoughts of the participants to be read in a similar context to which they were originally used and thus contribute to the critically reflective nature of modern social science (Delanty, 1997; Benton and Craib, 2001). This helps to support Yin (2009: 188) who states ‘the exemplary case study is one that judiciously and effectively presents the most relevant evidence, so that a reader can reach an independent judgement regarding the merits of the analysis’. This is further supported by Sparkes and Douglas (2007) who discuss that scholars now realise that form and content are inseparable and that how we report our findings on a phenomenon supports how we eventually understand it.

4.1 The initial context

The findings presented in this section examine the initial context of the coaches. Consistent with a realist approach to evaluation the data are presented as initial context data that provide a report of the coaches’ knowledge, understanding and skill prior to the CPD programme. The findings are presented in three sub sections:

Profile of the research participants’ personal and coaching characteristics (section 4.1.1)

This section presents data on the participants’ demographic backgrounds and their professional and coaching histories. This allows coaches to present their ontological narratives regarding why they had chosen a career as a community football coach, and how this has been influenced by outside structures (e.g., professional development opportunities).

Coaches’ perceptions of their professional practice and development in relation to PPA (section 4.1.2)

Section 4.1.2 presents the initial context findings that relate to the content knowledge that would either support or block the coaches being able to work in PPA time and successfully deliver specified work. The reporting of the findings is sequenced to highlight a flow of content from coaches’ knowledge to coaches’ practice, and covers five topics:

- The coaches’ views regarding their own strengths and weaknesses as community football coaches at the outset of the intervention.
- The coaches’ views regarding what professional development they thought would support them to work in schools.
- Curriculum – coaches’ knowledge of the National Curriculum and National Curriculum Physical Education.

- Pedagogy – coaches’ knowledge and understanding of pedagogical approaches and strategies to support learning.
- Planning - coaches’ knowledge, skill and understanding of planning coaching sessions for intentional learning.

Being coaches: developing understanding of coaches’ realities (section 4.1.3)

Section 4.1.3 introduces a more holistic approach to the findings by presenting a vignette that focuses on ‘Understanding the initial context of the Community Sports Trust under investigation’ and aims to support the reader in understanding the initial context of the community sports trust in relation to the coaches working in schools and covering PPA time Physical Education lessons.

The section concludes with an overview of the key findings from each sub-section and a reflection on the contributions of the different forms of data (section 4.1.4).

4.1.1 Profile of the research participants’ personal and coaching characteristics

Data on coaches’ personal and professional background was obtained through the questionnaire survey distributed on the 23rd January 2007 in the scholars’ classroom at the Football clubs training ground. Most participants in the case study were male (19/ 21), self-reported as white British or ‘white other’ (17/21), and the majority were aged between 18 and 27 (13/21). The group was not homogeneous however, and included 2 Black Caribbean and mixed race coaches, and 8 older participants including 4 over the age of 38. The majority of coaches had been working as a community coach between 1 and 5 years and most (15/21) had a FA level 2 coaching qualification or higher. It was notable that there was no apparent relationship between the level of coaching qualification obtained and coaches’ other characteristics, including their age, length of time coaching, and their formal educational qualifications.

Table 2: Personal and professional characteristics of the coaches

Age range	Number of Coaches	Ethnic background	Number of coaches
< 20	3	White British	14
20 - 29	10	White Other	3
30 - 39	6	Mixed race	1
40 >	2	Black Caribbean	2
		Other	1
		No declared	1
Gender			

Male	19	Female	2
Number of years as a CFC	Number of coaches	Football Association Coaching qualifications	
Less than 1	6	Level of qualification	Number of coaches
1 – 2 years	3	Level 1	6
2 – 3 years	3	Level 2	11
3 – 4 years	1	Level 3	4
4 – 5 years	3	Level 4	0
5 – 6 years	2	Academic qualification	Number of coaches
6 – 7 years	0	GCSE 1 – 5	9
7 – 8 years	0	GCSE 5 +	5
8 – 9 years	0	A level's	7
9 – 15 years	2	GNVQ	3
15 years +	0	BTEC	5
		HND	1
		Degree	7
		MSc	3
		Note: coaches could give multiple answers, some coaches had more than one qualification	

To complete the descriptive profile of coaches, the initial questionnaire asked participants to indicate their reasons for working as community football coaches, and also to comment on the aspects of their roles that they most and least enjoyed. A consistent picture emerged: the main reasons for being a community football coach were because coaches wanted to work in football, and/or enjoyed working with children, and/or were using the role as a first stage for a career in football coaching. Their favourite parts of the job were delivering coaching session and working with children, while the least favourite were the support tasks - maintaining equipment, undertaking telephone sales for holiday courses and doing other promotional work, relating to for example, match day community initiatives.

4.1.2 Coaches' perceptions of their professional practice and development

It was important to establish at the outset of the study how coaches perceived the requirements of their job, their own strengths and weaknesses in relation to it, and also whether they felt a need for development to support their role. The information on this was collected through the initial

questionnaire, administrated January 2007, in which they were asked to score a set of items and provide qualitative comments on these scores. The items listed in the questionnaire were included based on consultation advice from the Community Sports Trust manager who was the initial gatekeeper to the study, and therefore represent a localised set of qualities/ roles appropriate to community coaches in this study.

The coaches' were asked to identify their self-perceived strengths in rank order 1 being the strongest and 3 being the weakest. The table is sub divided into four sections; communication, content knowledge, coaching and learning and curriculum and policy. To allow comparisons, the scores for each item are converted to a weighted total.

Table 2 highlights that coaches were most likely to perceive their *communication skills* and their *content knowledge* to be areas of strength, and to identify items related to *coaching and learning* and *curriculum and policy* as areas for further development. The data also showed that in some cases coaches did not consider themselves to be strong in relation to a particular item, but also did not see it as an area for development:

- Within the *communication section* coaches mostly reported strengths and only three coaches felt that this to be an area for development.
- In the *content knowledge section* most coaches reported that their technical knowledge was an area of strength. It was notable that only two coaches felt that planning was an area of strength; and that although almost all respondents did not see planning coaching sessions as an area of strength, *none* identified this as an area for development.
- In the *coaching and learning* section, including 'knowledge of coaching methods' and 'how children learn', none of the coaches identified these as a number one ranked strength but ten of the coaches identified this as an area for further development.
- None of the coaches perceived *curriculum and policy* as an area of strength and twenty one of the coaches identified this area of knowledge and awareness as being something that they needed to develop. These findings are consistent and confirm the data presented in the sections on curriculum, pedagogy and planning (4.1.2.).

Table 3: Coaches' perceived strengths and areas for development

Strengths	Area for development
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Communication	Rank 1 (weighted score '1') (low)	Rank 2 (weighted score '2')	Rank 3 (weighted score '3') (high)	Weighted total
Enthusiasm	1	2	10	35
Enthusiasm	0	0	1	3
Communication skills	4	4	5	27
Communication skills	1	0	0	1
Ability to work with other coaches	1	2	0	5
Ability to work with other coaches	1	0	0	1
Content knowledge	Rank 1	Rank 2	Rank 3	Total
Technical Knowledge	2	3	4	20
Technical Knowledge	2	1	1	7
Tactical Knowledge		2	1	7
Tactical Knowledge	1	4	1	12
Planning coaching sessions	1	1	0	3
Planning coaching sessions	0	0	0	0
Coaching and Learning	Rank 1	Rank 2	Rank 3	Total
Knowledge of coaching methods	0	2	2	10
Knowledge of coaching methods	3	3	4	21
Knowledge of how children learn	0	1	2	8
Knowledge of how children learn	3	1	3	17
Curriculum and Policy	Rank 1	Rank 2	Rank 3	Total
Knowledge of the National Curriculum Physical Education	0	0	0	0
Knowledge of the National Curriculum Physical Education	6	5	3	28
Knowledge of the Physical	0	0	0	0

Education and School Sports club links strategy				
Knowledge of the Physical Education and School Sports club links strategy	2	6	3	26

The questionnaire provided a structured approach to eliciting initial views on coaches' perceptions of the skills and knowledge they possessed, required and needed to develop within their coaching practice. Although limited in detail, the findings highlighted a number of issues. Firstly, they show considerable variation in coaches' responses across the four categories, with coaches identifying strengths on items directly relating to the experience of delivery of sessions (e.g. communication and enthusiasm). This is consistent with their previous observations about the elements of the coaching role they most enjoyed (i.e. 'coaching children' and 'running sessions'). In a similar vein, less direct requirements - e.g. planning, theoretical knowledge - were ranked lowly here. It was also of interest that coaches did not necessarily consider that their self-reported 'weaknesses' were necessarily areas requiring development. This may suggest that at the initial stage of the intervention, some coaches did not regard some of the items covered in Table 3 as important elements of their role.

Coaches' views on the professional development provided through F.A. qualifications: Details about the coaches views of the education they have received to support them working in schools via the FA coaching qualifications were obtained from all 21 coaches via an initial questionnaire with open ended questions which was completed on the first day of data collection, 23rd January 2007. In order for the Community Sports Trust to deploy coaches to work in PPA time, the coaches had to have a minimum of a level 2 FA coaching qualification. Six of the twenty one coaches in the study who only had a level 1 FA qualification were placed on the CPD course by the managers as they were about to take their level 2 qualification and would initially be deployed as volunteer assistant coaches, within PPA time sessions.

There were mixed views about the appropriateness of the knowledge, skill and understanding provided by the FA courses for working as an educator in schools and consequently covering PPA time. Eleven of the twenty one coaches stated that FA courses did not provide the relevant Knowledge, Skill and Understanding to work in this environment, and three commented that FA courses were primarily geared to coaching teams and football players, and did not automatically deliver the specific education required to work with school pupils in curriculum time. Coach 5 simply described the courses as '*not relevant to child education*', while others identified a number of issues that the courses did not address:

Coach 17 - *in my experience, it teaches you more on how to manage / coach a team, rather than going into schools and teaching large groups of mixed ability.*

Coach 2 - *they get you involved in football to coach a team, not to deliver PPA sessions for up to 35 children to understand, enjoy and want to come back again.*

Coach 10 - *...the drills / games taught are limited and do not consider the resources available at different schools (number of children, coaches, balls bibs cones etc).*

Coach 9 - *...it is more geared towards academy semi pro traditional coaching sessions.*

In contrast, ten of the twenty one coaches felt that the courses *did* provide them with the games and drills to work with children in a school setting, with Coach 6 commenting that...*'they also give you the skills and drills that are suitable for these ages'*. Of specific interest in relation to the overall project, Coach 18 made the observation that he felt the FA qualification did support him to work in the school context, because... *'when I coach after school it is just the same as in school time it's just more kids all day instead of 1 hour'*. As in other answers given by coaches on this topic, this indicates that coaches perceptions of training requirements and their own competence are underpinned by varying perceptions about the range of knowledge, skills and understanding required. Objectively similar training experiences could generate contrasting subjective views.

Coaches' views on the coaching courses as preparation for working in schools did not seem to be related to their level of formal educational qualifications. The three coaches with Masters level qualifications did not feel that the FA coaching course supported coaches to work in schools, but one coach with a degree did. Among the non-graduate coaches, nine felt that FA qualifications did not support them working in schools, but four thought the course did. One non-graduate coach gave both answers, ticking 'yes' and 'no', then explaining that *'... it provides skills but works in an ideal world situation where every child is well behaved and wants to learn'*.

Although several coaches commented that the courses were more oriented to coaching in clubs and teams than to working in schools, there were mixed views about whether the course equipped coaches for the community environment. Ten of the twenty one coaches stated that FA courses did not provide them with the knowledge, skill and understanding to work as a community based educator; however, nine of the twenty one coaches stated that the course did support this role. These contrasting answers included:

Coach 10 - ...they [FA courses] can be seen as a good starting point but should incorporate and focus on the flexibility demands of community coaching. Also encourage the learning of more games / drills and the development of new ones.

Coach 12 - yes – in a community sense coaching is a lot less formal and I feel the emphasis is children having fun and wanting to participate in sport.

Coach 24 - yes, because the coach education programmes provide the knowledge to specifically deal with the community based education.

Coach 5 - No ... not coached by child educators just old players.

All the coaches with a first degree, and two of the three coaches with a Masters level qualification, stated that the FA qualifications did not support them working in a community setting. Answers were more mixed among non-graduate coaches: six coaches felt that FA coaching qualifications did support working in the community, four did not, and two answered 'yes and no'.

Coaches' knowledge of the National Curriculum Physical Education (NCPE): Details of the coaches' knowledge and understanding of the NCPE were also obtained from an NCPE proforma utilising open ended questions that was completed on the first day of data collection, January 23rd 2007 (appendix 12). Coaches' knowledge of the NCPE is an important element in establishing an accurate understanding of the initial context.

An awareness of the coaches knowledge of NCPE at the initial context stage is important as without knowledge of NCPE coaches will not be able to plan appropriate lessons to cover PPA time and meet the definition of specified work (DfES, 2003). This is a key point in relation to the dual aims of workforce remodelling, which are to address teacher workload but at the same time raise educational standards. Raising educational standards in Physical Education would be theoretically impossible for coaches who do not have an understanding of the NCPE, as they would be unable to teach lessons through the four strands of assessment as required through the NCPE (DfEE/QCA, 1999) Table 3 has shown that none of the coaches felt that their knowledge of the NCPE was an area of strength and fourteen of the twenty one coaches felt that it was an area for development.

Responses on the NCPE proforma revealed that several of the coaches did not know how many key stages there are in compulsory state education in England, and hence in the NCPE. Only one coach was able to identify the year groups within key stage 2, which is the key stage in which the majority of community based coaching is undertaken and in which all of these coaches were / would be working in schools. None of the coaches knew when a pupil's attainment has to be reported to parents.

None of the coaches knew how many areas of activity there are within the NCPE, 11/21 of the coaches naming one area of activity (games) 1/21 of the coaches naming three areas 1 / 21 coaches naming four areas of activity and 8/21 coaches being unable to name any areas of activity.

In relation to the four strands of assessment within the NCPE (selecting and applying skills and compositional ideas, acquiring and developing skills, evaluating and improving skills and compositional ideas, and gaining knowledge and understanding of fitness and health), only one of the twenty one coaches could name any of the key words - these were evaluation and understanding. However, the two words were from different strands of assessment: the word *evaluation* came from the Evaluating and Improving strand and the word *understanding* from the Knowledge and Understanding of Fitness and Health strand. This result is consistent in relation to the results presented in table 3 where 14/21 of the coaches ranked knowledge of the NCPE as an area of development with 6/21 of these coaches ranking it as their number 1 priority.

Due to a lack of knowledge regarding curriculum amongst all the coaches there were no patterns relating to academic or football qualification and knowledge and understanding of curriculum. Additionally there was no difference depending on the age of the coach or how long they had worked as a community coach.

Six of the twenty one coaches were interviewed about their knowledge of curriculum in February 2007 using semi-structured interviews (appendix 13). All six of these coaches were already working in PPA time. The ontological purpose of these interviews was to understand the value the coaches placed on having knowledge of NCPE given that they were covering PPA time and therefore working in school curriculum time. The methodological purpose was to gain a further depth and detail regarding this area of knowledge and to understand the broader context of this knowledge from the coaches' perspective. Three of the six coaches who were interviewed were graduates and three were non-graduates. The coaches were asked about their knowledge of the NCPE. The general finding was that the coaches did not have an understanding of the NCPE.

Coach 5 None. I know what it is, but I wouldn't know in depth of how to break it down. In fact I don't know what it is; I know what I think it is!

Coach 21 Not a lot. I have to be honest; I don't know much about it at all. I feel comfortable going to do a session, but then if you ask me if that session is the same as the National Curriculum then I wouldn't know. I think some points are but then I am pretty sure I would be missing out on other points, so when you are looking at we are going in, in curriculum time that we need to be going in

hitting all those areas, for us to look better and for the teachers to be happy with us doing a session. When you put it like that its shocking.

In order to add strength and depth to the initial context data it was felt important to establish the coaches' ontological perspective regarding working in schools with little or no knowledge or awareness of the NCPE. The most widely held view was that the coaches felt this was not an issue if the coach was occupying the children and the sessions cost was appropriately priced. There were however coaches who were more reflective and were quite shocked when they considered their own lack of knowledge and awareness. There were also coaches who were clear about their views regarding what they perceived to be generally poor standards of primary school Physical Education lessons.

Coach 5 - I think if you are occupying the children in a constructive way, then the kids are reasonably happy, and if it's priced correctly then the teachers are reasonably happy... that is my experience.

Coach 9 - ...what I've seen in schools, the standard of teaching level of sports, kills me when I see it as some of it is so poor...

Coach 21 - It shocks me when you say it like that, I think it is a good point ... I feel comfortable going to do a session, but then if you ask me if that session was the same as the National Curriculum then I wouldn't know.

In order to fully understand and 'use' the findings relating to the coaches knowledge of NCPE, it is important that they are reported in the broader social context in which the coaches were operating. None of the coaches had been asked by their managers, teachers, head teachers or partnership development managers (PDMs) about their knowledge and understanding of the NCPE or the NC. Coach 2's answer provides an indicative example of the general point:

'No, it's basically been, that I have been into a school wearing the club logo and that's good enough for them. You have your coaching badges so go do the session. They judge you on your uniform as such, and that was it really'.

In order that coaches can meet the definition of specified work they are required to plan, deliver, evaluate and report (DfES, 2003) within the overall framework of the NC and the NCPE. The NCPE is operationalized through four strands of assessment; acquiring and developing, selecting and applying, evaluating and improving and knowledge and understanding of health. Video footage recorded on the first day of the investigation (January 2007) showed how coaches' lack of knowledge of the NCPE affected the practical delivery of coaching sessions. All the coaches used a very narrow pedagogical

approach in relation to the coaching methods, consisting of three dominant methods - *command*, *practice* and a low order form of *guided discovery*. A direct consequence of using a narrow range of teaching/ coaching methods in relation to the NCPE is that the pupil could not access the selecting and applying (S/A) or evaluating and improving (E/I) assessment strands. These are key strands in the teaching of games activity. This is consistent with the data collected on the NCPE through questionnaire and interviews and adds reality to the rhetoric of the other methods of data collection.

Coaches' awareness of pedagogical approaches and reflective thinking

If coaches are to successfully work in parity with teachers and deliver Physical Education lessons in PPA time and meet the definition of specified work they will have to possess an appropriate level of pedagogical knowledge, skill and understanding (Ofsted 2009; Sloan 2010). It is theoretically impossible to deliver inclusive lessons through the four strands of the NCPE, without using a range of pedagogical approaches and strategies (Whitehead and Blair, 2010).

To identify coaches' understanding of pedagogical approaches and reflective thinking, coaches were asked, the initial questionnaire administered on January 23rd 2007, to consider two scenarios (A and B) and indicate which they felt best described their practice. Scenario A **"I like to be in control throughout the whole session, it is important to me that all the children listen and do as they are told. I have a great deal of knowledge and I know if the children listen and do as I ask; I will make them a better footballer"**. Scenario B **"I like to guide children towards developing their individual knowledge, skill and understanding. I like to ask questions and give responsibility for learning to small groups and individuals. It is important to me that pupils develop in a holistic way; it is much more than just teaching football skills"**.

Three of the twenty one coaches identified that Coach A's approaches best described their own practice, whilst 14 of the twenty one coaches identified that Coach B best described their own practice. Three coaches said that both Coach A and Coach B best described their own practice.

Coach 9 - I feel I am a mixture of both, dependant of situation, age, skill/ability level of players.

Coach 14 - Both, some aspects of my coaching are in box A and some in box B. Children should have the opportunity to express their selves through whatever sport they're doing. I like to have little inputs on them, and pose questions for them to think about during practices, games. I believe decision making is a big part of what I do.

Coach 16 - As a coach I think every session has many approaches so sometimes it will be A and other times B.

This data is inconsistent with the data from the practical coaching sessions, see table 4 (below) and vignette 1 at the end of section 4.1. From the DVD analysis in reality the Coaches' practice actually looked much closer to Coach A.

Coaches were also asked, through the same semi-structured questionnaire, **'You are coaching a class of mixed gender, mixed ability year 6 pupils within curriculum time (PPA). One of the pupils, Jack, is being disruptive refusing to follow instructions and challenging your authority'. After the lesson you seek advice from teachers at the school, which of the two approaches would you favour'**. None of coaches favoured the approach of teacher A **"Jack is an absolute pain in the neck, if he plays up again next week; send him running around the field. Then either tell him to wait outside the changing room door or make him collect the footballs, he'll soon learn"**. Twenty coaches favoured the approach of teacher B **"Jack can be quite a handful, it is important that he realises that his behaviour is not appropriate and that he understands why he cannot act in this way, so an explanation and a consequence from you is important. If possible give him a time out, say 1 minute and then ask him to explain to you why his behaviour is not appropriate. It may take time but a consistent fair approach is important'**, whilst one coach identified with both coach A and B, saying:

Coach 14 - Both. Because every child is different. Different doesn't mean disability, different means that you have to be flexible and adjustable in your approaches.

Practical coaching – coaches' practice prior to the start of the CPD programme

The coaches' pedagogical understanding and practice had some established characteristics, which are presented in table 4. The table presents basic but important quantitative data from practical coaching sessions undertaken by a self-selected group of coaches in the initial context stage of the case study. The practical session demonstrates the coaches' dominant pedagogical behaviours during a coaching session.

The paired sessions were delivered on January 23rd 2007 as part of the initial data collection day and were approximately 30 minutes in duration. The individual sessions were delivered on February 14th 2007 and were approximately 20 minutes in duration.

The data is presented in a descending order in relation to the frequency of the coach behaviours. The table reports that the most frequent coach behaviour was instruction with approximately double the number of interactions as the next most frequent behaviour which was questioning. Questioning was mainly used for social and management purposes with the guided discovery teaching method a pedagogical approach that utilises questions, only being used on one occasion by Coach 5.

All coaches, except Coach 4, provided coaching points within their sessions but as none of the coaches clearly identified the Intended Learning Outcomes (ILOs) at the beginning of their sessions, the children were not able to use the coaching points effectively. A general theme was that coaches did not make their coaching points explicit.

Coach 9 - Going to go straight into a small activity where you are going to hopefully learn three key points. At the end of the session I want you to be able to tell me what those key points are but I am not going to tell you yet (At the end of the session the coach did ask again, but referred to four key points).

Due to the potentially exposing and intrusive nature of being videoed the coaches who took part in this data collection point were all volunteers. This provides the explanation why coaches 2, 4, and 5 are seen twice in table 4.

Table 4: Practical coaching – video analysis of the coaches’ initial practical coaching sessions prior to the start of the CPD programme.

Coach no	2	4	5	9	2	4	5	6	14	21	18	19	
	Individual	Individual	Individual	Individual	Paired	Paired	Paired	Paired	Paired	Paired	Paired	Paired	
Coach behaviour	Frequency of coach behaviour (no of actual acts)				Frequency of coach behaviour (no of actual acts)								Total
Instruction	80	89	35	27	10	6	23	31	35	25	125	33	519
Questioning	23	29	30	27	9	6	13	23	21	35	25	12	263
Coaching points	14	0	10	16	9	2	8	8	7	10	19	4	107
Reinforcement	5	20	10	16	1	2	4	3	13	7	18	0	90
Demonstration	5	5	21	7	4	6	7	10	0	0	2	7	74
Non-verbal communication	5	10	6	11	0	0	0	0	3	2	15	3	55
Coaching method practice	8	6	16	9	0	0	2	4	3	3	3	1	55
Direct communication	4	15	8	7	0	0	2	6	0	3	0	0	45
Scolding	4	5	0	6	0	0	2	2	1	2	2	0	24
Humour	1	1	3	1	0	0	1	6	0	3	3	0	19
Coaching method Command	0	0	2	0	0	5	0	3	0	0	0	0	10
Observation	2	5	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	10
Teacher intervention	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Physical Punisher	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
Coaching method Guided Discovery	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Class management Issues	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Coaches' communication, language and organisation during practical coaching sessions:

Introduction

This section provides qualitative responses from the analysis of the practical coaching sessions. This supports the data on the coaches pedagogical behaviours presented in Table 4.

Coach communication

All coaches demonstrated an authoritative tone and manner to their communication with common features of interaction with pupils being through reinforcement, praise and asking questions. There was an overuse of strong adjectives 'excellent', 'fantastic' when pupils were providing relatively simple answers. The coaches' language and organisation was exclusive, generally aimed towards the better footballers in the group, with coaches often adopting a commentating technique when communicating with pupils.

Coach 4 - Stand still please and listen, so when you see or hear me speaking to you either put the ball under your arm or under your foot.

Coach 5 - What's your name Sir? pupil reply Thomas, Coach response Why have you had the ball for the last 45 seconds?

Coach 6 - Well done, keep moving guys don't stop moving, don't stop moving, don't stop moving, don't stop moving, don't stop moving, ball shouldn't be going out of the square, ball shouldn't be going out of the square, ball shouldn't be going out of the square.

Coach 9 - Can we all count to three, I know some of you struggle, I know you struggle to count to three' (coach points to an individual pupil).

Class management and session structure

All coaches demonstrated limited knowledge and skill in relation to class management. There were a significant number of pupils that would be deemed as being 'off task'. This was especially noticeable during sessions where the coach was providing instructions. The coaches used questions for social and managerial purposes and used open questioning to gauge understanding, for example 'does everyone understand?' (Coach 6). A part to whole method i.e. skills practice leading to a game was used in all sessions with some evidence to suggest that coaches understood this approach to coaching to be the most appropriate way for children to learn in a games context.

Pupil question: Are we going to play matches? Coach 9 - Not today, today's all about learning.

Coach 6 - *Guys wait there, wait there guys this is what we are going to do, guys wait there, listen, listen, freeze, freeze, right this is what we are going to do, guys freeze, freeze where you are ok for example pass it, dribble and pass it off there, does everyone understand? And freeze, freeze there, freeze there, freeze where you are, freeze where you are.*

Exclusive and Unethical practice

Coach 4 talked about setting pupils challenges. He then linked this to a competition to see who could complete the challenge the quickest, stating the first pair to 20 points is the winner. This was reinforced with 'come on girls you must do this as quickly as you can' (Coach 4). The coach then continued to talk about accuracy and the importance of making accurate passes. This seems somewhat contradictory as generally an increase in the speed of executing a new skill usually means there will be a breakdown in quality in this case accuracy. The coach continued: 'for the one's of you that don't play football all the time just try your best, if you can get 10 done by the time someone who plays football all the time can do 20 that's your target' (Coach 4). He continually asked the pupils how many points they had scored. At the end of the session, one of the pupils indicated that he had scored 55 points. This drew a chant of 'Cheat, cheat, cheat' from the rest of the pupils.

In a separate practical session recorded on February 14th 2007 a coach's choice of organisation created unrest and confrontation amongst the pupils. The coach organised a girls' verses boys' challenge that created a level of conflict between boys and girls in the classes.

Coach 9 on February 14th 2007 used a pedagogical approach that was ethically questionable, his explanation for using this approach, during an individual interview conducted on the same day as the practice was 'The reason it is quite a confidence booster of a session is because you can guarantee that at least one of your four groups, when you say stand and you tell them, all I am going to tell you is, the first two balls, throw them between you, then they will either stand in a circle and pass the ball round or four of them will stand without moving and two of them will throw. You can guarantee within 60 seconds, someone will get the ball in the side of the head because they are not looking and then there it is your first key point'.

Physical Punisher

Coach 2 a non-graduate and F.A. level 3 qualified coach used physical activity as a punisher in a coaching session recorded on February 14th 2007. 'Everybody on the outside if you haven't got a ball, if I see you standing still you are going to be doing some star jumps'. There were a number of pupils who started doing stars jumps straight away, this seemed to highlight that the coach's communication was not clear.

Table 4 clearly highlights physical punishment was not a common feature of the community coaches' pedagogy.

Planning - coaches' knowledge, skill and understanding of planning for intentional learning

One of the defining aspects of school based learning and the work of professional teachers in western society is that they plan for intentional learning (Slavin, 2003; Whitehead and Blair, 2010). Gower (2010: 24) states that 'effective planning is at the heart of effective teaching' and continues to discuss planning in both the medium and short terms as being a distinctive process that requires written documentation, the approach taken towards planning throughout this study. Therefore if coaches are to cover PPA time and work against the definition of specified work and as stated work in parity with teachers, it is reasonable to expect them to have a knowledge, skill and understanding of the planning process in order that they support intentional pupil learning. Additionally the dual aims of workforce remodelling are specific in that they should address teacher work load and raise educational standards. It would be very difficult for coaches to raise educational standards through Physical Education lessons, demonstrating progression and continuity of pupils learning, if they are unable or are not willing to engage in a planning process in both the short and medium terms (Gower, 2010; Whitehead and Blair, 2010). The next section reports the findings relating to coaches' awareness of the planning process and the extent to which they engaged in this process.

The general theme was that coaches did not plan their coaching sessions, but preferred to deliver their session based on past experience and intuition. Thirteen of the twenty one coaches stated, in a questionnaire administrated on January 23rd 2007, that they did not plan sessions; five stated that they did plan sessions; two stated that they sometimes planned sessions; and one stated '*when in need of inspiration I use a lesson plan*' (Coach 8). All five coaches who stated they planned their sessions also stated that they kept their plans as a permanent record.

Coach 10 - I keep a book with lots of warm up games, drill based games, drills and match type activities to refer to when attending a session. Sometimes I will plan it prior to the session others I will plan it when I get there to see how many people I have to coach.

Coach 14 - Because it gives me a platform so that I can build on what I've already done. Say in a 10 week stint; you don't want to go over something at length you have already done in the early stages. I believe it is all about periodisation, no matter how old the children are.

Explanations of why coaches did not plan their sessions included the lack of emphasis placed on planning sessions during NGB coaching awards and the influence of the work place and the values of

older more experienced coaches, who did not plan. The coaches who did not commit their planning to a written format provided the following explanations for their decision.

Coach 1 - Because I find it easier to plan in my head. It is also easier to adapt my session when in my head rather than being regimented on paper.

Coach 9 - I've never written anything down in my life...I pretty much remember most drills I have ever done.

Coach 17 - Working in the schools with a large number of children, I tend to pick a topic for the week, and coach the same topic to all the different sessions/pupils.

Coach 5 stated that *'session plans are viable if you're working on key facts and skills and techniques, but if you're doing six year old kids you don't need to get so technical...'*. Across the semi-structured group interviews (SSGIs), conducted on January 23rd 2007, an emerging theme relating to the coaches attitude towards planning was that they felt they could plan in their heads and that this approach allowed them to adapt their practice depending on the context and environment that they were working. Coach 1 stated that he felt that *'I think sometimes that brings out the best of you as a coach, because sometimes you get there and everything you've got planned could be turned upside down...'*

Coaches 2, 5, 9 and 21 explained during individual interviews on February 14th 2007 that they did not commit anything to paper during their planning and preparation of practical coaching sessions. In contrast, Coach 4 and 14 both highlighted that they did commit their planning to paper. However, Coach 4 and 14 seemed to have a different understanding of the planning process Coach 4 stated *'I wrote some notes and them jumbled it around a little bit'*. This approach seemed to differ from Coach 14 who stated that;

'I don't like to go through a session if I don't know what I'm doing, I like to plan everything out, then I can just do passing, I know what to do with the passing, I know how to progress it, running with the ball I know how to progress that, dribbling I know how to progress that.'

A common theme with all of the coaches was that they based their preparation and practices on their past experiences.

Coach 21 - I've done this session loads of times, I've done it lots and lots of times.

Coach 2 - From a previous sessions that I have done...so just previous sessions really.

Coaches' knowledge of planning coaching sessions in relation to their academic and football specific qualifications

There was little indication of a consistent relationship between academic qualification levels and the planning of coaching sessions. Two of the three coaches with a Master level degree planned their coaching sessions; both of these coaches were aged between 20– 29 years old. Five of the fourteen coaches who did not have a degree also reported that they planned their coaching sessions to varying extents. One of these five coaches was currently a student studying for a degree, and reported, 'depends who I am going to coach...' There was no relationship between planning and the coaches' football qualifications. Three of these five coaches had a level 2 FA qualification, one coach had a level 1 FA qualification and one coach had a level 3 qualification.

Planning for practical coaching sessions

On the first day of initial data collection, January 23rd 2007, the coaches were asked to work in groups of four to plan and deliver a thirty minute lesson to a class of school pupils. They were given a broad title of the session either, 'dribbling and first touch' or 'passing and first touch'. The session plans that were written and used as part of this group practical delivery were all very basic. Although one session plan did have progressions outlined, none of the plans had any information regarding intended learning outcomes, teaching methods, coaching /teaching points or assessment opportunities. This confirms data reported in table 3 regarding the coaches' perceived strengths and areas to develop with only two coaches reporting that planning was an area of strength. However it also challenges data presented in table 3 which highlights that none of the coaches thought that their planning was an area for development.

Coaches are required to plan lessons in order that they can meet the definition of specified work (DfES, 2003). The initial context findings report multiple sources of data that consistently show that the coaches understanding of planning was poor and that the coaches did not recognise the importance of planning to their role as a community football coach. This initial context data supports the inclusion of planning as a content area for the CPD programme.

4.1.3 Being coaches: developing understanding of coaches' realities

Vignette 1: 'Understanding the initial context of the Community Sports trust under investigation'

Introduction

The purpose of vignette 1 is to highlight the level of knowledge, skill, understanding and awareness the coaches had prior to the CPD programme in relation to working in schools and meeting the definition of

specified work. It draws on data collected from the first day of the research project, January 2007, via questionnaires, National Curriculum proforma, semi-structured group interviews, researcher field notes and the practical coaching sessions. It provides data on the context of this Community Sports Trust, prior to the CPD programme and helps to establish the coaches' knowledge, skill, understanding and awareness to work in PPA time and cover specified work. The vignette supports an understanding of sub questions 1ab

1a What is the current context in which this group of community coaches are working in schools?

1b Are the coaches 'fit for the purpose' of working in schools and covering PPA time lessons? prior to the CPD programme.

Vignette 1 introduces two community football coaches Frank and Steven. Frank is a 36 year old male, a non-graduate who has a FA level 3 qualification and has been a community coach for 10 - 15 years. Steven is a 20 year old graduate who has a FA level 3 coaching qualification and has been a community football coach for 1-2 years. The initial context data reports that neither of the coaches had any knowledge of the NCPE. Additionally neither of the coaches felt that the FA coaching qualifications supported community coaches to work in schools covering PPA time. Additional initial context details on Frank and Steven are given in appendix 11.

Italics represent direct quotes from the coaches. The non-italics that form the base and context of the narrative were composed from real events which were recorded as part of the researcher field notes.

Frank and Steven were about to start work at a local school, covering Physical Education lessons in PPA time. They worked as full time football coaches for a Community Sports Trust at a Premiership Football Club located in the South East of England. They had just arrived at the school.

'Do you know anything about the National Curriculum?' 'No, I haven't got a clue, do you?' 'Not really'. 'How old are the kids that we are coaching today?' 'I'm not sure, I think they're 10 year olds'.

It was the first time either of them had worked at The Red School and they had just arrived. Frank pressed the intercom buzzer located next to the six foot plus steel gate. The visible perimeter of the school was secured with a modern looking version of iron railings. No reply, Frank waited a few seconds, before pressing again, the coaches exchanged nervous glances; they were meant to start coaching in 5 minutes. An enthusiastic voice asks who they were, and as they reply the gate starts to open. The committed voice informs them that they will have to wait a few minutes at the second gate for the caretaker to come and let them into the main school building.

'Blimey this place is like Fort Knox'. 'Yeh, keeping kids safe is massive these days, did you bring your CRB (Criminal Records Bureau) certificate?'. 'Yeh, it was the last thing that Glen told us to remember, have you?' 'No I left it on the kitchen table'. 'You muppet'. 'It'll be ok I'll blag it if they ask'.

Frank talks to the receptionist, 'we're here from the Community Sports Trust to coach the football teams', Steven interrupts 'no we're not, we're here to cover the PPA time'. The receptionist asks them to sign in and then gets the duty pupil to take them to Mrs Lennon's room. Mrs Lennon is a year 3 class teacher and the Physical Education coordinator at the school.

Mrs Lennon sends the two coaches straight outside to the playground with the keys to the PE shed. 'Did she tell us how many will be in the first class?' 'I can't remember but they're year 3's', 'how old are they?' 'I'm not sure around 6 or 7, I think'. 'What should we do with them?', 'I don't mind', dribbling and first touch?' 'Yeh that's fine, you start and I'll follow your lead'. 'Ok I'll start with space invaders'.

Before the two coaches had finished organising their space a class of excited children come running around the corner. They were followed by an anxious looking lady shouting 'Children, children please slow down, come back, come back, I will tell Mrs Lennon, come back'. The two coaches looked at each other, 'This should be fun' said Frank.

The anxious lady introduced herself as Vicky a Teaching Assistant (TA), 'as there's two of you I'll just pop back into school for a quick cup of tea, you don't mind do you? only I didn't get one this morning because I had to supervise this lot getting changed, I'll be back at the end of the lesson, good luck!'. 'Er, ok, how many of them are there? 'Ah... (the TA scans the children who by now are running around the playground, with an adventurous few heading for the climbing stations) there's usually 31, but, I think at least two are away, oh and it's Jordan's first day back, she was suspended for 3 days for swearing at Mrs Clegg the head teacher, she's the one in the all pink tracksuit'.

'You get the kids in and I'll quickly finish setting up the area, and then we'll get going as quick as we can, how long have we got?', 'about forty five minutes now'.

The lesson begins

'Ok my name is Frank and that is Steven, Ok, do your best and enjoy it, have fun, any questions ask us, Ok everyone happy with that?.'

'Ok, if everyone would like to stand up and make your way over here', one of the boys asks Frank if they can play a match today, 'No we can't play a match today, we've got to concentrate on dribbling and stuff

like that, ok, so we can't play a match today'. Steven also informs a child that they can't play a match today because they won't have time.

'Ok everyone start to come round and see me and Steven please, oh where have you come from? (as Frank is walking backwards he bumps into one of the children, the coach and the child exchange friendly smiles) everyone come in, stand there stand there (another child asks Steven if they are playing a match) 'no we won't be playing a match...'

'How are you all doing alright?... before we get started as Frank has said we need to listen up carefully ok, it is very important to listen and the first game we're going to play is called space invaders ok (the children cheer) has anyone played space invaders before put your hands up?', 'Ok, So if me or Frank pass you a yellow or blue bib that means you need to put your bib on and stand and get one football, but it is very important not to kick the ball about, Ok, so as soon as you get the football stand there and put your foot on the football and wait until we say go ok. The rest of you will be aliens if you haven't got a bib, so you need to stand in the middle of the pitch here ok'. Frank reinforces this point 'can everyone see the pitch we have marked out with all the cones?' The children start to talk about aliens and cones and they are generally quite excited. Steven 'listen up guys' Frank 'we've got the bibs here so if you would like to be a spaceman put your hands up' (Steven raises his hand as a demonstration). Frank and Steven organise the children into spacemen with bibs and aliens without bibs, this is quite hectic and chaotic, Frank 'that's it go and get a football over there, that's it that way... if you need any help putting on your bibs come and see us...that's it guys stand there by the footballs'. Both Frank and Steven ask the children to stand still and put their foot on the ball. Steven 'Ok everyone with a yellow bib or a blue bib I want you to come down here please (Steven signals with his hands for the children to move towards him) and everyone needs to stand along this white line and have their foot on the football like this... aliens got to stand in the middle'.

Both Frank and Steven spend about 30 seconds repeating their instruction regarding where to stand and for the children to stand still and put their foot on the ball. Frank 'Ok, Ok, everyone quieten down please, quieten down (Frank puts a finger to his mouth and Shhhs). Ok, I'm going to explain the rules of the game ok, so everyone wearing a yellow or blue bib you're spacemen. Ok, so when I say spacemen are you ready, you've got to shout your loudest, Ok you've got to shout yehhhhh..... (Frank is quite animated at this point) you've got to try and scream this whole school down ok, you've got to scream really loud, when I shout aliens are you ready, you've got to make a weird, no listen listen (the children start shouting yehhh) you've got to make a weird alien noise, Ok what noises do you think aliens make?' Both the coach and the boys start making loud Wowing noises, Frank is also waving his arms and hands about. 'but listen ok, so, listen then I'm going to say, 3, 2, 1 go. When I say go they're going to dribble

their ball after you ok, so they've got to dribble a ball and the best way to do it, me and Steven have got to demonstrate, say I'm a spaceman if Steven is an alien I've got to dribble the ball after Steven, so you've got to control using both feet, keep looking up, and then it is best to shoot from here ok, don't try and shoot when you are miles away from the player ok so try and get to about this close, soon as you hit him (Frank passes the ball to hit Steven on the foot, Steven falls to the floor screaming and rolls over three times, he is also screaming, wawawa!) he's got to roll over and die ok that means you are out of the game, if the ball hits you on the knee or below that mean you are out of the game ok, so you've got to go and stand to the side'. At this point the boys started running around the playing area.

Straight after the lesson...

'That went ok didn't it?'. 'Yeh, I thought so'. 'Should we just do the same with the other four classes'. 'Yeh it seemed to work quite well'. 'We might need to make the area a bit bigger for the older ones'.

Four classes later...

'I just didn't have the energy for that last class'. 'Me neither'. 'I can't believe how those two kids reacted, it was only a game'. 'I know it was a good job Mrs Clegg was looking out of her window'. 'I remember being sent to stand outside the head teacher's door when I was at school'.

Table 5: Context, Mechanism and Outcome for vignette 1

Content	+	Blocking Mechanisms	=	Outcome pattern
Community Football coaches who are already working in PPA time or just about to start working in PPA time.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No planning No knowledge of the National Curriculum Physical Education (NCPE) A pedagogical approach, very narrow and exclusive. Route action - coaches rely heavily on their past experiences. Unprofessional approach to their role as a coach, i.e. late arrive and not knowing the purpose of their work. A lack of supportive working relationship between coaches and schools. 		<p>Children are being taught a very narrow interpretation of the NCPE.</p> <p>A lack of differentiation leads to lack of quality activity and behaviour issues.</p>

4.1.4 Summary of initial context data

This section has provided data on the coaches' demographic backgrounds and their ontological perspectives regarding their chosen career as a community football coach. Data have also been

provided regarding coaches 'knowledge' at this initial stage of the CPD project. This knowledge presents a base line or starting point that provides a platform for the CPD programme theories to build and support the coaches in the active task of a knowledge synergy as opposed to the passive act of knowledge transfer. The final part of this section aimed to support the realist methodological position on evaluation research and provides data that highlights the individual coach actors presented in the vignette. (Appendix 11 presents the knowledge, skill and understanding that six exemplar coaches possessed in relation to the context of working in schools and delivering 'Physical Education lessons' to cover PPA time). The multiple forms of data contribute towards understanding the holistic realities of the role of a community football coach who is deployed to work in schools, and aims to support the depth and detail required for case study research (Yin, 2009).

The context section highlights that prior to the CPD programme the coaches in this case study did not possess the knowledge, skill and understanding to work in schools against the definition of specified work to cover teacher's absence from the classroom during PPA time. This situation has arisen out of the UK's last Labour Governments (1997-2010) workforce remodelling act that required all teachers to be guaranteed 10% of their timetable to plan, prepare and assess pupils work. The coaches are qualified to coach through NGB awards, in this case study those of the FA. The initial context data reports that for the coaches in this case study the FA coach education programmes did not support them to operate successfully against the definition of specified work and deliver Physical Education in PPA time sessions. The data informs us that in order for these coaches to be deployed in schools and cover teachers PPA time through the delivery of Physical Education lessons and meet the definition of specified work, they need to develop their knowledge, skill and understanding of the NCPE, the process of planning for intentional learning and an awareness of different pedagogical approaches and methods. This supports the content knowledge delivered through the CPD programme.

4.2 Mechanisms for change

Introduction

The second layer of this case study evaluation aimed to address an understanding of how the coaches experienced the CPD programme and what worked and what did not work as mechanisms for change, and why these mechanisms were triggered. The realist approach to evaluation is based on a generative model of theory causality highlighting that it is not programmes that support change but people (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003, 2006; Stame, 2004). Therefore the realist perspective on change is a modest one which is clear in not demanding the secure transferability of knowledge but rather the continual betterment of practice (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003; Pawson, 2006) and

the overall aim of evaluation research is not necessarily to prove but rather to improve and learn (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 1985; Lewis, 2001; Robson, 2002,).

The CPD programme was delivered over twenty two months, the first year of the programme consisted of nine months of a taught programme, one group session per month plus support sessions. The last three months of the first year moved to a coach (participant) led programme that utilised critical pedagogical approaches to learning, including a DVD analysis sessions, involving peers and the researcher/ course tutor. The second year of the project moved to a coach (participant) led programme, with the role of the course tutor being one of critical friend. The findings from this layer of the case study highlight that coaches found the overall programme theory and programme delivery supportive and there is evidence that programme mechanisms, e.g. DVD analysis, triggered the coaches' knowledge, understanding and their practice changed, albeit at different levels for different individuals. The quantitative data provided by the coaches presented in this section highlights that the DVD analysis of the tutor coaching session was evaluated very positively. The qualitative responses support and provide explanation for this response rate.

In relation to a realist approach to evaluation the data are presented as initial mechanistic data that provide an account of how and why the coaches' knowledge, understanding and skill evolved or remained static as the CPD intervention was delivered. Data in this section was collected using a questionnaire June 2007 (appendix 5), interviews in October 2007, (appendix 8) and interviews November 2007 (appendix 9).

4.2.1 Introducing the new context - PPA time

Coaches' views on CPD session 1 on Data collection, this was the first day of the CPD programme and included collecting different sets of data from the coaches.

Coaches reported that the day supported them to start thinking about their coaching practice and that they were able to pick out aspects of good practice by working collaboratively with other coaches.

Coach 9 - started the mind considering, what how and who we are coaching and whether our methods are correct.

Coach 17 - the curriculum test surprised me as to how far away some of our sessions are to bring it up to the guidelines of the national curriculum.

CPD session 2 on National Curriculum Physical Education, this session provided the coaches with knowledge and understanding in relation to the NCPE. Coaches reported that the session helped them

realise their position in relation to understanding and using the NCPE. The coaches stated that they found the session interesting because they were not aware of much of its content.

Coach 17 - It showed again how much we are currently behind the National Curriculum standards when coaching PPA sessions.

Coach 13 - I realised we are way off the mark.

Coach 1 - Started to give me an insight, which gave me a better understanding of what PPA should be and subsequently suggested we were no-where near this level of competence.

Coach 21 - The session showed that I need to be able to observe, analyse and give feedback to the children which take part in these sessions and work closer with the teacher to challenge and give grades to pupils on the 4 strands of the National Curriculum.

Planning, Preparation and Assessment time and the origins of Workforce remodelling, this session provided the coaches with knowledge and understanding of the broader educational context in which they were working or about to start working.

Coaches reported on how this session on the origins of workforce remodelling allowed them to reflect on their current practice and supported them in realising that they had considerable improvement to make if they were to successfully work in schools and cover PPA time Physical Education lessons. The coaches concluded that this was an important issue and that PPA time was a significant part of their future work and therefore an area where improvements needed to be made.

Coach 1 - Again provided me with a greater baseline knowledge which upon reflection suggested we as a trust need to re-evaluate our codes of conduct.

Coach 17 - it is something that is really common sense but something we all let slip and let go in our sessions. This is too important to let slip and therefore (we must) bring it up to scratch.

4.2.2 Coaches reactions and concerns (regarding the CPD programme)

Vignette 2 - 'What works and what doesn't work?'

Introduction

The purpose of the second vignette is to highlight the coaches' initial concerns regarding the CPD programme and how the programme's mechanisms and underpinning theory began to support changes in the coaches thinking, attitudes and behaviours. It draws on data collected during the first year of the CPD programme through questionnaires (June 2007), semi-structured group interviews (October, 2007)

and research field notes. The vignette aims to support an understanding of the sub question 2a relating to:

2a What aspects of the CPD programme worked and what did not work in supporting coaches in developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to deliver specified work?

Frank and Steven are again the central actors in this vignette. Both coaches were enjoying the CPD programme and found the CPD sessions on the NCPE and workforce remodelling very helpful. In relation to the workforce remodelling session Frank commented that *'it made me aware that I am not educating children as well as I possibly could'*. Both Frank and Steven found the mechanisms of practical coaching and the DVD analysis to be very supportive. Steven commented on the DVD mechanism *'Yes, again going over the techniques used and then hearing the reasoning behind it was very helpful'*.

Vignette 2 also introduces us to Wayne and Peter. Wayne is a 21 year old non graduate who holds an FA level 2 coaching qualification and has 4 - 5 years' experience as a community football coach. Wayne found the CPD session on workforce remodelling to be helpful and reported that it *'started to give me an insight, which gave me a better understanding of what PPA should be and subsequently suggested we are nowhere near the level of competence needed'*. Peter is a 27 year old graduate who holds an FA level 2 coaching qualification and has 5 - 6 years' experience as a community football coach. Like Frank, Steven and Wayne, Peter also found the context sessions on NCPE and workforce remodelling very interesting and supportive, but as we see in the vignette it was the practical coaching session that really caught Peter's imagination. Additional data on Frank, Steven, Wayne and Peter is located in appendix 11. In addition to the main characters, the vignette also refers to John an experienced community coach and Glen one of the Community Sports Trust middle managers.

Italics represent direct quotes from the coaches. The non-italics that form the base and context of the narrative were composed from real events and recorded as part of the researcher field notes.

March 2007

'I don't understand why the kids liked it, it was boring'.

The twenty one football coaches from the Community Sports Trust (CST) had just finished observing a practical coaching session held at the clubs training ground. The session had been delivered by the course tutor / researcher and involved children from a local primary school. The coaches were three months into the CPD programme aimed at supporting them to develop their knowledge, skill and

understanding of working with the National Curriculum and specifically Planning Preparation and Assessment (PPA) time.

John, a coach of twelve years' experience, was talking to Wayne, a younger coach who had started working at the Community Sports Trust straight from school, and had worked for the trust for four years. Wayne replied, *'Yeh, it's totally unrealistic, he had all this space and the kids were so well behaved, he should have done the session in a school'*. As John and Wayne walked towards the door Glen their manager caught them up, 'how did you think that went fellas?'. John, never shy at coming forward, took the opportunity to make his feelings clear 'I thought it was rubbish Glen, I bet he can't do that in a school with half the space, not enough footballs and challenging kids, I've just said to Wayne, *I don't understand why the kids liked it, it was boring'*. Wayne added; 'Yeh the kids were all so well behaved it made it unrealistic'. Glen listened but didn't really know what to say, he hadn't initiated the CPD programme and hadn't actively coached for quite a number of years.

Two weeks later, in a CPD session

'Watching it again on DVD totally erased what I'd believed of the session when I saw it first. I missed so many things at the time'. During a break in the morning session Wayne chatted with Frank, Steven and another coach Peter about what they had just done. John didn't attend the session, as he was leaving the trust the following week to take up a full time coaching position in America. The coaches had spent the morning reviewing a DVD of the coaching session they had watched two weeks earlier, the course tutor had worked with them to analyse the session.

Peter was clearly enthused by what the group had just been through; *'The session really opened up my eyes to the importance of both content and delivery of sessions. Watching an innovative way with reasons was very good. I have actually tried some of the strategies in my sessions; visual aids, kneeling down, which have subsequently been commented on by teachers'*. Frank, who had also been coaching for about fifteen years, had found the first few months of the programme quite intense and at times hard to follow, sat quietly listening to his colleagues talk. Steven was highlighting that he thought the coach's manner and the way he treated the children was very good, the way he treated them as equals and that he felt that this approach helped the coach control the group. He added *'I have tried to use this during my sessions'*. As the four coaches were walking back into the classroom Wayne asked Frank what he thought, Frank replied *'I think it was very useful to see how a coach can be an educator and the different skills you can use to help children have a better understanding'*. The earlier parts of the course were starting to connect together. Frank felt he was starting to make a connection and was beginning to see what the course tutor meant when he talked about 're conceptualising sports coaching as an

educational enterprise'. Frank continued *'I thought this surprised a lot of people and for me was the most influential part of the course so far'*.

The next day:

Wayne received a phone call from Glen informing him that the part time coach who he was scheduled to be working with had called the office, his car had broken down and he would be unable to make the session. Peter was on his way but might be a few minutes late. Inspired by the previous days CPD event Wayne had arrived at The Blue School 30 minutes before his session was due to start. He had already signed in at reception and was on the field setting out his area. He had set out the interchangeable areas that he had been reminded of the previous day.

The duty pupil opened the door leading from the school out onto the playing fields and pointed to where Wayne was enthusiastically playing a game of 'Rory the Racer' with a year 3 class. Peter had arrived at the school on time but had taken slightly longer to sign in as this was the first time he had worked at this school and he had to wait while the receptionist processed his CRB details on the school system. Peter gestured and mouthed to Wayne, 'do you have a plan I can look at?' Wayne replied 'no sorry, I forgot it'. Although Peter had not been at the trust that long, he was well respected as a coach, mainly because he was confident and charismatic and he kept the children engaged. Peter stood and watched the 'Milkshake' inspired game; after 2 minutes Wayne sent the children for a drinks break.

Wayne was feeling apprehensive and unsure about what Peter was thinking as they had not worked together before. 'Sorry I haven't got a plan Peter, I understand the importance but struggle to find the time to complete them'. Peter's response was typically diplomatic, 'that's ok, it would have just given me a chance to see what you are doing that's all, *planning has really helped me and slowly but surely I'm turning my habits into questions, rather than me just prescribing or dictating to the children, it's definitely more enjoyable for me, but it's a lot of pre planning'*.

Wayne finished off the first lesson with Peter playing the part of the rogue mechanic whose role was to try and kick the children's footballs out of the playing area. Peter led the next lesson with a class of year 6 children.

After the lesson:

'I like how you used work cards to engage the children', 'Yeh I got it from the stuff we're doing on the CPD programme'. 'Yeh they showed it yesterday didn't they'. 'Children learn differently and the work cards allow them to scaffold their learning and develop independence'. Wayne paused, he didn't want to appear as if he didn't understand what Peter was saying. 'Yeh, I noticed how the children could use

the cards to help them find out the answers to some of your questions’. ‘Did you go to the session on teaching methods and learning styles?’ ‘No I couldn’t make it, Glen asked me to cover a school because one of the part time coaches had dropped out’. ‘Yeh that is a real problem isn’t it, twice I have had pull outs on the day of the course and spent a large part of the day thinking about how to get it covered, rather than the content of the course’. ‘Yeh and it happened again today, although I’ve actually learnt a lot from watching your session Peter, thanks for coming down’. ‘That’s ok, I’m glad it was helpful, it’s a real shame you missed the session on teaching and learning styles. I sometimes feel as if Glen doesn’t fully understand the importance of the CPD work’.

Table 6: Context, Mechanism and Outcomes for vignette 2

Context	+	Mechanism	=	Outcome
Community Football coaches who are three to six months into a CPD programme aimed at supporting them in developing the knowledge, skill and understanding to work in PPA time		Managers – the development of coaches not priority		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Managers unable to empathise with coaches Managers not being able to fully support coaches because they had not had personally dealt with the challenges Coaches question the managers understanding of the CPD programme. Coaches do not feel supported by the managers.
<i>As above</i>	+	Transient/ part time nature of community football coaches	=	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inconsistency of programme outcomes Some coaches are missing key information Difficult for coaches to plan effectively
<i>As above</i>	+	Modelling – unrealistic	=	<p>Challenging, confused coaches who didn’t understand why the children enjoyed the session.</p> <p>And</p> <p>Engaged coaches who acknowledged the innovative nature of the session in relation to community coaching.</p>
<i>As above</i>	+	DVD analysis	=	Engaged, motivated coaches who could see

				the value and reason for the pedagogical strategies used within the session. <i>Trigger moment.</i>
<i>As above</i>	+	Broader pedagogy – input on pedagogical approaches	=	More inclusive lessons – coaches motivated to try new approaches and strategies.
<i>As above</i>	+	Social Learning – working together, using ideas from the CPD programme	=	Motivated engaged coaches who feel supported by their peers. A willingness to accept new approaches.

4.2.3. Coaches changing responses to the mechanism for change

Coaches reported that the observation of a practical coaching session allowed them an opportunity to take many aspects of good practice, including coach communication and pedagogical strategies. Coaches also highlighted how the session supported them to reflect on their own practice. However, despite these mainly positive reflections, field notes from the day (19th March 2007) highlight that at the time many of the coaches were quite challenging towards the CPD tutor/ researcher immediately after the practical session. There were a number of coaches who displayed very negative body language and an aggressive tone when asking questions and making comments. One comment that was noted by the CPD tutor/ researcher (researcher field notes) due to its irony came from coach 5 who stated '*I don't know why the kids enjoyed it, it was boring*'. The coaches were very challenging in relation to the context in which the session had been carried out. A number of coaches verbally challenged the CPD tutor to whether he could coach using this approach in a school context.

Coaches' views on the DVD analysis

Coaches highlighted how the tutor led analysis session, helped them to reflect on pedagogical aspects of coaching practice, and commented on how they were able to use pedagogical strategies highlighted in their own coaching. Some coaches reported that the DVD analysis was the 'stand out' moment of the CPD to date.

Coach 1 - Watching it again on DVD totally erased what I'd believed of the session when I saw it first. I missed so many things at the time, but on reflection it highlighted actually how good the session was with all the strands of the NC covered.

Coach 4 - 'I thought this surprised a lot of people and for me was the most influential part of the course so far'.

Coaches' views on the CPD session on coaching methods and learning styles

The coaches found this session supportive and commented on how they could take strategies directly from the session and use them in their own practice. Some of the coaches reported that they would like more information on different coaching methods and how they related to individual learning styles.

Coach 9 'slowly but surely I'm changing certain things sessions plans for the better of all children to make it more inclusive and so that they get something out of the sessions'.

Table 7 Summary of Quantitative responses to the mechanisms of change

	Ranking	Not very Supportive	Supportive	Very supportive	Extremely supportive	Total no of coaches at data collection point
Number of session	Description of session					
January 2007	Coaches views on the CPD session on data collection	3	4	3	1	11
February 2007	National Curriculum Physical Education	1	5	4	1	11
March 2007	Origins of Workforce remodelling	0	4	5	2	11
April 2007	Practical Coaching	2	1	3	3	9
May 2007	DVD analysis	0	2	4	3	9
May 2007	Coaching methods and learning styles	0	4	5	0	9
	Total	6	20	24	10	

Summary of table 7

Table 7 highlights that the general theme of the quantitative data is that the coaches found the workshops sessions supportive. Although limited in detail table 7 does provide a clear overview of how

the coaches experienced the mechanism for change and which mechanisms they found most supportive. Table 7 also highlights how supportive the coaches found each mechanism of change.

Vignette 3 - Change?

Introduction

The purpose of the third vignette 'Change?' is to highlight how the mechanism of change reacted with the evolving social context. The data were collected from semi-structured interviews and researcher field notes and aimed to support the sub question 2a:

2a What aspects of the CPD programme worked and what did not work in supporting coaches in developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to deliver specified work?

Again Frank is the central actor in the vignette. Frank was feeling positive about the CPD programme and was starting to recognise areas of knowledge in which he needed more knowledge and understanding. He commented that *'I would benefit from doing some more practical work under the direct guidance of the course tutor. I also feel that my planning could do with some work and learning the best way to set aside time to complete it'*.

Italics represent direct quotes from the coaches. The non-italics that form the base and context of the narrative were composed from real events and recorded as part of the researcher field notes and through the DVD footage.

The four lead coaches that had been identified by the Community Sports Trust managers as early adopters who could support the social construction of the coaches' knowledge were being videoed delivering a practical coaching session. This session took place on November 5th 2007 at a local school. The session would have a dual purpose being used as part of the evaluation and as a mechanism for change.

'How did it go?', 'It went ok, I got in a bit of a mess getting the kids in bibs and I think I could have organised the teams better. But I haven't had time to really reflect on it as I had to shoot straight off to another school to cover for Gareth who was doing the final session at The Red school'.

Frank was keen to be supportive as he asked Steven how his session had gone. Frank had delivered the first of four sessions that were being videoed in order to support the coaches' professional development. Steven had delivered the second, Peter the third and Gareth would be the last to coach. The four had been identified by their managers as having the experience and leadership qualities to act as lead coaches, who would organise a small group of coaches to work collaboratively to support each

other's development. Steven had just arrived back at the office where Frank had been shuffling papers and making notes on his lesson plan as he eagerly waited to see how his fellow coaches had fared with their hour long recorded sessions.

Steven reciprocated Frank's question, 'How did you feel yours went?', 'Yeh it went ok, I could have done a few things a lot better. I was a bit disappointed that it took so long to get started, but having more awareness and knowledge of the National Curriculum has made a massive difference, although I still need to know more than I do. I'm looking forward to having the session analysed'. 'We get the chance to go through it first don't we?' 'Yes he said he would send us a copy, so we could watch it ourselves and then about a week later go through it with him, before we give a copy to the coaches in our groups'. 'How many do you have in your group?' 'Three plus me', 'Yeh same as me' 'I think Gareth and Peter are the same, most of the coaches from Greendale have dropped out of the programme'. 'Oh why is that...?' 'Glen seemed to think it was about the location of the CPD sessions and the Greendale coaches not wanting to travel, not being able to get back to deliver their after school sessions and evening coaching'.

Two weeks after the lead coaches had been videoed...

'I have to admit I felt quite nervous watching that with you lot'. 'Frank, there is no need for you to feel nervous ...watching it I could take a lot of stuff that I know I do in a session so I got to see things on similar lines to (you) in terms of development. There are things that I noticed in (your) DVD that were really good and there is some other things in the DVD which I might change slightly, which I know I do in my sessions, not having a go at you in anyway as it happens to me as well, just to try and keep that focus on getting down to their level, you do that a few times, its good, calling them all in when you want to talk to them rather than having them all standing up, it highlighted a few bits and pieces'.

'Thanks Wayne, what did you think Joe? 'I thought it was really good, the use of the DVD, it not only, well, if you are involved in the session you don't necessarily know your faults, whereas if you are being recorded you can watch it back and you have the chance to reflect more, I shouldn't have done that, or maybe I should have done that more! It naturally makes you want to improve'.

'Yeah, you never get the chance to look at yourself coaching, when you see that, I mean you get someone to watch you coaching, but its not the same, they can give you constructive criticism or feedback on it, but when you look at yourself you can actually see it for yourself and rather than thinking, I didn't do that, at least you know that you did and you can change it'.

'Its hard evidence isn't it! It's there you can't deny it. Even if you or I or anyone didn't crouch down to the kids, and the session was perfect, you just didn't do that one thing, then you can improve on that for the next time'.

'Ok thanks Joe, thanks lads, that makes me feel better, I'm really pleased it was so helpful'. 'No problem Frank but..., just in terms of development, that session there has aspects that we would never have put into a session a while back, so its shows that we are coming along, but it also highlights that there is still a little more that we need to do'. 'I agree thanks Joe'.

'We still have plenty to work on, but I do feel that we are more aware now, more reflective!!' The group of coaches laugh, the course tutor was always going on about being reflective and thinking about the consequences of the choices you make while coaching. 'So do you feel that this specific process has helped in giving you some clearer guidance about what coaching in curriculum time might look like?' Absolutely, (I'm) trying to get rid of some of the mistakes or little things that I used to do, then you see this next stage, you learn more things as they are pointed out to you, and I have started trying to get rid of them as well, so when you have got a group down on the floor, the ones at the back that are messing around with the grass or the mud, you can just go and ask them a question to get them engaged in the session as well. I think with every video I have watched, I have taken something from it and used it to try and improve the session and make it run more smoothly and use the involvement of all of them'.

I think it's an excellent way of looking at yourself..., I think everyone should have done it, I know some people were scared, but if you want to become a good coach then I think it's ideal and I am bit gutted that I didn't get to do that!. 'Well Michael I think this is something that we should be talking to Glen about'. 'Hmm maybe Frank but we both know that Glen is all in favour of CPD as long as it doesn't interfere with the business, and besides I'm not sure that everyone would be up for doing this?'

I understand that some people won't want to do (this) as they might think they are going to get found out a bit, but if you do, do it, you should, just go into it and then if you are struggling you can look at it and correct yourself, that's the key thing. 'I'm still not sure Frank'. 'The key is to be yourself it's no good being shy just do it as normal, like a normal session'.

'So how do you feel this process has worked, us going through the DVD as a small group?' Michael what do you think? I thought it was very, very useful, I can only see it helped, unless the people with you decide to criticise you and then you crumble, its obviously helpful for you as we are reviewing your thing and you are getting feedback all the time, and I think it can only help individual coaches in seeing their coaching and getting feedback from other coaches.

'Ok thanks, what about you Wayne, what are your thoughts? 'I thought it was *really, really good, I have never done anything like that at that kind of level, and the chance was there to reflect, you do a session and you go away, but watching you there, was really good for your benefit, plus ours as we can all relate to it, and the point you brought up about reflection in action, changing the session just to watch the behaviour of kids also, I mean you can watch it from here, but when you are in the moment, you can't maybe pick up on everything; but just watching that, you get the little signs that you would know to watch out for when you are doing it, so if you have got them sitting down, get them playing, increase the size of the pitch, just the reflection in action is the thing I would take away the most from there*'.

Context, Mechanism and Outcomes for vignette 3

Table 8 - Using a realist framework of evaluation, Context, Mechanism and Outcome, table 8 presents the themes evident from the mechanism for change.

Context	+	Mechanism	=	Outcome
Community Football coaches who are ten months into a CPD programme aimed at supporting them in developing the knowledge, skill and understanding to work in PPA time	+	Social learning and Peer Support	=	Coaches talking more openly about the challenges they face as coaches.
As above	+	DVD analysis	=	Reflective coaches who are learning from each other, creating a community of empathy, support and engagement.
As above	+	Increased awareness of National Curriculum		More inclusive engaging lessons that support children to attain against the strands of the NCPE.
As above	+	Managers as a blocking mechanism – Their first priority was the Community Sports Trust as a business.		Coaches perceive that the managers where only interested in their development as long as it has no direct impact on the day to day business.
As above		Geography as a blocking mechanism - Coaches not wanting to or not being		Coaches dropped out of CPD Programme.

	able to travel to access the CPD programme.	
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4.2.4 - General Feedback / Comments on the CPD programme

The coaches reported that the CPD had supported them to reflect on their practice and that they were able to transfer aspects of the programme immediately into their work in schools and community settings. Although coaches reported that they were developing their understanding of the planning process, there were times when they struggled to plan their lessons.

Coach 8 - I suppose I have begun to look at my coaching from an outward stance reflecting inwards.

On a separate issue, but relating to time management and workload, the coaches reported that the part time nature of many of the community coaches meant that getting cover for coaching sessions that were due to be delivered on the day of the CPD was very challenging.

Coach 17 - I am enjoying the programme so far and the last couple have really opened my eyes and I feel we are now moving forward at a relevant speed' he went on to discuss that he did feel that...'my priority is my sessions on that day are covered. Twice I have had pull outs on the day of the course and spent a large part of the day thinking about how to get it covered, rather than the content of the course.

Vignette 4 - Mechanisms that supported change

Introduction

The purpose of vignette 4 is to demonstrate how the CPD programme mechanisms of change influenced the coaches' behaviour and practice. The data were collected from semi-structured interviews and researcher field notes and aim to support our understanding of sub questions, 2ab and 3a:

2a What aspects of the CPD programme worked and what did not work in supporting coaches in developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to deliver specified work?

2b Why were these interventions successful or unsuccessful?

3 What impact did the CPD programme have on coaches' knowledge, understanding and skill to undertake their role of working in schools covering PPA time lessons?

Vignette 4 continues to use Peter, Frank, Steven and Wayne as central actors. Peter and Frank had been identified by the community sports trust managers as early adopters of the CPD programmes theories and mechanism of change.

We are also introduced to Karen and Gareth. Karen is a 24 year old non graduate who has a FA level 2 coaching qualification and has been a community football coach for 3-4 years. Through the process of the CPD programme Karen had started to realise that her own and the Community Sports Trusts coaching practice would have to change if they were to successfully work in school curriculum time. She wrote about the CPD session on the NCPE that *'...I realised how we are way off the mark'* and the session on workforce remodelling and the broader educational context provided her with *'...information about the framework that I didn't have a clue about before...again realising how far away from the framework we are'*. Gareth is a 27 year old non graduate with a FA level 2 coaching qualification and between 10 - 15 years' experience as a community football coach. Like Karen and the other coaches Gareth found the CPD session on the broader context, NCPE and the workforce remodelling very helpful. Regarding the session on the NCPE he wrote that it made him aware that he needed to *'...plan my sessions better on order to meet the standards of the NCPE'*. But it was the DVD analysis session that really caught his imagination he wrote, *'This was the most interesting task, you can see how the children are learning...'*. Gareth summarised his overall feeling about how the CPD programme was supporting him *'The programme has helped me engage every child in my sessions'*.

Italics represent direct quotes from the coaches. The non-italics that form the base and context of the narrative were composed from real events and recorded as part of the researcher field notes.

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Frank and Peter were tidying up the conference room after a coaches meeting, that included eleven of the twenty one coaches and was aimed at developing medium term planning. Frank and Peter had facilitated and organised the meeting and both were pleased with the way the meeting had gone.

'That was a really good meeting', 'I agree, I think without realising it, a lot of the guys here are doing things we don't realise have been influenced by the CPD'. 'They're doing things like that, that just wouldn't have happened when we're sitting there in the office before the programme started'. 'The project has really opened my mind to new a world of coaching that I never knew existed... there's a lot more to coaching than what I'd already been taught before on national governing body courses'.

'I'm really pleased that we persevered and worked hard to get this meeting to go ahead'. 'I agree there's been a huge cultural shift. From being a company that used to sit in the office from 9am-2.30pm then deliver on after school programmes. To a much more fluid company that is coaching all day, there are schedules all over the place'. 'Yes, we shouldn't grumble because this problem is a direct impact of the amount of work that we are now doing'. No I agree we shouldn't, Glen told me that PPA time coaching was now bringing in over £40,000 to the Community Sports Trust.

'Do you think we could have had this sort of meeting before the CPD programme? *'No way'. 'as I have just said I think without realising it, a lot of the guys here are doing things we don't realise have been influenced by the CPD'. 'I agree, did you hear Gareth share his reflections on how his approach has changed, 'What this course has given (him) is the reason you should be coaching is because you want to educate children on how to play the sport better'. 'That's really good ... it's brought it up and people are actually discussing it and realising that it's not a bad thing to actually disagree on a thing'. 'Yeh that did create some lively debate, Sport verses Physical Education'.*

'How did you think the planning went?' 'Well I think you only have to listen to what the coaches were saying' 'Yeh, Gareth was quite funny wasn't he *'if you plan you just become a better coach. I don't think you can improve if you didn't plan properly I don't think. If you go into a school, you're not going to improve if you're not planning'. 'And Wayne, Changed man, If I went in and tried to do either of the two (I do year 4 and year 1) the old way the way I still do the after schools. If I just rock up and try and do whatever they'll eat me alive!'*

The following day Frank was standing in the queue for his breakfast roll, when Wayne tapped him on the shoulder. 'Thanks for yesterday Frank, I really enjoyed and got a lot out of the session you and Peter put on. It was really helpful to look at medium term plans and actually have a go a filling one in. I got a lot out of it *we just filled in forms, we had questions thrown at us, we split into little groups, it was brilliant.* 'I'm glad you enjoyed it Wayne'. As the pair walked out of the shop Steven was coming down the road. 'Hey Frank thanks for the session yesterday, I got a real buzz from it, the whole programme has really helped me, *it's changed the way I approach the session I think first and foremost, just the way I plan sessions, I obviously now plan them in quite a bit more detail now*'. The three coaches continued to chat about coaching and planning as they walked down the road.

Peter was already in the office and asked Karen, how she had found the previous days meeting. *'Planning side, yeah I understand that I need to plan. In terms of time, I don't have the time to plan'. 'I realise that it's difficult, we are all busy but medium and short term planning will really improve the quality of your delivery'. 'Yes, but... sometimes I'll plan for a session and I'll get called to a completely different session. I don't have a set week, every Monday I'll get my sessions for the week'. What you're going to be coaching for the week? 'Yeah for the week, so rather than a six week plan, which ideally I'd like. It doesn't work like that. With coaches pulling out left, right and centre you're put on odd sessions'. 'So that makes it virtually impossible to plan?' 'Yeah, so I could be at one session on a Monday morning and then the next Monday I'm not at that session'. Someone else will be'. 'Blimey, how do you feel about that?' 'It's a bit ad – hoc. You just get on and do it though. That's our role. That is what we're here for, to coach and just to fill in where we can'. 'I don't mean to make you feel uncomfortable but how does that*

impact on the quality of your sessions? *'It's pretty much off the top of your head, not great quality but you get there, you give the kids what they want, just a fun session'. 'What do you mean by a fun session?' 'You make it competitive but not too competitive. You condition the game and play it for longer than you would if you planned a session. You might plan in your session that you play a game for maybe 20 minutes whether it's conditioned or not. If you're at a session that you have just gone to you might go "right well I'll work on bowling (because I'm doing cricket) for the first 20 minutes or so (on different types of bowling), catching, throwing and then I'll get them to incorporate that into a game for the last 40 minutes or so. But if you were to plan a session you'd work on bowling then maybe you'd work with the batters and then you'd do a 20 minute game'. 'Crikey that makes planning really difficult'. 'Yeah pretty much impossible...'* 'It could be a case of you go in this week and somebody else goes in the following week and pretty much does the same thing?' *'Yeah it does happen! I don't know if the kids don't pick up on it or they're not really bothered. They're seen as coaches rather than their teachers. I suppose if it was their teacher they might go "we done this last week." But where it's an outside organisation that comes in they probably feel "oh yeah this is a coach'* 'Ok Karen, thanks I'll have a think and see if we can sort anything out'.

Peter and Frank had arranged to have a working lunch to discuss feedback and their own reflections on the previous day's meeting. They were in deep discussion when Steven, Karen, Wayne and Gareth all sat down. Peter and Frank smiled and decided to take the opportunity to engage the coaches in more discussion. Peter started a discussion about NGB Awards and how these qualifications support coaches in understanding the planning process. *'I don't think it's been highlighted before, whereas the CPD programme highlighted it and not made me deal with it but made us more aware. Just the importance as well, when you're doing say for example a football qualification; there's no (from warm up to main content) it's all "show us this drill, show us that drill" rather than a flow of a session which I think has been the biggest thing that I've noticed'. 'What about you Gareth do you think your NGB awards put enough emphasis on the planning process?' 'No not really. They do talk about planning, but they say "plan your sessions" but what tends to happen when you're on your level 1 and level 2 and level 3 is that you sit there a couple of weeks before you've got your final assessment writing it all out ready to get your book signed off'. 'I think we haven't had too much influence from NGB qualifications really, maybe I have, but I know the styles that I have practiced on National Body qualifications, I haven't ever really used in any of the games, or any of the exercises at level 2 or level 3, I have never used them in my community work, whether it be Physical Education lessons or clubs, or after school clubs whatever. I have never used any of them'. 'That's interesting; I must admit I have a similar experience'. 'Yeh, it's not that we didn't know of planning because we do it on the FA courses but it was never a necessity. For being a sessional coach like myself it was never put on me from my line manger that I had to have a*

session plan. The guys I was working with at the time as I was coming up through the ranks, they weren't doing session plans. I think it was just that I learnt bad habits from the guys I was learning from, I mean if you come into an organisation and see that that's the way everyone is doing it, you tend to just go along with the way it was done and so planning just sort of died a death. 'Yeh I understand what you are saying Wayne'.

Summary of themes found in the mechanistic data in vignette 4

Table 9 - Using a realist framework of evaluation, Context, Mechanism and Outcome (CMO), table 9 presents the themes evident from the mechanism for change vignette.

Context	+	Mechanism	=	Outcome
Community Football coaches who are twelve months into a CPD programme aimed at supporting them in developing the knowledge, skill and understanding to work in PPA time	+	Lead coaches (early adopters) organising coaching staff meetings to discuss medium term planning. Lead coaches: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Frank ○ Peter ○ Gareth ○ Steven 	=	Motivated coaches who are developing the knowledge, skills and confidence to write and utilise medium term planning. Coaches enjoyed the social, interactive learning environment/ An organisation undergoing social change.
As above	+	Increased coaching workload – creating a fluid working structure, with coaches working through the day in schools. A wider range of staff have to be used to cover the day time work.	=	Difficult to get coaches together to; hold meetings and provide CPD. Decrease in the quality control.
As above	+	Increased coaching workload – creating a fluid working structure, with coaches working through the day in schools. Ad hoc work structures.	=	Some coaches working in different schools each week. Making it very difficult to plan in short or medium terms.
As above		Transient/ part time nature of community football coaches working on week to week ad hoc work schedules.	=	Difficult for all coaches to plan effectively.
As above	+	National Governing Body Awards		Football Association coaching awards do not put an emphasis on the process of planning.

		<p>Some coaches indicate that they have not used the practices presented on FA courses. Coaches who have successfully passed FA coaching awards do not possess the required knowledge to work in the NCPE.</p>
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4.2.5 Summary of mechanisms for change

There is evidence that the interaction of the initial context with programme theories and mechanisms supported the realist perspective on change which is clear in not demanding the secure transferability of knowledge but rather the continual betterment of practice.

This section has focussed on how the programme theories and the mechanistic actions interacted and evolved within the social context in which the CPD programme was being delivered. The findings show that the programme mechanism did not ignite immediately and in some case only ignited at the level of understanding, in other words the coaches understood what they should be doing but either lacked the skill to do it or were being blocked from doing it due to broader structural constraints, for example Karen’s work programme prevented her from planning a six week plan of work, see vignette 4.

Both vignettes 3 and 4 highlight a holistic narrative that demonstrates the CPD programme had a positive impact on the coaches and the Community Sports Trust. The coaches did develop their practice; pedagogically their practice evolved and made significant progress towards meeting the definition of specified work. Vignette 4 helps to explain the causal links that were made between the CPD programme and the changes in the coaches’ behaviour and attempts to describe how the programme theories or interventions in the real life context in which it occurred (Yin, 2009).

4.3 Initial outcomes

4.3.1 Introduction

The third layer of this research project was aimed at understanding the impact of the CPD programme on the coaches’ knowledge, skill and understanding to work in primary schools and cover Physical Education lessons as part of PPA cover. In relation to a realist approach to evaluation the data are presented as initial outcome data. The data provide analysis and description of the coaches’ knowledge, understanding and skill towards the end of the CPD programme. This could be seen as a very simple and

linear presentation of outcome data but in reality each layer of the investigation presents data that moves from initial context or initial mechanism to an outcome. This pattern fits into the generative model presented by realist evaluators (Pawson and Tilley, 1997).

4.3.2 Reflecting on the impact of CPD

Vignette 5: Retrospective reflection

Introduction

The purpose of vignette 5 is to highlight how the mechanisms for change support the coaches to think differently about what their work means to them and therefore demonstrates the outcome of how they adapt their practice. The vignette also presents some of the blocking mechanisms that prevented the coaches engaging in the CPD programme theories and changing their practice. The data were collected through semi-structured interviews and researcher field notes. The vignette aims to support an understanding of sub questions 3.

- 3 What impact did the CPD programme have on the coaches' knowledge, understanding and skill to undertake their role of working in schools covering PPA time lessons?

Frank and Steven are again used as central actors within this vignette. Both coaches are continuing to develop as early adopters to the CPD programmes theories and mechanism for change. Frank now describes his knowledge of the NCPE as satisfactory. He feels that the CPD programme has made the coaches more professional and supports this by highlighting that the CPD programme has impacted his attitude towards planning coaching sessions and notes that through planning you can guide the learners through the aims of your session. Steven now plans in the medium and short terms, he refers to session evaluations as part of the planning process. Like Frank he is clear that the CPD programme has influenced his attitude towards planning, stating 'it is a vital part of putting on a session'. At this stage of the CPD both Frank and Steven perceived that their Community Sports Trust managers felt that the CPD was not very important. Frank wrote that 'they want standards lifted but they don't always give us the support required'. Further data on Frank and Steven can be found in appendix 11.

Italics represent direct quotes from the coaches. The non-italics that form the base and context of the narrative were composed from real events and recorded as part of the researcher field notes.

Frank and Steven had just come out of a meeting with the CPD tutor/ researcher, Glen (their direct line manager) and the new Community Sports Trust manager, Stuart; Peter couldn't attend the meeting as he was out of the country on a skiing holiday. This was the third senior Manager the Community Sports Trust had employed since the CPD programme began 16 months ago. There had also been several

changes to the middle management structures. Most notable, the middle manager who had initiated the CPD programme had left the trust. He had applied for the Head of Community post but was not successful.

'I share Stuart's concerns don't you?' 'Yes, totally, we're 16 months into the programme, we have come such a long way yet we're only really at the end of the street, so to speak'. 'I don't think he's (the researcher and CPD tutor) convinced by Stuart's (the new head of the Community Sports Trust) perspective, do you?' 'To be honest I was never really sure that he felt the last one was that committed to developing coaches to work in PPA time'.

The two coaches chatted as they walked back from the clubs training ground to the Community Sports Trust offices. 'I understand what Stuart is saying when he states he feels that some coaches are not engaged in viewing their role as more of an educational enterprise, *but that goes back to them not delivering PPA, they (have) only just started delivering in September*'. 'If you think back to the start of the project *having no awareness of actually what we were being put on, made us go in with closed minds which led us to being a bit sceptical at the start*'. 'Yeh everything was kept quite secret wasn't it'. 'We want (ed) to get out and go back to what we were doing. We didn't really understand the importance of what we were trying to achieve at that time'. 'Yeh he got some right stick after that first practical session he did, do you remember?' 'Yeh John went for it 'anyone can put on a session in this sort of area. What are you gonna do in a tiny playground?', and I could not believe the kids enjoyed that session, I thought it was boring. Frank continued 'I didn't understand it. I'm not the quickest at picking things up anyway and I didn't understand what we were doing, what was expected and what the outcome was going to be, he probably told me 100 times but I literally couldn't picture it'. It wasn't until we were sat down in the class room and watched the DVD back we could see the benefits and then go O.K. yeah that works. Blimey, it opened ours eyes up when we sat down watching as a group'. Steven was nodding in agreement, 'I think that was the main turning point in the project'. 'Coming from backgrounds used to doing our own types of things, not necessarily aware of the National Curriculum and not aware how to hit things, or in some cases not even aware of standards so we needed to be fed the information initially'. 'Yeh, it was all very nice the National Curriculum and this that and the other. But they didn't see the benefits of it, because they weren't delivering'. 'I agree totally, we're not very good at researching and going off and reading unless we see the benefits of it. Once we see the benefits of it, it's like "right ok I'll go and do that." "But until it's sold to us and were like, no this is good you wanna get involved in this". 'People haven't seen it. They'd heard snippets of it may be on an NGB but no-one had ever delivered it on an NGB to a high standard and definitively shown the benefits of it. Once we saw the DVD we could see how it worked because of this that and the other and that kids answer,

"I'm gonna kick the ball into space" that sticks with people, there like "right, I didn't have to say to him - do this- he came up with the answer himself." 'Yeh I agree, it's just making coaches aware that there are different styles out there and what we've learnt on our national government bodies is not the only way to coach and maybe not the most effective way either for coaching children. Maybe for adults at a level it would be fine but maybe still not even then if you want brilliant results because they turn into robots'.

'But thinking back to everything, my first thought then was we are at this point now that even the people that initially had a few issues with it when we first started, and we saw that in some of the initial sessions, they are all now, because they are coaching on PPA time and doing planning to some degree they are all now kind of wanting more help and more information, which did actually come'.

Frank continued, 'they aren't the sort of people (and I am not the sort of person) to go I know I have got them, even in the form of lecture notes, why don't I get my folder out and read through them again – they kind of want it to be more of an interaction situation where they can question things and get answers there and then, without really something that they might really battle with slightly'.

'Ok Frank, what do you think has been the most supportive part of the programme in terms of developing the coaches' knowledge and understanding to work in schools?' 'Probably the most supportive was working within our smaller groups, when we went to Yellow Park and we were working there and watching the DVD of his (the researcher and CPD tutor) first ever session, so that was probably the stand out day for me. The most beneficial would probably be the real nitty gritty, the information we got from him in terms of the National Curriculum etc'. 'What about you Steven, what do you think?' 'Firstly I found being videoed and watching my own coaching session back really helpful. I think it does sort of register that is an extremely honest but workable way of learning from your own mistakes. So I found it personally quite valuable, as a group as well. It was difficult sitting with my group especially after I'd already evaluated it and assessed it myself it was difficult to then hear it all over again, especially the negative points that were obviously coming out. But, it was definitely valuable to my group members. There was only Joe and Karen but the fact that we sat evaluating a coach's lesson (whether that was me or anyone else) for a 45 – 50 minute lesson and looked at it and discussed the positive points that were coming out of that session. Like the way the children were reacting to that session and also the negative points. It did kind of facilitate their learning in terms of them seeing me make mistakes that maybe they'd made before, seeing me do positive things that they have done before and seeing them working it reaffirmed that in their brains that it does work and it's good practice. I will make a conscious effort to continue that within my coaching style. I think it was good'. 'Yeh, I agree, I think seeing a peer do it rather than an outsider, they then go "I can probably do that as well'. 'That's a good point, why do you think the group work didn't take off as well as we had hoped?' 'In terms of the group

work breaking down it was a time issue and it was also an engagement issue as well. Some of the coaches in other groups and in my group not being as involved in PPA delivery and others the levels of their willingness to attend and their availability to attend. When they did attend their actual willingness to give it complete attention... You could tell from other conversations that other people were a bit “what’s this doing for me? Why are we doing this? This is just taking up my time, it’s not doing anything else?.” ‘Do you think that they didn’t perceive the group work as a CPD? ‘Yes that is perhaps right their understanding of CPD is when somebody from the outside puts on a session etc. In the bigger longer term picture of things, they should have had the wisdom to see that it will benefit them at some stage because they will be doing this type of work. Whether they are not doing it right now isn’t really the issue. ‘Perhaps that is the very point’. Frank looked puzzled, ‘What do you mean?’ ‘Perhaps the lack of immediate context didn’t support the coaches in developing an understanding of the importance of the work; it didn’t have any meaning for them!’ ‘Hmm ok, I can see that, but then it also comes down to who tells them that management wise who passes that information down that “you are on this, at the moment you might not quite see it all but I want you to go along and watch this session and this session, you’re in this group and you are involved and you will be coaching on it at some point’. ‘Like you I think it was a good idea in principle, as I said the reason I don’t think it worked as well as it could of where the barriers of the people’s work schedules or just time, distance and travelling. When we did meet though it was good to get everyone’s thoughts on things’. ‘So it’s a case of, if you want things to work and in certain situations, like in this work based situation, you need to either prioritise, this is happening, and reinforce that this is a meeting and it is going to happen and then, it wasn’t backed up, no-one had to do it’. ‘It goes back to the fact that they don’t see the benefits of it, the only time that Jermaine (a full-time community coach who has responsibility for the deployment of coaches in one borough) comes is when there is the worry that it is going to affect his budget!’.

Summary of themes found in the mechanistic data in vignette 5

Table 10: Using a realist framework of evaluation, Context, Mechanism and Outcome, table 10 presents the themes evident from the Retrospective reflection vignette. The table includes an additional context column to highlight the evolving nature of the context.

Context	Context	+	Mechanism	=	Outcome
Community Football coaches who are sixteen months into a	Re structuring of senior and middle management		Managers – the development of coaches not priority.		Managers do not make the coaches accountable for the quality of their coaching / work.

CPD programme aimed at supporting them in developing the knowledge, skill and understanding to work in PPA time					Low expectations
As above	Some of the coaches have just started working in schools and delivering PPA time.	+	More coaches working in schools. There was a realisation that working in the school context additional knowledge and understanding was needed.		Coaches wanting more information on issues already covered in the CPD. However there is a barrier to them independently researching the required knowledge. Coaches would prefer to access the knowledge in a more social interactive environment.
As above	As above	+	DVD analysis Peer modelling		Motivated, engaged coaches who were developing an understanding of pedagogical challenges.
As above	Coaches work schedules making group meetings difficult to organise and attend. Coaches' limited time and having to travel	+	Group meetings – aimed at creating peer support for coaches working within PPA time in Schools.	=	Meeting schedules were not sustained Lack of engagement for some coaches during meetings.

	significant distances to meet with other coaches.			
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4.3.3 The impact of key mechanisms

Curriculum - coaches' knowledge of the National Curriculum and National Curriculum Physical Education.

In the broader context of the coaches working in schools and covering PPA time there was still some confusion amongst the coaches regarding the year groups of children that they would be coaching within a primary school. Only seven of the eleven coaches correctly named years three to six.

The coaches' knowledge of the areas of activity within the NCPE post the CPD intervention is an outcome of the programme. The overall theme was that the coaches had developed their knowledge of the NCPE, however none of the coaches named all six areas of activity. Most of the coaches could name one area of activity, with seven of the coaches named games as an area of activity. There was only one coach who named none. None of the coaches named Outdoor Adventurous Activity (OAA)

The coaches' knowledge of the four assessment strands within the NCPE is an area of concern. If the coaches do not have an understanding of the assessment strands that make up the NCPE, in theory they cannot meet the definition of specified work and therefore plan inclusive lessons that support the overall aims of workforce remodelling, i.e. to raise educational standards. Five of the eleven coaches named the four assessment strands that the coaches were required to deliver their lessons through. However four of the eleven coaches did not name any of the strands.

Despite mixed responses regarding the coaches' actual knowledge of the NCPE framework it was also important to understand if the coaches' ontological narrative regarding the importance of being aware of and understanding the NCPE had changed as a result of the CPD programme. Ten of the eleven coaches who responded qualitatively made reference to working within the NCPE and the importance of being able to meet the required standards, for example:

Coach 10 - To know what activities, exercises, learning objectives and intended learning outcomes are required to learn how to work in PPA time. To plan and evaluate lessons effectively ensuring the delivery is in the appropriate learning environment.

The overall theme regarding how the coaches perceived and described their knowledge of the NCPE was that they felt it was now satisfactory, with one coach reporting poor and one coach reporting very good. The coaches indicated that this was an area that they would like on-going support.

Coach 1 - *A greater more in depth understanding of it, I feel we have just scratched the surface.*

Planning – coaches’ knowledge, skill and understanding of planning coaching sessions for intentional learning.

With reference to Gower (2010) the CPD programme identified planning as a process that was to be evidenced in a written format and developed in both the short and medium terms. Eight of the eleven coaches made explicit reference to writing a lesson plan. Only one coach made explicit reference to medium term planning although an additional three out of the eleven coaches did discuss referring to evaluations of previous lessons. The increased awareness that the coaches had developed in regards to the significance of planning is supported by the following quote, which responds to a question regarding how lessons are planned:

Coach 2 - *A lesson plan with structure and logical progressions...*

It was important to find out if the CPD programme had influenced the coaches’ attitude towards planning. Eleven out of eleven coaches responded qualitatively, all the coaches stated that the programme had influenced their attitude towards planning their coaching sessions. Four of the eleven coaches made explicit reference to how planning has an impact of children’s learning. Evidence from coaches session plans, also support the development of the coaches knowledge, skills and understanding to plan in both the medium and short terms.

Pedagogy – coaches’ knowledge and understanding of pedagogical approaches and strategies to support learning.

The overall aim of any social intervention is to change or evolve practice and support groups or individuals to reflect upon their current practice (Pawson and Tilly, 1997). In relation to the impact of the CPD programme on the coaches’ pedagogical practice, eleven coaches answered an outcome questionnaire, administered in Oct 2008; all eleven coaches answered that their pedagogical approach had changed as a result of the CPD intervention.

Coach 15 - *I have changed my approach towards the children e.g., on their level, different tones of voice.*

Coach 21 - *I reflect and think sessions through more thoroughly and evaluate after if it worked and how I can improve even more.*

The coaches highlighted how they had become more aware of how watching other coaches’ work can support their own development. Five of the eleven coaches specifically wrote about using more

questions in the delivery. This more child centred theme was also discussed from the perspective of the coaches physical presence with coach's highlighting that they had become more reflective of their potentially intimidating presence for younger children. Coaches also reported that their enhanced awareness of reflective practice had supported them to make clearer and more specific coaching points.

Coach 13 - Watching others coach out in the field or on DVD – gives you a chance to see how participants react to a coach's manner and the content of a session.

Coach 4 - ...try and use more questioning and checking for understanding.

Coach 1 - sink down to their level to share information.

Coach 15 - I have been more reflective when coaching which has helped me with coaching points.

One of the central components of the pedagogical input from the CPD intervention was to develop the awareness and range of the coaches' delivery (coaching or teaching) methods. The outcome questionnaire administered at the community sports trust offices in a meeting room in October 2008 was designed to identify the coaches' knowledge and awareness of coaching methods post the CPD intervention. Six of the eleven coaches highlighted a command approach with five of these coaches providing an explanation of why they used this method. Seven of the eleven coaches identified a guided discovery method but only three of the coaches provided an accurate explanation of why this method is used. Coaches also identified other methods of coaching.

Coach 9 - feeding the pupils lots of information for them to learn through decision making.

Coach 15 - discussed using a guided discovery style... 'when children are engaged in a session.

Coach 10 - Reciprocal, helps and encourages children to learn from their fellow classmates.

Coaches' reflections on their development

An outcome of the CPD programme was that the coaches started to think about the mechanisms that supported them developing their practice as community football coaches. The coaches wrote, in the outcome questionnaire administered in October 2008, about their increased appreciation of viewing learning from the participant's perspective. The coaches also identified the impact that observing and talking to other coaches had on their practice. This social situation allowed them to share many aspects of good practice, including session planning and evaluating.

Coach 2 - I now look at all my lessons from the participant's point of view.

Coach 4 - Researching ideas for lesson plans. Thinking more about the effect my sessions will have and how to adapt them.

Coach 19 - from trying out different methods of coaching.

In relation to what aspects of the CPD programme the coaches found the most influential mechanisms, coaches highlighted that having the opportunity to observe and talk to other coaches was valuable. Additionally coaches identified watching either their own or others DVDs and how this supported them to develop their awareness of using a range of pedagogical strategies. Coaches also highlighted the importance of planning and evaluating. In the outcome questionnaire administered October 2008, all eleven coaches responded qualitatively and wrote about reflective practice being important in order to improve coaching performance.

In order that the findings from this demonstration case study can be utilised to support other community sports coaches who are working in schools, it was important to understand what additional support the coaches felt they required to successfully work against the definition of specified work and cover PPA time. Coaches identified that they would like to take additional qualifications in different sports other than football. Building on the success of the DVD as a mechanism for change the coaches also highlighted that they would like to observe other coaches working in PPA time. A small group of coaches requested additional support with lesson planning. This was presented in the specific context of working with other coaches to share lesson ideas and plan collaboratively.

Coach 10 - Progress into other sports and not just football.

Coach 21- watch more coaches within PPA time and working with all different ages.

Coach 19 - working through some session plans as a group.

Programme theory and organisation

As a direct outcome of the CPD programme it is relevant to report the coaches' perceptions of how important the CPD programme and its related content had been in relation to their role as a community football coach. All eleven coaches who responded to the, outcome questionnaire in October 2008 felt the CPD programme content was important to their community role with two of the coaches feeling it was extremely important.

The coaches saw PPA time coaching as an important and developing area of work for the Community Sports Trust. Several of the coaches linked the overall importance of working in PPA time to their personal development as coaches and attributed this development to the CPD programme.

Coach 15 - the CPD has improved my coaching performance.

One potential mechanism for supporting or blocking the coaches' development was the level of support they received from their managers and how they perceived their managers to value the project. Coach 15 - reported that *'not a lot gets done only discussed'*. Three out of eleven coaches perceived their managers to not value the importance of the CPD programme, although the other eight stated that they felt their managers saw the CPD as being important, very important or extremely important. However six of the eleven coaches stated that they felt they had not been supported by their managers.

The point regarding managers' support was also highlighted in response to coaches answering a question relating to the overall organisation of the CPD programme. There were several themes relating to this question which highlighted different perspectives from groups of coaches. One of the eleven coaches stated the overall organisation was poor, with the majority of coaches stating that the programme was satisfactory to good and one coach stating very good.

Some coaches identified that there were issues with communication between managers and coaches and this led to a level of disorganisation regarding CPD days being scheduled on days when the coaches were already busy. However there were coaches that felt that the days were organised to fit around their busy schedules.

Coach 1 - the best way to do it.

Coach 10 - well organised and delivered on time to fit in around our working schedules.

Coach 9 - hard to fit around work programme.

Coach 21 - Good, but like the last answer on bad/busy days. Maybe half days would be better.

The coaches found the mechanisms of DVD analysis, social learning through group discussion, practical coaching and observation tasks to be the programme mechanisms that they found supportive and that they enjoyed the most.

Coach 10 - Watching my session(s) back on film to see myself coach, it was very helpful.

Coach 13 - Experiencing others coaching and to be able to discuss why certain parts of the session went well or not.

In contrast to this coaches also highlighted aspects of the CPD programme that they found the least supportive. They did not enjoy working in classrooms and completing paperwork. In addition a small

group of coaches highlighted that they were frustrated that questions were not dealt with by their managers.

Coach 2 - *Long hours in the class rooms, although they were important.*

Coach 21 - *No final answers to questions. No answer to how the CST will move forward or what they are doing.*

4.3.4 The impact of CPD on individual coaches working in schools

Vignette 6 - Coaches working with schools

Introduction

The purpose of vignette 6 is to report the challenges or blocking mechanisms faced by coaches as they attempted to adapt their practice as an outcome of the CPD programme. The data were collected from semi-structured group interviews and researcher field notes. The vignette supports the understanding of sub questions 3:

3 What impact did the CPD programme have on the coaches' knowledge, understanding and skill to undertake the role of working in schools covering PPA time Physical Education lessons?

Frank, Steven, Wayne, Karen, Peter and Gareth are central actors in vignette 6. Wayne is clear that the CPD programme has influenced his attitude towards planning, he states *'it showed me that planning a session is vital for the learning of the players / students. If I don't plan my session, I don't know what I want them to learn and if I don't know how can they?'* Wayne also highlights that pedagogically he has changed his style in two ways, the manner in which he communicates with the children and the physical environment in which he sets up his sessions. Karen reports that she feels her knowledge of the NCPE has developed but she would still describe it as only satisfactory. She is clear that her pedagogical approach to coaching has changed as a direct outcome of the CPD programme and that she now uses more questioning in her coaching. Karen identifies that the mechanism that has been the most influential on her practice is observing other coaches and discussing coaching practice. Both Wayne and Karen report that in their view the Community Sports Trust managers felt that the CPD programme was important.

As an outcome of the CPD programme Pete now plans in both the medium and the short term and is clear that the CPD programme did influence his attitude towards planning. He describes his knowledge and understanding of the NCPE as good, supporting this with *'developing a unit of work for multi skills has made me aware of how to write units in line with the NCPE'*. Peter felt that the knowledge presented in the CPD programme was very important for a community coach working in schools, but he

felt that the managers did not see the CPD as important, he added that *'lines of communication from managers to coaches have often led to misunderstanding'*.

Gareth is clear that the CPD programme has influenced his attitude towards planning coaching sessions, but he identifies he would still like more support with planning, specifically medium term plans. He feels that he has a satisfactory understanding of the NCPE and feels that the CPD programme is important for a community coach working in schools. However Gareth felt that the Community Sports Trust managers did not feel the CPD was important, he wrote, *'important, but not if it takes too much time or is a cost'*.

Italics represent direct quotes from the coaches. The non-italics that form the base and context of the narrative were composed from real events and recorded as part of the researcher field notes.

October 2008

Wayne was in the Community Sports Trust Office having a discussion with Glen, his direct line manager.

'I don't agree Glen, I'm not qualified in rugby and I haven't got a clue. Never played it, don't even watch it; don't know anything to do with the rules. I'm not comfortable going in to a school and saying to a school I will do rugby. If a school's going to come out a say that session wasn't very good I'm going to tell you now I'm not a rugby coach. That's how I feel so we'll just have to agree to disagree'.

Wayne walked back to his desk, but as soon as he sat down he got back up and headed for the kitchen. Frank and Karen were sitting in the kitchen talking about some of the challenges they found when covering PPA classes. They could see that Wayne was shaken. He went straight over to the kettle and avoided making eye contact. The group looked over to Wayne but decided not to say anything and carried on their conversation.

Frank carried on talking *'No we're treated like, it's the guy from Community Sports Trust here to do the sessions. I still get called Steven sometimes, so some of them don't even know my name. The classes I work with, they know my name and some of teachers do. The year 6 teacher that I have, he's good. He's been bringing his class in and out but that's about it. He won't liaise with me on anything really. The year 2 teachers, they're just keen to get on with their PPA so, you don't see them too much. The year 4 teachers.....no, the year 4 is exactly the same'*.

'In a way Frank, that is quite reassuring to hear, we never used to talk about stuff like this and I thought that maybe it was just me that's experiencing this type of relationship with the schools. In our borough at the moment no one has even bothered. "There's the kids off you go" that's pretty much it; they go and get a coffee and do their planning. They're not bothered if we have a plan or not'. 'Don't feel it's just

you Karen, I've worked in quite a few schools for this Community Sports Trust and for other private companies and have experienced pretty much the same. Some schools are *great in as much as they make it quite easy but they don't really tell you what they want from you. So I was left really to get on with whatever I wanted.* The school I am currently in *the input the school has had is minimal. It's not a great deal and after school I have asked the teachers "is it possible if we could sit down and discuss as I'd just like to tell you what's been going on in the lesson, how they've been doing?"* but it hasn't happened. The teachers usually say *as "long as you go in there and they can behave we don't want them coming back all hyper. We're happy with that."* We were like *"we can provide session plans for content" and they were like "no, we're just interested in behaviour."*

Wayne came over and sat next to Frank and Karen, 'You ok mate?' 'Yeah, I'm fine I just had a disagreement with Glen about coaching in schools'. 'Oh, was this the issue about coaching activities other than football'. 'Yeh, you see the school that *I do at the minute is The Orange School where they want to see your session plans, they use the session plans.* I have worked really hard with the school and feel I am making some progress, don't get me wrong it's not perfect, but I am starting to develop a better working relationship with the Physical Education coordinator in the school, *for example; the first 4 or 5 weeks I went in there and I had the visual aids and blah blah, blah and he's like "no way I'm not having it." You need to give it 2 or 3 weeks for it to work because obviously the first week the kids are like "ahh let me have a look at that let me see."* The first week probably didn't work the way it should do but that was because they hadn't seen it before. *If they had half a term seeing it I think it would actually work. But I don't think I could probably go back there and do it again. It just wouldn't, little things like that he's not keen on. But he is coming round to the idea of "whole part whole" rather than just "warm up, little drill and finish off with a game."* That's old school style and it's sort of coming round to sort of starting off in smaller groups, starting off with little games then going round to each individual group. *And he has actually mentioned that quite a few times that he likes that'.* 'That sounds quite positive, I can understand why you are hesitant to coach an area of activity that you are not as familiar with'. 'Yeh so can I'.

Peter and Gareth walk into the kitchen. 'Cup of tea Gareth?' 'Yes please' 'would anyone else like a cuppa?' 'No thanks Peter'. 'Where have you two been?' 'Ha, we've been at The Purple school, we've had a right morning! Peter laughs, 'Gareth's not had the best of mornings'. 'Ha, that makes two of us'. 'You had a bad one as well Wayne? It can't be as hectic as Gareth's, tell them about your morning Gareth'. 'The kids *come out I don't get a register, some of them are wearing jeans or school shoe's which is a nightmare. There's one class I have year 4, I've only ever seen the teacher once and I don't even think that was the teacher. The class just comes out it's like "oh right they're here" and then at the*

end of it they go to play time. So no one picks them up, no one brings them out. They don't come out and go "you've got 26 today, some one's off ill, be careful of them or they're not very switched on today." They don't say anything to you. The first group the teacher comes out and I say "how many have you got?" and she tells me and says "good luck" and at the end she always asks "were they good? Is there anything I need to know?" Seeing that Gareth was quite uptight as he told the story Frank smiled as he asked if Gareth felt the school could improve its communication. 'Yeah I think they need to improve it and be better. I'm feeling more frustrated than usual today because of last Monday when I had year 3's. Now my group all came out and I think I had 32. I'm looking at them all and they're all different sizes. It wasn't until I'd started a warm up game and I asked one of them (some of them just weren't getting to grips it) what year they were in and he's in year 1. I had 7 year 1's in the group, obviously a teacher wasn't in. So then 20 minutes into the session the teacher comes out and goes "I need to collect some of the year 1's." So they go and I'm left with the year 3's again. So I'm carrying on and then a load of year 4's come out and joined in. No one had spoken a word to me'. 'Blimey that must have played havoc with your planning'. 'Exactly you can't expect me to do a good quality job. I'd planned my session and that's what wound me up more than anything. I'd planned my session on the number of kids I know I had, then halfway through some go (I didn't know they were going to be there so I adapted it to having them in) then they go and you're like "right that's fine I can go back to what I planned." Then another lot come out so you then have to explain to that lot what you're doing blah, blah, blah. It's a bit of a nightmare'.

Peter brought the teas over 'I've only just started on this session so I don't really know the school, has any of the teachers ever observed you coach? 'No. Any sort of watching of sessions has purely been by chance, it's never been...' Frank interrupts 'Schools like having coaches in because the teachers get to go and plan, prepare and assess' 'Yeah. It was a case of "good luck, I hear you've got year ones today good luck." 'My experience isn't quite as extreme as yours but does highlight some similar issues', Peter was always keen to engage the coaches in discussion, 'some of which probably come down to myself being slightly inexperienced as well but there's been very little interaction from the teachers about pupils within their class, about prior learning or work that they are doing in other subjects like numeracy etc'.

One experience was very much like the children came outside, it's Physical Education but it's kind of structured play time really. The things I managed to do in the school content wise were quite good in terms of their behaviour, I thought we could have a full lesson and the work that we did was planned and structured.

But because of that there is a little bit more interaction between the teachers, maybe not on a good note but there's a bit more talk like "oh be careful this pupil's had a bad morning" and "this half term there's

a pupil; been banned from Physical Education this term because of previous behaviour which just insights a bit more engagement between myself and the teachers of each class’.

As ever Frank wanted to understand more about the school context ‘has this school asked to see your planning?’ Peter replied, ‘they haven’t no. I’ve only given medium term plans that weren’t particularly great any way to the Physical Education coordinator and she’s told me she’s looked through them and was happy with them but I didn’t get any feedback in terms of annotation and things like that?’

‘Do you think that because we’ve had the input from the CPD programme we are more aware of some of these issues?’ Frank was quick to reply, ‘I do, I think that sending a coach in to a school to cover PPA session without this type of input is *like putting a band aid over a broken leg’.*

Summary of themes found in the mechanistic/ outcome data in vignette 6:

Table 11: Using a realist framework of evaluation, Context, Mechanism and Outcome (CMO), table 11 presents the themes evident from the Coaches working in schools vignette.

Context	+	Mechanism	=	Outcome
Community Football coaches who are twenty one months into a CPD programme aimed at supporting them in developing the knowledge, skill and understanding to work in PPA time		Blocking – schools <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Schools not making coaches accountable for planning etc. ○ Teachers not engaging with coaches – no support or request for planning or lesson observations. ○ Teachers blocking coach development and innovation. ○ Coaches having to coach activities other than football. 		Coaches question the importance of thorough planning and preparation. Coaches get frustrated that their planning and preparation is not acknowledged by the schools/ teachers. Coaches get frustrated about how schools understand the role of the coach. Coaches being told that they must coach other activities other than

				their preferred football.
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4.4 Summary of initial outcome data

Did the CPD programme have a positive impact on the coaches who participated in it? The empirical evidence suggests that it did. This is perhaps to be expected as Robson (2002) states that most evaluations are neither totally negative nor positive and usually bring with them a message that supports change. Can we be confident of a secure causal link between programme theory and any change in practice, knowledge, understanding and skill? No. Can we identify the mechanisms that supported change? Yes. Although the initial outcome data does not provide evidence of the ‘secure transferability of knowledge’ and a concrete causality, this is not the purpose of a case study methodology (Bryman, 2004). What this case study does do is provide evidence to support our understanding of the ‘continued betterment of practice’ (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003; Pawson, 2006) for community based football coaches who work in PPA time. Therefore the evaluation has provided evidence that the CPD programme and its programme theory have contributed to improvement and learning (Stufflebeam and Shinkfield, 1985; Lewis, 2001; Robson, 2002). In addition the evaluation does take another step in relation to the continuing refinement of programme theories for non-formal coach education or CPD. These points are discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5.

4.4.1 Summary of findings

The findings from this case study have been presented using the realist methodological framework of Context, Mechanism and Outcome. The context findings show that the coaches in this case study did not have the knowledge, skill and understanding to work in school curriculum time against the definition of specified work. There were significant gaps in the coaches’ knowledge, skill and understanding in relation to pedagogical practice, including their planning and knowledge of the NCPE.

The findings relating to the ‘mechanism for change’ presented a more encouraging picture and show that some of the coaches responded positively to a range of mechanism used with the CPD programme. These included the practical coaching session delivered by the researcher / CPD tutor, the DVD analysis, the DVD of the lead coaches and the peer analysis. Coaches also reported that they found discussions with other coaches supportive. Additionally the overall programme theory of social and situated learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) supported the coaches in developing the knowledge, skill, understanding and awareness of the key aspects delivered through the CPD programme. The transient nature of the community coach role was the significant explanation for coaches not being able to meet all the data collection points and an influence on why some coaches were not positively

impacted by the CPD programme. This section also reports on some of the mechanisms that blocked the coaches developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to cover Physical Education in PPA time lessons. Notably, the lack of relationship between schools, teachers and the coaches and the perceived lack of support the managers of the Community Sports Trust provided to coaches.

Outcome findings show that the CPD programme did have a positive impact on the community coaches and their coaching practice did change. Significantly their ontological perspective regarding the meaning of their role as a community football coach developed. They were more aware that their responsibility when working within school curriculum time covering teachers PPA time was to support intentional learning and help the school raise educational standards of children within Physical Education.

The rich qualitative data used through the findings chapter aims to support the reader in considering the complex relationship between the context, the mechanism for change and the programme outcomes. The chapter attempts to create a balance between a clear structure and linear order, to support the reader in placing together their own picture and understanding in order that they can take on the role of co-analyst, making informed decision regarding the merits of the analysis and the finding of this study. This is further support by the technique of vignettes being used within the analysis, to provide a detailed and 'real' picture of how the context and programme mechanism worked together to form outcomes.

5 Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter continues to utilise the realist methodological framework of context, mechanism and outcome (Bhasker, 1978; Pawson and Tilley, 1997) to discuss the broader themes of coaches' knowledge journey, coach learning and the wider social and institutional context that influences sports coaches. The chapter is introduced through a description of the aim of the CPD programme and the research context.

The CPD programme embraced the social construction of knowledge through a social theory of learning or situated learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) which is underpinned by a constructivist epistemology. The situated learning was implicitly linked to the organic formatting of a community of practice where the coaches could participate in social practice and exchange with the class teachers whose Physical Education lessons they would be taking. The programme further embraced key features aimed at fostering deeper approaches to learning, that of a motivational context, developed through active learning both physical and cognitive, interaction with others, and a clearly established and structured knowledge base (Gibbs, 1992). Therefore, learning was seen as being both an individual and socially constructed process that encouraged coaches' to challenge their ontological narrative and reflect on their identity as a coach and what that actually meant to them in practice.

Consistent with realist thinking on evaluation, the discussion centres on the task of understanding continuous movement which occurs between abstract programme theory and empirical case study data (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003). This has been illustrated in the preceding findings chapter, in which the complexity of the evaluation case became apparent (Pawson, 2003). Therefore what are transferable between cases are not actual data or results, but the ideas and theories that they generate (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003). This discussion chapter aims to capture this through its themed structure in which the complex multi-dimensional components that impacted the CPD programme are considered. This approach provides support for the realist perspective on the reformist outcome of evaluation research, that of continual betterment of practice, as opposed to the secure transferability of knowledge (Pawson, 2003).

To contextualise this discussion the chapter first reviews the context and rationale for the research and the emergent themes that it generated. These then provide the framework within which the findings are discussed in detail.

5.2 The research context - Workforce remodelling and PPA time

This study has constituted a multi-method, in-depth enquiry into the consequences for Physical Education of the UK Government's 2003 Workforce Reform Act (DfES, 2003). As previously discussed, the Act had two-fold aims - to address teacher workload, and to raise educational standard. This research especially focuses on the introduction of Planning, Preparation and Assessment (PPA) time in September 2005 as part of the seven stage strategy to achieve this (DfES, 2003). PPA time allowed all teachers 10% of the timetable to plan their teaching, prepare resources to support pupil learning and assess pupils work (DfES, 2003). However the introduction of PPA time created an issue for Primary schools where head teachers had to find somebody to cover the class teaching for the time when teachers will be away from their class. In particular, WAMG (2005: 2) state: 'Schools should be clear that they cannot use staff in cover supervision roles to fill gaps in the timetable created by a teacher's PPA time. This is because there must be active delivery of the curriculum'.

The over-riding finding of this study has been that the use of coaches to deliver PPA time in the context of physical education teaching can be problematic. The research therefore concurs with the views of others such as Hutchings et al (2009), who reported that concerns about the suitability of using coaches for delivery had led the majority of schools in their study to change their arrangements for covering teacher's absence from the classroom. They noted a general trend towards Head teachers using more internal staff, other teachers and themselves, and although cost was cited as the main reason for this, concerns about quality of the provision provided by sports coaches were also a significant factor. In a similar vein, Ofsted (2009) reported that coaches lack pedagogical knowledge for delivering PPA, reinforcing Carney and Howells' (2008) assertion that in relation to Primary school Physical Education lessons, sport coaches with sport specific knowledge 'are not the answer'. This is the central issue addressed in this study.

Potentially, remodelling entails the reconceptualization of roles in ways that bring empowerment and social networking aimed at the development of new knowledge, skill and understanding (Butt and Gunter, 2005). For coaches, this means that in order to work within the school curriculum and cover PPA time through delivering specified work, they must be able to demonstrate their competence against its definition. This requires coaches to (i) plan and prepare lessons and courses for pupils; (ii) deliver lessons to pupils (including distance learning or computer-aided techniques); (iii) assess the development, progress and attainment of pupils; and (iv) report on the development, progress and attainment of pupils (Baalpe, 2005: 4). To do this requires a significant shift in the remit of coaches' roles, from working outside the curriculum to working within it (Griggs, 2010). In this respect the 2003

workforce remodelling act therefore significantly redefines the social context in which coaches, teachers and schools are operating.

The case study has provided a fertile site in which to investigate the implications of this change. It was evident at all phases throughout the study that prior to the CPD programme, the coaches participating in the research had been unable to meet the required definition of specified work. Their lack of curriculum knowledge, pedagogical awareness and understanding of intentional planning prevented them from actively delivering the NCE curriculum and planning for intentional pupil learning within its framework. The case study also showed, however, that when these factors were identified and addressed, by providing coaches with opportunities for development that explicitly equipped them to meet the requirements of this new context, fundamental change could be achieved. This potentially provides a strategy for addressing the problems that have prevented successful use of coaches in support of the 2003 Act.

The rich array of evidence that the research design delivered also indicated, however, that focussing on the development of coaches in isolation is not sufficient to ensure success. Multiple factors affect the successful use of coaches within schools, and changes are likely to be required in the structures within which coaches perform their role to support the development of appropriate practice. This expectation is explicit in policy, in the expectations that the policy of remodelling will involve “teachers and head teachers engaging in driving new, more flexible models of teaching and learning”, “exercising their informed professional judgement in leading a ‘range of colleagues’ to enrich provision and raise standards for every pupil, in every subject”, and “working with colleagues to be accountable for learning outcomes rather than for every step of the journey” (DfES, 2003).

The discussion now considers the main findings of the study in this context. Three key themes are addressed:

5.3 *Coaches’ knowledge journey*: this section overviews the coaches transition from their acceptance of a state of very limited knowledge prior to the CPD programme, to markedly different ontological and epistemological positions in the initial outcome stage of the programme.

5.4 *Coach learning*: this section discusses how the ‘mechanisms for change’ reacted with initial and evolving context to support the coach learning that led to the changes that occurred.

5.5 *Context matters*: this section discusses the institutional influences on sports coaches, discusses how the social structure of institutions – including schools, NGBs and Community Sport Trusts - impact and may impede the coaches learning and their development of the specific knowledge required to work in schools.

5.3 Coaches' knowledge journey

The 2003 workforce remodelling act and the introduction of PPA time in 2005 have brought significant change to the roles of all adults who contribute to pupils' learning in schools (Hammersly- Fletcher, 2008). In the specific case of sports coaches they have moved from predominately working outside the curriculum to now working both outside and inside the curriculum (Griggs, 2008, 2010; North, 2009). This role requires them to lead learning and have a significant impact on the Physical Education experience of primary school children, and this requires specific knowledge of pedagogy and curriculum, to enable them to work in PPA time and meet the definition of specified work.

From the outset, the findings of this study raised questions regarding the appropriateness of these coaches being employed to work in schools to cover teachers PPA time. Despite having formal coaching qualifications awarded by the Football Association, the coaches clearly did not have an adequate level of knowledge, skill and understanding to work in parity with qualified teachers and against the definition of specified work (Baaple, 2005). These findings support the concerns expressed by the head teachers in Hutchings et al (2009) regarding the quality of provision provided by sports coaches working in schools, and Mellor et al (2003) concerns in relation to the education and training community football coaches have to deliver in a range of educational and social programmes. Brown et al (2006) report that football coaches are not appropriately educated to work in a range of educational and social programmes and Hutchings et al (2009) and Ofsted (2009) both report that coaches lack the skills, knowledge and understanding to work in school curriculum time.

In this study, the coaches could not actively deliver the NCPE curriculum due to their lack of pedagogical knowledge and could not plan for intentional pupil learning to meet any of the four key strands of the NCPE. They also operated a very narrow pedagogical approach regarding their methods of communication, consisting mainly of command and practice methods, theoretically underpinned by a behaviourist approach to learning (Mosston and Ashworth, 2002; Morgan, 2008). There were many examples of coaches' lack of awareness of the difference between delivering extra-curricular provision and delivering specified work within the curriculum. At the start of the CPD programme, Coach 18 was unable to conceptually differentiate between the two contexts: to him, working in curriculum time lessons meant the same as working in an extra-curricular setting and therefore his practice did not

differ. This is an ontological issue that centres on what it means to a coach to work within the NCPE, and examples like this suggest that many coaches have not responded to the change in role brought about by the 2003 remodelling act. This is concerning in relation to meeting the dual aims of workforce remodelling addressing teacher workload and raising educational standards.

These findings are not surprising when viewed in context. Like those in Brown et al (2006) research, the coaches in this study were non-professionals whose experience came from either playing or coaching. They had had little prior education in relation to working with mixed ability, mixed gender classes of a national average size of 26.8 children at key stage 2 (DFE, 2010). Furthermore, none of the coaches had ever been asked about their awareness and knowledge of the NCPE by their managers, head teachers or class teachers. This provides an important insight into how the Community Sports Trust and schools understood the role of the coach and the knowledge that it required. It indicates that a much broader social force is affecting coaches' knowledge to work in PPA time and develop their ontological narrative.

The central factor shaping coaches' knowledge is formal coach education delivered by NGBs. Prior to the remodelling act of 2003 and the introduction of PPA time in 2005, coaches did not work widely within curriculum time lessons, but the use of coaches in schools is now widespread and schools are now the most popular/common environment in which coaches work (scUK, 2007). It is of note, therefore, that not all NGB coaching courses include information on the NCPE. This communicates a powerful social message to coaches regarding what knowledge they require – and do not require – to coach in a school context.

Although all of the coaches in this study held FA coaching qualifications, they lacked the knowledge and understanding required to work in schools; overall, thirteen coaches considered that the Football Association coach education course had not equipped them to work in school curriculum time. FA coaching qualifications, including those that post-date workforce remodelling and the introduction of PPA, do not educate coaches to work in school context. This is partly because this has not been seen as the purpose of formal coaching qualifications, which have traditionally been aimed at coaches working with football teams or players (The Football Association, 2002, 2004, 2006). As one of the coaches in this study observed, FA coach education courses *'get you involved in football to coach a team, not to deliver PPA sessions for up to 35 children to understand, enjoy and want to come back again'*.

This is a critical point that will need to be addressed in light of the professionalization of sports coaching in 2016 (scUK, 2007; Taylor and Garratt, 2010). More recently a UK policy statement on sport, *Playing to win: a new era for sport* (DCMS, 2008) placed the responsibility for the development of community sport

with the NGBs. In this study, by not providing the relevant content, the FAs coach education acted as an external blocking mechanism that was outside the control of the Community Sports Trust and the individual coaches. There are broader social forces which promote a false consciousness to the current coach education provided by the FA. In the context of social and situated learning theories (Wenger, 1998) the omission of this knowledge by the FA creates a boundary object or a blocking mechanism that prevents coaches from developing their practice, as also suggested by Cushion with Denstone (2011).

It is encouraging that this study showed that engagement with the CPD programme had a notable effect in addressing this knowledge deficit among the coaches. Many became able to meet the definition of specified work, thus becoming a more educationally sound option for working in PPA time. More fundamentally, in addition to the development of knowledge at a technical and pedagogical level, a broader philosophical perspective emerged through a collective ontological shift regarding the way in which the coaches viewed their role (i.e. the context of workforce remodelling and covering PPA time in schools) and their understanding of the knowledge and skill required to operate successfully within this redefined position. At the end of the CPD programme most coaches considered their knowledge of the NCPE to be 'satisfactory'. Few were able to name all of its key components, but it was of significance that the coaches had developed an awareness of how important the NCPE is in relation to working within schools which they had not had at the start of the CPD programme. As Blair and Capel (2012) have noted, while it is not a realistic expectation that coaches have the same knowledge and understanding of the NCPE as Physical Education teachers, it *is* realistic to expect them to have an understanding of what the NCPE aims to achieve, i.e. to physically educate children as opposed to coach them a sport.

The importance of coaches understanding their role in the broader social context is supported by Jones (2006) who highlights that coaching should be seen as an educational experience with the coaches' role being explicitly about supporting learning. Jones (2006) does not make this point in relation to community coaches working in schools but rather sports coaching from a broader perspective. This position is also supported by Bergman Drewe (2000) and Cassidy et al (2004) who emphasise that the role of the coach should be one of educator.

The coaches who completed the CPD programme reported that they felt the content of the CPD was important knowledge for a community football coach in relation to working in schools and providing cover for PPA time lessons. In vignette 6 coach Frank states that '*sending a coach in to cover PPA time without this type of input is like putting a band aid over a broken leg*'. The outcome findings from this case study therefore suggest that coaches became motivated to develop when they were shown and

allowed to act out the benefits and see the need for additional knowledge - including alternative pedagogical approaches, the importance and value of taking a structured medium and short term approach to planning, and the importance of developing their NCPE knowledge.

Summary of the Coaches knowledge journey

The workforce remodelling act (2003) has changed the roles of teachers, teaching assistants and any member of staff that works with children and leads or supports learning in a school context, including coaches (Butt and Gunter, 2005; Hammersly-Fletcher, 2008). With this change in role it is reasonable to say that all staff - teachers, teaching assistants (TA's) and external sport coaches - will inevitably require additional professional development and support through CPD events or programmes (Sloan, 2010) in order to develop additional and specific knowledge for their redefined role.

In this study, coaches' knowledge at the start of the CPD programme, for working in PPA time against the definition of specified work was undoubtedly poor: coaches did not intentionally plan to meet any the four key strands of the NCPE, and demonstrated a very limited understanding of the intentional aspect of pedagogical practice (Siedentop, 1991; Watkins and Mortimore, 1999; Armour, 2011). Their response to the CPD programme was however positive, and those who completed it demonstrated a relationship between the resulting change in their ontological and pedagogical approach towards their role as a community football coach, and their actual delivery of coaching sessions. The positive reaction elicited in this case study is thought provoking given that more than 100,000 sports coaches are working in schools (scUK, 2004, 2007; North, 2009). The next section examines the process through which change was achieved for coaches in this research working in this context.

5.4 Coaches' learning and programme theory

This section looks at the coaches learning through the mechanism for change presented through the CPD programme. It identifies how the CPD programme theory was operationalized through the programme mechanisms interacting with real world context and how empirical data can be abstracted and used to challenge or support the original programme theories (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). The CPD programme was underpinned by a subjective ontological and epistemological position that valued social and individual factors to situated and constructed theories of learning (Vygotsky, 1978; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Kirk and Macdonald, 1998 and Wenger, 1998). The programme was designed to have distinct phases with the aim that they would work together to support the coaches to 'consider' and 'reflect' on their existing practice and embrace, implement or reject the new knowledge the CPD programme delivered.

This section discusses the broad mechanisms that supported and challenged the coaches during the CPD programme and highlights the potential reasons why mechanisms reacted or did not react with the context. This is a complex and interconnected process that has at its heart the overall programme theory (Pawson, 2003). The phases of delivery have relevance regarding the order in which mechanisms were delivered to the coaches and the readiness of the coaches to respond at each stage. The process of the CPD delivery followed the main elements of the diffusion of innovations as presented by Rogers (2003) in that the CPD programme attempted to communicate new ideas over a period of time through and among members of a social system. At a very basic level the communication of the CPD programme involved; 1) the new ideas/ theories (or at least ideas/ theories that have not explicitly been used in this context), 2) an individual to communicate these ideas, 3) another unit, individual or group who did not yet have this knowledge or awareness (the CST and the football coaches) and 4) a communication medium, i.e. the CPD programme that connected the two units (Rogers, 2003). This leads to the challenge of evaluating social intervention programmes and the issues that they are not neutral and therefore they will always leave their mark (Pawson, 2003); they either work for or against change. Therefore the order in which the mechanisms of social intervention programmes are delivered becomes of importance and interest to the overall outcomes of the programme (Pawson, 2003, 2006).

The CPD programme was designed with an epistemological view that knowledge and meaning are social and individually constructed and that the role of professional development is not solely about knowledge transfer but rather to create a knowledge and understanding synergy, between the coaches' existing knowledge and understanding and the new knowledge and understanding presented through the CPD's programme theories and mechanisms for change. Moving between old or existing knowledge, understanding and skill and new previously unconsidered knowledge; embracing non-routine, problematic and contextualised environments (Armour and Yelling, 2007). Therefore the programme's epistemological paradigm is based on a personal subjectivity and an individual perception that involves gaining both opinion and experience in order to build meaning (Sparkes, 1992, 2002). The programme theory aimed to provide the coaches with a series of experiences that helped shape an understanding of the components that make up specified work, i.e. to plan, deliver, evaluate and report. The themes presented in vignette 3, 4, 5 and 6 demonstrate that for some of the coaches the CPD's overall programme theory did support a change in their pedagogical behaviour and in turn their overall ontological position a position that helps to shape their personal identity (Wenger, 1998) which impacted their approach to being a community football coach. The coaches whom the CPD programme did not impact had left the Community Sports Trust before they were able to complete all data collection points. One of the significant blocking mechanisms for community coaches' developing more bespoke and specialist knowledge is the transient nature of their employment.

The broader mechanisms that supported change and that can be identified from the findings are: practical and analysis of tutor video, practical and analysis of peer video, modelling, individual and group analysis to support social and situated learning. These can be further divided in more detail to look at the importance of planning, the importance of understanding coaching methods, the value of social and situated learning on the development of coach learning, the impact of Community Sports Trust managers on the process of change, and the approach taken by schools when deploying coaches to work within PPA time. These aspects of coach learning will now be discussed as discrete and also connected aspects that influenced or blocked the coaches' learning during the timescale of the CPD programme.

Understanding and defining context

The first three months of the CPD programme introduced the coaches to the broader context in which they were now working or were about to start working, post the introduction of PPA time. The context defining included three lead sessions, data collection, the NCPE and workforce remodelling.

The findings report that the majority of coaches found the first day data collection session a supportive mechanism. The theme of the qualitative responses was that the session made these coaches reflect on their individual knowledge and practice and the Community Sports Trusts current position as deliverers of PPA time provision. The second CPD session focussed on the NCPE received similar qualitative comments that centred on how the session had helped the coaches to appreciate an external context that they had previously not been aware, for example coach 17 wrote; *'It showed again how much we are currently behind the National Curriculum standards when coaching PPA sessions'*. The overall programme theory of situated and constructed learning through the delivery of critical pedagogical tasks is further supported by the findings highlighting that the session supported the coaches to start engaging in thinking about their coaching practice from a more critical perspective. The critical pedagogical approach of using self-generated examples (collected on the first data collection day) to support the coaches to reflect and question their own coaching practice is theoretically supported by the research findings on effective CPD by Garet et al (2001); Sparks, (2002); Armour and Yelling, (2007) and Armour (2011) who all highlight that effective CPD should be embedded in real world practice that supports the contextualisation of professional development.

The mechanistic findings create an interesting position for further interpretation of the context findings relating to coaches knowledge. As discussed in 5.3 there are clear issues with the coaches' knowledge, to work in PPA time and cover specified work at the start of the CPD programme. This is further reinforced by the data evaluating the first three sessions on the CPD programme. These sessions were

aimed at introducing the coaches to the new context in which they were now working, or about to start working. The findings indicate that the sessions supported the coaches learning in that they were required to consider the broader context and how their role had changed as a direct result of the workforce remodelling act of 2003. Vignette 5 highlights some of the challenges that the coaches faced regarding the initial reality of the CPD programme theory. At the start of the programme some of the coaches were not actually engaged in PPA work but had been asked by their managers to attend the CPD in preparation for working in PAA time, on the surface this seems a perfectly reasonable and morally responsible request. However vignette 5 reports on a lack of actual engagement for some coaches who were not delivering PPA time sessions and therefore the lack of direct real world context made it difficult for the coaches to adapt their ontological position regarding the value and meaning of their role as community football coach. They could not or did not need to apply what they were learning to their practice. The lack of situated engagement and practice therefore acted as a blocking mechanism against some of the coaches learning and developing the knowledge, skills and understanding to work in PPA time.

Findings do show that coaches who were already working in PPA time could make the connection between programme theories, the mechanisms for change and the context in which they were being deployed. This supports a specific component of the CPD programme theory, that learning that was situated in real world context allowed the coaches to develop value, meaning and personal identity from their engagement in the CPD and its application to the context of working in schools (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Armour and Yelling, 2007; Armour, 2011). Indeed these initial findings provide further support for the situated nature of coach learning and the theory that learning is situated in practice in order that new knowledge, skill and understanding can be embraced and developed with the complexity required for real world application (Rovegno, 2006).

These initial mechanistic findings support the constructivist and realist epistemological position that in the process of knowledge construction and coach learning, context matters, and an individual's awareness and understanding of context is important. The very nature of social context means that it changes, there are new policies and practices that require agents and structures to interact and work differently together as in this case study. This requires schools, teachers and outside agencies such as Community Sports Trust and sports coaches to collectively acknowledge the change in the policy context and adapt their practice(s) accordingly.

The initial mechanisms for change supported some but not all of the coaches to develop an awareness of their new role in the context of covering PPA time and working in school curriculum time. This is consistent with Robson, (2002) who states that all social intervention programmes will bring about some

positive and some negative changes. What these initial mechanisms achieved was to influence the coaches' ontological position regarding the meaning of their role and how they valued what they actually did as a football coach, working with children specifically in PPA time. The mechanisms highlighted to the coaches the difference between what they currently understood their role to be and what the role of coaching in curriculum time actually required them to do in order that they could meet the definition of specified work and cover PPA time lessons. The findings from the initial context sessions present a positive picture in relation to 'coach learning' and the coaches' thinking and reflecting on their role of working in PPA time.

Where the data do present a concern is in relation to how unaware the coaches had been regarding the issues raised prior to the CPD programme. As already stated the findings from this demonstration study, although case specific, can support the reader to reflect on their knowledge and experiences in relation to this contemporary issue that has evolved out of New Labour's workforce remodelling act 2003. Armour and Griffiths (2012: 206) comment in relation to case study methodology, 'to claim that findings can be generalized ...would constitute gross over-claiming. On the other hand, to claim that the findings have no application at all for anyone outside the case ... would constitute gross simplification'. In addition in other fields of professional practice such as medicine and law significant, learning and knowledge is developed through the routine use of case studies (Armour and Griffiths, 2012).

The positive point from these findings is that the majority of coaches in this study were open and accepting of the new context in which they were required to work and adapted their ontological position and their identity as a community football coach. This somewhat challenges the point made by Cushion with Kitchen, (2011) in relation to Bourdieu's concept of habitus in sports coaching. Bourdieu (1989: 18) describes habitus as 'the product of the internalisation of the structures' of society. Wacquant (1995 cited in Cushion and Kitchen, 2011: 43) describes habitus as unconscious development through a constant exposure to particular social conditions. Cushion with Kitchen (2011) highlight that a coaches' habitus is a powerful social force that coach educators should consider, particularly those whose interventions focus on philosophical and pedagogical positions. Educators need to be considerate of the social power of a coach's habitus and how it is impacted by the educational intervention which may be in direct conflict with a coach's entrenched beliefs and values of what good coaching looks like (Light, 2004; Cushion et al 2010). They continue to state that coach educators may experience resistance from individual coaches whose beliefs, values and experiences are being directly challenged. Indeed this did happen in this study, vignette 2 reports that coaches did challenge the content of the CPD programme, as they were asked to do. But a combination of time, social support via

their direct colleagues, specifically the early adopters, and the situated reality of practice supported their ontological and pedagogical shift in thinking.

The evaluation of the initial mechanisms for change support the programme's overall learning theories in that in the process of supporting change and coach learning it is important to define or redefine context. In this case study the defining and redefining of context was challenged and developed explicitly through the programme theory of situated and socially constructed knowledge and awareness, which allowed the coaches ontological narrative to be reflective and adapt in shape. As the CPD programme progressed, the coaches were able to practice their new knowledge and understanding as individuals and as groups of peers working in schools. This could be done organically through the social construction and deconstruction of the complex structures of real world practice (Rovegno, 2006).

The programme theory of situated and constructed knowledge, aimed to support coaches in reflecting on their ontological position and asked them to challenge their individual and organisational socialisation and to an extent their prior education as a football coach. The programme aimed to challenge the coaches' ontological position, asking them to reflect and in turn question what they believed the reality of being a community football coach meant. What did their role as a football coach working in school curriculum time actually look like, to them? What did they value about the role of a community football coach and did the role change depending on the context in which the coach was working?

The CPD programme supported coach learning by attempting to develop 'meaning' through opening up different ways of thinking about the role of a community coach. It provided mechanisms that supported the coaches with the opportunity to adapt their approach to coaching football, specifically to children during curriculum time PPA sessions. The findings do highlight that while coaches adapted their approaches to coaching during PPA time sessions some of the coaches still relied on their traditional approaches to delivering sessions during extra-curricular activities. Interestingly coaches' rationale for this is the time that it takes for them to plan sessions.

Changing practice

The CPD programme aimed to support the coaches to reflect on their current practice in relation to the broader context in which they now found themselves working, i.e. PPA time. Three months into the CPD programme the coaches observed the practical coaching session delivered by the course tutor. The session attempted to demonstrate an intentional approach to pupil learning by utilising the framework of the NCPE (DfEE/QCA, 1999) and in turn the definition of specified work (DfES, 2003). The findings show that the immediate responses to this practical session were negative - for example coach 5 stated

'I don't understand why the kids liked it, it was boring', (vignette 2). Additionally other coaches were challenging towards what they perceived as an unrealistic context in which the session had been delivered - an indoor astro turf at the football club's training ground. The rationale for the session being delivered in this context was for practical purposes relating to the filming of the session, in order that the session could be used for analysis and discussion during the future CPD sessions, thus supporting research on effective CPD being social constructed and based on actual practice (Garet et al 2001; Sparks, 2002 and Armour and Yelling, 2004a). The initial negative reactions from a number of coaches can be explained as the coaches not recognising the approach to coaching. This was an explanation given by coach Frank as the practical session took a very different epistemological and pedagogical position than the approaches the coaches were comfortable delivering or had been taught through FA qualifications, i.e. approaches to coaching that they directly associated with teaching children football, i.e. coach led and theoretically underpinned by a behaviourist orientation to learning (Nelson and Cushion, 2006). This resistance is supported by Cushion with Kitchen (2011) in their discussion regarding the powerful force of a coach's habitus, the coaches' strongly formed competencies and dispositions which provide the basis for a coach's practice. However, despite this initial reaction there were coaches who did see value in the session and could identify strategies and methodological approaches to coaching that were different from that they had previously been aware. Vignette 2 and 5 both highlight how the CPD programme supported the coaches in developing awareness regarding different ways of coaching, moving beyond what they had been taught on FA qualifications and through their previous work experience.

These discussion points are further supported by vignettes 4 and 5 which highlight how the coaches had not seen this overall approach to coaching, on FA courses they had seen 'bits' but *'no-one had ever delivered it on an NGB to a high standard and definitively shown the benefits of it'*. The practical session the coaches observed as part of the CPD programme was delivered through a constructivist orientation to learning that valued the synergy of knowledge and understanding (Vygotsky, 1978; Light, 2008, 2013). It utilised a child centred approach that allowed children the opportunity, choice and space to make and apply decisions (Griffin and Butler, 2005; Light, 2013), as highlighted through the coaches' reflections reported in vignette 5. Modelling as a pedagogical approach in adult education is seen as a lower order strategy for supporting learning, linked to a behaviourist theory of learning (Slavin, 2003). The CPD programme theory therefore identified the modelled session to be explicitly used as mechanism to support coaches learning through observation but most critically also through analysis and discussion (Vygotsky, 1978; Armour, 2011). Thus supporting the overall programme theory of social and situated approaches to learning; underpinned by a constructivist epistemological position. As already stated this

methodology also supports contextualised approaches to CPD in teacher and coach education promoted by Sparks (2002); Armour and Yelling (2007) and Armour (2011).

The practical coaching session although different from what the coaches had experienced previously in respect to its philosophical, theoretical and pedagogical approach did provide the coaches with knowledge through a familiar environment, i.e. a practical coaching scenario. The findings report that some of the coaches were able to recognise the different pedagogical approaches used and identify them as supportive to the children's learning. This mechanistic balance of similarity versus difference is seen as a key point in promoting the coaches to consider any change in their practice. It adopts a similar principle of balance used by Physical Education teachers' and coaches who when working with children attempting to find a balance between practices that support 'meaning' and practices that support 'success'(Rink, 2001).

DVD analysis of tutor coaching session

Two weeks after the practical session had been delivered the group of coaches met again to work with the course tutor to analyse the DVD recording of the practical coaching session. Coach Peter commented that *'seeing the difference that good planning and structure to a session makes had a huge effect on me and I am trying to incorporate these ideas and methods into my coaching'*. The CPD programme theory was explicit in that all knowledge and understanding both new and old was presented from a position where the coaches were asked to 'consider it', and therefore engage in a reflective process of accepting or rejecting what was being presented. The practical coaching session was therefore transparently delivered as not being a better way of coaching as Blair and Capel (2011: 500) comment, 'We are certainly not suggesting that the CPD programme developed a new way to coach, but rather it reinforced, explained, demonstrated, modelled and critiqued...' practical coaching which adopted an alternative pedagogical structure to FA coaching qualifications or more traditional approaches to teaching games (Capel and Blair, 2007; Kitchin, 2010).

The session on the DVD analysis of the practical coaching provided a turning or trigger point for the programme theory, indeed coach 17 commented that he thought the analysis surprised a lot of the coaches and for him it was the most influential part of the course so far. The findings support the overall programme theory of situated, social and constructed learning (Vygotsky, 1978; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Kirk and Macdonald, 1998 and Wenger, 1998) being delivered through critical pedagogical activities (Kirk, 2000) or tasks that supported the coaches to consider and reflect, making individual and groups decisions about the value of considering different approaches to coaching. Similarly to how Irwin, Haton and Kerwin (2004) report on international gymnastic coaches using DVD or video analysis to support

their development as a coach, the coaches in this study also found video analysis a supportive mechanism. Vignettes 2, 3 and 4 all highlight aspects of the coaches reflection and reaction to the CPD programme, with vignette 3 specifically highlighting the coaches reaction to the use of DVD analysis as a reflective mechanism to support their development.

In realist evaluation terms, the positive coach reactions to practical coaching sessions and the analysis of practical coaching sessions can be explained as a moment of ignition where context and mechanism react favourable together to create change (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Pawson, 2003). The coaches were in a position where they were sufficiently open to considering a different way of working. The CPD programme then provided a mechanism that was delivered at an appropriate contextual time and therefore allowed the coaches to develop knowledge and understanding for working differently. This readiness could be attributed to the build-up of awareness from the first three context based sessions that aimed to support the coaches in generating an appreciation of the changing policy and real world context, i.e. to work in PPA time they needed to be able to teach lessons against the definition of specified work and that NGB / FA coaching qualification do not provide the knowledge, skills and understanding for coaches to work in schools against the definition of specified work (FA Learning, 2008, 2009, 2010). The first three sessions (mechanisms) of the programme facilitated the coaches gaining an understanding of the broader context in which they were now being required to work, i.e. covering PPA time and meeting the definition of specified work; the sessions supported the coaches to consider redefining their practice in light of the change in policy context. Pawson and Tilley (1997) and Pawson (2003) are clear when they state that social intervention programmes will only work if the people they are aimed at want them to work, i.e. if, as like in this case, the coaches were ready and able to consider the messages that the programme is communicating.

On the same day as the DVD analysis, a session on coaching methods and learning styles was delivered using social learning in which the coaches took part in a practical session. The coaches commented on how they had started to use some of the pedagogical strategies and different coaching methods to work with children in their lessons, in vignette 2 Peter a graduate with a Masters level qualification comments on how he had used strategies that he had been introduced to through the CPD programme and that these approaches had been commented on by teachers. Jones (2006) and Bergman Drewe (2000) support the position that coaching is viewed more like teaching as a pedagogical process that is primarily about educating. Additionally Jones et al (2004) support the view that coaches like teachers should be encouraged to use a range of coaching methods (Mosston and Ashworth, 2002), this is also supported by Morgan (2008).

Summary of coaches situated and social learning through the CPD programme theory

This section discussed how the mechanism for change reacted with the coaches to support their learning and development. It highlights how initial and developing context, mechanism and coaches either ignited which resulted in 'coach learning' and a change in behaviour both technical, pedagogical or/ and ontological, or how mechanisms acted to block coach learning. Blocking mechanisms are discussed further in final section 5.5.

As with the elite gymnastics coaches reported by Irwin et al (2004) the coaches in this study found the use of DVD analysis to be very beneficial. This broad mechanism was used in number of different ways; the first being for the coaches to analyse and discuss the practical session delivered by the course tutor and researcher. This had an influential effect on the 'coach learning' and changed a number of the coaches' opinions regarding the merits and value of the initial practical session. The DVD mechanism was then refined and made more specific, with the aim of being more meaningful for the coaches. The video of the four lead coaches that were identified as early adopters (Rogers, 2003) was analysed by a small group of coaches; as highlighted in vignette 3 this mechanism proved to be engaging and empowering for the coaches and allowed them to develop a level of critical thinking. The coaches appreciated the 'reality' that looking at the DVD footage brought to the reflection and discussion, and commented on the reality of the DVD being 'hard evidence, you can't deny it'. This mechanism provides an excellent example of the socially constructed programme theory igniting with situated context to support learning, change and progress in the coaches thinking and behaviour. This view is supported through research on CPD (Garet et al, 2001; Armour and Yelling, 2004a) which highlights that effective CPD should utilise real world learning activities that were capable of stimulating ideas and are thought provoking (Armour, 2011). The reflections on the DVD analysis highlight a position that centres on the coaches wanting to learn and develop their practice as a coach. Therefore the findings suggest that this mechanism was delivered into a context where the coaches were receptive to change and learning (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). This mechanism was utilised between the ninth and the tenth month of the CPD programme. Within this time period the coaches were aware that their practice needed to evolve, in order that they could successfully work in PPA time, but were still developing their understanding of exactly what this might look like; the DVD footage provided some 'coaching reality' in which they could engage with and assess in a formative way. The four lead coaches were selected by their managers as individuals that could lead a small group of coaches and support them to socially construct knowledge and understanding and to consider alternative approaches to coaching that would allow them to meet the requirements to work in schools. These coaches could be viewed as early adopters of the CPD

programme theories (Rogers, 2003), coaches who could see how the CPD programme could have a positive impact on the way that they worked both as an individual and a Community Sports Trust.

Coaches also highlight how they enjoyed and benefitted from the social construction of knowledge and understanding relating to working within PPA time through the access to working with and learning from other coaches. The CPD programme made a conscious effort to encourage the coaches to discuss coaching issues, with the mechanisms like the DVD analysis actively supporting and facilitating the coaches to share their views, opinion and experience as they analysed the DVD. The CPD programme aimed to create social learning structures through localised mini versions of communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). Cushion (2008) questions the worth of a manufactured community of practice highlighting that they do not engage coaches in a sense of belonging and that they exist in a superficial sense and therefore do not support any meaningful learning. Culver and Trudel (2006) in a study that looked at the organic development of communities of practices found that despite coaches sharing the same physical space they do not necessarily form communities of practice. The concept of creating communities of practice is built on a group of people having a shared interest and that learning is facilitated through social interaction through real world practice and application, in which learners are able to construct meaning, and therefore develop knowledge, that can be more effectively applied to their practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). The findings from this study highlight that despite the fact that we have been clear for some time that coaches are social beings and operate in a social environment (Jones et al 2002) it has been more difficult to highlight specific mechanisms that support a socially constructed understanding and knowledge development within coach education. In this case study the social constructed mechanism of a small group of coaches, who broadly speaking had developed an open minded view towards considering and embracing different epistemological and pedagogical approaches to coaching, was supportive of their development and learning. A key mechanistic force that supported the coaches' social learning and personal development was the DVD footage used showed one of their peers coaching using a different pedagogical approach to what they had previously been shown on FA courses and through past work experience. The peer influence that this specific mechanism highlighted developed an 'I can do this' view amongst some of the coaches. A key aspect of the success of this mechanism was the timing of when it was used, the CPD programme had prepared the coaches to be open minded and knowledgeable enough to embrace the criticality and reality of the mechanism.

5.5 Social structure of institutions, schools as a delivery context for sport coaches

This section discusses the social structure of institutions included in this study, i.e. schools, NGBs and the Community Sports Trust and the impact they had on the coaches in this study developing the specific

knowledge, skill and understanding required to work in schools. The structural influences of the NGBs coach education and Community Sports Trust are discussed but the main aim of this section will be to focus on the coaches' central context for delivery, the schools. The section utilises the study's central theories of learning as a framework for discussion.

The National Governing Body - The Football Association and coach education

Data specific to the UK highlights that in 2004, 38% of coaches were qualified (scUK, 2004) with research in 2007 indicating that this number had increased to 50% (scUK, 2007). Research in the south east of England the location of this current study shows that 77% of all coaches active in the previous 12 months held National Governing Body (NGB) awards (Lambourne and Higginson, 2006). As a whole group the coaches in this study were well qualified through FA coaching qualifications. However despite the FA qualifications, the study illustrates that the coaches did not have an adequate level of knowledge, skill and understanding to work in parity with qualified teachers and against the definition of specified work (Baaple, 2005). Vignette 1 highlights significant issues with coaches' knowledge, skill and understanding to plan and deliver pupil learning within the framework of the NCPE. This is clearly an issue as WAMG (2005: 2) state that schools should not 'use staff in cover supervision roles to fill gaps in the timetable created by teacher PPA time. This is because there must be active delivery of the curriculum'.

However as highlighted in section 5.3, while the lack of knowledge on formal coach education courses relating to coaches working in schools appears to be a problematic omission, literature on coach education supports the position that formal coaching courses have limited impact on actual coaching practice (Schempp, Templeton and Clark 1999; Jones, Cushion, Armour and Jones, 2003; Jones, Armour and Potrac, 2004; Irwin, Hanton, Kerwin, 2004; Schempp Abraham, Collins and Martindales 2006; Wright, Trudel and Culver, 2007). Therefore broader social forces and false consciousness can be applied to the current coach education provided by the FA. The current FA coaching courses and FA age appropriate courses do not present information on the NCPE (The Football Association 2002, 2004, 2006; FA Learning, 2008, 2009, 2010). The FA's decision not to including information relating to coaches working in schools is an interesting omission in the context that the most popular environment for a coach to work is a school (scUK, 2007) and communicates a powerful social message to coaches regarding the knowledge they require for working in their role as a coach. This is a critical point that will need to be addressed in light of the professionalization of sports coaching in 2016 (scUK, 2007; Taylor and Garratt, 2010).

One reason for NGBs and specifically the FA not including content relating to coaches working in schools is that they feel that this is not the purpose of their formal coaching qualifications, as traditionally FA coach education has been aimed at coaches working with teams or football players (The Football Association, 2002, 2004, 2006). This was a view presented by some of the coaches in this study, discussing the FA coach education courses, coach 2 stated; *'they get you involved in football to coach a team, not to deliver PPA sessions for up to 35 children to understand, enjoy and want to come back again'*.

Despite the powerful social message that the NGB is sending by excluding key aspects of coaches' knowledge, an alternative perspective presents a question regarding the appropriateness of the bespoke knowledge, required for coaches to work in schools, being delivered through formal coach education. Is this something that formal coach education programmes can achieve? Coach education programmes operate within broad constraints, including financial implications, a wide range of participants with different operating contexts/ backgrounds, and requirement for summative assessments etc. Is it realistic that formal coach education can reach the depths of knowledge required for specific groups of coaches operating in clearly defined contexts? The academic literature suggest that formal coach education is too general; additionally there is an increasing critique of formal coach education not being bespoke enough to address the realities of coaching and therefore not impacting coaching practice (Schempp, Templeton and Clark 1999; Cushion, Armour and Jones, 2003; Jones, Armour and Potrac, 2004; Irwin, Hanton, Kerwin, 2004; Abraham, Collins and Martindales 2006; Wright, Trudel and Culver, 2007). Cushion with Kitchen (2011) warn us that coach educators whose interventions are focused at a philosophical or pedagogical level may experience considerable resistance from coaches who hold deep rooted values and beliefs about what constitutes good coaching. Cushion with Kitchen (2011) add this may be particularly true of coach education that comes from a social constructivist perspective attempting to develop a more coach centred or athlete centred pedagogy. While not disagreeing with this critique an alternative perspective would be to see formal coach education with its broad overview and its traditional 'training' or objective epistemological approach to the development of knowledge as simply one component of coach learning (Trudel, et al 2010) a starting point from which the expectation is that the basic foundations of coaching are provided. Research on how coaches learn suggests that their coaching knowledge, skill and understanding is influenced and supported by a mix of formal (NGBs, coach education programmes) (Irwin, et al, 2004), non-formal (Schempp et al, 1999), informal (Jones et al, 2003) and directed (Jones et al, 2004) environments. This position provides a clear opportunity for more bespoke non-formal coach education or CPD that supports coaches to achieve new depths of pedagogical and ontological thinking and

practice that is context specific, e.g. community coaches working in PPA time or developmental elite coaches working with high performance junior performers.

The Community Sports Trust

This section on the Community Sports Trust discusses how the trust acted as both an enabling mechanism for change and a blocking mechanism that prevent the coaches from developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to work in PPA time.

Vignette 3 'Change' reports on how the coaches perceived the support provide to them by their direct managers in relation to the CPD project and their development as a coach. The internal context for this case study and CPD intervention was the Community Sports Trust that employed the coaches. In relation to the Community Sports Trust one of the central issues relating to the coaches developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to work in schools was the influence from the Trust's managers. The coaches reported indifference or lack of support from their direct managers, who acted as blocking mechanism in relation to the CPD project and their development as a coach who has the knowledge, skill and understanding to work in PPA time against the definition of specified work. There was a feeling amongst the coaches that the managers were only really interested in the positive outcomes of the CPD and did not value or support the process of the CPD project. One of the possible explanations for the managers not being able or not being willing to support the coaches is that their role does not require them to actually coach and therefore they had neither the experience, skills nor the emotional empathy regarding what the coaches taking part in the CPD are being asked to consider. In addition their role required them to concentrate on a bigger picture regarding the deployment of coaches in schools, i.e. how to employ coaches in schools efficiently. At least part of their role is to look at the situation from a business perspective which required decisions to be made regarding expenditure and income generation. The managers were therefore perceived by the coaches as not being supportive. Although the coaches perceived their managers to be their direct line of internal support it is perhaps worth considering the knowledge skill and understanding they would require in order to undertake such a role. They would have to have at least some awareness of the knowledge (s) this study had initially found missing in the coaches. This is perhaps unrealistic and therefore this issue is also about the realignment of the coaches expectations of their managers. What we can take from this in terms of our learning in relation to supporting community coaches is that it is important to have internal leadership, i.e. a leader with whom the coaches could talk with on a daily basis who could provide technical and pedagogical support. This concept of internal leadership to support social learning is theoretically supported Wenger (1998) and in specific relation to working with sports coaches Culver and Trudel (2006) and Culver et al

(2009) who all state that when internal leadership is absent or taken away the development of social learning fails.

A separate but connected issue also surfaced in the first three months of the CPD programme. The issue is connected in that it was an internal mechanism that in theory could have been resolved by the Community Sports Trust and the managers it employed. A group of coaches that were employed by the Community Sports Trust, but were based in a different location to the football club, and the Community Sports Trust main offices, dropped out of the programme. These coaches were unable to travel to the CPD venues (the football club) and get back in time to coach after school clubs and their evening coaching sessions. This is highlighted in vignette 3. In essence the coaches' lack of physical access to the CPD programme acts as a blocking mechanism to the central components of the programme theory, that of situated and constructed knowledge. The social construction of knowledge required a level of physical presence and engagement in order that concepts and ideas could be discussed and reflected upon, while at the same time the knowledge and skills could be tried out and field tested in practical real world contexts. This is an illustration of the lack of support provided by the Community Sports Trust for the CPD programme.

Schools as a deliver context for sports coaches

This section focusses on schools as a delivery context for coaches and discusses how the schools acted as both an enabling mechanism for change and a blocking mechanism that prevents the coaches from developing their knowledge, skill and understanding to work in PPA time.

The workforce remodelling act (2003) has changed the roles of teachers, teaching assistants and any member of staff that works with children and leads or supports learning in a school context, including coaches (Butt and Gunter, 2005; Hammersly- Fletcher, 2008). Therefore it is reasonable to say that all adults responsible for leading learning in schools will require additional professional development (Sloan, 2010). There is a need to put mechanisms in place that support the harmonising of the different knowledge, skills and understanding possessed by the individual coaches, teachers and schools (Sloan, 2010). This approach would aspire to support the overall aims of workforce remodelling and allow teachers to work in more creative ways driving new, more flexible models of teaching and learning; exercising their informed professional judgement in leading a range of colleagues (DfES, 2003), including sports coaches, to enrich provision and raise standards for every pupil, in every subject. This would mean teachers would be accountable for overall learning outcomes through for example the monitoring of medium and short term planning, pupil assessments and lesson observations, rather than for every step of a child's learning journey (DfES, 2003).

The experiences of coaches that emerge from this study present a strong contrast with this potential model of constructive partnership. Coaches in this study reported that they had very little direct engagement with teachers and schools and found teachers uninterested in discussing the input coaches provided. Data collected early in the study and presented in vignette 1, illustrated how coaches on their first visit to a new school were 'left to get on with' looking after children for an hour with minimal input from school staff. The coaches' response to this situation indicated that at this stage in the study, they largely accepted this situation - or were at least unsurprised by it: it was 'normal', i.e. what they usually did and how they usually did it.

Vignette 6, constructed from a late stage in the study, highlights how coaches' experienced similar poor practice in one school within their partnership. Coaches again reported obvious disengagement - teachers at the school did not know their names, were not interested in looking at lesson plans, and did not engage in discussion about how lessons had gone. Occurring at this stage in the CPD, this experience was more negatively received by coaches and clearly affected their perceptions of their development and practice. The school's approach now acted as a blocking mechanism preventing the coaches from raising educational standards. Perhaps more critically, however, the school is also acting as a socialising structure and through its prioritisation of knowledge imposed a powerful social force on the coaches with the implicit message being that it is not important to plan and prepare a high quality Physical Education experience for these children. Coaches were now aware that guidelines for PPA required whoever is covering PPA time to be actively teaching the curriculum (DfES, 2003; Baaple, 2005), but the school's response in vignette 6 instead suggested "all we really want you to do is look after them and keep them safe for an hour". The indirect consequence for the coach was that if this is how the school was going to operate, he somewhat understandably questioned why he had spent time planning the session. In effect the school's response undermined the rhetoric of the CPD programme theory and presented a blocking mechanism for coaches who were in the process of developing and challenging their ontological position and their personal identity as a coach. This example can be theorised through Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998) and their work on situated learning or social learning theory and the concept of communities of practice. The coaches were peripheral to the school community physically; they were outsiders who came into the school context for several hours or a day at a time. In order for the coaches to learn and to build on the knowledge, skill and understanding they had developed from the CPD programme, they needed to become a member of the school community and foster social relations with the teachers and members of the school staff. Indeed according to Fuller, Hodkinson, Hodkinson and Unwin (2005) the participants' sense of belonging directly underpins the character and level of any learning that may take place.

The blocking mechanism presented by the school's ad hoc approach in vignette 6 makes the coaches' job of actively delivering the curriculum virtually impossible (DfES, 2003). Additionally the school's approach regarding how they utilise a coach acts as a 'block' to the coach continuing to develop the knowledge, skill and understanding delivered through the CPD programme. The programme theory identified that learning will be constructed through social and situated approaches to learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Kirk and Macdonald, 1998; Wenger, 1998; Cushion with Denstone, 2011). The school context provided part of the situated element of the programme theory and was the context in which the coaches could practice, experiment, accept or reject different approaches and methodologies that had been presented during the CPD programme.

If coaches are unable to practice the newly acquired knowledge, skills and ontology in 'real world' situations that provide a two way exchange between their selves, as agents and the school as an organisational structure, their new knowledge, skill and understanding will not get the opportunity to be consolidated and develop from feedback, both external and internal. Indeed there is a significant theoretical chance that new knowledge gained at an occupational phase of the coaches learning (Lawson, 1983, 1986; Curtner-Smith 1999, 2001) could very easily be consumed by knowledge previously acquired at recruitment and professional stages of a coaches' socialisation into coaching. This is discussed by Sage (1998) in relation to coaching and supported by Lawson, (1983, 1986); Curtner-Smith (1999, 2001) and Stroot and Ko (2006) who all discuss teacher socialisation. In relation to this, Blair and Capel (2012) have argued that if coaches are to continue to be used in schools which is a realistic prospect (North, 2009) they should only be employed if a school is in a position to take moral responsibility for the deployment of support staff and are confident that all adults who are in a position that requires them to independently lead learning can demonstrably meet the definition of specified work. This is a clear requirement if they are to support the teachers and the schools to raise educational standards in all subjects.

The disconnect between schools and coaches also occurred at the organisational level, in the lack of relationship between the schools and the Community Sports trust. Schools that featured in this case study provide the situated learning context for the coaches, who took ideas and strategies from the CPD programme and attempted to implement them in the school context. However as vignette 5 and 6 report these schools did not provide any feedback to the Community Sports Trust managers or the coaches regarding the quality of their provision. The schools did not hold the coaches accountable for any aspects of quality, nor did they require the coaches to demonstrate their competence against the definition of specified work. In theory if the schools had made the coaches and the Community Sports Trust accountable for their practice (which the coaches wanted) the social construction of situated

knowledge would have ignited with an exchange of views regarding the product (the coaching session) that was being delivered. If schools/ teachers had engaged with the coaches they would have developed a view regarding the quality of the provision provided by the coaches. This would have developed social relations between teachers and coaches that according to Fuller et al (2005) would have a significant impact on the subsequent learning of the coaches. If teachers and coaches had created an opportunity to discuss the lessons the coaches were delivering the coaches would in time become more legitimate within the school community. Again in theory if the provision was of a good standard and the head teachers were satisfied that educational standards were being raised, one possible outcome would be that the Community Sports Trust would obtain more work. The reverse of this situation is that if the head teachers were not satisfied that the coaches were able to meet the definition of specified work then one possible outcome is as reported in Hutchings et al (2009) that the Community Sports Trust would lose work, as head teachers would change their arrangements.

The lack of engagement between the schools and the Community Sports Trust acts as a further blocking mechanism for the overall programme theories to ignite in full, and is therefore an important element of the outcome of the CPD programme. The mechanisms for change that have sparked the imagination of the coaches producing a change in their behaviour are at risk from being extinguished due to the lack of critical / feedback and engagement from schools. This led coaches quite naturally to generate the perception of not being valued and in turn question the CPD programme's content and theory. A critical but supportive quality assurance process by the schools would have reinforced the work and effort that the coaches were applying to changing their coaching behaviours. The schools would then act as a supporting mechanism for change.

The outcome findings from this case study require us to further question if the dual aims of the workforce remodelling act are being met. The findings do allow us to acknowledge that for the coaches who were employed by the Community Sports Trust for the duration of the CPD programme there was evidence of a change to their practice and that there was a relationship between this change and the CPD programme. Notwithstanding this, we are still in a position, despite the change in the coaches' behaviour, to question whether the dual aims of the workforce remodelling act can be met due to the relationship between the coaches and the schools. In this case study from the perception of the coaches the schools/ teachers were not engaging in considering a range of more flexible models of teaching and learning and they were not exercising their professional judgement in leading a range of colleagues to raise education standards and enrich the quality of provision (DfES, 2003).

Coaches in this study proved open and accepting of the new context in which they worked. It was therefore appropriate for the CPD programme theory to be operationalized through programme

mechanisms interacting with this real world (school) context allowing empirical data to be abstracted and used to challenge or support the original programme theories (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Among the broader mechanisms that can be identified from the findings is the approach taken by schools when deploying coaches to work within PPA time. The schools and the Community Sports Trust did not communicate clearly to the coaches what knowledge and understanding the coaches would require to work in PPA time. By not engaging in a dialogue about the knowledge required to work in PPA time, the schools and the Community Sports Trust both conveyed that specific knowledge is not important for the role of a community coach being deployed in schools; or indeed that the structures of school and Community Sports Trust are not aware of the importance of this knowledge. Either way this lack of communication creates a 'false consciousness' amongst the coaches (Lemert, 2002: 15). This does not remove individual responsibility from the coaches, but clearly presents a significant blocking mechanism in the acquisition of knowledge the coaches require in order to work in schools and cover Physical Education lessons in PPA time.

Throughout the study, the research data repeatedly indicates a strong need for CPD provision for coaches working in schools to address how all agents can work collaboratively together. This may be especially significant in Physical Education where the use of external coaches to cover PPA time theoretically puts educational standards at direct risk. Using coaches to cover Physical Education in PPA time removes the need for teachers to plan differentiated work for the Physical Education curriculum, but schools' lack of engagement with coaches does not equip them to provide this in their place. Ofsted (2009) has suggested otherwise, reporting that the use of external specialists to support Physical Education lessons has resulted in high standards and greater progress. This is hard to reconcile with the data obtained throughout this case study which repeatedly demonstrated that coaches received only minimal engagement from schools to counter their lack of knowledge of NCPE. The disconnect between coaches and teachers is important: notwithstanding Ofsted's assertion, it is unlikely that this knowledge vacuum provides a basis for raising educational attainment in Physical Education lessons.

In summary the coaches' experiences of how schools engaged with them in light of their knowledge journey did not change across the timescale of the study. The static position of the schools paralleled with the expectations of the coaches which were evolving as a consequence of the CPD programme. As the coaches' responses to the same 'objective' situation changed, the schools' lack of engagement became unacceptable, and in the context of the CPD, had the potential to act as a demotivating mechanism that created the risk of reversing the individual gains made. At the end of the CPD programme coaches had higher standards and higher expectations, and the schools conduct fell shorter. Therefore the school context became disappointing and demotivating to the coaches. In relation to the

CPD programme theory aspects of situated learning were blocked through the schools and the teachers not engaging with the coaches who were therefore kept on the periphery of the school community. This defined the type or level of learning the coaches could access (Fuller et al, 2005). The coaches did learn through the situated experience of working in schools and they were able to develop aspects of practice that they had learnt during the CPD programme. However practice is negotiated (Wenger, 1998) and therefore in order for the coaches to move beyond a surface level of contextualised learning they needed to build social relations with the individual teachers and the coordinators of Physical Education.

The broader social context will always impact the success of any social intervention of programme aimed at supporting change (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). The three institutional influences on the sports coaches presented in this section highlight an internal blocking mechanism in the Community Sports Trust and the trusts managers and external blocking mechanisms, the schools and the NGB. However it should also be highlighted that in this study these three institutional influences are presented as blocking mechanisms to the coaches' development. The structural nature of the institutions means they are also enabling mechanisms that supported the coaches in gaining initial access to personal development. Without the NGB coach education qualification the individual coaches would not have access to working for the Community Sports Trust and subsequently without the Community Sports Trust, the coaches would not have access to working in schools and in essence providing for some of the coaches' access to being employed.

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter has concentrated on discussing three themes, coaches' knowledge journey, coach learning and 'context matters' - institutional influences on sport coaches. The themes have been dissected by the realist conceptual framework of Context, Mechanism Outcome. There is evidence that the programme theories and the mechanism for change have reacted favourably with the initial context to generate positive outcomes regarding the coaches' knowledge, skill and understanding to work in PPA time and meet the definition of specified work (DfES, 2003; Baaple, 2005). However as the coaches knowledge has evolved additional blocks to their development have emerged, including the perceived lack of support from their managers, the unprofessional and ad hoc relationship with schools and the transient employment of a community football coach. The case study methodology that utilised the realist framework provided a pragmatic and systematic approach to understanding how the coaches reacted to the mechanisms of change delivered through the CPD programme.

Armour and Griffiths (2012) discuss how stating that findings from a case study methodology can be generalized constitutes gross over-claiming. They also state that findings from case study methodology

have no application outside the specific case would constitute a gross simplification (Armour and Griffiths, 2012). The case study methodology adopted in this research has provided a rich site for the collection of data. The methodology and the data that it has generated has shaped an understanding of the complex relationships between the initial context of the community coaches, and how this reacted with the CPD programme theories and the mechanisms for change. The research process was supportive of shaping an understanding regarding how the social context evolves as the initial context and mechanism of change reacted. In this case study the outcome of this process was either the creation of a new mechanism that has the potential to enable and support on-going change or to act as a block working against change, for example the teachers in the schools.

A realist perspective on change is interested in how the Context, Mechanisms and Outcome's work together to form an interpretation of phenomenon under investigation in this study the CPD programme (Bhaskar, 1978; Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Robson, 2002; Pawson, 2006). In other words the research process and case study methodology helped develop an understanding of why the CPD programme was successful only in so far as it introduced the appropriate mechanisms to the coaches in the appropriate contexts (Pawson and Tilley, 1997; Coalter, 2007). Pawson and Tilley (1997: 125) identify the realist approach as 'each evaluation within a problem area is seen as a case study, and the function of the case is to refine our understanding of the range of CMOs which seem to have application in that domain'. This study has supported this request in that it has helped to refine an understanding of the complex epistemological issues surrounding coaches and knowledge and how this is generated through social and situated theories of learning.

6 Conclusion

6.1 The aim of the research

The social world is not static and is therefore constantly evolving. New policies are being implemented that require practice to change and adapt in order that developing problems and new challenges can be solved and standards of practice can be maintained and improved upon. The Workforce Remodelling act of 2003 had dual aims of addressing teacher workload while at the same time raising educational standards (DfES, 2003). The act required schools to change, to consider new and different ways of working in order that teachers could respond to the increasingly diverse needs of children in the twenty first century society but without working excessively long hours that would potentially put them at risk of burning out or becoming disillusioned and leaving the teaching profession (DfES, 2000; Thomas, et al 2004, Gunter, 2005, 2008). The last Labour government (1997 - 2010) aimed to address teacher workload and raise educational standards through workforce remodelling and introduced a seven stage response that was directly related to teachers pay and conditions and that would be implemented over two years from 2003 to 2005. This case study is centred on the introduction of PPA time in 2005, which allowed all teachers 10% of their time to plan, prepare and assess children's work. The study's specific focus was the use of football coaches to take Physical Education lessons covering a teacher's PPA time. The New Labour policy created an additional space for sports coaches, who did not necessarily have qualified teacher status, to now be deployed within the framework of the NC and the NCPE. Therefore the aim of the research was to evaluate a 22 month CPD programme designed to support community football coaches working in the school curriculum teaching Physical Education and covering teachers PPA time. The research sought to understand if and how the mechanism of change delivered through the CPD programme reacted with the initial and evolving context in which the coaches were operating and if this resulted in any change in the coaches' practice.

6.2 Overview of research outcomes

This section will aim to summarise the main findings of the research, my personal reflections regarding the research process and outlines the limitations of the study.

6.2.1 The findings - contribution to knowledge

The findings from this demonstration case study (Pawson, 2003, 2006) report that at the start of the CPD programme, the coaches did not have the knowledge, skill, understanding or awareness to deliver specified work in the National Curriculum and therefore cover a teacher's PPA time. The initial context in which the coaches were working was ad hoc and unprofessional with the coaches lacking key aspects of knowledge required to meet the definition of specified work. Although case specific the findings from

this study contribute to an understanding of the appropriateness of football coaches working in schools and being deployed to cover Physical Education lessons covering teachers PPA time.

The evaluation of the CPD programme does provide evidence that with the appropriate CPD the coaches in this case study did have the potential and the willingness to develop their knowledge, skill, understanding and awareness to deliver specified work. Therefore the coaches in this study became a more viable and educationally sound option for primary head-teachers in their challenge to cover PPA time. The CPD programme also supported the coaches to consider what the role of a community football coach actually meant to them, what did they value about the role of a community football coach. The CPD programme allowed the coaches to re think and re define their role as a community football coach. Additionally the case study does identify mid-range theories and ideas (Pawson and Tilley, 1997) that could be transferred and used in different contexts with participants who share similar demographic and educational backgrounds, i.e. non- professionals, with or without a degree, with FA coaching qualifications, who work in the school and community context.

Vignettes 3, 4, 5 and 6 all highlight the coaches' willingness to engage with the CPD programme theory and adapt and change their practice in order that they could be deployed in PPA time and legitimately work against the definition of specified work. The vignettes report that there is a relationship between the coaches' change in attitude and practice and the CPD programme.

The study contributes to new theoretical knowledge through the development of a number of what Pawson and Tilley (1997) identify as mid-range or programme theories that used together create the underpinning structures of an overall programme theory of situated and socially constructed learning. For example in this study a mid-range theory would be that *if coaches develop their knowledge and understanding of the NCPE and this is presented through their planning documentation, then they will be able to coach better lessons*. In theory if a community football coaching working for a different community sports trust wanted or needed to develop his or her work in schools covering PPA time, one way that we would be able to predict this would be if he/ she developed their knowledge of the NCPE and present this through their planning documentation.

The findings show that the mechanisms that did ignite positively with the coaches, and are therefore a set of mid-range theories, i.e. if we were to uses these in other Community Sports Trust to develop coaches we would have a good chance of predicting a successful outcome, the mechanisms were: practical coaching, DVD analysis, and the social construction of knowledge through working and talking with other coaches. The findings also report blocking mechanisms, most notably the relationship the coaches and the Community Sports Trust had with schools and how the schools engaged with the

coaches on a day to day level. In addition they identified the lack of support that the coaches received from the Community Sports Trust managers who in the perception of the coaches were interested in the positive outcomes of the project but did not engage in supporting the process. The transient nature of community coaches was also a block to there being a consistency amongst the coaches'. In theory if these issues are present in the context of a coach working in schools we would have a good chance of predicting that the outcome would be less successful.

The mechanistic and outcome findings also highlighted a swell of evidence to indicate that the CPD programme allowed the coaches the opportunity to question their ontological narrative, what coaching children actually meant to them; vignette 4 reports on how the CPD programme has given coaches the reason they should be coaching, 'because you want to educate'.

The study contributes knowledge regarding the process, mechanisms and learning theories that support community football coaches to develop their practice, specifically within the context of working in schools delivering specified work. But critically from a broader perspective the CPD programme theory and the mechanism of change it deployed contribute to our understanding of the potential of non-formal coach education or CPD (Cushion et al, 2010; Trudel, et al 2010) to support coach learning.

Trudel et al (2010) report only four studies that have evaluated non-formal (CPD) coach education programmes. Three of which were evaluated using a quasi-experimental methodology. Therefore this study contributes an alternative methodological position to previous studies that have evaluated non formal coach education or CPD. Additionally Gilbert (2002) and Cushion (2007) both highlight how most research into sports coaching is conducted through the positivist paradigm, using quantitative methods. The realist methodological framework used in this study allows for an understanding of what worked and what did not work within the CPD programme, and not just the outcome of the CPD programme as with experimental designs to evaluation (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). Therefore this study supports an advance in our methodological understanding of how research into coach education or coaches' knowledge can be undertaken from a realist / interpretive perspective. This, as far as I am aware, is the first study to utilise a realist methodological framework of context, mechanism and outcome to look at the development of coaches' knowledge. The study uses the methodological structure of realism and combines the epistemological position of the interpretive paradigm. This is perhaps best evidenced through the construction and use of the vignettes as a mechanism for communicating the study's findings, the use of vignettes supports the subjective ontological position of allowing the reader to interpret from the findings their own meaning and understanding (Yin, 2009).

6.2.2 Reflections on the research process, my perspective

Like the coaches I have also developed my ontological narrative in relation to my understanding regarding the knowledge required for changing and developing behaviour and values. In the specific context of working with community sports/ football coaches and a broader academic context that endeavours to theorise and philosophise understanding. At the start of this research project I saw great value in and prioritised the development of pedagogical and technical knowledge. This perspective has an obvious link to my own background as a teacher and coach, with knowledge, understanding and skill relating to the practical operation to teaching/ coaching. This position was further reinforced by the practical nature of the knowledge required to deliver specified work - the coaches needed to be able to, plan, deliver, evaluate/ assess and report. As a direct product of this research experience I now place equal value on a philosophical and specifically ontological set of knowledge in relation to supporting change. This is not to say that the findings lead me to believe the CPD programme presented the wrong set of knowledge, skill and understanding, because they do not. But based on the findings from this demonstration case study, my involvement in any future CPD programmes for community coaches working in PPA time would utilise mechanisms from this first study, mechanisms that triggered with the initial context, i.e. practical coaching sessions, DVD analysis, group peers analysis of practical coaching. But my reflections on the findings from this study lead me to consider that the overall aim of CPD would be slightly different. Future CPD would aim to work towards developing a shared ontological perspective between the managers and the coaches from the Community Sports Trust and the teachers and schools with whom they worked. This would allow Community Sports Trust managers and the schools / teachers to become supportive mechanisms for the coaches as they developed their practical knowledge (s) that would allow them to meet the definition of specified work. Reflections on the findings from this case study have led me to re frame the overall issue that a CPD programme would aim to address, the redefined issue being centrally about providing high quality Physical Education experience for primary school children, in lessons delivered by non QTS; and not about the development of coaches' knowledge in order that they can meet the definition of specified work. In essence my reflections lead me to propose that in order to support a change in community coaches' behaviour and thinking, the programme theories should continue to utilise the social construction of situated knowledge, skill and understanding but in addition expand, push and challenge the coaches thinking around what their role actually means to them, what is it about the role that they value? what is the role of a community football coach? and do their actions, coaching knowledge and behaviours match these values? The findings from this demonstration case study provide a level of confidence regarding future CPD pushing these points and being accepting or comfortable if initial reactions appear to be negative.

6.2.3 The limitations of the study

The study's main limitation was the uncontrollable real world context in which the investigation was carried out. As the researcher I felt that this was an important piece of work that would be a potential starting point for understanding the initial context in which coaches' work in schools and how they reacted to the mechanism for change presented through the CPD programme. The reality was that within the real world context in which this study was carried out not everyone felt the same. This led to difficulties coordinating the CPD programme, pragmatic issues regarding programming days, times and venues and despite the best efforts to schedule well in advance there were a number of challenges that needed to be reacted to and addressed with relatively short notice. The willingness of coaches to make themselves available for the data collection points was also a significant limiting factor of the study. This aspect of coach availability was further compounded by the mixed nature of the coaches employment status with some of the coaches being employed in part time hourly paid positions and some of the coaches being employed in full time salaried positions. The coaches who did attend the data collection points gave their time generously with most seeing the personal value and some seeing the more holistic value to taking part in an investigation of this nature.

6.3.1 Implications for Policy and Practice. This section suggests ways forward including the implications of the study's findings on policy, practice and future academic research.

The findings from this study present a number of implications for future policy and practice. The overwhelming finding relating to policy is that prior to the CPD programme the coaches in this case study were not able to meet the definition of specified work and therefore support schools to raise educational standards, notably within Physical Education. Therefore the findings from this case study suggest that if, as part of workforce remodelling act, educational standards are to be raised in all areas of the curriculum and non QTS personnel, including sports coaches, are to be used to cover a teacher's PPA time, then clearer guidelines regarding coaches' qualifications, knowledge, skill and understanding should be available to schools. In the Autumn of 2012 the Association of Physical Education (AfPE) published 'A practical guide for coaches working in schools'. This is a guide to support teachers and head teachers in the deployment of coaches.

The findings from this case study also have clear implications for the practice of coaches, Community Sports Trust (or organisations who employ coaches to work in schools covering PPA time lessons) schools and teachers. For coaches, the initial context findings from this study, although case specific, do suggest that if coaches are working in the school curriculum covering Physical Education classes through PPA time, they would benefit from additional CPD aimed at supporting them to meet the definition of

specified work. The view that coaches need additional education in order that they can work successfully in school curriculum time is supported by Hutchings et al (2009) who report that the head teachers in their study stopped using sports coaches to cover PPA time due to concerns regarding the standard of lessons. There is growing recognition in the reliability of this point, in part based on the content of the initial qualifications to coach taken by all coaches via the Football Association. As discussed these qualifications do not contain specific information regarding coaches working in schools.

The findings also present implications for the education of coaches. There were a number of mechanisms that did support the coaches to consider thinking about their practice differently. The CPD programme was underpinned by constructivist, social and situated theories of learning that identified the importance of synergising the coaches' knowledge from both old and new experiences, including the CPD programme. These findings have implications for coach educators who are working with specific groups of coaches who require a knowledge and understanding in order to work within a specific context. Knowledge and understanding requires not only technical development but also an ontological challenge in order that coaches can look and think about practice differently.

The implications for Community Sports Trusts are that if like the Trust in this study they have coaches who are working in PPA time they need to have a clear understanding regarding the coaches' knowledge, skills and understanding to meet the definition of specified work. The findings from this study although case specific suggest that if the coaches have gone through the Football Association coaching qualifications and received no additional education relating to working in schools then these coaches will most likely require additional support in order that they can work in PPA time and support schools to raise educational standards.

The findings indicate that if Community Sports Trusts are to successfully support coaches to work in schools then they should; ensure that the coaches are supported by the middle managers and that there is a middle manager who has an understanding of the challenges and issues that they are facing, e.g. in developing their understanding of planning for intentional learning using the processes of the NCPE. Community Sports Trusts should also develop their relationship with the schools in which they work. The findings show that from the coaches' perspective one of the biggest blocking mechanisms to impact their development was the lack of support provided by the school. This scenario could be addressed through the Community Sports Trust establishing professional working relationships with identified expectations of all parties, the Trust, coach, school and individual teacher (Blair and Capel, 2012).

The findings show that in the perception of the coaches in this case study the attitude and behaviour of the schools and individual teachers were one of the significant blocking mechanisms to developing their

knowledge, skill and understanding to work in PPA time. The CPD programme theory was social and situated learning with the school context explicitly providing the situated context for learning. In the views of the coaches in this study the schools and the teachers did not support them in developing their practice. The school and teachers did not engage in discussions with the coaches regarding the classes they taught, despite being asked by the coaches to do so, they did not engage in checking the coaches planning documents and they did not observe any of the coaches' lessons. The schools had no understanding regarding the quality of the coaches' work, or indeed if they were supporting the schools in raising educational standards. Therefore the significant implication for all schools that deploy sports coaches to cover PPA time is do they have procedures to ensure that the coaches can meet the definition of specified work and are supporting the school to raise educational standards? This will require the school to check planning and observe lessons and not simply rely on resume' of coaching qualifications or a reference from a past employer.

The findings report that change is significantly supported through situated learning and this learning would be further reinforced through feedback and engagement from the schools and teachers in order that coaches can socially construct their ideas and practice with an understanding that change does not happen immediately, it takes time. Therefore if schools are satisfied that a coach can demonstrate competence against the definition of specified work they then have both a professional and moral responsibility (Blair and Capel, 2012) to work with the coach and support their continuing development.

6.3.2 Summary of policy and practice

Presented at a broader social level the findings from this study allow for the consideration of some mid-range (Pawson and Tilley, 1997) theories for change that would support policy and practice. In this context the findings support the conclusion that change requires an individual or a group to react to a programmes learning theory. But critically when this behavioural (knowledge, skill and understanding) change is placed into the operational context in which it is required to make a difference to practice, it requires feedback and support in order that it is sustained and organically enhanced. In this case study the coaches would have been able to build the capacity to continue their development through learning in situ, receiving feedback and support from the external stakeholders, their managers and the teachers within the schools they were deployed. Therefore in theory operational change for community coaches not only requires a CPD programme that supports the knowledge, skill and understanding required for coaches to operate in the new policy and practice environment, but critically situated feedback and support from both managers of Community Sports Trust and teachers in schools. Or in other words the constant redefining and appreciation of an evolving context, by all the major stakeholders involved. As the coaches react to the CPD programmes mechanism for change the initial context is progressed, the

context is constantly evolving and in order that the change potential can be maximised the coaches need support, feedback and reinforcement from key stakeholders, i.e. their managers, their NGB (the FA) and schools. This support and feedback provides the coaches with reinforcement regarding the implementation of their practical skills and their evolving ontological narrative. Therefore theoretically change requires us to give careful consideration to how we ignite different mechanisms with an evolving context and ensure that these mechanisms become supportive to the individuals who are the central agent of change.

6.3.3 Implications for Further research

The realist perspective on evaluation research is centrally about the defining and redefining of programme theories and content (Pawson and Tilley, 1997). This demonstration case study has reported on how different mechanisms react with the context to produce positive outcomes. The study has also highlighted issues that present as significant blocking mechanisms acting against change and development.

The findings from this demonstration case study highlight several areas for future research. These research projects would aim to enhance the findings from this initial study and provide further understanding in relation to context and mechanism, aiming at understanding what conditions are optimal for them to ignite and produce desired outcomes of change and development.

- Case study or multiple case study research looking at the relationship between teachers and community coaches in primary schools.
- Case study or multiple case study research looking at the relationship between Community Sports Trust managers and the community coaches.
- Case study or multiple case study research looking at how community coaches learn to coach and develop their coaching knowledge.
- Case study evaluation of CPD projects aimed at supporting schools to cover PPA PE lessons. The CPD would include Teachers, Managers and Coaches.
- National survey research to investigate the number of Community Sport Trusts and coaches who are actively working in school curriculum and covering PPA time.

Coaches' deployment in schools and the development of coaching knowledge is a pressing current issue. The development of academic research in this area of study has the potential for direct impact on both the policy and practice agendas. Developing a clearer understanding of the complex social spaces that coaches, Community Sports Trusts, schools and teachers all operate has significant potential to support

the overall aims of workforce remodelling, to raise educational standards, and develop the experience children receive in Physical Education lessons taught by non QTS personal.

6.3.4 Conclusion

In the context of community football coaches this case study aimed to answer the question; what are the social and cultural conditions necessary for change mechanisms to operate? (Pawson and Tilley, 1997 p 77). The key findings from this study are that the programme theories and mechanism did react with the coaches in the initial context, due to the mechanisms for change being centrally about the development of practical real world skills, which were delivered through critical pedagogical approaches that required the coaches to, think, reflect, accept or reject the programme theories the coaches were also challenged ontologically. The programme required them to question how they operated and what they valued as a community football coach. However, despite the findings highlighting that there was a relationship between the CPD programme and a change in the coaches' behaviour and understanding, they also report some key blocking mechanisms in relation to the overall success of the CPD programme. The blocking mechanisms specifically related to the social and cultural condition in which the coaches were asked to practice their newly acquired knowledge, skill and understanding, i.e. relationship with schools, manager's support and transient nature of the coaches.

Therefore based on an analysis of the findings in this demonstration case study an approach that would theoretically produce a higher level of overall success would be to construct a CPD programme that explicitly included Community Sports Trust managers, schools and teachers and coaches as the participants. The programme would be multi agent and multi structure in its organisation and aim to synergise an ontological perspective through a critical pedagogical approach to learning practical and pedagogical skills, underpinned theoretically by social construction and situated learning theories. The overall aim of the CPD programme would be to develop the quality of Physical Education lessons that were covered by external providers, i.e. sports coaches.

This perspective on CPD supports the work of Garet et al (2001); Sparks (2002) and Armour and Yelling (2007) regarding the situated and social constructed aspects of development. Based on the findings from this case study and in order that professional development makes a difference to individuals and groups, there is therefore a need to provide support from within and outside their organisation. This point is also highlighted by Blair and Capel (2012) who discuss how coaches could be deployed by schools as an educationally sound option for primary school head-teachers in their challenge to cover PPA time Physical Education lessons, but they would be required to demonstrate their knowledge, skill

and understanding to meet the definition of specified work. If this is not the case the coaches would need to engage in additional professional development.

6.3.5 Epilogue

This epilogue was requested by my examiners who wanted me to give further thought to the validity of the data, specifically the observation and questionnaire methods, and to reflect on what I might do if I had the opportunity to start the research again.

As I have written elsewhere in this thesis, as a process, completing this PhD has been life changing. I have changed, I think more critically, more ethically and hopefully more insightfully, although I would acknowledge that this is perhaps for others to judge. If an aim of the PhD process is to develop you, to make you stronger, developing courage and fortitude, to increase resilience and skill then I feel I have been successful (Fernandez-Balboa and Brubaker, 2012). As I reflect back on the five, nearly six years that it has taken me to complete this study, and with some comfort that I have nearly finished, I can be open and honest about my development as a researcher. The starting point for this research seems such a long time ago, and where there are some 'clear moments' that stick in my mind, for example: the horrible mess I made of an early progression panel presentation in front of many of my peers and colleagues, the practical session in month 3 of the CPD programme that produced an emotional reaction from many of the coaches, the sense of achievement I felt when I worked out how to construct a vignette for the first time. However, due to the time it has taken to complete the research, I needed to search back through the red A4 books I used to write my field notes in order to write this epilogue. The notes appear better than I remembered, there is description of observation, but also my thoughts and feelings are documented, my reflections are clear to read. The next few paragraphs discuss my progress as a researcher from survival, success and significance, to sitting on the edge spirituality (Fernandez-Balboa and Brubaker, 2012). I will try to reflect back as honestly as possible on my successes and my mistakes and how they have contributed to my future as a social and educational researcher.

The, "what would you do differently?" question, was asked during my viva, I spoke at length about how I would enter the research context from a different position, i.e. not a Community Sports Trust but to use a school as the case study, and essentially ask a slightly different question, see chapter 6. We did discuss some of the issues that I had found when collecting the empirical data but on reflection the 'heat' of the oral examination was intense and I could have provided a clearer answer.

My reflections since, now incorporated in this thesis, have required me to reconsider the methods I adopted. I used questionnaires throughout all stages of the research to collect data on a range of different issues from existing knowledge, to aspects of the programme that the coaches had found

helpful or not. As you will see if you look through the appendix the questionnaires were long, and the coaches didn't like them, 'too much paperwork'. At the start of the research I leaned towards the questionnaire as a tool for data collection, questionnaires felt comfortable, from my background in schools where I had completed what felt like hundreds of questionnaires or audits, there was a familiarity. This is of course not a good enough reason or rationale for using a questionnaire; your research method or tool needs to be able to collect the appropriate data to answer your research questions and be compatible with your methodological position and the research paradigm you are working within (Robson, 2002). While the use of questionnaires did allow me to answer my research questions, I would now question whether they were always the best method available for me to collect certain data. Additionally, questionnaires did fit with my methodology or research approach of a case study. But was the choice of research method compatible with my research paradigm? The honest answer, at the start of this research process was, I didn't know. I was aware of research paradigms and had an unconscious lean towards where I've ended up, but was I clear about how ontologically and epistemologically this all fitted together? I'm slightly embarrassed to say, that I wasn't.

This lack of awareness or understanding at the start of my research leads me to question if I started the research too soon? Chapter 1 outlines my career path from school teacher and sports coach to university lecturer, for the first two years of this study my employment status was renewed year to year, I needed to show progression in order to have some chance of securing full time employment. On reflection and as already stated, with some comfort that I have nearly finished, yes, I think I perhaps did, start too soon, and where I feel comfortable shouldering the responsibility for this decision to start, I feel it is important to acknowledge the strong contextual influences. Therefore 'survival' during the early stages of the research was difficult and the feeling of stress, exhaustion, lack of balance, frustration and fear were all clearly visible. This scramble to survive explicitly links to the challenge my examiners have set, for me to further consider and document my thoughts on the validity of the data collected from questionnaire and systematic observation. My broad reflections on this challenge are that, yes during the early stages of this research, I was surviving, researching by numbers, collecting data but not joining all the ontological and epistemological dots, and therefore I accept that the validity of some of the data could be challenged.

In my examination one of my examiners spent time asking about the quantitative data I had collected from the practical sessions that some of the coaches had delivered. Robson (2002: 100) refers to validity as 'relating to the accuracy of the result' and asks 'Does it really correspond to, or adequately capture, the actual state of affairs?'. The data collected did contribute to the study's findings and I believe there was a level of accuracy in the data collected through the questionnaire and observation,

perhaps not always hitting the 'bullseye', but I did try to do a thorough and honest job attempting to explore and explain in an open and unbiased way (Robson, 2002). As I have outlined earlier in this epilogue my understanding of research and being a researcher has developed significantly and as I reflect back there are now parts of the methodology and the methods that do not satisfy the level of understanding and analysis I would now require. I feel that I have learnt more about myself and my identity as a researcher through working with methods, that now with my additional knowledge, understanding and experience I would not readily adopt in my future research. Completing this PhD has done what I understand it should do, it has changed and developed me, I now have a clear understanding of the importance of research having a clear onto-epistemological alignment from question, methodology to method of data collection.

The softer ending to this line of questioning came as I stated that this is not a research method that I would be using in the future, I'm a qualitative researcher! I quickly retracted the tone and emphasis, but confirmed it was unlikely that I would be using long questionnaires or systematic observation in my future research. This is a good example of my developing understanding of who I am and who I aim to be as a researcher. The PhD process has allowed me to develop a clarity regarding my current position and my ontological and epistemological roots. As stated this study adopts an internal-idealist ontology and a subjectivist epistemology and has clear links to the interpretive paradigm (Sparkes, 1992; Devis-Devis 2006).

The early survival stages of this study were further complicated by an additional factor that made things harder to unravel, and in a sense acted as a block to me understanding my own development. The dual role of CPD tutor and researcher brought together an area of strength (or so I thought), in the delivery of the CPD and an area of development in the evaluation or research of the CPD. I was experiencing a positive emotional state during the days in which I worked with the coaches, reflecting back this masked some of the less positive feelings and anxieties I experienced regarding the actual data collection, and indeed the methods I used to collect the data. I can only really now consider if, during these early stages, I understood what it meant to *actually* be a researcher (Fernandez-Balboa and Brubaker, 2012). I didn't have the presence of mind to consider any holistic awareness that extends further than mechanically doing the research. Fernandez-Balboa and Brubaker, (2012) suggest that this may not be possible for the novice researcher experiencing the survival stage of their career. I think it is worth writing here that I feel I do have this awareness now.

The ontological and epistemological clarity that I have gained while completing of this PhD has allowed me to be clear about my future as a social and educational researcher, the areas and issues I am interested in and the types of questions I would like to ask and understand. The significance of my

future work will perhaps be judged by the questions I ask and the depth of my answers (Fernandez-Balboa and Brubaker, 2012). As I have written elsewhere in this thesis my research interests have changed, I am still interested in Physical Education and Sports Coaching in a range of different contexts and settings, schools and communities. But I am now interested in the processes of social change and how coaches and teachers develop their knowledge, skills and understanding; how power, identity and an ontological narrative influence or enter into the thinking of any individual who works with children in a Physical Education or Sports Coaching context, and of course I am interested in the role of the researcher within this process.

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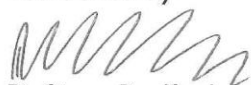
Dear Richard

RE11- 07 – A study of the impact a continual Professional Development programme has on the Football Community Coaches ability to work as an Educator.

I am writing to confirm the Research Ethics Committee of the School of Sport and Education received your application connected to the above project. Your application has been independently reviewed and I am pleased to confirm your application complies with the research ethics guidelines issued by the University.

On behalf of the Research Ethics Committee, I wish you every success with your study.

Yours sincerely



Dr Simon Bradford
Chair of Research Ethics Committee

Appendix 2

Football in the Community

Administered: Wednesday - January 2007

Venue: Football Club Training Ground

Please read carefully before we start the project, thank- you.

- **Your involvement in this project is entirely voluntary.**
- **You have the right to withdraw at any time from this project without influencing your current position and how you are treated as an employee of Fulham Football in the Community Programme.**
- **You should be assured that all participants within this project have the automatic right to confidentiality of data and the protection of identity when publishing the results unless their prior consent is obtained.**

The purpose of this project is:

- To understand the role of the community football coach as an educator.
- To study the impact that a Continual Professional Development programme has on knowledge, skill and understanding of the role of educator.

It will find out:

- How you view your role as a community coach
- What a community coaches understands about how children learn and furthermore what they need to understand.
- What Continual Professional Development is needed by community coaches
- How reflection is use by a community coach to support learning.

Please sign below if you are happy to take part in the study:

Appendix 3 - The CPD programme

Month	Theme of CPD provision
January 2007	First data collection day
February 2007	The National Curriculum and National Curriculum Physical Education Workforce remodelling
March 2007	Practical Coaching demonstration by course tutor Workshop of safe practice in Physical Education
April 2007	DVD analysis Workshop on learning styles and teaching methods
May 2007	Continued discussion on DVD analysis - link to Coaching methods and learning styles
June / July 2007	Workshops on: Coaching methods NCPE - linked to medium and short term planning Safe practice
September 2007	The introduction of reflective practice Planning for intentional learning - Medium and short term. Including a focus on formative assessment
October / November 2007	Filming of lead coaches working in a local Primary school. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lead coaches watched the DVD • Lead coaches watched the DVD with the course Tutor / Researcher • Lead coaches watched the DVD with group members
December 2007	Reviewing the Year - organisation for year 2
January - March 2008	Lead coaches working with small groups
April to September 2008	Planning and Experimenting

Appendix 4Questionnaire

Part A: General Information

Number

1. Age: (please tick)

18 – 22		23 – 27	
28 - 32		33 – 37	
38 – 42		43 – 47	
48 - 53		54 +	

2. Gender:

Male		Female	
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3. Ethnic Background: (please tick)

Asian - Chinese		Mixed race	
Asian – Indian		Caribbean	
Asian – Pakistani		White – Irish	
Black – Caribbean		White Other	
White – British		Other	

4. How long have you worked for Football in the Community?

(please tick)

Under 1 year		1 -2 years	
2 - 3 years		3 - 4 years	
4 - 5 years		5 - 6 years	
6 - 7 years		7 - 8 years	
8 - 9 years		10 - 15 years	
16 - 20 years		21 + years	

5. What level of football specific qualification do you hold? (please tick)

Level 1		Level 3	
Level 2		Level 4	
Pro License		None	

6. What academic qualification have you got? (GCSE, A levels; BTEC National Diploma; HND, degree etc.)

Qualification	Number of A – C's grades			
	1 – 5		5 +	
GCSE				
O level, CSE	O level		CSE	
	Subjects			
A level				
BTEC				
HND				
Degree				
Other				

Part B: How you view your role as a Football in the Community Coach

7. Why are you a Football in the Community Coach? Please tick no more than 3.

Supporter of the Club		Enjoy working with children	
-----------------------	--	-----------------------------	--

Ex professional player		Want to work in football	
Using it as a first stage for a career in coaching		Gap year (in between studying, school and university)	
Financial reasons		Flexibly working hours	
Step towards a career in teaching		Step towards a career in youth work	

Other: (please specify)

8. What is your favourite part of your job? (Select a top 3, 1 being your favourite, 2 your next favourite and 3 your third favourite)

Planning coaching session		Delivering coaching sessions	
Organising coaching sessions		Promotional work	
Working on match day		Telephones sales	
Working with children		Working with other coaches	
Working/coaching within PPA time		Maintaining equipment, i.e. cleaning bibs and footballs	

Other: (please specify)

9. What is the least favourite part of your job? (Select a top 3, 1 being your least favourite, 2 your next least favourite and 3 your third least favourite)

Planning coaching sessions		Delivering coaching sessions	
Organising coaching sessions		Promotional work	

Working on match day		Telephone sales	
Working with children		Working with other coaches	
Working/coaching within PPA time		Maintaining equipment, i.e. cleaning bibs and footballs	

Other: (please specify)

10. What would you consider your strength is as a Football in the Community coach? (Select a top 3, 1 being your greatest strength, 2 being your second strength and 3 being your third strength).

Enthusiasm		Technical knowledge	
Tactical Knowledge		Communication skills	
Planning coaching session		Ability to inspire children	
Playing background		Ability to work with other coaches	
Knowledge of coaching / teaching methods		Knowledge of how children learn	
Knowledge of the National Curriculum Physical Education		Knowledge of the Physical Education School Sport Club Links Strategy	

Other: (please specify)

11. What would you consider to be areas for future development? (Select a top 3, 1 being your first priority, 2 being your second and 3 being your third)

Enthusiasm		Technical knowledge	
Tactical Knowledge		Communication skills	

Planning coaching session		Ability to inspire children	
Playing background		Ability to work with other coaches	
Knowledge of coaching / teaching methods		Knowledge of how children learn	
Knowledge of the National Curriculum Physical Education		Knowledge of the Physical Education School Sport Club Links Strategy	

Other: (please specify)

12. How would you describe your style as a coach? Tick as many as apply.

Firm but fair		Autocratic	
Supportive and encouraging		Friendly	
Distant		Facilitator	
Educator		Motivator	
Teacher		Mentor	
Army drill sergeant		Innovator	
Traditional		Disciplinarian	
Inclusive		Specialist	
Thoughtful		Reflective	
Imaginative		Coach centre	
Child /player centred		Developmental	
Large and in charge		Structured	
Flexible		Organised	
Democratic		Relaxed	
Generalist		Pedagogical	

Other: (please specify)

13. If you had to place an advert on a web site advertising yourself a Community football coach what would it say?

14. Would you say anything different in your advert if you were advertising yourself as a coach to work in Planning, Preparation and Assessment (PPA) with the school curriculum? If so what would you put?

15. Why do you coach the way that you do? Please select as many boxes as apply, ranking them 1 being the first reason 2 being the second reason and so on.

It's the way that I was taught on Football Association Courses.		It the way that I believe will best support the pupils / players.	
I am not aware there is any other way.		It's the way that all coaches use.	
It is the way that my managers have told me to coach.		It is the way that suits me as an individual.	
It is the way that I have to coach because of the pupils and players that I am are working with.		It is the way that I was coached.	
It is the way of coaching that a respected mentor or person of great influence to me used.		It is a way that is supported by evidence on how pupils / players learn.	

If you wish to offer any further explanation or comments please do:

16. What or who has influenced the way that you coach? Please select as many boxes as apply, ranking your selection 1 being the biggest influence 2 being the second and so on.

Football Association Course		Your Parent's	
The way that you were coached		A past teacher	
A college lecturer		A Football Association Coach Educator	
A past coach		Another governing body training course	
A fellow coach in the community		A coach of a professional team.	
Other (who)			

Please provide any supporting information that you feel relevant:

17. What things motivate you in your work? Please select as many boxes as apply, ranking your selection 1 being the first reason 2 being the second reason and so on.

Financial reward.		Making a positive difference in young people lives.	
Professional development.		Working with like-minded and friendly people.	
Communication and leadership of the scheme.		Flexible hours.	
Working outdoors.		Working in an area that you are passionate about.	
Working in a job that you have a lot of knowledge and expertise.		Working for knowledge and professional managers.	

Other: (please specify)

Part C: Teaching and Learning

18. What does the word coaching mean to you?

19. What does the word teaching mean to you?

20. What does the word pedagogy mean to you?

21. Do you currently plan your coaching session, formally on a lesson plan or book?

Yes / No

Why? / Why not?

22. If yes do you save your plans?

Yes / No

Why? / Why not?

23.

Which of the two approaches below best describes your own practice?	
A	B
<p>Coach A says:</p> <p>“I like to be in control throughout the whole session, it is important to me that all the children listen and do as they are told. I have a great deal of knowledge and I know if the children listen and do as I ask; I will make them a better footballer”.</p>	<p>Coach B says:</p> <p>“I like to guide children towards developing their individual knowledge, skill and understanding. I like to ask questions and give responsibility for learning to small groups and individuals. It is important to me that pupils develop in a holistic way; it is much more than just teaching football skills”.</p>

Question: Please tick A or B

Additional Comments:

24. Do you or would you, coach differently when working within school time (PPA) and when you are working in a community setting?

Yes / No

Please give reasons to support your answer:

25. What does the word inclusion mean to you?

26.

You are coaching a class of mixed gender, mixed ability year 6 pupils within curriculum time (PPA). One of the pupils, Jack, is being disruptive refusing to follow instructions and challenging your authority. After the lesson you seek advice from teachers at the school, which of the two approaches would you favour:

A	B
<p>Teacher A says:</p> <p>“Jack an absolute pain in the neck, if he plays up again next week; send him running around the field. Then either tell him to wait outside the changing room door or make him collect the footballs, he’ll soon learn”</p>	<p>Teacher B says:</p> <p>“Jack can be quite a handful, it is important that he realises that his behaviour is not appropriate and that he understands why he cannot act in this way, so an explanation and a consequence from you is important. If possible give him a time out, say 1 minute and then ask him to explain to you why his behaviour is not appropriate”. It may take time but a consistent fair approach is important.</p>

Question: a) Which of these approaches do you prefer? Tick A or B

b) Have you used any of these approaches? Yes / No

c) If yes, which approach did you use? And why did you use this approach?

27.

As you get back to the office you are still thinking about the incident with Jack, you decide to talk to some of the other coaches to try and unpick possible reasons for his behaviour; you get different responses.

A	B
<p>Coach A says:</p> <p>“It’s the kid, he’s just a naughty little what’s it, he’ll never change, I bet the teachers at the school have trouble with him all the time, imagine what he’s like at home, I blame the parents. I wouldn’t worry about it. If he gives you trouble next week get him removed”,</p>	<p>Coach B says:</p> <p>“That’s interesting, what practice or game were you playing at the time? Is he a physically able child? Does he like football? If you reflect back on the session is there anything you would change about your organisation, planning or coaching methods?”</p>

Question: a) Which of these approaches do you prefer? Tick A or B

b) Why do you prefer this approach?

28. Rank the following descriptions in order of importance (1 – 10, 1 being the most important, 2 being the second, 3 being the third and so on; in relation to what you would like a child’s experience of your coaching session to develop.

All pupils have fun		All pupils are safe	
Good level of understanding		Inclusive for all pupils	
Physically demanding		Technically developmental	
Tactically developmental		Mentally challenging	
Develop other no football specific skills		Develop positive communication skills with other children	

Other: (please specify where you would rank this other?)

Part D: Your Professional Development

29. In your opinion do the coach education programmes on offer to you through the Football Association provide you with the knowledge, skill and understanding to work within schools as an educator?

Yes / No

Why? / Why not?

Please give details:

30. In your opinion do the coach education programmes on offer to you through the Football Association provide you with the knowledge, skill and understanding to work as a community based educator?

Yes / No

Why? / Why not?

31. What would further motivate you to work harder at your job? Select up to three options ranking them 1 – 3, with 1 being your first choice and 3 being your third choice.

Greater financial reward		Greater recognition from your manager	
More holidays		More responsibility	
More Kit		More Continual Professional Development	
To be part of a innovative project with the aim of developing football in the community coaching		Regular meeting with your line manager.	
Prospect of a future career in teaching		Prospect of a future career in professional football	

Other: (please specify)

32. Have you been on a training course (s) in the last 2 years? This can be any type of course for example an Information Technology course or a Cooking / Nutrition course.

Yes / No

If yes please give details.

33. Given a choice is there a training course that you would like to attend?

Yes / No

If yes please give details.

34. Do you think a structured Continual Professional Development (CPD) programme specific for Football in the Community Coaches would be beneficial?

Yes / No

If yes, please give details of why this might help.

If no, please give details to why.

35. Do you have any thoughts on how this might be organised and delivered?

Yes / No

If yes please give details.

36. Do you have any thoughts on the content of such a programme?

Yes / No

If yes please give details.

37. What would motivate you to stay working within football in the community for the next three years? Please select as many as apply ranking your choices 1 – 8, 1 being first choice, 2 being the second choice and so on

Financial reward		Greater recognition from your manager	
------------------	--	---------------------------------------	--

More holidays		More responsibility	
More Kit		More Continual Professional Development	
To be part of a innovative project with the aim of developing football in the community coaching		Regular meeting with your line manager.	
Travel overseas as a representative of the scheme		National recognition for excellence within Football in the Community	

Other: (please specify)

38. Where would you see yourself in three years time? Select up to three options ranking them 1 – 3, with 1 being your first choice and 2 being your second choice and 3 being your third choice.

Still working within football in the community as a coach		Still working within Football	
Still working within football in the community as a manager		Change of career	
Not working		Still working within Sport	
Working within education		Working for yourself	
Don't know		Hopefully won the lottery	
Career as a teacher		Career in youth work	
Working abroad		A coach educator for PPA time coaching	

Other: (please specify)

Are there any factors that have influence this choice?

39. If you could ask for three things to make your work life more fulfilling, what would they be?

1.

2.

3.

Appendix 5

1. Data Collection

Did the data collection day January 2007 support you in *reflecting* on your own practice as a coach?

Please tick 1 = not supportive 2 = not very supportive 3 = supportive 4 = very supportive and 5 = extremely supportive

1	2	3	4	5

Was there any activity during the day that particularly supported you reflecting on your own coaching practice? Or any activity that you felt did not support you in reflecting on your own coaching practice? Please explain your answer.

Do you have any feedback to how the day might be done differently (i.e. better) if it were to be done again?

2. Presentation on the National Curriculum Physical Education

Did the presentation on the NCPE support you in *reflecting* on your own practice as a coach working within the NCPE framework?

Please tick 1 = not supportive 2 = not very supportive 3 = supportive 4 = very supportive and 5 = extremely supportive

1	2	3	4	5

Did the presentation allow you to think about your own practice particularly while working with pupils within PPA time? Please explain your answer.

3. Presentation on the origins of PPA – Workforce Reform.

Did the presentation on the workforce reform support you in *reflecting* on your own practice as a coach working within the NCPE framework?

Please tick 1 = not supportive 2 = not very supportive 3 = supportive 4 = very supportive and 5 = extremely supportive

1	2	3	4	5

Did the presentation allow you to think about your own practice particularly while working with pupils within PPA time? Please explain your answer.

4. Practical Coaching

Did the practical coaching session support you in *reflecting* on your own practice as a coach?

Please tick 1 = not supportive 2 = not very supportive 3 = supportive 4 = very supportive and 5 = extremely supportive

1	2	3	4	5

Did the practical coaching session support you in reflecting on your own practice? Please give details about what you found interesting and helpful and what you found confusing, unhelpful or in your opinion possibly unrealistic.

Do you have any feedback to how the day might be done differently (i.e. better) if it were to be done again?

5. DVD Analysis

Did reviewing the DVD of the practical coaching session support you in **reflecting** on your own practice as a coach?

Please tick 1 = not supportive 2 = not very supportive 3 = supportive 4 = very supportive and 5 = extremely supportive

1	2	3	4	5

Did the DVD analysis of the practical coaching session support you in reflecting on your own practice? Please give details about what you found interesting and helpful and what you found confusing or unhelpful.

Do you have any feedback to how the day might be done differently (i.e. better) if it were to be done again?

6. Practical – How we learn and teach/ coach

Did the practical session on learning styles and teaching methods support you in *reflecting* on your own practice as a coach?

Please tick 1 = not supportive 2 = not very supportive 3 = supportive 4 = very supportive and 5 = extremely supportive

1	2	3	4	5

Did the learning styles and teaching methods support you in reflecting on your own practice? Please give details about what you found interesting and helpful and what you found confusing or unhelpful.

Do you have any feedback to how the day might be done differently (i.e. better) if it were to be done again?

7. Individual DVD analysis

Some of you have had the opportunity to be videoed and then have your practice evaluated and supported through an hour long one on one meeting. You are able to complete the next section.

For those who haven't been offered this opportunity as yet we are now in a position to do so, if you would like a 30 minute DVD of you coaching with a hour long tutorial to support your individual reflection please indicate below. It must be made very clear that this is not a mandatory requirement but it will support you in meeting certain standards. Your decision will have no negative impact on your participation on the course or your role as a community football coach with the Fulham Football Club Community Sports Trust. However at a future date there would be an interest in further understanding the reasons behind your decision, again this would not be a mandatory requirement.

- I would like a DVD of my coaching, please tick and sign below.

Tick: Signature

Did the DVD and tutorial support you in **reflecting** on your own practice as a coach?

Please tick 1 = not supportive 2 = not very supportive 3 = supportive 4 = very supportive and 5 = extremely supportive

1	2	3	4	5

Did the DVD and tutorial support you in reflecting on your own practice? Please give details about what you found interesting and helpful and what you found confusing or unhelpful.

Do you have any feedback to how the day might be done differently (i.e. better) if it were to be done again?

8. General Feedback / Comments

Please supply any general feedback / comments in relation to how the programme has or has not supported you to reflect on your practice as a coach.

9. Additional Information

Are there any other areas relating to your practice as a coach that you would like support with?

Appendix 6

Questionnaire

Football in the Community Coaches

Questions will be asked on four key areas of development covered within the coach education programme delivered throughout the calendar year of 2007. These areas are pedagogy, reflection (this will include questions on how the coaches view their role), the National Curriculum Physical Education (NCPE) and curriculum planning. In addition there will be five questions on the organisation and support of the programme

Planning:

- 1) How do you plan your lessons?

- 2) What do you include in your lesson plans?

3) What do you understand by the term progression?

4) Do you plan for a sequence of lessons? If yes, How do you do this? If no can you provide a reason for this?

5) Can you identify any areas relating to your planning that you feel you need further support?

6) Did the 2007 coach education programme influence your attitude towards planning? Yes / No please provide an explanation

Pedagogy:

7) Over the last 12 months have you changed, adapted or modified the way that you coach?

Yes / No (please circle)

Please provide any reasons as to why you have done this.

If the answer is yes please answer questions, 6, 7 and 8. If your answer was no go to question 9

8) Can you identify any specific behaviours or strategies that you now adopt as a direct influence of the 2007 coach education programme that you have participated in?

9) Can you describe your understanding of the aims of Physical Education lessons?

10) Can you identify the range of delivery methods (teaching styles / methods) that you use within your lessons? And given an explanation for why you would use them.

Reflection:

11) If you were placing an advert in a local newspaper or web site advertising your services as a community football coach able to work within PPA time what would you say?

12) Can you identify different ways in which you have developed your knowledge, skill and understanding of coaching?

13) What aspect of the coach education programme was the most influential on your development as a coach?

14) Why do you think that reflection is an important aspect of coaching?

15) What additional professional development opportunities do you think would be appropriate for a community football coach working in PPA time?

The National Curriculum Physical Education (NCPE):

16) Can you name the six areas of activity in the NCPE?

17) Can you name the four assessment strands of the NCPE?

18) Can you name the year groups that are currently in key stage 2?

19) Why would it be important for a coach working in PPA time to have knowledge and understanding of the NCPE?

20) How would you describe your knowledge and understanding of the NCPE?

Very poor	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Very good

Please provide additional information:

21) Can you identify and future support that you would require in specific relation to the NCPE?

Organisational information

22) How would you rank the importance of this project in relation to your role as a community coach?

Completely unimportant	Not very important	Important	Very important	Extremely important

Please provide supporting comments:

23) How would you describe the importance placed on continuous development (coach education) by your managers?

Completely unimportant	Not very important	Important	Very important	Extremely important

Please provide supporting comments:

24) Do you feel that your managers have supported you in developing your knowledge as a coach, with specific reference to this project?

25) How would you describe the general organisation of the 2007 coach education programme?

Very poor	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Very Good

26) Can you provide any specific examples?

27) How did you find the approach of a six hour workshop once a month with an additional support day also once a month?

28) What aspect of the project did you enjoyed the most?

29) Which aspect of the project did you enjoy the least?

Draft Interview guide:

- 1) How did you feel the practical coaching session went?

- 2) What approaches / methods do you use when coaching children in schools?

- 3) How would you describe your knowledge of the NCPE?

- 4) How did you acquire and develop this knowledge?
 - How does the coach feel about this?

- 5) As anyone talk with you about knowledge of the NCPE?
 - Managers
 - Coaches
 - Teachers
 - School Sports Coordinators / Sports Development

Appendix 8 - Draft interview guide

DVD analysis - a mechanism for change:

- 1) How did you find the DVD analysis of the coaching session led by me?
 - Supportive
 - Barriers

- 2) How did you find looking at Coach X video of his coaching session?
 - Supportive
 - Barriers

- 3) How could the use of filming be used to support community coaches developing their knowledge, skills and understanding to work in curriculum time and cover PPA time PE lessons?
 - Supportive
 - Barriers

- 4) How did you find going through and reviewing the DVD together?
 - Supportive
 - Barriers

- 1) Could you discuss the CPD programme - aspects you liked and aspects you have disliked?

- 2) Can you identify aspects of the programme that have supported you to change your practice?
 - Aspects that you feel have not worked - even had a negative impact on your practice?

- 3) Has the programme supported you with your planning for intentional learning?
 - Barriers
 - Further support

- 4) How did you find the DVD filming?
 - Barriers
 - Further support

Appendix 10 - Draft interview guide

- 1) How has the CPD programme impacted your coaching?
 - Content change
 - Pedagogical change

- 2) Working with schools
 - Your understanding, knowledge and skill
 - Schools perspective

- 3) Knowledge of
 - NCPE
 - Planning
 - Pedagogy

- 4) Group work
 - Why it worked
 - Why it didn't work - barriers

- 5) The Community Sports Trust
 - Managers

- 6) Structure of the CPD programme
 - Positives
 - Negative
 - What could have been done differently

The individual coaches – Context, Mechanisms and Outcomes

Coach 1

Age	Gender	Graduate / non graduate	Level of coaching qualification	Years as a community coach
22 - 27	Male	N G	Level 2	4 – 5

Context: Initial context data collected prior to the CPD intervention reports that coach 1 considered his strengths as a community football coach to be; enthusiasm, ability to inspire children and technical knowledge. He identifies that an area for future development is knowledge of the NCPE. His coaching style has developed through informal observation of other coaches, taking their approach and adapting it to suit him. Coach 1 wrote that he did not plan any of his coaching sessions on a session plan, he supported this by writing... 'because I find it easier to plan in my head'. His knowledge of the NCPE was literally nothing. His view regarding F.A. course was that they provided input on skills... 'but works in an ideal world situation where every child is well behaved and wants to learn'. He felt that a CPD programme aimed at supporting community football coaches would be a good idea and he felt that this could be delivered through outside coach educators coming in and showing different sessions.

Mechanism:

Programme input	Level of support	Comment (s)
Data Collection	2	'The questions made me think a little about my own coaching practice, however not in any real depth'.
Presentation on NCPE	3	'Started to give me an insight, which gave me a better understanding of what PPA should be and subsequently suggested we no -where near this level of competence'.
Presentation on PPA time	3	'Again provided me with a greater baseline knowledge which upon reflection suggested we as a trust need to re- evaluate our codes of conduct'.
Practical Coaching	2	'I had a task which meant I had my head down for most

		of session and was unable to view many aspects’.
DVD analysis	5	‘This was my first real look at the session and I was able to take away many aspects of good practice. For example laying out a multi-purpose work area which can easily be adapt the session progresses and the body language of the coach (getting down to their level)’. ‘...this was the stand out moment of the course to date’.
Practical – How we learn and Coach	4	‘Yes this is the one aspect that has influenced my coaching the most. I now incorporate many different learning styles in my sessions such as guided discovery’.
Individual DVD analysis	N/A	
<p>General feedback:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I am enjoying the course 2. Too much reliance on full – time member of the CST to provide equipment for practice sessions. 3. Session plans I understand the importance but am struggling to find time to complete. 4. The presence of the managers make me feel that I must always be vocal and if I’m not I feel they are judging me in a negative light. <p>Areas for further support:</p> <p>We never stop learning and the more information and practices we gain through this course can only be of benefit.</p>		

Outcome: Coach 1 now plans his coaching sessions on a lesson plan, he states that he does understand the importance of planning in the medium term but at the present time is planning week to week. He is clear that the CPD programme has influenced his attitude towards planning, stating ‘It showed me that planning a session is vital for the learning of the players / student. If I don’t plan my session, I don’t know what I want them to learn and if I don’t know how can they?’. Pedagogically coach 1 reports that he has changed his style in two ways, his manner and the physical set up or environment which he creates. In addition he reports being much more reflective during the sessions, he talks less allowing the children to make more decisions. He identifies that his developing pedagogical knowledge has been the most influential aspect of the programme, the mechanism he enjoyed the most was reflecting on the coaching DVD’s. His knowledge of the NCPE has improved and he now describes it as satisfactory. Regarding the importance of the CPD for community coaches he felt that it was extremely important, highlighting that; ‘PPA is where the business is moving towards if you are not up to it you will fall behind’. He also felt that

the managers felt that the CPD was extremely important. He felt the organisation of the CPD programme was 'Good', although did write, that not everyone seems to be informed, dates sometimes conflict'.

Coach 4

Age	Gender	Graduate / non graduate	Level of coaching qualification	Years as a community coach
33 –37	Male	N G	Level 3	15

Context: Initial context data collected prior to the CPD intervention reports that coach 4 considered his strengths to be; communication skills, enthusiasm and ability to inspire children. He did identify an area to develop as knowledge of the NCPE. He felt that he had developed a coaching style that is first and foremost 'Safe' but also allowed 'players' to have fun while learning new things. He stated that he 'sometimes' used lesson plans depending on who was going to coach. As he identified his knowledge of the NCPE was literally nothing. He did not feel that F.A. courses support community coaches working in schools covering PPA time. He felt that a CPD programme aimed at coaches working in schools would be beneficial and could be delivered through in service days with coaches sharing information.

Mechanism:

Programme input	Level of support	Comment (s)
Data Collection	4	No comment
Presentation on NCPE	3	It was useful but because it was all so new to me I didn't really understand it that much'.
Presentation on PPA time	3	'It made me aware that I am not educating children as well as I possibly could'.
Practical Coaching	5	'It was very useful to see how a coach can be an educator and the different skill you can use to help children have a better understanding'.
DVD analysis	4	'Seeing the difference that good planning and structure to a session makes had a huge effect on me and I am trying to incorporate these ideas and

		methods into my coaching’.
Practical – How we learn and Coach	4	‘I found it very useful but I would like to have another session around this subject to get some more ideas on how best to use the different methods’.
Individual DVD analysis	4	‘It was very good to be able to watch my coaching style and manner although a little painful at times. I would like to be able to see the change in my delivery after a few months’.
<p>General feedback:</p> <p>Areas for further support:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> I feel I would benefit from doing some more practical under the direct guidance of (name of tutor) if possible. I also feel that my planning could do with some work and learning the best way to set aside time to complete it. 		

Outcome: Coach 4 now plans his session in detail he is clear about the key components of successful session planning. For PPA session he plans in the medium term. He states that the CPD programme did impact his attitude towards planning and he notes that through planning you can guide the learners through the aims of your session, he can see the benefit of planning and evaluating sessions as it helps to achieve the goals of the session. The specific mechanisms delivered through the CPD programme that have influence coach 4’s development are; watching his DVD and then discussing it with others, plus an increased awareness of the short and medium term planning process. He described his knowledge of the NCPE as satisfactory, but still needs more work. In relation to the importance of the CPD content for working as a community coach he felt it was very important, writing it makes us more professional. However regarding the importance on CPD placed by managers he wrote it is important...they want standards lifted but they don’t always give us the support required. He did not feel that the managers supported his development as a coach. He also felt that the organisation of the CPD programme was satisfactory; writing that information regarding workshops could have been fed back better. The aspect of the project he enjoyed the most was ‘putting into practice what I have learnt, being videoed and watching them back.

Coach 9

Age	Gender	Graduate / non graduate	Level of coaching qualification	Years as a community coach
22 - 27	Male	G	Level 2	5-6

Context: Initial context data collected prior to the CPD intervention reports that coach 9 felt that he had developed a coaching style that was effective and engaging and that he had ‘extensive knowledge of the National Curriculum’. His actual knowledge of the NCPE was virtually nothing. He stated that he planned his coaching sessions in his head and committed nothing to paper. In relation to CPD he felt that professional development for community coaches would be beneficial as it would allow for a clearer vision amongst coaches. He felt that this could be achieved through; Demonstrations, group discussions that were compulsory for all coaches, two hours per week.

Mechanism:

Programme input	Level of support	Comment (s)
Data Collection	3	‘Started the mind considering, what how and who we are coaching and whether our methods are correct’.
Presentation on NCPE	4	‘Highlighted an area of weak understanding and need to research in order to be able to coach in PPA time’.
Presentation on PPA time	4	‘Background information provide a framework and base knowledge which can only help’.
Practical Coaching	5	<i>A FANTASTIC session – opened up my eyes of the importance of both content and delivery of session. Watching an innovative way with reasons was v.good. Have since used several of techniques – visual aids, kneeling down which have subsequently been commented on by teachers.</i>
DVD analysis	Abs	
Practical – How we learn and Coach	Abs	
Individual DVD analysis	5	Highlighted – strengths and weaknesses in my coaching that I was personally unaware of has since

		led to a much more analytical and reflective coach 9.
<p>General feedback:</p> <p>'Excellent so far. Hope all pupils on CPD course are benefiting and approaching with open mind as much as I feel I am. I can really see improvements in my reflective approach'.</p> <p>Areas for further support:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Medium term planning • Coaching points 		

Outcome: Coach 9 now plans in both the medium and short terms and is able to identify key components of the planning process. He states that the CPD programme did influence his attitude towards planning, 'Yes the importance of planning for a sequence of lessons'. Coach 9 states that the CPD has influenced his pedagogical approach highlighting that coaching is more 'focussed around the young person making decisions in order to improve'. He identified mechanism that supported this process; watching other coaches, DVD analysis, watching, listening to the CPD tutor and reading books; citing the DVD analysis as being the most influential on his practice. He described his knowledge and understanding of the NCPE as good, supporting this with 'developing a unit of work for multi skills has made me aware of how to write units in line with the NCPE...'. In relation to how important he thought the knowledge presented on this CPD programme was for community coaches he stated very important. However he also reported that he felt the managers saw it as not very important, he supported this by stating 'if it doesn't fit with their financial plans then questions are asked'. He felt that the general organisation of the programme was satisfactory, 'lines of communication from managers to coaches have often led to misunderstanding. The aspect of the CPD programme that he most enjoyed was 'developing his coaching style'.

Coach 10

Age	Gender	Graduate / non graduate	Level of coaching qualification	Years as a community coach
22 - 27	Male	G	Level 3	1-2

Context: Initial context data highlights that coach 10 felt his strengths as a football in the community coach were his; ability to plan coaching sessions, his technical knowledge and his communication skills. He acknowledges that area of future development would be knowledge of coaching methods and knowledge of the NCPE. Coach 10's actual knowledge of the NCPE was nothing. Coach 10 stated that he did plan his coaching sessions, 'I keep a book with lots of warm up games, drill based games, drills and match types in to refer to when attending a session'. He didn't feel that F.A. coaching qualifications

provided the knowledge, skill and understanding to support community coaches working in a school or a community setting. He felt that a CPD programme to support community coaches working in schools would be beneficial and that this could be achieved through monthly meeting with rewards for the best contributions.

Mechanism:

Programme input	Level of support	Comment (s)
Data Collection	4	The group interviews were particularly helpful in picking up good ideas. Coach 10 would have liked: More work in smaller groups
Presentation on NCPE	4	'Yes some good points covered that were helpful to my future practice'.
Presentation on PPA time	4	'Yes a good insight into the details involved for this job, everything helps'
Practical Coaching	4	Some helpful tips: starts and end of sessions, set up of session, minimum set up after, manner towards children. *Make the environment more realistic
DVD analysis	4	Yes, again going over techniques used and then hearing the reasoning behind very helpful.
Practical – How we learn and Coach	3	A little, it has been hard to implement changes in my own coaching style methods. Seems very easy to revert to old styles if all goes wrong.
Individual DVD analysis		No comment
<p>General feedback:</p> <p>I feel the course is running well and the most recent 'day' has been the most productive to date.</p> <p>As the course takes shape it seems to be getting more interesting.</p> <p>Areas for further support:</p>		

Outcome:

Coach 10 plans in the medium and short terms, he also refers to session evaluations as part of the planning process. He is clear that the CPD programme has influenced his attitude towards planning, stating 'it is a vital part of putting on a session'. Learning about planning and evaluating lessons was the most influential part of the CPD programme for Coach 10. Although the CPD also impacted coach 10's pedagogical approach, he is now more structured with clearer aims and progressions within the session. Coach 10 felt that he had a satisfactory understanding of the NCPE, data supported this with lesson plans highlighting the use of learning strands to support intentional learning. Coach 10 felt the CPD input was important in relation to the role of a community coach as it a line of work that should grow and therefore gain in importance. However, he felt that the CPD was not very important to managers and support and development from managers was limited and selective. He felt the organisation of the programme was good, the day sessions were well organised and design to fit around the working schedules. The aspect of the CPD that coach 10 most enjoyed was watching his self- coach 'it was very helpful'.

Coach 13

Age	Gender	Graduate / non graduate	Level of coaching qualification	Years as a community coach
22 - 27	Female	N G	Level 2	3-4

Context: Initial context data highlights that coach 13 considered her strengths as a football in the community coach were; communications skills, working with other coaches and an ability to inspire children. Coach 13 stated that she did not plan her coaching sessions on a session planner. Her knowledge of the NCPE was nil. She felt that F.A. coaching courses did not support community coaches to work in schools, but she did think that a CPD programme aimed at supporting community coaches would be beneficial. She felt that this could be delivered through 4 or 5 meetings throughout a year, whole day, part practical and part theory. Coach 13 saw her medium term future as still working in football.

Mechanism:

Programme input	Level of support	Comment (s)
Data Collection	4	'The activity made me think about the way I coach – took some positive practices away with me'.
Presentation on NCPE	2	'...I realised we are way off the mark'.
Presentation on PPA time	3	'provided me with information about the framework that I didn't have a clue about before...again realising how far away from the framework we are'.
Practical Coaching	2	'with trying to concentrate on the task I was set I didn't take much notice of the session...'
DVD analysis	5	'Yes the DVD was very helpful, ...the coach, body language towards the participants, very much in control – lots of praise – learning names quickly, all of which I have tried to take board as a coach. Tutor constantly looked back and reflected on the session stepped in and made changes if needed. If the session was to be done again maybe in a different environment.
Practical – How we learn and Coach	4	Cards and coming up with a short practice in our groups Was interesting and helpful, getting participants to come up with their own practice sessions helps them with their learning and gives me time to reflect.
Individual DVD analysis	No answer	
<p>General feedback:</p> <p>Programme has so far been positive and has helped me to think about my sessions as a whole.</p> <p>I am struggling with session plans – but I do understand the importance of planning.</p> <p>Areas for further support:</p>		

Outcome: Coach 13 continues to rely on old planning or quick thinking for after school sessions but does plan her curriculum time sessions. She has a good idea of the key components for successful session planning. She is clear that the CPD programme has influenced her attitude towards planning. Coach 13 indicates that her pedagogical approach has change and been influenced by watching other coaches work, in the field and via DVD, she is very interested in observing coaching manner and content. She identifies

that pedagogically she now uses more questions and small group discussion in her coaching sessions. Coach 13 identifies that the mechanism that has been the most influential on her development as a coaching is observing other coaching and discuss coaching practice, this was also the aspect of the CPD programme that she enjoyed the most. Her knowledge of the NCPE has improved but she describes it as satisfactory. Regarding the importance of the CPD in relation to community coaches she describes it as important, she also felt that her managers felt that the CPD was important. She described the organisation of the CPD programme as good, although some of the sessions clashed with soccer courses.

Coach 21:

Age	Gender	Graduate / non graduate	Level of coaching qualification	Years as a community coach
27	Male	N G	Level 2	10-15

Context: Initial context data reports that coach 21 felt his strengths as a community football coach were his technical and tactical knowledge and his communication skills. He identifies that an area for future development would be knowledge of the NCPE. Coach 21 stated that he does not plan his coaching session on a session planner, he supports this answer by stating, ‘I coach too many sessions it would take too long’. His knowledge of the NCPE was nothing. He did not think that the F.A. coaching qualifications support community coaches working in schools and was not sure if the supported coaches working in community settings. He did however feel that a CPD programme for football in the community coaches would be good, he had now thoughts on how this might be achieved. However he did comment on the course content stating that, ‘a course more on coaching different groups and situations. He felt that his medium term future was working as a football in the community coach.

Mechanism:

Programme input	Level of support	Comment (s)
Data Collection	4	No comment
Presentation on NCPE	3	The workshop show me how I need to plan my sessions Better to meet the standards of the NC, especially within PPA sessions. Also that working within PPA time I need to plan, deliver and evaluate pupils

		(learning).
Presentation on PPA time	4	The presentation show that I need to be able to observe, Analyse and give feedback to the children which take part in these sessions.
Practical Coaching	4	'I found the practical coaching session really interesting. The sessions have helped me reflect on my coaching and help me improve, developing better learning environments for children'.
DVD analysis	5	'This was the most interesting task. It is the only chance To replay the session and see any good and bad habits and reflect on how to improve. You can see how children are learning and then plan better learning environments for children'. 'I think everyone should have been recorded'.
Practical – How we learn and Coach	4	'I found it interesting using the different teaching styles. I now try and use these in my sessions'.
Individual DVD analysis	5	I found watching my own session that I kept using the same words and important it is to have the focus of all the children in the session (name of coach/tutor) help me to engage these children.
<p>General feedback:</p> <p>The programme has helped me to engage every child in my sessions.</p> <p>Areas for further support:</p>		

Outcome: Coach 21 now plans his PPA time session on a lesson plan, he still plans his after school sessions in his head. He does have a clear understanding of the key components of a session plan. He identifies that he would like more help with medium term planning. Coach 21 is clear that the CPD programme has influenced his attitude towards planning his coaching sessions. Additionally he has adapted his approach to coaching, he thinks session through more, using a wider range of coaching methods. The aspects of the CPD programme that Coach 21 enjoyed the most were analysing the coaching DVD's and the day the course tutor coached. Coach 21 feels that he now has a satisfactory understanding of the NCPE. He feels that the CPD programme is important in relation to the role of a community football coach. However he felt that the managers felt that it was not very important, he

wrote, important, but not if it takes too much time or is a cost. He felt that the programme organisation was good but added; sometimes a bit late notice on when days are taking place and sometimes on days we are most busy.

Appendix 12 - Draft - National Curriculum Physical Education - Proforma

- 1) How many areas of activity are there in the National Curriculum Physical Education?
- 2) Can you name the areas of activity?
- 3) Games are one of the areas do you know how games are divided? If so please write it down.
- 4) There are four strands of assessment within the National Curriculum Physical Education, can you name them?
- 5) How many key stages are there?
- 6) Can you identify what year groups are in key stage 2?
- 7) When does a child's attainment have to be reported to their parents or guardians?
- 8) What do you understand by the term level descriptor?
- 9) How would you describe the National Curriculum Physical Education?

Appendix 13 Interview guide

- 1) Can you describe the session you just did?
 - How did you prepare for it
 - Do you think it was successful

- 2) How do you feel about coaching in schools?
 - Knowledge of the NCPE
 - Positive / negative experience of working in schools

- 3) Who has spoken to you about your knowledge of the NCPE?
 - Managers
 - Teachers
 - Others

- 4) What are your coaching or educational principles / aims
 - What do you think good coaching is
 - Is this the same in school as in the community setting