

AN INVESTIGATION OF COMMUNITY COACH PERCEPTIONS OF SPORT
INTERVENTION PROGRAMMES

By

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ABSTRACT

There is a growing body of work that outlines the manner in which sport can have an impact on positive youth development from academics, practitioners, and government departments and policy. This approach to the promotion of pro-social behaviours through the medium of sport is through what Coalter (2007/2010) labels 'plus sport' or 'sport plus' programmes. These programmes, respectively those that use either (a) non-sport objectives in sport development initiatives, or (b) the addition of sport to existing non-sport activities, both use the assumed appropriateness and essence of sport in an effort to 'hook' participants. With much public money allocated to social intervention projects that use sport as a key vehicle for delivery, it is becoming increasingly important to understand these programmes, particularly in terms of their long lasting effectiveness, monitoring, and evaluation (Sandford et al., 2008; Nicholls et al., 2010).

This research is based upon the perceptions of nine community coaches with significant experience and explores their views on the effectiveness of sport intervention programmes. The research used grounded theory to systematically analyse the data generated through interviews. And it is in recognising what some (e.g. Coalter, 2005; Coakley, 2011) see as a lack of real empirical evidence for sport's assumed appropriateness or transformative prowess, that this study draws upon Jennings et al.'s (2006) Critical Youth Empowerment Model to explain the data. This theoretical framework, with its dimensions of supported environments, meaningful participation, incrementally given roles of responsibility, and contribution to community affairs, seems to reflect much of what was felt the coaches 'do' or 'facilitate' in contributing to the impact and benefits of the programmes in which they worked.

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CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER.....	1
1.2 INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH AREA.....	1
1.3 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY.....	3
1.4 INTRODUCTION TO THE METHODOLOGY.....	4
1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS.....	5
1.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION.....	5
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	7
2.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER.....	7
2.2 SPORT AS A FORM OF SOCIAL ENGAGEMENT – POSITIVE YOUTH DEVELOPMENT.....	7
2.3 THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY SPORTS COACHES.....	13
2.4 A THEORETICAL APPROACH – SOCIAL CAPITAL AND SPORT.....	18
2.5 CRITICAL YOUTH EMPOWERMENT.....	22
2.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION.....	26
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY.....	27
3.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER.....	27
3.2 RESEARCH RATIONALE.....	27
3.2.1 Research approach.....	27
3.2.2 Ontology and Epistemology.....	28
3.2.3 Interviews – rationale for the methodology.....	31
3.2.4 Pilot study reflections – impact and process	32
3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN.....	33
3.3.1 Sampling.....	33

3.3.2	Coach backgrounds – participant biographies.....	34
3.4	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	36
3.5	GROUNDING THEORY METHODOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS.....	37
3.5.1	Grounding theory.....	37
3.5.2	Data collection.....	39
3.5.3	Data analysis.....	41
3.5.4	Saturation.....	47
3.6	REFLEXIVITY.....	49
3.6.1	The researcher’s position.....	49
3.6.2	Re-examination of the data and final presentation.....	50
3.7	TRUSTWORTHINESS.....	51
3.8	CHAPTER CONCLUSION.....	53
	CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS.....	54
4.1	INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER.....	54
4.1.1	The sports coaching context – an outline of where the coaches coached.....	54
4.2	JUNIOR FIGHT CLUB AND THE ‘MENTALIST’ – ‘INITIAL RESISTANCE’	56
4.2.1	Physical violence.....	58
4.2.2	Swearing, smoking, drinking, and taking drugs.....	59
4.3	JUST GETTING TO KNOW THEM... ‘BURGEONING COACH-PARTICIPANT RELATIONSHIPS’	60
4.4	“GO ON LADS GIVE US A HAND TO UNLOAD OR PACK AWAY” – ‘PRO-SOCIAL BEHAVIOURS’	63
4.5	LEADING, NOT LITTERING, LOOKING AFTER EACH OTHER, AND BEING POLITE. HOW THE KIDS ARE NOW ALRIGHT - ‘WELFARE’	66
4.6	THE ROLE OF THE COACH -UNDERSTANDING, LEADING, AND YOUTH WORK - ‘EMPOWERMENT’	69

4.7 CHAPTER CONCLUSION.....	76
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION.....	78
5.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER.....	78
5.2 COACHING WITHIN SOCIAL INTERVENTION PROGRAMMES – UNDERSTANDING CHANGE	79
5.3 THE CYE MODEL – ITS SUITABILITY TO THIS RESEARCH.....	85
5.4 CHAPTER CONCLUSION.....	86
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION.....	87
6.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER.....	87
6.2 INITIAL QUESTIONS.....	87
6.3 SUMMARY	87
6.4 IMPLICATIONS.....	88
6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS.....	88
6.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION.....	89
6.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS.....	90
CHAPTER 7: APPENDIX.....	91
7.1 APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW GUIDE.....	91
7.2 APPENDIX B: EXAMPLE PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET.....	92
7.3 APPENDIX C: EXAMPLE PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM.....	94
CHAPTER 8: LIST OF REFERENCES.....	95

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1: COACH BACKGROUNDS - PARTICIPANT BIOGRAPHIES.....	34
TABLE 2: Open code and memo from the 2 nd interview.....	42
TABLE 3: OPEN CODING.....	44
TABLE 4: FOCUSED CODING EXAMPLES FROM THE FIRST, THIRD AND FOURTH INTERVIEWS.....	45
TABLE 5: THEORETICAL CODING: Theoretical coding: how empowerment leads to increases in pro-social behaviour.....	46

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure 1: The six dimensions of critical youth empowerment.....	26
Figure 2: Overview of the interview schedule.....	41
Figure 3: Overview of the data collection process.....	49

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER

This chapter will provide a rationale for the chosen topic, and an introduction to the study itself. In addition to this readers will be advised of the methodological choice and presented with an overview of the thesis itself.

1.2 INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH AREA

At the time of writing, the Comprehensive Spending Review undertaken by the ConDem coalition will significantly impact upon Sport England, local authority, and school sport partnerships funding (Collins, 2011). However, whilst this may well impact on sports intervention programmes, the Conservative policy of the 'Big Society' is expected to offset some of the prior policy commitments and ensure sustainability in sport through giving communities more responsibility and developing the concept of localism (Cabinet Office, 2011). In simple terms, this effectively means the withdrawal of government from community matters. And in order to fulfil this objective the communities need to be empowered and are required to play a more active role in society and to tackle localised social issues.

As such, currently, whilst the Coalition government's Comprehensive Spending Review has impacted significantly on funding patterns for sport (Collins, 2011), joint statements by both parties continue to emphasise their beliefs that sport has a crucial role to play in an effective society. An example of this comes from the Centre for Social Justice's *More than a Game* report (2011:34). Here, the authors state how "the history of public policy shows that government policy towards sport and disadvantaged youth has long assumed that sport can have a beneficial effect and that it can serve as a context for youth work" (p.25),

whilst also exploring the effectiveness of a number of sports programmes in meeting policy objectives.

In brief, and as the thesis will explain further within the literature review, it is reasonable to assume that despite subtle political ideological distinctions, sport has consistently been used as a vehicle by multiple governments in a utilitarian manner to address a number of civic and community objectives. As such, the UK government provides sporting opportunities as well as using it (sport) in an instrumentalist fashion. An example of this is how Hoye et al. (2010, p.1) define “non-sport objectives” that can be found within the health, economic, and community development domains.

And it is within this idea of community development that much research has centred on the nature and effectiveness of sport initiatives. The work of McCormack (2010) and Walpole and Collins (2010), for instance, illustrates the way in which sport and active leisure interventions in deprived areas had beneficial outcomes for a number of participants. These benefits ranged, respectively, from altering leisure activities (from those considered of a nuisance type to more structured, acceptable forms) to specific falls in recordings of anti-social behaviour and vandalism. Indeed, it has become increasingly acknowledged that the use of sport to tackle what is considered to be anti-social behaviour or to positively contribute to a broader range of social issues, such as raising individual and community aspirations, has currency and an intrinsic value (Coalter, 2001/2007/2010; Nichols, 2007; Bell, 2007; Whyte, 2009).

Nevertheless, and despite what Coakley (2011) explains, in a critical fashion, as the seemingly unquestionable “assumed essential goodness” (p.1) of sport, there are significant concerns regarding the effectiveness of sport intervention programmes both within the United Kingdom and further afield. In fact, there is an emerging body of literature that has begun to critically examine the ability of sport to deliver such outcomes

(see Coalter, 2001/2007), and it is within this philosophy that this thesis is set. Indeed, as this thesis clarifies, the evidence used in previous literature to substantiate the effectiveness of sport has been based upon principally empirical, positivistic evidence, as well as the concept of social capital. Additionally, much of the effectiveness, monitoring, and evaluation of these programmes used to engage disaffected youths in areas that have been described as having high social deprivation is potentially weighted to validate their effectiveness, without, necessarily, a sound critical base (Nicholls et al., 2010).

But perhaps of most note, if we consider that the development of quality relationships within interventions might underpin the success of activity provision, is the lack of real research related to the role of the coach in generating effective relationships and orchestrating the projects themselves. In fact, it might be said that existing research related to the significance of the role of the coach in the field of sport interventions is oftentimes limited to broad assumptions and generalisations, with lead agencies such as Positive Futures (2004) and The Young Foundation (2012), government departments (HM Treasury and DfES, 2007), and a range of authors (Sandford et al., 2008; Bloyce and Smith, 2010) simply proclaiming that the skills and abilities of staff are paramount when dealing with delinquency-prone individuals and behaviour. Bearing all of this in mind, it might be fair to say that whilst there is a recognition of how sports coaches can impact positively on young people through positive relationships, additional work and research is necessary.

And so it is in this context that this research takes place. As such, and considering that a utilitarian approach to the use of sport continues despite the lack of a robust evidence base to support its (sport's) effectiveness, this research will endeavour to report and interpret the perceptions of community coaches operating in a social intervention context. And it is because of this, that this research is particularly important where sport, at both local and

national levels, continues to be championed as a vehicle to deliver on a number of social issues such as physical activity, social cohesion, anti-social behaviour.

1.3 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

Having stated that the previous literature that purports the effectiveness of sport in social intervention programmes has used principally empirical, positivistic evidence, and the concept of social capital, this study proposes the use of Jennings et al.'s (2006) Critical Youth Empowerment Model (CYE) to explain the effectiveness, on an individual level, of social intervention sports programmes. It is the intention of the thesis that the findings, and use of a different conceptual framework, will be added to the literature surrounding the effectiveness of sport in non-sport domains. The thesis interviewed nine coaches who are employed to deliver sports programmes used to engage disaffected youths in areas that have been described as having high social deprivation in the south east of England, and will examine their perceptions on the role and effectiveness of sport intervention programmes. Accordingly, the research question of this thesis is fundamentally concerned with reporting and interpreting the coaches' perceptions and thoughts of what constitutes 'effectiveness' within sport intervention programmes, and how they see their role within them.

The lack of research related to the real effectiveness of sport intervention programmes can be summarised by stating that there is much claimed within this context, but little known of the exact mechanisms which contribute to any necessary conditions for success. Furthermore, to a lesser extent, there is also the fact that the necessary attributes for coaches in this context are little understood in terms of the available evidence. And considering the fact that volunteer work in sports coaching, oftentimes to be thread through the nature of the Big Society and the needs of communities, is now being promoted through the Olympic legacy (which has called for 40,000 volunteer coaches),

the importance of the research in understanding the experiences, observations, and perhaps best practice of coaches is clear to see.

1.4 INTRODUCTION TO THE METHODOLOGY

Considering that the intention of the study is to report and interpret the coaches' perceptions of effectiveness within sport intervention programmes and their roles within them, a qualitative methodology with an interpretive theoretical framework has been used. The reasons for this are twofold: firstly, that the qualitative perspective is the more suitable methodology considering that its intention is to measure and evaluate the extent to which participants in a variety of community coaching sport intervention programmes have changed behaviour from the perceptions of the coaches. And secondly, that as quantitative research has been the prime methodology for studies on the effectiveness of sport intervention programmes, this study intends to present a different paradigm of evaluative research in order to broaden the data available. In short, the study's potential significance lies in its intention to be innovative and to contribute to what can be seen as a dearth of credible, available data (Sandford et al., 2008).

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

This chapter has given an outline for the rationale of the study itself. The second chapter is a review of the literature related to the development of sport policy, the currency of community coaches, and the theoretical framework of social capital and previous studies undertaken within the field of sport intervention. Chapter three is a justification of the methodology used, and discusses the influence of the pilot study. Chapter four presents the findings, whilst chapter five is a discussion of, within the context of Jennings et al.'s (2006) Critical Youth Empowerment Model (CYE), the findings within the previous chapter. The final chapter summarises the research and also offers recommendations.

1.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter has given an outline of the research area itself and briefly discussed the methodology used. It has also given an overview of how the thesis is structured overall. The next chapter will discuss the literature relevant to the study itself.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER

This literature review aims to present, in the context of community sport provision, an analysis of the major themes and arguments relating to the development of sports intervention schemes and their underlying policy aspirations. Whilst it is acknowledged that there is a broad body of work underpinning the general field of community sport provision, this literature review is solely focused on the manner in which it relates to positive youth development. Indeed, it is within the existing evidence and literature in the broad field of positive youth development, oftentimes cached explicitly or not within government departments and policy, that the research question of how community coaches view the effectiveness of sport intervention programmes is given context. Firstly, an overview of the role of sport for community engagement is undertaken. Secondly, the current context of mass participation and the role of community coaches will be reviewed. Thirdly, the manner in which the effectiveness of sport intervention programmes has previously been measured will be critically examined. Finally, the chapter presents the theoretical framework that has informed this study, Jennings et al.'s (2006) Critical Youth Empowerment (CYE) Model.

2.2. SPORT AS A FORM OF SOCIAL ENGAGEMENT – POSITIVE YOUTH DEVELOPMENT

The role of sport as a vehicle for facilitating civic engagement, health and other social and political concerns has been identified in successive policy papers (*Policy Action Team Audit: Report of the Policy Action Team 10: The contribution of Sport and the Arts*, 1999 [otherwise known as the *PAT 10 report*], *A Sporting Future for All*, 2000, *Governments Plan for Sport*, 2001, and *Game Plan*, 2002) and academic literature (Hylton et al., 2001;

Collins and Kay, 2003; Green and Houlihan, 2005; Coalter, 2007; Collins, 2010). Furthermore, political rhetoric (see Coalter, 2007) has often championed the use of sport to combat perceived social ills. An example of this is Richard Caborn's (the then Minister for Sport and Tourism) assertion that "Sport has an invaluable role to play in improving the health and well-being of communities" (ODPM, 2004:2). The creation of the Social Exclusion Unit in 1999 and its role in developing *Game Plan* (2002) is a clear example of the social significance of sport and its use in social policy in the United Kingdom. In fact, the last 50 plus years (see *The Wolfenden Report*, 1960) have seen successive governments champion the use of sport because of the assumption that participation in sport gives rise to positive development. This section of the chapter will now discuss in more depth the policy papers and the evidence that has been presented in sport's favour. More particularly the manner in which sport, and more relative to this study community sport projects, is considered to have a favourable impact on positive youth development from academics, practitioners and government departments and policy, will be addressed.

The assumptions of what may be seen as an 'inherent' good quality in sport underpin the perpetuation of community development programmes. As evidence for the positive qualities of sport in this context, many authors (Bloyce and Smith, 2010; Coalter, 2007; Coakley, 2011; and Hylton and Totten, 2008a) suggest that the effectiveness of sport based social inclusion programmes may have a number of elements that contribute to development and can, perhaps, address or alleviate social and community needs and issues. Indeed, many of these findings correspond to Coalter's (2001:31) assertion that "strong theoretical arguments for the potentially positive contribution which sport can make to reduce the propensity to commit crime" exist. Moreover, Hylton and Totten's (2008b:44) statement that "inclusion through sport and inclusion in sport are positive steps on a much broader agenda for those defined as socially excluded" is a further example of

what can be seen as an example of a relationship between sport and positive development. In all, there is an increasing amount of literature to acknowledge the salience of sport for developing values through participation sport. It is evident then, that there is some research evidence to support the effectiveness of sport (theoretically) as a positive activity. It is in this respect that this section now presents a selection of case studies to further evaluate the potential that sport has to address social administrative (policy) issues.

Some examples of these exist within the *PAT 10 report* (1999). In 1998 the then Prime Minister Tony Blair launched New Labour's policy on neighbourhood renewal. This policy was in partial response to, or at the least shaped by, the Labour government's response to the emerging use of the concept of social exclusion. Considered to originally be a French term related to people outside of the French social insurance system (Donnison, 2001), the concept of social exclusion is now commonly referred to in government policy as well as being used in broader language. Principally seen to explain the marginalisation of members of society, the Social Exclusion Unit's (1998) report *Bringing Britain Together: A National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal* neatly defined social exclusion as a term to link traditional indices of social deprivation such as unemployment, high crime, poor housing, and low aspirations. In so doing, the term could be used to describe people, places, or a combination of both. And one of the consequences of publishing this 1998 report was that 18 Policy Action Teams were developed in response to a number of social inclusion issues. The *PAT 10 report* focused on the impact that sport and arts could have on combating social exclusion. Within it Collins et al. (1999) highlighted the manner in which sport can tackle social issues by summarising the nature and strength of a number of different studies into the benefits of sport. One key fact presented was that juvenile offending was reported to have dropped in a number of case studies that utilised police statistics and reports. An example given was the Galleries' of

Justice (Nottingham) ten week education and activity ‘diversionary’ programme run for “young people at risk of offending” (Collins et al., 1999:24) that resulted in just two of the 84 participants remaining under Police observation. As such, what could be interpreted as clear evidence suggested a strong correlation between sport participation and reduced levels of offending. Subsequently, the *PAT 10 report* (Collins et al., 1999) underpinned much of the government literature purporting sport’s seemingly suitable capacity for interventional purposes (Collins and Kay, 2003)

As an example of the government literature that followed the *PAT 10 report* (Collins et al., 1999), *Game Plan* (2002) discussed a range of case studies that offered strong evidence for the efficacy of sport as a tool in contributing to social policy areas. In terms of crime reduction, it highlighted the possibilities of sport acting in both the context of displacement (individuals committed to sports programmes not being free to commit crime) and therapeutic intervention (where the psychosocial benefits of sport may take place). And of particular relevance to this study, a number of cited examples of evidence used were based on youth sport and residents of areas of social deprivation, such as *Positive Futures* and the *Somerset Rural Youth Project* (a range of sports and arts projects held in Somerset in 1996 that aimed to reduce deprivation). However, the fact that quantitative evidence was used and principally showed “a decrease in crime” (DCMS/SEU, 2002, p.61), reflects the manner in which much research on the effectiveness of social intervention programmes took on a quantitative approach after the publication of the *PAT 10 report* (Collins et al., 1999).

Further examples of this quantitative approach can be seen within *Game Plan*. For instance, there was the observation that there had been a reduction in crime rates and a “20% reduction in criminal damage” (p.61) within deprived areas that had run a number of *Summer Splash* schemes providing sport for 13-17 year olds in 2001. That said, it is also

necessary to concede the fact that it (*Game Plan*) acknowledges the methodological difficulties in establishing the reliability of some of the research due to the fact that the interventions taking place may well exist within a myriad of other circumstances or, indeed, different interventions. It summarises the lack of real empirical evidence by stating that “it is unsurprising that the impact of the sporting component of crime reduction programmes has seldom been isolated and measured” (p.60) due to both what has previously been outlined as the possibility of the sport intervention existing within other interventions, and the lack of longer-term research. So based on what has so far been presented, it is reasonable to assume that there is a lack of comprehensive evidence supporting the use of sport in addressing wider social policy issues.

Even so, it is perhaps pertinent to remind ourselves of some of the evidence that supports sport as a suitable medium, and tool, for community regeneration and social intervention projects. Whilst literature suggests that sport is not the definitive answer for a wide range of social issues, evidence for sport’s ‘therapeutic qualities’ can be seen through Coalter’s (2005) work. Here, he states that by using sport young people at risk are removed from the criminal culture of their peer groups and can mix with more positive role models (this is referred to as ‘differential association’). He further states that sport can provide an alternative to educational underachievement, encourage self-discipline, and provide an antidote to boredom and offer adventure, excitement and autonomy. Interestingly, when we consider the use of sport as an alternative activity for young people at risk, much of the funding, expected outcomes, and evaluations for sport intervention projects are concerned with reducing anti-social behaviour (ASB). ASB is considered to be a broad term used by government, agencies, and academia, to describe a collection of behaviours related to offending, rebelliousness, and delinquency, and that can lead to further criminal behaviour (Coalter, 2007; Nichols, 2007). Correspondingly, in order to effect what is known as pro-

social behaviour (PSB), many programmes concerned with the reduction of ASB seek to develop self-esteem and a range of social skills within their participants (Huskins, 1996/1998; Nichols, 2007).

An example of how the possible effects that a sport intervention programme might reduce ASB can be seen in an East Sussex County Council (ESCC) (2010) evaluation of a South Coast *Street Games* project. This evaluation stated that despite evidence collated over a two year period showing that there were “fewer reports of ASB (*anti-social behaviour*) Signal Incidents”, it was also “not possible to establish a direct link between the Street Games sessions and the decline in ASB”. Yet despite this acknowledgement, the report does go on to further remark that “it could be inferred that it (*the Street Games intervention*) is having a positive impact on reporting in the areas concerned” (ESCC, 2010:6). This reference to the possible effects of a sport intervention programme on reducing ASB is perhaps typical of the manner in which baseline data gathered on levels of anti-social behaviour oftentimes informs the manner in which projects have been, and continue to be, evaluated (see Neighbourhood Renewal Unit, 2006a/2006b; Kickz, 2007; Positive Futures, 2009; and Audit Commission, 2009 for examples). All this despite perhaps limited evidence to prove that sport and recreation can positively contribute to issues of social inclusion. Indeed, many authors (Coalter, et al., 2000; Coalter, 2007; Griffiths and Armour, 2011) argue that there is a continued absence of definitive empirical evidence concerning the ability of sport to address wider social policy issues.

In short, based on what has been discussed, other more critical perspectives exist that sit in opposition to the view that sport has an inherent value for social policy. An example of this is how Coalter (2001:31) still recognises the “absence of robust intermediate or final outcome data”. Additionally, Collins (2010) suggests that the complex nature of crime and anti-social behaviour clearly mean that sport’s impact on reducing incidences of these are

difficult to determine. Moreover, Coakley (2011) offers a far more critical perspective when he states that approaches to youth development through sports participation are underpinned by a widespread, uncritical assumption that sport is a suitable medium to effect positive changes. On the whole, despite a broad range of positive claims (see Coalter, 2007; Sandford et al., 2006) some literature suggests that there is little evidence to support the positive relationship between sport and social behaviours.

In summary of the chapter so far, based on what is presented, sport has been perceived as an instrument of social intervention in problematic communities by successive governments. However, the present state of knowledge regarding the use of sport as a means of addressing social problems linked to issues of positive youth development and social inclusion is supported theoretically but lacking empirical, robust evidence. And perhaps even more crucially given the intention and context of this study, whilst there is what might be considered to be a fairly significant body of work purporting the benefits of sport and supporting sport policy in general, there is, comparatively, a paucity of information acknowledging the work of the community coaches themselves as the mechanism/drivers of these interventions.

2.3. THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY SPORTS COACHES

Having outlined the development of sports policy in the UK, this section of the chapter will now discuss the emerging importance of sports coaching within this context and what Lyle (2008) describes as coaches' roles as 'service agents' that deliver "services in response to specific sports development demands" (p.231)

In the twentieth century sports coaching was perceived from a performance perspective and coaches were seen as mere technicians bridging the disciplines of sports performance, coaching, and sports science (Lyle, 2002). In terms of the development of coaching as a discipline or field, Jones (2006) states that a distinction between coaching (seen as more

scientific and based upon the concept of a trainer), and teaching (seen as more holistic with its link to education itself) has developed whereby both are seen as distinct, with little impact on each other. Despite this, he (Jones, 2006) argues that coaching has a pedagogical commonality and central theme with teaching.

Coaching does, however, have a 'practice' of coaching within the community context that sits outside of the sports performance discourse. This fits in with Lyle's (2002) assertion that the coaching process (at its crux, the coach – participant/performer relationship) is based on a broad and complex field that is wider than a straightforward measurement of appreciable changes in sports performance. This 'practice' of community coaching is undertaken by coaches who inherently have a dual purpose of engaging disaffected youth and community engagement through the use of sports programmes. In terms of the beginning of such practice, Hylton and Totten (2008a) identify how community sports programmes developed from the 1980s Action Sport programmes that were created in order to alleviate the concerns connected with urban disorder and riots within inner-city areas in this time period. This development of the *sports development officer's* role, with sports participation seen as a 'hook' (Coalter, 2007) to facilitate individuals away from crime and develop pro-social behaviours, came about within a background of a desire to modernise coaching expressed by both Conservative and Labour governments (Green and Houlihan, 2005). Initially, this modernisation occurred through the formation of the National Coaching Foundation in 1980 and then via a succession of policies instituted to professionalise sports coaching (Coaching Review Panel, 1991; UK Sport 2001; DCMS 2002). Alongside this modernisation of coaching, sport became seen to be a useful tool in tackling youth crime and delinquency. For instance *The Framework for Sport in England* and the previously mentioned *Game Plan* emerged in the early years of the 2000's, and both had a significant impact on the development of the community

coach role. Both policy papers used targeted outcomes such as widening access, improving education, and creating stronger and safer communities as provisos for part of any funding distributed. And at a more local level in the mid 2000's, Local Area Agreements (LAA) looked to develop priorities for a local area based upon an agreement between central government and the local authority, key partners, and framed within the Local Strategic Partnership (LSP). And those LSPs in what were then the 86 most deprived local authority areas could receive additional resources, oftentimes allocated to sports projects, through the then Neighbourhood Renewal Fund (NRF). And these NRF funded sports projects needed to clearly evidence how they benefited deprived areas/groups and contributed to sustainable community development (Neighbourhood Renewal Unit, 2006a/2006b).

Consequently, in combination with their overall philosophy of engaging with the community and neighbourhood renewal, sports agencies and development officers needed to utilise coaches capable of delivering sessions in the community. Because of this, in the mid to late 2000's there was the specific Community Sports Coaches Scheme overseen by Sport England on a national basis. And the context in which coaching was community coaching was undertaken was framed by the Public Sector Agreement targets that called for young people to engage in up to five hours of sport or physical activity each week, and the successive Physical Education strategies of PESSCL (Physical Education and School Sport Club Links) and PESSYP (Physical Education and Sport Strategy for Young People) (DfES, 2002; Sport England, 2004; DCMS, 2008). And alongside these, a continuing strategic standpoint that emphasised the use of sport to develop key life skills meant that the late 2000's continued to see claims about the potentially positive outcomes of engagement in sport (MacDougall, 2008; Sport England, 2008; YST, 2009). However, the 2008 policy paper *Playing to Win* (DCMS, 2008) did demonstrate a more pragmatic

approach to developing New Labour's previous intentions of engaging in social intervention. This was intended to be achieved through emphasising a strategic imperative of increasing participation in sport by empowering NGBs with resource allocation and hard targets of increased participation, hence prioritising the role of the coach more highly.

And so it was that all of these strategies, and the spending reviews that allocated public expenditure to community sports programmes, advanced the necessity of recognising community and participation coaching within a coaching and education aligned paradigm. Consequently, this new conceptualisation of community coaching was distinct from the traditional view of coaching that is distinguished as being technical and aligned to sports science (North, 2009). Equally important in understanding the role of the community coach, the United Kingdom Coaching Certificate (UKCC) has shaped contemporary approaches to coaching practice. This is effectively an endorsement process that quality assures NGB coaching awards, and sets out criteria that assists with standardisation and coherency. Moreover, alongside the UKCC model, there is the Sports Coach UK (scUK) 4 x 4 model that acknowledges different coaching contexts. For instance, children's, participation, performance, and elite coach roles. In brief, these models reflect the aforementioned desire to modernise coaching expressed by both the Conservative and Labour governments over the past 30 years through professionalisation (Green and Houlihan, 2005; Taylor and Garratt, 2008; Taylor and Garratt, 2010), as well as to develop a conceptual model of the exclusiveness of different coaching populations.

As has already been discussed, community sports coaches are used within a variety of social intervention programmes. One example is Positive Futures, the national social inclusion programme for 10-16 year olds that is funded by the Home Office (Home Office, 2006; Positive Futures Team, 2009). This programme attempts to use sport, arts, and media based initiatives to help 10-19 year olds from deprived communities avoid criminal

activities and substance misuse. Another example is Streetgames, which is a charity (with significant funding from Sport England) that uses what they term as ‘doorstep’ sport to work with organisations in delivering sport to underprivileged areas to enhance community cohesion (ODPM, 2007; Streetgames, 2008; Streetgames, 2009). The ‘doorstep’ sport term refers to the fact that Streetgames projects are “locally funded and controlled, so group leaders know and understand the communities they work in” (Streetgames, 2010). One significant problem, however, is the fact that evidence relating to the pedagogy of the coaches and the manner in which they influence the success of these interventions is, somewhat, limited. Indeed, whilst Streetgames, at time of writing, are in the process of rolling out a portfolio of bespoke coaching courses tailored for the community sector based on their own research, there is what may be considered a lack of real empirical evidence underpinning what might be considered the role, and effect of community coaches.

However, there are some examples of research that suggests that coaches can be used to tackle wider social issues. Hardman et al. (2010), for instance, discuss the possibility of the use of sport to improve behaviour by coach-‘facilitators’. They propose that sport is a suitable context to “explore the contours of morally relevant possibilities” and that “the coach plays a central role in influencing the moral terrain within contemporary sports practices” (p.345). Similarly, MacDonald et al. (2010), in a study of 31 coaches who undertook a two hour workshop on how to “relate to children more effectively” (p.364), found that “informal coach training was linked to increased reports of personal and social skills in athletes compared to athletes in programs without training” (p.369). And supporting this viewpoint, Petitpas et al.’s (2008) discussion of youth programmes and youth development highlighted the importance of developing relationships in the coach-participant binary.

A more recent influence here though is the *More than a Game* (2011) report. As was noted earlier, the report emphasised the power of sport. But more specifically to the question of community coach pedagogy it also advocates the importance of the use of suitably qualified and competent personnel for sports programmes in the social intervention context. Indeed, it sees the success of these programmes as “heavily dependent on the individuals who operate the programme” (p.34). This emphasis on the recruitment of high calibre individuals is tempered, however, with an acknowledgement of the demanding skill set required to support the practice of coaches. For instance, their evidence suggests that effective coaches create a “positive and supportive environment in which all young people can thrive” (p.59). It is in this respect that the report asks for additional, innovative, coaching expertise in diverse youth participants, alongside the technical elements necessary to structure games, rules, and practice.

In brief, community coaching has developed into a broad designation that encapsulates political will and practice through the development of competency (skills) and social development (civic engagement). And on the whole, the premium placed on the use of community coaches is evident through an emerging realisation that sport policy objectives can only be met through the development of a skilled workforce that can deliver said social policy objectives.

2.4 A THEORETICAL APPROACH – SOCIAL CAPITAL AND SPORT

A number of studies have used a variety of theoretical approaches to inform their understanding of social intervention projects, and as has already been discussed, one particular way of examining the role of sport and social engagement is to use the concept of social capital. This will now be examined in the following section. Three theoretical perspectives exist within social capital, and whilst there are subtle nuances between the three, a centrality of themes emerges when discussing the term. It is concerned with the

conceptions of community, social networks, and civic engagement, as well as the notion that wealth and wellbeing are not just measured through physical capital (from means of production), but also through ‘social wealth’; friendships, communities, and networks, that contribute to civic, emotional, and social health (Bailey, 2005; Fitzpatrick, 2007; Coalter, 2008). In terms of the three perspectives, whilst Bailey (2005:74) suggests that the concept of social capital lacks “consensus regarding its precise definition”, he and Daly (2005) further state that the theoretical underpinnings of the concept can be traced back to three authors: Pierre Bourdieu, James Coleman and Robert Putnam. Bourdieu’s (1984) ascription of social capital is based on group memberships, and the potential that this holds for individuals in terms of developing resources. As such, it is a continuation of his work on habitus which theorises how the structures of the field are inculcated by individuals. Coleman’s (1988; 1990) work is centred on the relationship between educational success and social inequality, as well as the relationships between families and the community. This body of work differs from Bourdieu’s in that it focuses on groups rather than individuals. In contrast, Putnam’s (1993) central premise is that levels of trust and reciprocity are developed through purposeful engagement with groups and individuals. Putnam identifies a correlation between the development of “individualistic habits and practices” (Fitzpatrick, 2007:704), and a decrease in group community (which can be seen through the diminishing levels of trust and reciprocity) as evidence of the decline of social capital in a number of developed countries. To sum up, social capital helps us understand that ‘social wealth’ can be constructed and measured in much the same manner that physical capital can (Hoye and Nicholson, 2008).

Having stated this, the positive effects of utilising sport as an instrument to develop social capital can be seen through a number of case studies. An example of this is Bell (2007), who outlines the success of the Champion Coaching scheme (a national youth

sport and coaching scheme which ran in 1991-2000), both in terms of the development of the coaches themselves, and the continued engagement in sport of the participants. Another example is Bradbury and Kay's (2008) analysis of the *Step into Sport* programme (a national initiative that trains young sports volunteers). Further examples outside of the UK context, such as Okayasu et al.'s (2010) comparative study of community sports clubs within Japan, and Burnett's (2006) assessment of the impact of the Australia Africa 2006 Sport Development Programme's Active Community Clubs Initiative, demonstrate the literature available.

Additionally, many of the aforementioned policy documents (see successive government documentation in DCMS, 2001; DCMS/SEU, 2002; ODPM, 2004; and Home Office, 2006), within the UK make use of social capital, with the discourse at times explicitly mentioning it. An example of this is the assertion in *Game Plan* that "using sport to promote social inclusion can also help to build social capital" (DCMS/SEU, 2002:60). Moreover, the premium placed on social capital as a theoretical and methodological tool is demonstrated by examples such as the DCMS' commission of the paper entitled *Sport and Social Capital in the United Kingdom: Statistical Evidence from National and International Survey Data* (Delaney and Keaney, 2005), and Positive Futures' engagement matrix tool that measures "five levels of engagement for young people attending the projects" (Crabbe, 2008:33). On the whole, Bailey's (2005) assertion that in sporting terms the "notion of social capital has become increasingly established within both academic and government circles" (p.74) does indeed suggest the large extent to which the theory has gained prominence within literature purporting sport's contribution to a broad range of social benefits.

Yet despite the intuitive appeal of the efficacy of sport to develop engaged citizenship and personal development, robust evidence of the propensity for sport to play a role in

engaging people in purposeful relationships is still limited (see Coalter, 2001; 2007; and Coakley, 2011). Indeed, using sport as an instrument for developing social capital lacks evidence and the success of such schemes is somewhat limited by structural inefficiencies (lack of facilities, funds, grounds, etc.) or establishing the meanings of relationships within social capital (Coalter, 2008). Moreover, the use of the concept of social capital, measured by increases in the social ‘resources’ of, for instance, volunteer numbers, potentially has limited impact (Bell, 2007).

A point worth reiterating for this study is that intervention programmes assume that individuals will accrue social capital. However, when one critically engages with the key aspect of social capital it might be considered that it is arguably deterministic, positing that ‘capital’ can be acquired, much like education or material capital. It does not give a detailed understanding of how or why the behaviour of people changes. It simply reflects the acquisition of capital, measured in one way or another. In this respect, social capital is a relatively static concept and is not a process, or framework, that might detail the nuances and minutiae of how people change within sport intervention programmes. So, whilst the widespread and continued use of social capital as an indicator of sport’s propensity to deliver positive social outcomes exists, Coalter (2007:49-50) identifies the fact that the usage of the concept is “consistently vague, with no systematic attempt to articulate clearly its precise meaning and sport’s role in its development”.

In fact, the resistance of communities and individuals to government intervention in sport programmes is possible. An example of this can be seen in Brighton and Hove Albion’s *The Football Inclusion Project Evaluation, 2007-09*. This is a report on a variety of football activities and opportunities run by the Albion in the Community team, and some of the project’s partner’s views outlined how the formation of gangs, territorial behaviour, and disregard for authority were problematic for the coaching teams and the

overall delivery of the project. Further investigation on the resistance of society's dominant ideology can be made through the use of youth and crime studies. Cohen (1997), Osgerby (1998) and Hall and Jefferson (2006) have all shown how social class conflict and the development of youth sub-cultures make integration and community cohesion problematic due to the value and identity associated with local or class identification, and the premium placed on delinquency as a badge of honour. Indeed, and with respect to such examples like the Brighton and Hove Albion's (2009) report, challenging behaviour from sport intervention programme participants is often influenced by other aspects of their life that reinforces this behaviour. As such, the task of modifying youth behaviour for community coaches is a difficult task.

In conclusion to this section, the importance of outlining the concept of social capital for this thesis is linked to the fact that previous literature has used principally empirical, positivistic evidence and social capital to determine the effectiveness of sport intervention schemes. Furthermore, the section has outlined the inherent weaknesses within both approaches (social capital and empirical, positivistic evidence) when it comes to determining whether individuals have improved their behaviour within the discussed schemes to meet the more dominant standards within society. Consequently, it can be argued that alternative methods of measuring sport's propensity for social change, and the impact that coaches can have in facilitating these changes, need to be explored.

2.5 CRITICAL YOUTH EMPOWERMENT

In his review of literature related to positive youth development, Coakley (2011) discussed the evidence supporting the effectiveness of organised youth sport programs. Here, a wide review of literature was undertaken that encompassed several fields and disciplines. Most often, and not unsurprisingly considering his expertise, the field of the sociology of sport was summarised. Whilst the general nature of the article called for a

more inquisitive, robust attitude to proving the efficacy of sport within the field of positive youth development, what is of particular note in relation to this study is Coakley's mention of Jennings et al.'s CYE model. Whilst it is important to acknowledge, as Coakley has done, that it has not been used in a specific youth sports context, he does go on to say that "there is no a priori reason that such a link is not possible or would not be helpful in producing positive developmental outcomes for individuals and communities" (2011:13). As such, and in spite of the fact that Critical Youth Empowerment models have not specifically been used to help explain sport projects - instead the manner in which they contributed to community development and organisation, this section will now present Jennings et al.'s (2006) CYE model.

Firstly, and for broader context, it is within the conceptualisation of community sport models and the philosophy of their underpinning policy objectives, that Coalter (2007; Coalter and Taylor, 2010) advocates the terms of Sport Plus and Plus Sport. Both of these approaches to youth and sport development refer to how agencies will respectively use either (a) non-sport objectives in sport development initiatives, or (b) the addition of sport to existing non-sport activities in an effort to 'hook' participants. Whilst Coalter has often identified the role of social capital and its role in developing active citizenship within sport programmes (2007/10), it is interesting to note his (2007) suggestion that many youth sport programmes specifically look to develop youth peer leaders. Such programs developed with the specific target of developing youth peer leaders seek to create sustainability and strengthen collective responsibility by training identified youth to plan, implement, and lead future sessions. And it is noteworthy that in this respect the use of social capital frequently specifically mentions the manner in which volunteers and coaches have been developed (i.e. Bell, 2007; Bradbury and Kay, 2008). As such, this demonstrates evidence of social capital's tenets of involvement in organisational life and

developing reciprocal support. Of course, it is important to acknowledge that there is a possibility of generalising the creation of programs that have the development of youth peer leaders as their specific aim. In this regard, perhaps the most interesting observation to be made of this type of research (that of social capital) is that oftentimes what some perhaps consider the minutiae of how these ‘leaders’ were chosen has been omitted. By contrast, other research has emphasised the development of recommended principles that frame best practise for youth sport development programs. For instance, Martinek and Hellison’s (1997) work synthesised a range of literature relating to youth programme best practice and research. Examples of the recommended approaches to successful programmes included: focusing on emotional needs, respecting individuality, creating boundaries, keeping program numbers relatively small, and empowering the young people. It is in this respect, and in the context of Plus Sport programmes, that the use of youth empowerment models may well be of help to developing a greater understanding of how behaviour changes in young people on sport intervention projects may be affected.

The field of youth empowerment refers broadly to the manner in which youth programmes can have their success measured, whilst simultaneously conceptualised through the use of the term empowerment. As an example of how this can work in applied studies, Gambone et al.’s (2006) survey of all 467 participants in nine Youth Leadership Development Initiatives works well. Here, Gambone et al. (2006) found that deliberate approaches to staffing and fostering decision-making within programmes resulted in their participants displaying more pronounced and developed pro-social behaviours than those programmes that did not. With respect to such behaviours, their work refers to what are distinctive aggregations of developmental outcome behaviours such as efficacy/agency and problem solving, and it is these that characterise what the broader field of youth development recognises as indicative of youth leadership and positive development.

For a more thorough conceptualisation of the way that the term empowerment is used in youth development models Jennings et al. (2006) note that it is defined through the fact that it is a process of social action. Moreover, the outcome of empowerment itself can be measured through individuals, and thus in many respects it can be seen to detail a psychological change. Additionally, the notion of collectivity can be used to measure it, whereby larger groups, i.e. a family or organisation, can demonstrate stronger links and an improved quality of community life. With regards to their development of the CYE model, Jennings et al. (2006) effectively presented an overview of four conceptual youth empowerment models, discussing the relative merits and strengths of each, before presenting a synthesis of what they believe are the six essential dimensions of Critical Youth Empowerment.

The four conceptual models of youth empowerment examined were firstly, Chinman and Linney's (1998) *Adolescent Empowerment Cycle* based on developing self-esteem and psychological theories of adolescent development. Secondly, Kim et al.'s (1998) *Youth Development and Empowerment Program Model* that looked to use meaningful participation and positive social bonding in community service projects for youth. Thirdly, Cargo et al.'s (2003) *Transactional Partnering Model* that emphasised the role of adults in empowering and enabling youth through incrementally according more responsibility to them. And lastly, the *Empowerment Education Model*, developed by Wallerstein et al. (2005), and that as Jennings et al. (2006:38) explain "links individual empowerment to community organizing". They go on to further state that the process of youth empowerment is best facilitated through "welcoming, youth-centred environments" (p. 33).

Consequently, and in presenting the manner in which sport programmes can be viewed, the six essential dimensions resulting from Jennings et al.'s (2006) examination of the four

above models argued that youth empowerment programs should offer and/or facilitate the following:

- *A welcoming and safe environment;*
- *Meaningful participation and engagement;*
- *Equitable power-sharing between youth and adults;*
- *Engagement in critical reflection on interpersonal and socio-political processes;*
- *Participation in sociopolitical processes to effect change; and*
- *Integrated individual- and community-level empowerment*

Figure 1: The six dimensions of critical youth empowerment (Jennings et al., 2006)

2.7 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter has allowed the reader to gain an understanding of the context of community coaching itself. It outlined how social policy and the concept of social capital have informed sport policy, and more specifically in this fashion, demonstrated how the positive benefits of sport have principally been measured through both the accrual of social capital and quantitative methodology within public and policy discourse. The chapter also summarised the CYE model. In summary, the chapter provides an overview of the context of the study through the presentation of relevant literature. In addition to this, it presents the key aspects of the CYE model that might enable a framework of reference to be used to guide and, critically in respect of this study, evaluate the effectiveness of community sports programs.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the rationale of the research methodology, give an introduction to the researcher and to discuss the impact of the pilot study. Additionally the research design including the sample selection process will be outlined and a section detailing the use of grounded theory in the analysis of the data is presented. Finally, the chapter has sections on reflexivity and trustworthiness that acknowledge the researcher's role in the generation of data.

3.2 RESEARCH RATIONALE

3.2.1 Research approach

Any research process is defined by choice (Crotty, 2004; Lynch, 2010). In this regard, the choice of research process for this study needed to be framed by the research questions: firstly, reporting and interpreting the coaches' perceptions of the effectiveness of sport intervention programmes, and secondly, the subsidiary questions of how they see their role within the programmes, whether these programmes led to appreciable changes in pro-social behaviour, and whether there was any long lasting effectiveness. Having said this, it is pertinent to note that the literature review discussed the fact that quantitative research, including studies that have had social capital as their research focus, has been the prime methodology for studies on the effectiveness of sport intervention programmes. However, as the principle research focus of this thesis was to record and examine the perceptions of community coaches in the context of positive youth development the constructivist paradigm of research was chosen as the methodological framework. This choice is justified by the fact that this viewpoint assumes that social phenomena are in constant flux, and developed through interaction and human meanings. This premise that

people can construct reality, through experience, culture, language, and in a broad sense, social constructs, means that different people will experience and perceive situations differently (Bryman, 2008; Robson, 2002; Smith, 2010). Shwandt (2000; 197) argues that at a basic level, “constructivism means that human beings do not find or discover knowledge so much as we construct or make it”. In this respect, using a number of coaches to recall, explain, and clarify their experiences of working in sport intervention programmes will generate different perceptions. Hence, the thesis’ justification for using the ontological viewpoint of constructivism.

3.2.2 Ontology and Epistemology

Potter (2006) discussed the relationship between natural science and human (social) science, and surmised that irrespective of philosophical differences, there were “right answers on which agreement could be reached and that true scholarship could be discovered” (p.76) through a systematic and rigorous application of a method. Understanding philosophy as the beliefs of someone, or some group, entitles the viewpoint that research philosophy is underpinned by different beliefs on how knowledge is acquired, and also how the ‘world’, or reality, is developed itself. These paradigms are explained through the use of epistemology and ontology respectively (Smith, 2010).

Ontology is the belief system that addresses the nature of reality, and can be seen through the distinctions of natural and social science through objectivism and constructivism respectively (Bryman, 2008). Objectivism sees reality and the world as separate from human meanings and governed by physical and social rules that can be objectively measured (Smith, 2010; Potter, 2006). In contrast, constructivism argues that social phenomena are developed by meanings and human interaction, and that the world is only seen through how humans themselves see it, thus implying that reality is in a “constant state of revision and flux” (Smith, 2010:8). Given the significance of this it is fair to say

that this means that reality is also a process of constructed meaning at the individual level. As such, the use of constructionism fits well with this researcher's belief that the fluidity of sport intervention programmes will generate different perceptions of their effectiveness or outcomes. In short, these programmes are multi-faceted, in a constant state of revision, and incorporate within their essence the process of social interaction.

The epistemological branch of science is concerned not with how the world operates (ontology), but rather with the acquirement of knowledge itself (Schwandt, 1994). Epistemology is seen through the two main philosophies of data collection - positivism and interpretivism (Bryman, 2008). Positivism is the philosophy of the natural sciences, and is concerned with the notion that everything is ultimately measurable. The inference here is that this approach only examines that which can be directly observed, and that with respect to the usage of positivism within the social sciences, it can be used in "the same way as the physical sciences such as physics or chemistry" (Liamputtong and Ezzy, 2005: 15). An interpretivist approach to research seeks to understand the meanings, motives and values that actually cause human behaviour. The central argument here is that the research focus of the natural and social sciences is different and requires a different approach from the positivist philosophy to acquiring knowledge in an effort to understand and study the world (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008). It is the researcher's view that each participant in this research had experiences and values that necessitated the interpretation of their constructed, lived through, knowledge.

Given this ontological and epistemological rationale it is important to understand the researcher bias within qualitative research. This is necessary as there is an inevitable positioning of the researcher at the hub of the research process itself. As such, in the case of this thesis, the research process is a product of the researcher's biography. Brady (2005) discusses the notion that "phenomenology brings the observer's equipment to the fore and

makes it part of the equation of meaningful construction and participation” (p.1007). Put simply, my experiences and perceptions have allowed the formation of this research due to prior knowledge and perceptions. Therefore it is necessary to be aware of the manner in which my interpretations of the research and applications of methodology (interview questions) have been affected, principally through a working class male identity, in order to allow the reader to have a clear picture of the subjectivity and objectivity that has been applied to the research (Flyvbjerg, 2008; Gray, 2004; Oleson, 2008).

So it is with this in mind that I will offer some reflective comments on how my life story may have influenced the nature of this research. With this regarded as an issue, it is worth considering that Janesick (2000:389) notes “the description of the role of the researcher is a critical component of the written report of the study” and the researcher must “honestly probe his or her own biases”. Growing up in a community that scores high on many indices of social deprivation, and one which does indeed attract funding for community sport projects, my perception, my reality, is that community coaching necessitates an understanding of how and why people behave like this. And despite all the “strong theoretical arguments for the potentially positive contribution which sport can make to reduce the propensity to commit crime” (Coalter, 2001:31), the national emphasis on using sport intervention programmes, and the key message from the Audit Commission (2009:2) that “Sport and leisure have an important role in preventing anti-social behaviour” for Local Authorities, I wanted to see just how these sporting interventions really work from those with first-hand knowledge...the coaches themselves.

Building on the above outline of the ontological and epistemological rationale, Denzin and Lincoln (2008) also identify methodological (knowledge acquirement) principles and the ethical (axiology) dimension and these are now considered in more detail.

3.2.3 Interviews – rationale for the methodology

Having discussed the ontological and epistemological stance, it is now necessary to relate this to the thesis' design and use of a qualitative methodological approach. Methodologically, the positivist paradigm emphasises methods such as questionnaires and large-scale social surveys. These can provide statistical data to make quantitative correlations on large samples. Such an approach can adopt a deductive (conclusions generated from previously known constructs) logic of enquiry that stresses the importance of hypotheses drawn from theory (Potter, 2006; Oppenheim, 1992). In contrast, the qualitative perspective can apply a more inductive (the research generates theory from the evidence) process that "emphasises an understanding of human behaviour" (Smith, 2010:8). Considering the nature of this study, with its intention to report and interpret the coaches' perceptions of what constitutes effectiveness within sport intervention programmes and their roles within them, it is clear that the qualitative perspective is the more suitable methodology. And as such, Nichols' (2007:40) assertion that "Quantitative methods tend to tell us what has happened, but not how and why" is particularly apt in this respect. The following section will elaborate on this choice.

A constructivist research approach is based on the premise that the basis for actions of humans is the use of interpretations, meanings and motives (Sparkes, 1992; Butler-Kisber). For the purpose of this study, it was necessary to use the rationale of an interpretivist philosophy in order to examine coach perceptions of the efficacy of sport in sport intervention projects. Indeed, as noted by Robson (2002:24), the use of interpretivism allows the use of "conscious, purposive actors who have ideas about their world" in order to "attach meaning to them". Moreover, Liamputtong (2010:xi) claims that "because of its fluidity and flexibility, qualitative research is suited to understanding the meanings, interpretations, and subjective experiences of individuals". Also, Gratton and

Jones (2004:22) go on to further explain the aims of qualitative research as “to capture qualities that are not quantifiable, such as feelings, thoughts, experiences and so on”.

The methods used in qualitative methodology include interviews and focus groups. (Bryman, 2008). Interviews can elicit the beliefs, value and meanings that respondents attach to areas of research that may be being undertaken. Advantages of interviews are threefold; firstly, that as stated they can elicit underlying beliefs and attitudes. Secondly, that they can potentially allow unexpected themes and data to emerge. And thirdly, they allow those interviewed to discuss their experiences in their own words. In summary, they provide the potential for in-depth qualitative data (Johnson, 2002; Hughes, 2002; Amis, 2005; Rubin and Rubin, 1995). With regards to specific examples of questions used in this study, it must be reiterated that the interviews became, predominantly, opportunities for the respondents to talk about their experiences in their own words. Having said this, the interview questions themselves included how the coaches defined the purpose of their sports projects, the type of coaching that they used, and the extent to which participant behaviour had improved in the programmes that they had coached in (see appendix A for interview guide). Section 3.5.2 *Data collection* discusses this in more depth.

3.2.4 Pilot study reflections – impact and process

Pilot studies are considered to be a useful tool for research, and help to what Robson (2002:383) states “throw up some of the inevitable problems of converting your design into reality”. This allows the researcher to be “reflexive about the process of data collection” (Clark and Causer, 2002:170) and allows the researcher to modify and adapt the research methods for the main data collection phase. The pilot study for this thesis was undertaken in July 2010 at the participant’s home residence. The participant that had spent three years as the lead coach for a social intervention coaching programme based in an area of high social deprivation from the years 2005-2008. The aims of the pilot

interview were to inform the researcher of question relevance, success, and to allow for assessment of the interview techniques and questions (Smith, 2010; Veal, 1997; Lynch, 2010). A semi-structured interview was conducted and a full transcript of the interview was undertaken verbatim. The questions asked were developed from the thesis' core research question of what constitutes 'effectiveness' within sport intervention programmes from the coach perspective. However, at this point of the research an additional set of questions relating to what might constitute community coaching skills was also asked. As a consequence of the pilot study, the direction of the thesis changed. Essentially, the pilot study highlighted a philosophical crossroads in the intended thesis. It seemed to consist of two viable areas of interest and possible research. Firstly, investigating the pedagogical skills necessary for the community coaching context, or, secondly, to look at the effectiveness of community coaching in terms of participant behaviour from the coaches perspective. It is generally agreed that undertaking research necessitates a critical examination of a researcher's strengths, weaknesses, and motivations – including personal interest and experience (Thomas, 2009; Bryman, 2008). Lynch (2010), in particular, concentrates on important characteristics that researchers should self-examine, with the ideas that knowledge of a particular subject and intellectual curiosity should, ideally, underpin choices of research. And it is in this respect, and following a period of consideration, that the researcher made the decision to follow the second path because of existing knowledge and curiosity.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

3.3.1 Sampling

In the context of this study's interpretive framework, it was deemed necessary to select a number of people that met specific criteria relevant to the literature review and the research topic. Essentially, those chosen for the study needed to have significant

experience of community coaching and involvement in social intervention programmes in order to reflect upon longer term processes. This selection needed to reflect the philosophy of purposive (Robson, 2002), or theoretical (Bryman, 2008) sampling. The manner in which they were chosen was through the researcher's prior knowledge of, and relationships developed with, community coaches. The researcher was previously (to the study) involved in coach tutoring flag football (a non-contact American football game), and through this most of the coaches within this study completed the flag football coaching accreditation so that they might use it in the community setting. And it is this prior coaching experience that led to relationships developing with said coaches. This non-probability (Miles and Huberman, 1994), or 'purposeful' sampling (Patton, 2002) technique encompassed using what can be termed the key informant sampling method – whereby the participant possesses 'specific knowledge' (Gratton and Jones, 2010:113) that enables the research to be more clearly explored. In addition to this, the 'snowball' sampling method was utilised in respect of one coach who was recommended (with considerable experience in the field of sport intervention programmes) to the researcher by one of the other coaches (Cresswell, 2007). In essence, all of the participants had what Cresswell (2007:128) refers to as "experience of the phenomenon being studied".

3.3.2 Coach backgrounds – participant biographies

Nine coaches were recruited for the study. For brief vignettes and some biographical details of the nine coaches including their experience in social intervention projects, please see the table on the following page:

TABLE 1: COACH BACKGROUNDS - PARTICIPANT BIOGRAPHIES.

This table gives details of the coaches and their experience in the community setting, and the programmes that they focused on. The participants have all had pseudonyms given to protect their right to confidentiality as outlined in the participant information sheets and the consent forms that they signed. All of the participants were at time of writing based in Sussex. For information and further examples of programmes that the coaches had delivered in please see *4.1.1 The sports coaching context – an outline of where the coaches coached*

Mike is in his late thirties and is the community and education manager for a community and education scheme that is run by a non-league football club. This club has run this scheme for five years at time of writing, and has a number of part time coaches that work within the community in what is termed a social interventional capacity. The participant has himself worked as a coach within the more disadvantaged areas of the club's catchment area, and has significant experience (seven plus years at time of writing) in running social inclusion programmes both at this club, and his previous position within a similar role for a football league club.

Peter is in his early forties, and has worked in the community sports setting for over ten years. In this time for eight years he worked full-time variously as a coach, sports development officer, and sport project co-coordinator for a local authority specifically in areas of social intervention. He used to deliver up to 16 sessions a week in areas of high social deprivation. He now lectures in an FE college, and also works for a variety of coaching providers (principally football in the community) within the community setting.

David is in his fifties now. He has coached for over 25 years in club settings, and for the past seven years has worked for a local authority in a sports capacity. This seven year (at time of writing) term with the local authority has included six years in a community regeneration type programme that used sport to get people active and to address issues of social inclusion. Currently, David is working with young people who are excluded from school. These young people generally come from youth offending teams or the youth development service. David uses sport as part of an education programme to "turn people around and get them back on the straight and narrow".

Samuel is in his forties, and is a regional co-ordinator for a national organisation that offers sport to young people in disadvantaged communities. He has been in this role for three years at time of writing but has been working in a community development coaching role for approximately ten years. In addition to this he is head of youth development for a local semi-pro football club

Paul has been coaching for about three years. He is in his early twenties, and supplements his main job as a PE instructor at a school specialising in emotional and behavioural difficulties with some casual work for a football in the community scheme. He has coached on a number of sport intervention projects in deprived communities.

Jake is currently a university student doing a coaching related course. He is in his early twenties, and has been coaching for the last three years. At this moment in time he is coaching as part of the team for a football in the community project. He has also coached on two sport intervention programmes for a local authority sports development department. This principally involved coaching young people that had been chosen by a community officer to participate in as part of their crime prevention strategy.

Mark is also a university student doing a coaching related course. He is also in his early twenties but has been coaching for five years now. He has worked for both local authority and football clubs sports development departments in a coaching capacity. For three years he oversaw interventions set up in holiday programmes for a local authority.

Tom is a casual, but essentially full time coach for a football in the community scheme. The premise of most of the coaching that he oversees is to try to stop anti-social behaviour, and to try and develop players in order to identify possible recruits for the centre of excellence. Tom is in his early twenties and has been coaching for three years.

Simon is a local authority sports development officer who has been in his position for over ten years. In this time he has overseen a large number of schemes that have had social intervention as the core philosophy of their undertaking. Simon is a qualified coach, and whilst he is principally the manager and architect of the schemes and uses coaches to deliver them, he has often had to operate as a coach in this role as well.

3.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Having previously outlined the epistemological and ontological viewpoints alongside the methodological (knowledge acquirement) principles, it is now prudent to briefly discuss the last research paradigm that this chapter initially identified through Denzin and Lincoln's (2008) work, the ethical paradigm. Ethics, in a more singular conceptualisation, encompasses a range of issues linked to codes, consent, and confidentiality (Ryen, 2008; Flick, 2009), and a key element that must be considered is the application of qualitative research to the inquiry process (Guba and Lincoln, 2008).

Gaining trust and confidence from particular groups necessitates the discussion, or awareness of, how the researcher has entered the 'fray' of the research itself, by being aware of the underpinning values, objectives, and ultimately control of the research itself, that the researcher has (Finch, 1986). In keeping with the University of Birmingham's (UoB) ethical and research protocols, their Application for Ethical Review form was completed and accepted. Additionally, and with reference to the UoB's ethical and research protocols, as part of the interview process participants had the issues of anonymity and confidentiality explained to them. Before interviews commenced participants read the participant information sheets explaining the nature of the research, and the fact that every possible effort would be taken to ensure confidentiality and anonymity (see Appendix B). After any further questions were answered the participants signed the consent forms (see Appendix C). It is worth noting also that all the participants had previously been made aware of the scope and nature of the study and its implications for confidentiality and anonymity in pre-interview contact, i.e. through email, telephone, or face to face contact.

Having explained the nature of the ethical considerations, the next section of the chapter will discuss how the grounded theory method was used both in the pilot study (to

determine the theoretical framework of the thesis itself and the structure for the data collection of the thesis itself.

3.5 GROUNDED THEORY METHODOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS

3.5.1 Grounded theory

The following section of this chapter will discuss grounded theory and its use in the data analysis. A deductive approach to a study is one that has developed its observations and findings principally from existing knowledge and theory. In contrast to this approach, when using grounded theory some research is undertaken with no attempt at using theory to direct the study. This direction of research underpins the manner in which the grounded theory method is used to systematically analyse qualitative data. Of most relevance here is the fact that the data collection, the analysis of the data, and the generation of theory, are closely linked and based on the assumption that the data itself will produce the theory. This method sits in opposition to the deductive method that begins with a hypothesis, or theoretical model, and then applies it to the phenomenon under investigation. Strauss and Corbin (1990:23) support this proposition by stating that grounded theory is “one that is inductively derived from the study of the phenomenon that it represents”. Essentially, their proposal states that the theory or theories resulting from a grounded theory approach have been discovered, generated, and developed through the research process itself (Cresswell, 2009; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). In practical terms, grounded theory necessitates an iterative approach to generating data. Firstly, a general research question will be investigated through initial theoretical sampling. From this, key elements of the data are encoded and grouped into similar concept. The iteration comes into effect when constant comparisons are made between the concepts and categories can be formed. It is these categories that can be further examined by exploring the relationships between them, and correspondingly, these relationships can act the basis for the creation of a theory. With

respect to the justification of the use of grounded theory for this study, it is noteworthy to recall the fact that the pilot study altered the direction of the thesis. As a result, the researcher's initial, substantive, question was to measure the effectiveness of sport social intervention schemes from the perspective of the coaches delivering them. The critical element here was that the researcher made an informed decision, based on allowing the stories of the coaches to surface and the absence of specific literature or research related to coach perceptions of the effectiveness of sport intervention schemes, to try to not actively influence the generation of the data. This reflected the researcher's desire to enter the field with as few pre-determined beliefs as possible, in order to better allow the perspective of the coaches to take prominence.

Now, having stated the above, it is necessary to examine what can be considered a particularly salient feature of grounded theory. This feature is the fact that, according to Charmaz (2006), two types of grounded theory exist. These are, respectively, 'objectivist grounded theory' or 'constructivist grounded theory'. Whilst both of these approaches follow the inductive model to generating data, they deal with, in order, either an approach that sees data as objective fact and the researcher as distinct from the phenomenon being investigated, or, an approach that sees both the researcher and the phenomenon as inter-linked. It is with this in mind that the researcher must express his belief that the results presented in this study are a consequence of an interactive process (Charmaz, 2006), with the perspectives of both the researcher and the coaches, and the subsequent analysis of the data generated, combining to create what may be construed as the 'reality' of the study. This recognisable, yet fluid and shifting recognition of how the interaction between the researcher and participants has influenced the process of the thesis itself, is reflective of the nature in which grounded theory can be seen as a contested concept, yet still has

sufficient theoretical weighting to accentuate “the ways in which the method has redrawn the methods map” (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007:4).

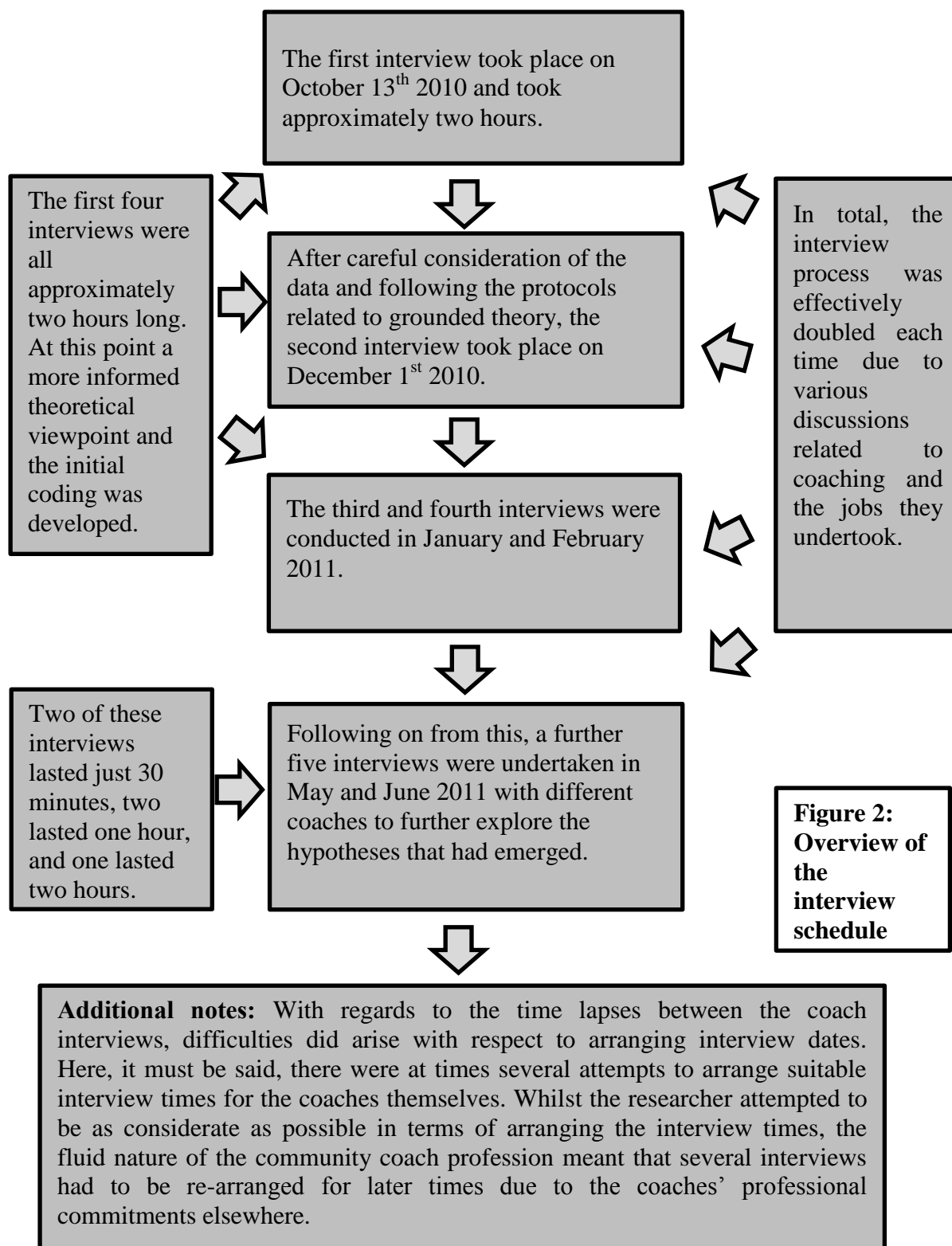
3.5.2 Data collection

Nine coaches were interviewed in total and the data collection took place over a nine month period. All of the coaches participated in semi-structured interviews and these were conducted at various sites. The sites were principally chosen as being convenient for the interview participants themselves. The sites where the interviews took place included home addresses, work and office spaces, and public areas such as a pub as well. Each coach had participated in either email or phone contact, where the scope and nature of the research was explained to them, before they had agreed to be interviewed. Before the interviews proper commenced, the participants read an information sheet related to the study, were reminded of their right to withdraw at any time, and then signed a consent form as per University of Birmingham ethical procedures.

Both a digital tape recorder and a cassette tape recorder were used and full transcripts of the interviews were undertaken verbatim. The data was recorded in Microsoft word files and stored in a password protected memory stick. As stated previously, the methodology of using interviews allowed for the participant to describe and expand on their experiences, observations, and practice. The semi-structured interview technique allowed a standard set of questions to be flexibly adapted according to the position and flow of the interview itself. The semi-structured method also allowed important themes and perspectives to emerge, as conversation sequences, ideas, and participant reflection on the research subject were discussed (Bryman, 2008; Smith, 2010). The questions asked were developed from the core concepts of what constituted social inclusion criteria, what kind of coaching they did, and to what extent participant behaviour had improved in social intervention programmes using sport that they had coached in. These were perceptual

categories, and much like Butler-Kisber's (2010:52) assertion that interviewing can be used to study not just "the what, but more importantly the 'how' of lived experience", were intended to draw out accounts from the view of the coach. These three main question areas were placed on an interview guide (see Appendix A), and dialogue and conversation was developed around them. Interviews were always completed with the opportunity for participants to address any possible questions and, oftentimes, to further discuss the issues presented. What was also given after interviews was the opportunity to gain feedback from the data, and this was taken by all of the coaches.

The interviews were undertaken over a nine month period, and each interview was transcribed and studied before the next was undertaken. Please see figure 2 next page for an overview of the data collection process.



3.5.3 Data analysis

As stated before, the first interview enabled the construction of different questions for the following interview. The coding process within grounded theory allows the researcher

a “condensed, abstract view with scope and dimension that encompasses otherwise seemingly disparate phenomena” (Holton, 2007:266). This gives researchers the opportunity to conceptually categorise, and importantly in the case of grounded research, allow for the construction of data. Much of the manner in which this formal categorisation can be made is through the use of memos. Memos are a way in which more precision and thought can be applied to broad categories – in effect, making connections between codes through a methodical process and structure (Charmaz, 2006; Willis, 2010). Given this, and considering that grounded theory methodology is concerned with allowing theories to emerge in an inductive fashion, it is of no surprise that memos are considered to be an essential part of grounded theory. In the case of this study, memos were systematically used to help refine the researcher’s thoughts and the manner in which they approached subsequent interviews. An example of one such memo, created after the first interview, is as follows:

Table 2: Open code and memo from the 2nd interview.

<p>Memo: Peter – 2nd interview</p> <p>Code name: Anti-authority</p> <p>The young people that these coaches have worked with seem to look to push, or perhaps just explore, what it is that they can and can’t do within the sessions. It is almost like they want to see if the coaches will be prepared to stay and work with them.</p> <p><i>Further questions for the study – how might the coaches respond to this kind of behaviour? Are there strategies they use? How do they overcome any initial distrust? Do they look to work with the young people?</i></p>

This use of memos allows researchers to develop greater specificity and bridge a more precise sequence of coding, ones that reflect an increasing level of conceptual complexity. Strauss and Corbin (1990) outlined three distinct categories of coding, open, axial, and selective. Additionally, Charmaz (2006) makes a further distinction within the coding categories by outlining; initial coding: “line by line, incident by incident” (p.54) constructed codes, focused coding: a more conceptual categorisation, axial coding: developing coherence through the data, and additionally using the terminology of theoretical coding: developing and integrating theories to explain or “specify possible relationships between categories” (p.63). It is within this context that the thesis will now discuss the open, focused, and theoretical coding that was undertaken within and after the entire interview process.

The following section demonstrates how the discussions were interpreted to arrive at the codes in Tables 3-5. Following this is an overview of the process undertaken for the generation of data through grounded theory.

OPEN: Liamputtong (2010:216) explains how “open coding is referred to as the ‘first run’ at coding data”. As stated beforehand, the open coding for the first and second interviews enabled the research questions themselves to be developed further by having categorised data that could be explored in subsequent interviews. In particular, the notions of anti-authoritarianism, chaos and unpredictability, developing respect, helping others, and independence and mutual interdependency were searched for within later data. Taking this into account, an example of the open coding is shown in **Table 1 below:**

TABLE 3: OPEN CODING	Possible category
<p>Excerpt 1 from the first interview: Mike (13/10/2010)</p> <p>When they come in...I always remember some of the 14-16 year old stuff that we do. The educational kick-start programme that we do. And when you get a group of normally 8-10 14-16 year old males, you’ve got a pecking order. And the pecking order within this group is usually who’s been to court the most times, and what you’ve been to court for. That sort of tends to sort out the groups really. But, in a group they can be like that. But, when you get to know them, and that might take a few weeks, when you get to know them, then you might get to speak to them on a one to one situation. Then those barriers might go down. And they might relax a little bit more. Because they come into a new environment, they’re sort of on tenterhooks really, “why I am here. Should I really be doing this? Have I chosen to do this or have I been forced to do this?” as sometimes the agencies will say “hey, you’re into football off you go” when the kid might not want to do something. So, some of them will come in with real attitude, and the ones that come in with, some of them that come in with a real attitude, you tend to know that when you’ve got a group of ten you tend to know those that will stay the whole course, or those that will give it up after a couple of sessions. We’re under no jurisdictions to get up and grab them and say hey come back in again. We just let them go, umm, they might be...yeah the language is just part and parcel of their vocabulary.</p> <p>A group of 8 to 10 young people, all with challenging issues, one of them for his age group...the biggest offender in the county came to us with a real chip on his shoulder, ummm...all sorts of language</p> <p>Excerpt 2 from the first interview When it’s a Friday night street project, you don’t know who’s coming, you don’t know what sort of day they’ve had, what they’ve been drinking, what they’ve been taking. If you know that they’re in a certain situation you may talk to them and say “look, it’s not safe for you to take part because of these reasons”, that’s quite key. Some of it is anger management...</p> <p>Excerpt 3 from the first interview</p> <p>Y’know, if you know them and you begin to understand, if you just know their name, by...every week...you get to know their names “hi Joe how’s it going?”. It’s an in. Rather than “you alright”. It’s a different thing”</p> <p>“They come and help! They come and help. They might volunteer. They might volunteer, umm, they’ll always ask when there’s different things going on. Or when are we doing the tournament again, when are we starting the Friday night stuff again. Can we do this, can we do that. And, y’know, they’ll take it on board”</p> <p>You can have them wandering on the football court, sometimes with a cigarette in their hand and a can of beer or something. Its “you can’t do that here” and they reply “sorry” and they walk off.</p>	<p>Social grouping</p> <p>Developing relationships</p> <p>Wary and guarded</p> <p>Anti-authority</p> <p>Possible confrontation</p> <p>Chaos and unpredictability</p> <p>Developing respect</p> <p>Independence and mutual interdependency</p> <p>Helping others</p>

FOCUSED: Having developed some of the preliminary framework for analysis through the open coding that took place in the first two interviews, more focused codes were developed for the next two. Focused, or selective coding, differs from open coding in that it seeks to establish the central focus upon which themes are identified and fit within categories of interest (Charmaz, 2006). Overall, data emerged from the first four interviews that indicated that within the intervention schemes, initial resistance displayed by participants then developed into pro-social behaviours alongside burgeoning coach-participant relationships. These categories of interest were the most common codes within the data, and at this point, theoretical saturation was completed as no new data had emerged by the end of the fourth interview.

TABLE 4: FOCUSED CODING EXAMPLES FROM THE FIRST, THIRD AND FOURTH INTERVIEWS

	Possible category
Excerpt 1 from the third interview: David (21/01/2011) They would talk about their graffiti, intimidations, gang related wandering as they do, no-go areas where people won't walk at night. Taking money of people, threatening beatings, y'know, and we're talking youngsters here, we're not talking about older boys	Belligerence
Excerpt 2 from the fourth interview: Samuel (04/03/2011) They're very blasé; they give you, if I can use the term 'gangsta' type of thing? They talk to you in language that you don't understand	Initial resistance
Excerpt 1 from the first interview: Mike (13/10/2010) So, some of them will come in with real attitude, and the ones that come in with, some of them that come in with a real attitude, you tend to know that when you've got a group of ten you tend to know those that will stay the whole course, or those that will give it up after a couple of sessions, even a whole hour.	Cultural opposition
Excerpt 2 from the third interview: David (21/01/2011) It is territorial here in this town, and there are several pockets of gangs, crews, call them what you'd like, who are "this is my turf, that's your turf" blah, blah, blah. But you can go into neutral areas and they will turn up together and play. At first, they wouldn't travel to play each other 'I'm not going over there; they're not coming over here'. So we started off in the park. They would come down and play each other in the park. And eventually, it's kind of, 'yes, look we're playing a game' they'll come to each other's areas and happily interact"	Initial resistance
Excerpt 3 from the third interview: David (21/01/2011) But normal drinks bottles, plastic bags, that they've brought sandwiches in or something, they'll tend to get left behind...but after a while they clean them up	Increase in pro-social behaviours
Excerpt 2 from the fourth interview: Samuel (04/03/2011) The older ones don't initially help the younger ones...but just silly things like helping them do their shoelaces up, probably in week one they wouldn't even dream of it. But because we say to some of them "can you help these guys out, you've been there you know what it's like". And by week seven or eight, it's "you alright?" they come in and they all know each other's names.	Welfare
Excerpt 4 from the third interview: David (21/01/2011) Initially when we turned up in the van they would just wait for you to do it all and then start. And they you will get the curious ones who say "can I help?" It's always advisable to try and get them involved in some way because that's part of the engagement process. So it could be laying out cones. We have an inflatable pitch, so we could say "ok, you stand on that corner and hold it up while the air flows in" and all of that, once they start doing that, it becomes <i>their</i> pitch..."	Increase in pro-social behaviours
Excerpt 3 from the fourth interview: Samuel (04/03/2011) When you first meet them you learn to do their handshakes, all the thumbs and the knuckles and all this stuff like that. What we say to them is when they come into a session its "evening how are you?" and when they leave its "thank you for coming, hope to see you next week". And then over a period of time they'll come in and say 'alright Ken, alright Scott, alright Mike' and say thank you!	Burgeoning coach-participant relationships.

THEORETICAL: Theoretical coding allows for the relationships between the results of focused coding to be explored and possibly specified (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007). Perhaps more specifically, what they can do is develop a more coherent ‘web’ and interlinked structure through the focused codes. And it is this potential to “weave the fractured story back together” (Glaser, 1978:72) that can enable theory to emerge more naturally. So, in this sense, using theoretical coding allowed a connection between the focused codes and the narrative of community coaching to be developed and explored. Of added benefit is the fact that it also allows a more systematic process in analysing the data to be followed.

Glaser (1978) initially presented 18 theoretical coding families, although he was well aware and suggested caution in people following them too prescriptively, or believing them to be exclusive in any fashion. Indeed, he raised the possibility of researchers being able to develop their own coding families from his initial ones. But for this research, Glaser’s (1978) theoretical codes of respectively, Cutting Point (in particular with his examples of boundary and deviance), Interactive (reciprocity, mutual dependency), Identity-Self (Self-evaluation, self-worth), and the Cultural analytic category seemed to fit well with the data and the focused coding.

TABLE 5: THEORETICAL CODING: Theoretical coding: how empowerment leads to increases in pro-social behaviour

For the coaches in this study, oftentimes the success of the schemes, measured through an improvement in participant behaviour, was linked to what was a broad process of incrementally giving the participants some level of responsibility – in effect, making their participation meaningful. With so much of the data alluding to what can be considered the importance of developing relationships and incrementally giving power and responsibility to the participants, this process of incremental engagement was categorised in five ways. The first, Cutting Point – Deviance and Boundaries, represents the manner in which, for the coaches in this study, an appreciation and understanding of, and sympathy with, initially difficult participant behaviour was critical to developing any context within which to work in. This category was developed through the focused codes of initial resistance; cultural opposition; and belligerence.

The second category (Interactive -reciprocity, mutual dependency) expresses how the coach-participant relationships could be developed, and as such, break down the barriers between the participants and those coaches seen as, at times, authority figures. Key to this category too, was the manner in which the coaches could present a welcoming environment – free from judgement and bullying– with closer relationships and rapport created.

The third category (Cultural – Social Norms and Values) depicts the manner in which many participants started to help others – their friends, fellow participants, family, or oftentimes, the coaches themselves. Perhaps key to this category is the fact that these ‘new’ pro-social behaviours were frequently encouraged or even enabled by the coaches, who, conceivably, could act as intermediaries who facilitated the moves towards a more considered approach and self-control of the participants. The focused codes of welfare, and increase in pro-social behaviours underpinned the development of this category.

The fourth category (Identity-Self , self-evaluation, self-worth) perhaps best encapsulates how the participants would have developed a deeper ability to critically reflect, act independently, and be more community minded as the programmes and interaction with the coaches continued.

The fifth category (empowerment) captures how the coaches ‘coached’. More particularly it represented how they saw their practice in developing participants, not especially in sporting excellence, but in personal terms. This was done through the continual engagement and incrementally given levels of responsibility overseen by the coaches, yet worked in a broader process that sympathy and understanding of social conditions. In effect, this category embodies a significant mutual trust.

In summary, any meaningful improvements in pro-social behaviours for participants within these schemes was predicated upon a structured process, orchestrated by the coaches, that emphasised purposeful participation and a supportive environment. Indeed, it could be argued that a more integrative and broader scope than traditional sports coaching allows, and one which is much more akin to that of youth work, exemplifies what may be considered the ‘successful’ practice of community coaching.

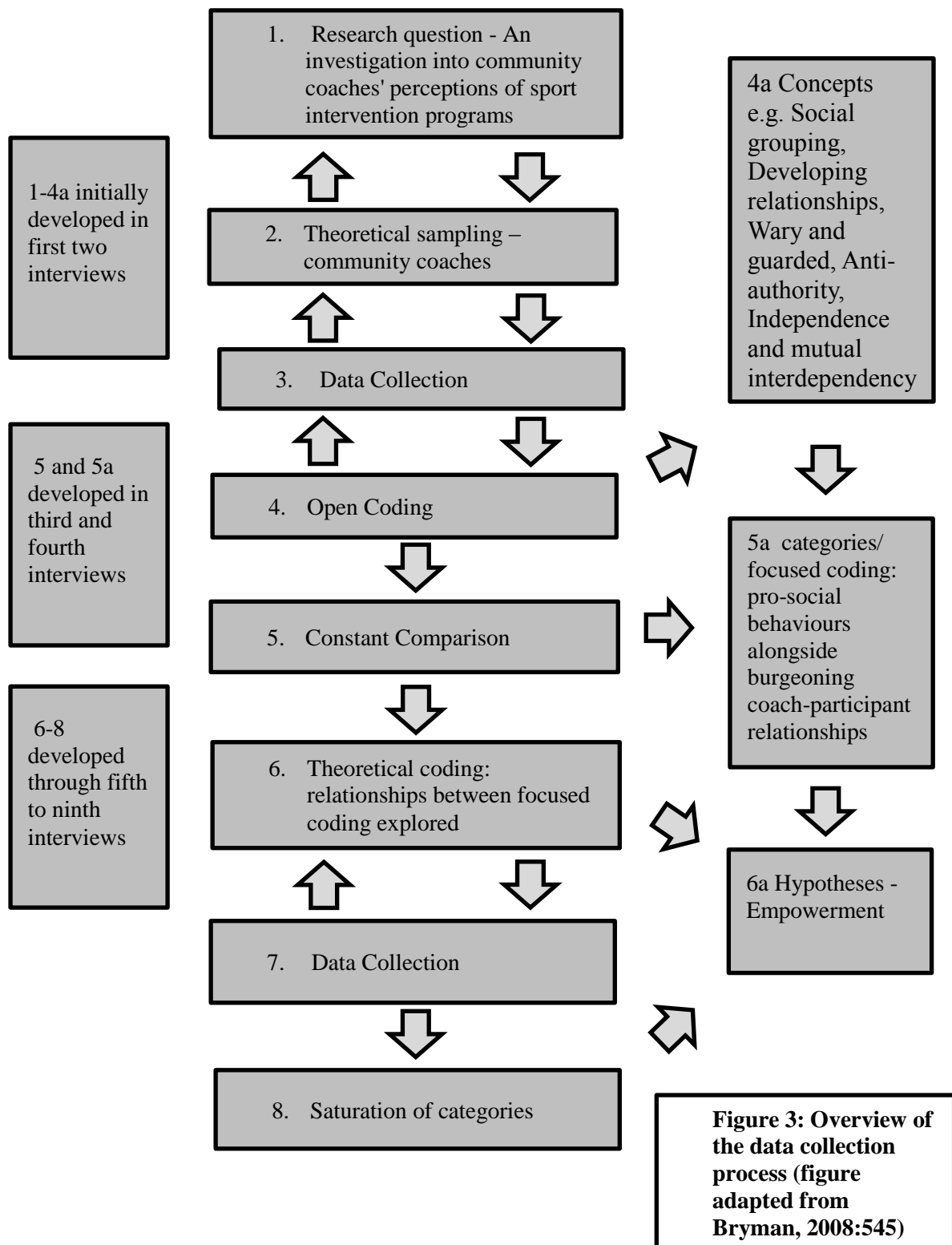
Having concluded that the evidence generated from the first four interviews indicated that some participants' behaviour over the course of a social intervention scheme improved, and that the coach-participant relationship seemed key to increases in pro-social behaviour, the idea that empowerment might best explain the empirical indicators of the data itself (the transcribed interview answers) emerged. As a result, some of the questions subsequently asked in the last five interviews used what had been found through the theoretical codes to inform the discussions. Finally, each interview was then re-examined and sections of the text that related to the conceptual categories identified were placed together. And through this allocation of text and responses into appropriate categories, a more coherent basis for the discussion section started to emerge.

Broadly then, grounded theory is not, per se, a theory in and of itself, rather it is a methodological approach undertaken within qualitative research that allows conceptual frameworks or theories to emerge. This is achieved through the gradual development and construction of inductive analysis. And so this study used grounded theory in order that a very specific structure – coding, analysing, and memos - could be followed. Given that the researcher had no preconceived idea of what they would find, this pragmatic approach to research allowed the conceptual frameworks, theories, key messages and the story to emerge. In summary, elements of grounded theory were used to structure and direct the method so that, in effect, the data collection and the analysis ran concurrently.

3.5.4 Saturation

Bryant and Charmaz (2007) consider one of the benefits of using grounded theory to be the fact that it addresses the question of when researchers should stop collecting data. They discuss saturation within grounded theory by using the analogy of a sponge that can hold no more water, and relate this to the fact that any additional information garnered through continued research would not contribute to its existing categories, nor develop

newer categories. In terms of the responses and their characteristics and consistency for this research, the commonalities within the range of community coach experiences were made more evident as the final three interviews took place. Whilst a critical analysis of this statement would indicate that saturation cannot be 'proved', and, indeed, Charmaz (2006) makes reference to this, it was the researcher's opinion that further participants within the research project would not have elicited any new information. Indeed, the researcher felt that no new interpretations would develop due to the significant similarities in the coach experiences and perceptions of the participants' positive behavioural changes. For an overview of the process undertaken for the generation of data through grounded theory within this study see figure 3 next page:



3.6 REFLEXIVITY

3.6.1 The researcher's position

Reflexivity allows researchers to demonstrate awareness of how their role within the research will have impacted upon the data collection process itself (Finley, 2004). The

position of the researcher, their beliefs, and their background all need to be recognised in order to inform how the research has been shaped (Bryman, 2008). It is interesting to note also that an essential element of grounded theory calls for researchers to not actively influence the collection and analysis of data by suspending pre-determined beliefs as much as possible (Charmaz, 2005; Bryant and Charmaz, 2007). Accordingly, the method of research coding used for this thesis was attempted in a strict, inductive, sense. Consequently the emergence of Jennings et al.'s (2006) CYE model as the key theoretical framework to explain the data took place in what was considered to be an environment free of preconceptions in the collection and analysis of data, and also followed conventional methodological good practice in using verbatim transcripts, thus allowing conversations and dialogue to develop from the initial semi-structured interviews. However, from a critical, reflexive, standpoint it is worth noting that I initially attempted to try grounded theory with Glaser's approach and using axial coding which 'pushed' the data into preconceived theoretical categories. A traditional approach to grounded theory assumes that the researcher is 'detached' from the theory and that theory is waiting to be discovered. The constructivist approach recognises that the researcher and the research process as integrated and that any theoretical understanding or interpretation is mutually constructed between the researcher and the participant. Because of this, a re-emphasis on the focused codes and Charmaz' constructivist approach was chosen.

3.6.2 Re-examination of the data and final presentation

This chapter has so far presented the manner in which the data collection was justified, undertaken, and understood through the use of grounded theory methodology. What it has done additionally is outline Charmaz' (2006) explanation of 'objectivist grounded theory' and 'constructivist grounded theory'. The critical element here is I became aware of my impact on the data generation and understanding, and thus stated that the research fit the

‘constructivist’ model of grounded theory. It is in this respect that further reflection on the discussion chapter and the manner in which what had occurred and why it had occurred in the study had been explained, that Jennings et al.’s (2006) work was deemed to be better suited for the study’s purposes.

3.7. TRUSTWORTHINESS

From a somewhat universal perspective reliability can be defined as “the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions” (Bell, 1999: 50-1), and refers to the “consistency of the results obtained” (Gratton and Jones, 2004: 85). Further to this, validity can be explained by Bell (1999), who states that it “tells us whether an item measures or describes what it is supposed to measure or describe” (p 51).

With respect to this study, it can be argued that it has measured what it intended to measure, and in that respect is valid in terms of its research aims. Assessing the degree of reliability of the study is also relatively unproblematic, in that the instrumentation and data analysis would presumably present similar data with the same subject (Bryman, 2008). However, these are basic statements that do not really account for any mitigation or strategies undertaken to ensure how this research, entirely qualitative in its design, was ensured of rigorousness.

Indeed, there are broad issues regarding what may be considered the truth of qualitative study, particularly when contrasted with results garnered from quantitative research – typically those that have been framed within a positivistic philosophy of science that examines directly observed phenomena, and assumes that everything is ultimately measurable (Bryman, 2008; Butler-Kisber, 2010). This is of particular note if we consider Given and Saumure’s (2008:89) reference to the inherent tensions within qualitative

research when it is framed within the “confines of the often ill-fitting quantitative parameters”.

And it is here that the term trustworthiness can be used in qualitative research in place of, or complimentary to, the terms validity and reliability. Whilst the ways and terms that trustworthiness is specified are at times different, such as Butler-Kisber’s (2008) inference that it can directly replace validity, and Charmaz’ (2005) broad scope of contextual familiarity and methodological rigorousness, the essence of the term, irrespective of the nuances within the criteria defining it, is to measure the quality of qualitative research. And it is in this regard, one of acknowledging different nuances, that Guba and Lincoln’s (1994) criteria within trustworthiness of credibility, and confirmability are helpful.

It is generally agreed that credibility is a term that explains how conventional good practice has been undertaken, whilst at the same time confirmation of the researcher’s interpretation of the social world they have explored is sought from those within it (Bryman, 2008; Roulston, 2010). Section 3.5.2 *Data collection* outlined how contact with the coaches in this study was made through either a preliminary meeting or email/telephone contact to explain the scope and nature of the research. And the section went on to explain that the coaches had the opportunity to discuss the interviews after they had taken place. In this respect, the coaches’ acknowledgement of the representation of their thoughts could be deemed to have been a fair and accurate portrayal, meaning that the results had a good degree of credibility.

Bryman (2008) outlines confirmability as a criterion that looks, whilst acknowledging the fact that complete objectivity is “impossible in social research” (p.379), to ensure that research has been undertaken absent personal values and in “good faith” (p.379). Perhaps crucial to confirmability, therefore, is how a researcher has acknowledged their impact. Here then, it is important to note that the researcher fully acknowledges their role in the

creation of the data. As noted in section 3.2.2. *Ontology and Epistemology*, what is of particular note is that the researcher had experience of having lived their formative life within a setting similar to those where the coaches in this study had worked. As such, it was necessary to be aware of how this lived experience would have, even subconsciously, influenced the researcher's attitudes and values relating to deeply embedded community social problems. In short, the researcher needed to acknowledge their sympathy with those within areas of social deprivation that might be considered to be disenfranchised and marginalised. Additionally, however, it is also worth considering the relatively long lifespan of the project (interviews taken over a nine month period) and the continued contact with some of the coaches that I have had (post data collection). This 'insider' position, for all intents and purposes, has allowed me to understand many of the nuances and subtleties of the research and the field that has been studied. Indeed, longevity of fieldwork is considered to positively influence the 'truth' of research. Because of this, it is reasonable to assume that this research, whilst not entirely absent of some subjectivity, has had at the principles of trustworthiness at its heart.

3.9 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter has justified the methods undertaken within the study by explaining how the participants were chosen, how the interview questions were compiled, and the manner in which the data was analysed. Principally, however, the section has outlined three key factors. Firstly, that the use of interviews within an interpretivist philosophy of science was critical to achieving the intended outcomes of the study itself. Secondly, that the acknowledgment of the impact of the pilot study on the process and course of the thesis itself was necessary in order to appreciate the manner in which the data was generated, and lastly, that the researcher had to be aware of their impact, in particular with regards to the interpretation of the data.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER

The following chapter presents the findings that were constructed from the data analysed and is presented, effectively, through the use of the focused codes of ‘initial resistance’, ‘burgeoning coach-athlete relationships’, ‘pro-social behaviours’, and ‘welfare’ as category headings. Additionally the theoretical code of ‘empowerment’ is used to reflect the central findings of the study. Best explained through how the coaches incrementally gave power and responsibility to the participants, this theoretical code effectively pulled the story of this study together by connecting the focused codes and allowing the narrative of improved participant behaviour through meaningful participation to emerge. The chapter presents the findings in a form, using quotes to illustrate the coaches’ experiences, that will make sense in understanding how sport social intervention programmes can be seen through the actions of the coaches themselves.

4.1.1 The sports coaching context – an outline of where the coaches coached.

Much like what would be expected of coaches with significant experience of coaching in the community, the coaches in this study had worked within a variety of sport initiatives. Whilst the biographical details of the nine coaches are include in Appendix B, it is worth briefly summarising their experience and the types of interventions they had worked in here. Overall, the nine coaches consisted of three coaches with more than seven years (full time) experience of community coaching. In fact, two of these three coaches had more than ten years’ experience in this sector. An additional two coaches were now working more as ‘organisers’, with one working as a local authority sports development officer and the other working as a community and education manager for a semi-professional football team. These two coaches had worked in community sports coaching

for over ten and six years respectively. The other four coaches were younger (in their twenties) than the five already mentioned (who ranged from their late 30's to early 50's). Yet all of the younger coaches had still worked for between two to five years in the community setting, with much of this time taken up in what were, more or less, full time posts.

In terms of the context of community coaching that the coaches worked in there are two broad areas to consider. Firstly, that some of the coaches had worked with participants who had to attend the sessions that they ran. But, even these young people were not actually obliged in any real way to actually stay in the sessions. The responsibility for attendance would have rested not with the coaches, but with the agency that had placed them in the scheme. Some of the agencies that had placed participants in schemes the coaches were running include the local youth offending team, the local youth services, and nearby pupil referral units. The second area to consider is the range of sport initiatives the coaches were involved in. Here, the nature of community coaching, with various agencies and organisations intermittently funding it, means that any projects in which the coaches worked were based upon whatever was available at that time in terms of funding patterns. What this meant in relation to understanding the context of this study is that the coaches had worked in a large range of sport initiatives, never, for example, just one or two. Examples of some of the schemes that the coaches were involved in, without presenting specific named examples, are the following: Streetgames funded projects, Sport England funded projects, Local Authority funded projects, Housing Association funded projects, and even projects funded by the local supermarket. Yet, and this is important to note, all of these projects would have had a clear set of values associated with various forms of social policy, most often linked to hoped for reductions in ASB, underpinning the programmes.

Broadly then, the coaches worked in projects where participants did not have to attend. And the types of initiatives that they had worked within were varied in the nature of their funding, yet held commonalities in terms of seeking to address broader social policy issues.

4.2 JUNIOR FIGHT CLUB AND THE ‘MENTALIST’ – ‘INITIAL RESISTANCE’

Community sports projects are funded to a great extent by the nature and scope of the deep social problems in which they operate. In this respect they are defined by the everyday actions and experiences of those living in the areas. Given our understanding of this, it is of perhaps no surprise that resistance to authority was evident and one of the issues most frequently mentioned by the coaches when discussing the implementation and start of sport social intervention programmes. Mike was very clear about this when he stated that:

“Some of them will come in with *real* attitude, and when you’ve got a group of ten you tend to know those that will stay the whole course, or those that will give it up after a couple of sessions, even a whole hour.”

(Mike, 13/10/2010)

David had similar experiences when first meeting some of the young people; he was clear-cut in the way he described it

“It could be anything from “I don’t like teachers”, or “I don’t like authority- you can’t tell me!” (David, 21/01/2011)

Peter (01/12/2010) explained it as “gobby behaviour¹”, and Jake (09/05/2011) reflected on how “not all of them will listen. They don’t care pretty much...some of them. They think they can *just take the mick*²...”

Paul explained how some of the participants could be aggressive, and on being asked to elaborate, responded:

“Oh *very* aggressive, they can be. Short tempered as well, so if you’re asking them a question it’s “why you asking me that? *Why* you asking me that?” (Paul, 31/05/2011)

Interestingly, Paul also gave a description of how aggressiveness was demonstrated through verbal language and, through the medium of body language, specifically, the manner of walking. He made this point very forcefully with his assertion that:

“The way they dress, just the way they walk, the way they talk...attitude problems. ...just the ‘bowl³’...they’ve all got to act like the bigger man” (Paul, 31/05/2011)

¹ “gobby” is a British slang term used to explain an over-emphatic and aggressive way of speaking.

² “taking the mick” is a British colloquial term that means ‘making fun of’.

³ The term ‘Bowl’ is a British colloquial term (more synonymous with youth culture) that refers to the way in which someone is walking confidently. Most often, it is used in a negative manner and expresses how someone is walking and conveying a degree of aggressiveness at the same time.

Paul also recounted the story of how ‘the mentalist’ had appeared at a coaching session:

“And one of the kids was called the mentalist, or the thug, or something like that, or the man or something silly (laughs). And they’d all refer to him as that. And he’d refer to himself like that as well, so when he had a shot or something he’d shout “I’m the mentalist”. (Paul, 31/05/2011)

Paul went on to explain how this boy (mid to late teens) intimidated the entire group with his threatening behaviour, and how he (Paul) needed to individually talk to him at the end of the session to enable everyone to go home. Tom (12/05/2011) outlined how in the beginning participants are “swearing, kicking each other” and how “some of their behaviour is awful. Really bad. They swear a lot...I’m coaching a five year old, who swears, who’s really bad”. Furthermore, real threats to staff took place as Peter (01/12/2010) recounted when discussing three incidents that had occurred over the ten year period he had worked in the community sport setting. An example is the following: “And the third one was actually at me, where someone, actually me and another member of staff, actually he turned round and says “I’m gonna come back and set fire to you”. He never did...”

4.2.1 Physical violence

Mark (11/05/2011) was very explicit in his description of participants’ behaviour when he started work on his social intervention projects: “they were kicking each other, wanting to fight; it was like junior fight club”. Tom (12/05/2011) recounted how some participants would be “swearing, and kicking each other”. Jake (09/05/2011) also explained how he and other staff had “had to break up a few fights”, and Peter

(01/12/2010) described how a member of his staff “Got in the way of a fight and got clunked in the face. Another member of staff got bitten by a female participant.”

The threat of physical violence was also at times extended to bystanders, with Samuel (04/03/2011) explaining how some of the young people would be “just sitting about on their BMX bikes causing problems”. The threats took on what can be construed as a more sinister tone, as Paul went on to explain:

“The coach that I was with, he’d said something to one of the kids and the kid had come back down with his dad and a dog, a staff, and threatened the other coach. And the coach told him to go away because he was running it, and the dad kept threatening him. And one of the kids went up to the coach and pulled his trousers down, and said he was a paedophile and how he likes little boys. The coaches said he had to leave, they got annoyed and they stopped the car getting away, standing in the way of the car and hitting and rocking the car. After that the coach said he wouldn’t come back!”

(Paul, 31/05/2011)

4.2.2 Swearing, smoking, drinking, and taking drugs

Having outlined the aggressive behaviour, threats, and even physical confrontations that were apparent in all of the coaches experiences of initial participant behaviour, this section will present some of the coaches’ descriptions of how alcohol, cigarettes, and drugs were used at times.

Mark (11/05/2011) explained that, “some children would turn up drinking alcohol; you’d tell them they’re not allowed to do that. Some would be drunk, some would be smoking, it was just appalling behaviour”, and when Mike (13/10/2010) was discussing a

Friday night street project he stated “you don’t know who’s coming, you don’t know what sort of day they’ve had, what they’ve been drinking, what they’ve been taking”

Tom, Jake, Samuel and Paul all reported similar experiences, with Paul actually pointing out that on occasion a group of youths who were drunk or on drugs would turn up later in the session:

“And then I’d get a later group would come to the last 45 minutes and they’d normally be drunk. Normally be drunk, and smoking cannabis or just smoking cigarettes” (Paul, 31/05/2011)

The coaches felt that drinking, smoking, swearing, and taking drugs by participants was highly prevalent among individuals and groups. Simon even spoke of how sometimes beginners in some of the community schemes had wanted “to go for a fag break, or a drinking (alcohol) break” (Simon, 23/06/2010). Overall, they felt that there were certain types of behaviours and mannerisms that were exclusive to youth culture (such as ‘gangsta’ speak), but that there was also a widespread acceptance of anti-social behaviours within their relevant network or group.

4.3 JUST GETTING TO KNOW THEM... ‘BURGEONING COACH-PARTICIPANT RELATIONSHIPS’

“Yeah, as I say, they started to respect each other better when they started to understand that at the end of the day everyone was there just to have fun. They want to enjoy themselves” (Peter, 01/12/2010)

Peter’s comment here was in response to a question about changes that occurred in the way participants acted with each other, the coaches, and even other adults after the first

few sessions. Peter's response illustrates how changes were occurring as the social intervention programmes were delivered. More evidence for this can be seen through Mike, who described how coaches could interact better with participants in the schemes he was running. Mike highlighted how relationships were developed by being more personable with the participants:

"Y'know, if you know them and you begin to understand, if you just know their name, by...every week...you get to know their names "hi Joe how's it going?". It's being friendly and approachable with it. And that way they begin to appreciate what you're doing for them." (Mike, 13/10/2010)

Samuel had similar thoughts and commented that for the coaches it was essential to be polite and respectful:

"What we say to them is when they come into a session its "evening how are you?" and when they leave its "thank you for coming, hope to see you next week". And then over a period of time they'll come in and say "alright Sam, alright Luke, alright Al" (Samuel, 04/03/2011)

In short, Samuel felt that changes in the way that participants responded to and interacted with the coaches occurred over a period of time. These comments are echoed by David who explained how his team would go about developing rapport in the initial stages of an intervention, and how participants would become more agreeable. David revealed that he and others would make explicit attempts to involve participants in some way. At times the coaching staff would leave out cones in the hope that some would engage and

help. On occasion the coaches would explicitly ask for little bits of help, such as getting participants to stand on the corners of an inflatable pitch whilst it was being blown up. On reflection David felt that it just took a little bit of time for the participants to help out:

“Initially they would just wait for you to do everything and then start. And then you will get the curious ones who say “can I help?” (David, 21/01/2011)

Peter (01/12/2010), whilst discussing what happened when they started the actual coaching programmes in the community and how much they (the participants) helped, said, “The most successful (session) is when those groups you’re working with said “I’m having a great time” and bring two or three mates along to have a go”. However Peter (01/12/2010) also that it was difficult to develop relationships with some participants: “There are other people who just need the extra time and support because they don’t get it at home, or they’re just that type of person.” Nevertheless, a consistent pattern emerged in the data that strongly suggested that as the coaches and participants formed closer relationships, the incidences of explicit violence and aversion to authority decreased. Jake (09/05/2011) thought long and hard about his impact as a coach, and speculated that: “Maybe it’s because they respected us more and looked up to us? And wanted to behave and not show off as much”

Paul felt that as the interventions occurred relationships involved more humour and trust, less abusiveness and fewer challenges of the authority of coaches:

“Because they knew me, they knew they could have a bit of banter with me as well, instead of giving me abuse; they could have a banter with me...In

the end we were more kind of like friends, it was more of a friend's kind of relationship. They would talk to me straight away, come over" (Paul, 31/05/2011)

Mark (11/05/2011) further explained that manners changed among the participants, because "They definitely showed more respect towards me. That was the main thing; the kids were showing more respect towards themselves. They would call me Mark".

Respect and relationships are things that need to be built over a period of time. But what is also clear is that, for the coaches, a pro-active approach to doing so needed to be followed. In fact, empathy, patience, and a concerted effort to be polite, personable and to allow the young people to interact and help the coaches seemed to underpin the way that relationships might best be developed.

4.4 "GO ON LADS GIVE US A HAND TO UNLOAD OR PACK AWAY" – 'PRO-SOCIAL BEHAVIOURS'

The evidence collated within this section identifies how the young people within the sport intervention programmes started to work with the coaches in setting up and orchestrating sessions. First though, many of the coaches stated that it was essential that a good degree of rapport had been developed before the coaches and participants started to work together more. An example of this is how Jake, when recounting the success of the interventions, saw an increase in the way that participants would listen to him:

"They started listening, they started to do things that you wanted...and started asking questions as well! Being more interested in it...in the sport, and what was involved in the sport if you get what I mean? (Jake, 09/05/2011)

Indeed, all of the coaches explained to some extent how attentiveness had improved as the programmes continued. And it is after this that the participants might, and oftentimes did, feel more comfortable in helping out. Mike was one of the coaches that outlined how further along in a sport intervention programme they (the coaches) could ask for and expect help in terms of setting up and packing away:

“You might say “go on lads give us a hand to unload or pack away” and they’ll do it. And they respect the kit because they know if anything’s not working or it’s damaged it’s not coming back next week.” (Mike, 13/10/2010)

Another example came from Peter, who when making comments on how the participants had started to take more responsibility for their environment, was quite amazed at some of the transformations. He recounted how they (the participants) would have cleared up areas before the coaching team came in, and went on to further discuss his amazement at how a run-down area called West Hill (*name changed*) was treated:

“West Hill used to have this wooden fence, and the panels would never stay on, whether they were vandalised or whatever. But they would use the fence panels to try and clear the site, and then they would try and fit them back onto the fences. Which was *unheard* of in that area, because if it was busted, you just left it alone. But they would try and see if they could fix this fence.” (Peter, 01/12/2010)

Peter expressed surprise when he recounted the way that the participants took more responsibility, he had not expected this and thought that the participants were starting to internalise some of their emotional behaviour and aggressive outbursts. Interestingly, his comments also suggest that the groups were working 'better together':

"They would not only control their own emotions, and their own ways of dealing with stress and anger, but you'd then find within the group that others would help them deal with it. So, like I say, those leaders that used to thrive upon "I'm the strongest, you follow me or I'm gonna beat the living daylights out of you", now became, almost, not father figures, but supported peers." (Peter, 01/12/2010)

More rational thought and, indeed, critical reflection was also evident in a recollection by Peter:

"I mean I can remember running a football session at Wishing Tree, and y'know one of the kids shouted out "Oi you gay, Paki bastard!" and the other guys turned round and said "what's that all about? First of all he's not ethnic, so what are you talking about? He's got a girlfriend, yeah, what's it all about?" And eventually they sorted it out, and it turned out that it was because he hadn't passed the ball, and he didn't do it again because he understood why he hadn't passed the ball. And it was different...they started to challenge each other, not in an aggressive or confrontational way, but "why? Why are you doing it?" (Peter, 01/12/2010)

It is important to point out that these programmes, by default, have at their heart intended outcomes of developing appreciable changes in pro-social behaviour in those participating in the programmes. In this study, it is fair to say that after a period of time whereby effective relationships between the coaches and the participants had been established, the participants started to work together more, help the coaches, and became better suited to meeting more widely accepted social standards of behaviour.

4.5 LEADING, NOT LITTERING, LOOKING AFTER EACH OTHER, AND BEING POLITE. HOW THE KIDS ARE NOW ALRIGHT – ‘WELFARE’

So far this chapter has outlined the findings of the data that indicate how the individuals within the programmes have improved their behaviour to each other, and even started to work with the coaches themselves. But one of the other things that became apparent was that there was a growing sense of what might be termed civic pride, with participants starting to develop an awareness of their area. In many respects it could be argued that they were developing some sense of critical reflection in terms of working together well. Indeed, and to demonstrate this, there was a noticeable similarity in the responses of the majority of the research participants in regards to how their participants had changed attitudes and behaviours towards the acts of littering and caring for their environment. Mike, after mentioning that they littered less (the “craziest thing”), said the following on being questioned on the matter further:

“It’s bizarre...you can have them wandering on the football court, sometimes with a cigarette in their hand and a can of beer or something. And it’s “you can’t do that here” and they reply “sorry” and off they walk. We’ve had instances in the skate park where the ramps are damp, and all of

a sudden we've got all of these kids here with skateboards saying "it's too damp, it's too damp". Then there was no one there, they all went... It was all deserted. And they'd all gone to the Tesco which is 200 meters away, and they'd all bought (starts laughing), big packs of kitchen towels, distributed these rolls of kitchen towels between each kid, and dried off the surfaces." (Mike, 13/10/2010)

David also saw significant changes in the way that the participants cleared up, although he stated that it did take some time to effect these changes. On being questioned further regarding the extent to which the changes were apparent, David answered:

"It changes...absolutely, it's their place! It's on *their* estate, or their area, so you have to educate and make them understand that this is yours... their community has paid for it, ok perhaps Sport England, or the town has paid for this, it's your area." (David, 21/01/2011)

This quote is a typical example of the way in which the coaches described how a number of their participants would take more interest in their surrounding community. Mike also discussed how older brothers would talk about their responsibilities and how they wanted to change in order to be good role models for their younger siblings:

"If they've got younger brothers, some of them will say "I've got a younger brother and he sees what I do and I don't want him to do that" so then you've got this 'you're a role model' and they respond "how can I be a role model? I'm in trouble with the police, I've done this, I've done that" but now, it's like, "you're attending these kind of things; you're trying to do

something about it. Try to tell your brother about that side of things rather than how many times you've been in court and stuff" (Mike, 13/10/2010)

Paul's (31/05/2011) response mirrored that of Mike's, and on being asked how they (the participants) worked with each other, responded enthusiastically and immediately: "Yeah, they did, and the older ones worked with the younger ones as well... much better towards the end". Peter, and four of the other coaches, remarked that a number of the participants had, or wanted to, stop smoking:

"Quite often you'd get them turn around and say "I tell you what if I didn't smoke... I wanna give up smoking, I'd probably be able to play better at this game". So you got to the point where they were making conscious decisions on what they were doing with their lives" (Peter, 01/12/2010)

The above quote is illustrative of the way that the participants would start to clearly think about the ramifications of what they were doing, in this instance, the impact on their health of cigarettes and smoking.

Overall, there was general agreement among the coaches that participant behaviour had improved and there was a direct correlation with their attendance patterns on the programmes. Interestingly, David (21/01/2011) remarked that the participants' entire demeanour changed, from unruly, to how in his own words they would: "Tend to walk more upright and they come in with a brighter face, rather than "oh god...I've turned up, what do you want". They do *physically* change, in appearance...but, it is a long process." However, it must be said that David's assertion that it is a long process, was reinforced by his thoughts that it was impossible to engage every participant in the programmes, and that

success, in terms of all participants improving their behaviour, was not universal. These comments regarding how difficult, if not impossible, it was to engage all participants in the programmes were wholly indicative of the thoughts and findings of the other coaches as well.

But, it is important to note that what many of the participants did demonstrate was a newfound interest in their immediate community. Moreover, many of them had also started to develop a sense of critical reflection and an understanding of how their behaviour might impact on others, such as their younger siblings.

4.6 THE ROLE OF THE COACH -UNDERSTANDING, LEADING, AND YOUTH WORK – ‘EMPOWERMENT’

In establishing how the coaches affected behavioural changes it is worth noting that a number of recurring themes were commented on by the coaches. Principally, these themes embraced the necessity for coaches to develop relationships and trust with the participants. Whilst this has been covered to a degree in section 4.3 *Just getting to know them*, it is interesting to further explore some of the coaches’ methods on how to achieve this.

David expressed his methods for developing relationships as starting with an initial series of questions:

“So I usually ask in the beginning, “what don’t you like, what really sets you off?” And most of them will say “people in my face, or in my space”. They don’t like you up close and personal. But then I won’t coach in a standing up normal, coaching setting. I’ll sit down like we are now, and talk

to rather than talk at. And they seem to respond to that.” (David, 21/01/2011)

The needs of the participants were being met here in terms of establishing boundaries on both sides. Samuel went on to explain how developing a rapport and initially allowing for, and using the language and culture that the participants were immersed in, was essential:

“Because then they understand that it’s respectful. And if you’re seen to come down to their level, then you’ll get more respect, because it’s easier to go down than it is to go up, and once you’ve got them from that then you can start to talk and try to bring them up to your level.” (Samuel, 04/03/2011)

There also seemed to be a very interesting interface between the disciplines of coaching and youth work. Whilst coaching was, for the most part, identified more as the facilitating of the session themselves, many of the coaches alluded to the necessity of also needing to assist the participants with many areas that reflected their broader development and learning. Paul (31/05/2011), and others, explicitly described how his role as a community coach was “very much like youth work”.

The way in which the coaches ran the sessions may not initially have seemed to be particularly different to what may have been expected. Indeed, the session structures and content could be said to have been no more than entirely appropriate and well-managed. Having said this, it is still worth considering what happened ‘outside’ of the coaching sessions, with ‘outside’ meaning the time immediately before and after sessions. Here, it is

worth considering how the little things like perhaps having a more formal ‘play’ structure before the session proper starts impacted greatly on how relationships developed. There was general agreement amongst the coaches that this time was seen as a good opportunity for the coaches to meet and greet, ask the young people how they were, who they support, how they are doing, and as such develop rapport and understanding. This was seen to be incredibly important for young children and other participants as they would want to feel comfortable with the coaches. Also, and in the same vein, the coaches stated that they would look to integrate any newcomers/latecomers a little more by saying hi and involving them immediately. Key perhaps to the manner in which the coaches ‘coached’, was their insistence that flexibility was crucial to how they undertook their sessions.

“So when you do a session, a community session, you’ve got to be that flexible. You’ve got to be able to try and (mimics working with youths) “ok, well, that’s not working, we’ll move straight on...what do you want to do guys, what do *you* want?” and you start giving them...because a lot of the people, particularly those in community sessions, *haven’t* been given that option.” (Peter, 01/12/2010)

Part of the way in which the coaches would enable the idea of flexibility to be implemented was in the way that they would oftentimes directly facilitate choice for the participants. Mike, when discussing how he or his coaches would approach session content and planning, explained how:

“Every session was different, I think the trick was that if you turned up to a session with as much equipment that you could carry in the van, you gave people opportunities, and some sessions that we ran we gave the young people the power to decide.” (Mike, 31/10/2010)

Indeed, there were parallels with the type of flexible, more intuitive sessions that were run by the coaches and the manner in which the programmes themselves could be run. With the benefit of hindsight Peter was able to articulate his thoughts of how some programmes needed to be constantly revisited in the manner in which they were run:

“And you had to just keep trying and be prepared to change and be prepared to meet the needs and learn to listen to what the group is saying”
(Peter, 01/12/2010)

Perhaps crucial to the coaches understanding of their role in the programme themselves was the realisation that it was essential for them to be aware of the individual circumstances of each participant, and the culture itself that they were working within. With so many examples having been given of what this thesis has outlined as unruly behaviour, the coaches were able to contextualise, explain, and justify this through their understanding of why the participants did behave like this in the beginning. Mark reflected on the role of social conditions and gave an example as well:

“I’m not sure if it’s their fault as individuals, upbringing, and other things, kind of their way of life, who they hang around with. I know one guy who was 15 and didn’t go to school. You have to be going to school at age 15, but he just didn’t go want to go to school” (Mark, 11/05/2011)

Tom felt strongly about the need to appreciate the lifestyles that the participants had been brought up in, whilst emphasising that the coach needed to be understanding and non-judgemental in this manner:

“Yeah, you’ve got to understand the fact that parents come from...well, they’re (the kids) coming from parents who don’t really have any ground rules... they get away with murder really. You’ve got to understand their background, but at the same time you’ve got to just be fair with them, and you’ve got to give them that discipline that they don’t get at home.” (Tom, 12/05/2011)

Paul’s (31/05/2011) assessment of the essential need for sympathy and tolerance was expressed by his thoughts on how coaches need to: “Understand what they’re doing; understand why they’re out, why they’re drinking, and what they need.”

Critically, however, many of the coaches were quick to re-establish the relationship between the necessity of understanding the participants’ social conditions and the time that it may take to improve the behaviours, and life chances, for them. Samuel’s thoughts on this topic were the following:

“Yeah, some young people react differently, some might start to trust you within two weeks, some young people it might take up to week nine, but then, it’s what’s happening behind closed doors. We don’t have access to that. They might get no respect at home, they’re not trusted, they’re belittled by their parents, “you’re worthless, we wish we didn’t have you, you’re a pain to us” which is a way of life for some. Or the parents may be in out the pub drinking all the time... and they have to make their own way (the young people)” (Samuel, 04/03/2011)

Given this, all of the coaches felt that consideration needed to be given for all of their participants to have the opportunity to express themselves and to feel comfortable in their sessions.

Another key element to building confidence, and indeed, trust, was that the coaches thought that the possibility of running successful schemes would always be improved if the young people had the opportunity to give their input to the kind of activities that would take place. Mike outlined how his programmes would look to the young people for information, and would ask:

“What do they like, what don’t they like, what they want to do and all this sort of thing. So a lot of it is about consultation beforehand. So before a project is delivered in week one, there might have been two or three weeks of consultation going on” (Mike, 13/10/2010)

A good example of how a positive environment would be created by the coaches is from Samuel's discussion of how they would work with less confident participants:

“We found that working in the informal sessions, a lot of people that suffer with confidence, we've identified...they want to be volunteers but they're not confident. So we work on their confidence, and there'll be mentors coming along. And they might take five minutes of the session “would you like to take the warm-up” so then you build up, build up and build up. You don't “say this is your session”- it's sort of a very slow drip-feed process”
(Samuel, 4/03/2011)

And these comments are interesting in that seven of the coaches recognised how giving the participants a degree of responsibility both challenged and supported them. A very good example of how some participants were able to address the broader, contextual difficulties in areas of socio-economic deprivation came quite explicitly in an example given by Samuel. Samuel recalled how the local youth offending team had asked his programme to work with one particularly troubled teenager. After a period of time where trust was developed and incremental levels of responsibility were given to her, she graduated to a position whereby with just a little help from staff she eventually ran a very successful summer sports event for 180 people.

Indeed, given this kind of success it is perhaps of no surprise to find that five of the coaches in the study had promoted a philosophy of developing their participants through formal strategies – such as identifying potential leaders. An example of how this was so can be seen through how Peter discussed, and justified, how the programmes with which he had worked and run looked to:

“Always aim to try and encourage and increase the number of coaches from the set areas we were working with. For many different reasons, one is if they want to do it, they’ve got more determination... if you help them. Sometimes you obviously have to overcome things like they haven’t done so well at school and you have to give them some moral support, but you find that they gain the skills quicker, because they understand how to work within their own set area. And then when they go back to work within those areas, those people recognise them.” (Peter, 01/12/2010)

Here, Peter really gets to the core of what many of the coaches looked to achieve. In effect, the coaches within the study thought that much of the success of their projects came down to how they allocated time to individuals and understood their backgrounds. This was important in order to build relationships, and once achieved, the sessions and programmes could look to emphasise flexibility, choice, support, and allowing the participants to take incrementally given levels of responsibility in running sessions themselves.

4.7 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

In conclusion to this chapter, much of the data presented discusses how critical reflection had developed, how the participants within the schemes behaved better as they attended more sessions, and how they worked with the coaches, themselves, and even their community better. Additionally the coaches’ thoughts on their role in facilitating these changes have been outlined. Overall, it is worth remembering that the purpose of this study was to understand the perceptions and thoughts of community coaches regarding what constitutes ‘effectiveness’ within sport intervention programmes, and how

they see their role within them. The results have been, in effect, the presentation of a story. A story that, whilst synthesising the individual stories of each participant, has still nevertheless been undertaken in an inductive, structured manner. Because of this, there are concepts that can be pulled out and explained from the story that can integrate what has been identified from the focused and theoretical codes. The next chapter will discuss the findings in context of the wider literature.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER

In the previous chapter, it was decided to simply present the empirical findings in order that they might stand on their own. Here then, this chapter will discuss the data that was gathered from the coach interviews. The following discussion is important in two respects. Firstly, a more critical exploration of the role of the coach is necessary, particularly in consideration of how it is they, and they alone, who orchestrate the actual delivery of sport in community development projects. In this respect it would be neglectful of the study to solely concentrate on describing the changes in behaviour effected on participants in the social intervention programmes. Indeed, considering the data generated it would be possibly negligent to refrain from commenting upon what may be an original contribution to knowledge in terms of coach pedagogy. Secondly, and in order to make sense of the findings, the major findings of the study are discussed and presented in turn. These findings indicated that ‘initial resistance’ from the participants was often evident, yet ‘burgeoning coach-athlete relationships’ led to an increase, in many of the participants, of ‘pro-social behaviours’. In fact, oftentimes these programmes led to participants gaining an appreciation of the ‘welfare’ of both themselves and others. And the way in which the coaches facilitated many of these changes was through an intentional process of encouragement and ‘empowerment’. Thus, in order to move beyond what could be seen as a more descriptive account of how changes are effected, this chapter deals with the possible question of why these changes occurred.

5.2 COACHING WITHIN SOCIAL INTERVENTION PROGRAMMES – UNDERSTANDING CHANGE

Briefly, the focused and theoretical codes both emphasised a pattern of how initial resistance from participants would oftentimes lead, facilitated by the coaches and greater trust and developed relationships, to improved behaviours. This section is organised by the codes that emerged from this study.

'Initial resistance'. Initial resistance was one of the areas most commonly discussed by the participants in the study. The coaches all shared the view that when their programmes started, they invariably met some form of resistance or challenging behaviour. Understanding how, and why, people 'choose' to engage in anti-social behaviour is perhaps critical to this study itself, given that the vast majority of the programmes referred to in this study were within areas classified as socially deprived. One way of understanding the way in which the young people initially responded to the coaches is through the use of the concepts of community, culture, and identity in the context of youth studies. In order to understand the concept of community as a set of collective beliefs, a sharing of standards, and a sense of belonging, it is also important to consider how these beliefs are formed (Hylton and Totten, 2008a). Broadly, they will have been developed and learned through a culture. Oftentimes, though, these cultures are particular, exclusive, or defined through some form of resistance to a wider culture. An example is the idea of youth cultures, ones that are not surprisingly defined through resistance to broader social mores and cultures (Jones, 2009). It is through these youth sub-cultures that identity can be offered for members. And given that much of youth subculture seeks to position itself as counter-cultural and non-conformist, the value and identity associated with young people in areas of social deprivation is oftentimes linked to idealisms of delinquency (Hall and Jefferson, 2006).

An example of this can be seen in Nayak's (2006) study on the patterns of working class youth cultures in the north-east of England. This study identified a set of 'normal' behaviours, such as car crime, within its 'Chav' culture that emphasised the high regard in which criminality was held by some young people. And here it is possible to see that local identity and youth culture filled the context within which the coaches in this study worked. Oftentimes this was manifested in an acceptance of, and appreciation for, the reasons why the participants in the programmes initially engaged in anti-social behaviours.

What this category of initial resistance has done in this study is to signpost how the coaches saw it as an impetus to effect change. The coaches shared the idea that having knowledge of how these groups worked enabled them to work more effectively on a professional level. This work, in more detail, demonstrated that the findings of this study were that 'initial resistance' needed to be met by a sympathetic approach.

'Burgeoning coach-participant relationships'. The development of coach-participant relationships represents one of the constructs that was essential to how the programmes could build any success. In order to do so, a welcoming environment was considered key to developing rapport and trust. Much of the manner in which this can be seen can be theorised through the way in which interpersonal relationships can best be developed. Developing relationships is a construct addressed by Lorimer and Jowett (2009). More to the point, what they see as essential in developing trust in relationships is the concept of empathic accuracy. This concept seeks to explain how individuals can attune themselves to another's emotional condition, in effect, allowing them to more readily facilitate positive interactions and relationships (Ickes et al., 1990). More broadly, literature related to the idea of cultural empathy is also helpful in understanding how the coaches in this study could develop relationships. Cultural empathy is considered somewhat distinct from

just any idea or notion of empathy itself in that it indicates an appreciation of different cultural contexts, settings, and experiences that others have had (Ridley and Udipi, 2002).

The findings from this study suggest that the coaches had an appreciation of how they needed to demonstrate empathy and patience in order to create positive relationships. Indeed, the participants in the study described the ability to interact, build rapport and trust and have empathy with their participants as an essential tool in the settings in which they worked.

‘Pro-social behaviours’. According to the coaches, with the relationships between themselves and the participants built over a period of time, a more conducive environment for working together became apparent. Given these kinds of conditions, when the coaches encouraged more ‘pro-social behaviours’ the participants oftentimes developed more self-control and regulated their behaviour more to that of socially accepted norms. From a relatively simple perspective, the social learning theory (Bandura, 1962; Cox, 1998) might be used to explain how, through social reinforcement and significant others, the participants in the programmes improved their behaviour by observing and imitating the behaviour of the coaches in this study (in this case the significant others). Indeed, Coalter (2007) has identified this approach as being part of an implicit assumption of how sport works in addressing anti-social behaviours. It is important to note, however, that there is a large body of research outlining how pro-social behaviour can be measured, or facilitated through sport. In the field of sport performance and participation, for instance, Kavussanu and Boardley (2009) have developed the *Prosocial and Antisocial Behavior in Sport Scale*. And whilst this scale is set within the very context of sport itself, and not necessarily the contexts within which sport operates (in this instance, areas of social deprivation), the idea of pro-social behaviours as acts that intend to help other people is helpful for this study. The work of Hodge and Lonsdale (2011), as an example, illustrates

the way in which sport can play a meaningful role in socialising people. They emphasise the fact that those coaches who are supportive and involved, are more likely to be able to effect changes in behaviour.

While the responses in the study made references to how best to facilitate relationships and how to engage many of the young people by actively promoting more widely accepted social standards of behaviour, the importance of getting them to work together more and to help the coaches also emerged.

‘Welfare’. Overall, the results of the study revealed that many of the participants seemed to have become more community minded and mindful of the ‘welfare’ of themselves and others. If we are to look to theorise this, this would appear to support the manner in which social capital seeks to explain increased social networks and, very importantly in this case, the notions of civic and community engagement (Bailey, 2005; Fitzpatrick, 2007). The way in which some of the participants started to look after younger members of the groups, sometimes their siblings, and try to moderate their behaviour is also well explained by the concept of social capital. This is particularly so when the idea of social cohesion and strengthening groups and communities is used (Daly, 2005). Given that Coleman (1991) expressed his belief that social capital is especially embodied through the ties that families create, the evidence suggesting the revisiting of attitudes to responsibility and leadership between siblings can be further supported by the notion of social capital.

Interestingly, the emphasis on critical reflection that the participants in the programmes had developed is well supported by many proponents of the efficacy of sport in developmental processes. Increased self-concept, self-esteem, and improved physical and mental health are all areas that have been promoted as personal benefits that sport can provide (Coalter, 2001). But again, even this element of the study can be explained to a degree through the notion of social capital, whereby the reinforcement of social and

educational capital can be more readily facilitated through the bonding of social relationships. What is important here is that any increases in educational capital might, in part, help explain revised attitudes to personal health. Indeed, social capital itself is often linked to positive increases in psychosocial factors that determine educational attainment (Coalter 2001; 2007).

'Empowerment'. Yet perhaps the most critical category that emerged, through the theoretical coding, was that 'empowerment' was essential. This concept helped explain how the coaches 'coached', the 'role of the coach' and how they gave more emphasis on developing participants in personal terms through progressively giving them more responsibility. In effect, what became apparent was that the coaches developed strategies to facilitate critical reflection and help the participants

Now, and acknowledging that grounded theory methodology structured and directed the process and the findings, a number of theories could be used to make sense of how the coaches helped the participants. For example, Martinek and Hellison's (1997) guidelines, briefly referred to in the literature review, for developing physical activity programmes for young people in areas of social deprivation. Much of what they recommended looked to develop the resiliency and behaviour of the young people, not that different from what the coaches in this study looked to do. Given this, and similarly, Nichols' (2004) outline of the characteristics which programmes for at risk participants should include, such as offering an attractive activity with rewards for achievement, having staff who could take on a mentoring role, and offering viable exit routes, reflects much of the findings developed through the grounded theory of this study.

Yet, in order to make sense and give meaning to the data, the CYE Model, with its emphasis on supported environments, meaningful participation, incrementally given roles of responsibility, and contribution to community affairs, is particularly suitable when

looking to explain the data. This is because it serves the study well in terms of explaining what occurred and why it occurred in the programmes.

In essence, when we consider the thoughts of the coaches within the study who thought the success of their projects was primarily due to building relationships, an emphasis on consultation, flexibility, and allowing the young people to be given choice and incremental levels of responsibility, the CYE model does seem to reflect much of what the coaches 'do' or 'facilitate' in the data. When the dimension of a *Welcoming Safe Environment* is considered, it is worth recalling that oftentimes the coaches within this study would insist upon the importance of 'understanding' the participants. Moreover, they emphasised the necessity of trust and developing relationships. Oftentimes this would be in the absence of more traditional influences such as family and school, or of other suitable role models for the young people. Moreover, the second dimension, *Meaningful Participation and Engagement*, explicitly calls for participants to become involved in community affairs and to provide additional opportunities for learning. This dimension's ethos of enabling young people to learn additional skills such as planning and organising, was readily apparent in the manner in which the coaches would enable the young people to decide, plan, and orchestrate their own sessions, although, critically, this was done after a period of time and only after some trust had been established. The third dimension of the CYE, *Equitable Power-Sharing between Youth and Adults*, can be seen through the way in which youth-directed activities were encouraged through flexibility, and even, on occasion, consulting with the young people before the activities proper started. And lastly, the fifth and sixth dimensions of the CYE call for, respectively, *Participation in Socio-political Processes in Order to Effect Change*, and *Integrated Individual and Community-Level Empowerment*. Both of these dimensions can be evidenced in this study by the way in which additional volunteering and leadership roles were offered. This proved to be, in the thoughts of the

coaches, a critical strategy that underpinned the very ethos of a number of the programmes that the coaches had worked on. However, and in concluding this section of the chapter, it must be said that it was just five out of the nine coaches that had worked in programmes that had explicitly facilitated this kind of work. And it is here, in a more critical, perhaps informative, manner, that it can be said that those programmes that catered for this kind of long-term and inclusive planning had farther reaching and more profound success than those that did not. In short, the impact and benefits of those programmes that responded to the particular challenges of developing leadership roles and community level empowerment reported more detailed, evidenced, and developed case studies and examples, and as such, had greater incidences of success.

5.3 THE CYE MODEL – ITS SUITABILITY TO THIS RESEARCH

In summary, the relevance of using theory to explain the fundamental intention of the thesis (to relate the experiences, observations, and perhaps best practice of coaches), is to try to interpret the complicated nature of community coaching. With so much of the data alluding to what was considered the importance of developing relationships and incrementally giving power and responsibility to the participants, it was decided that the data was oftentimes well explained/theorised through the CYE model. A model that could help call attention to the real, everyday things that were going on between the coaches and the young people. And whilst it is possible to admit that any potential theory is merely just one of many ‘lenses’ with which to explain phenomena and data, it is tempting to think that just using social capital, much like the wider literature has done, could perhaps ‘force’ too many of those little things and nuances to be overlooked.

A good example of how relationships were seen as key to the success of community coaching was in the last section of the last chapter. This section, admittedly only briefly, investigated the role of the coach in facilitating better behaviour. It identified that within

the community coach setting there are possibly strong parallels to the work of youth workers and social workers. Fittingly, and as mentioned in the literature review, this meets some of the Centre for Social Justice's *More than a Game* (2011) report's observations on how "can serve as a context for youth work" (p.25). Crucially, outside of the needs to establish boundaries and mutual respect, it is the coaches' perception of the necessity for knowledge and understanding of the participants' backgrounds that seems to be most strongly articulated here. Indeed, it can be said that the coaches' relationships with the participants was key here. This has been particularly evident through the coaches who had the ability to act, to effect change, and to develop individuals' capacity to improve.

In short, the study brings attention to the real, everyday things that were going on between the coaches and the young people. In fact, much of the material that came from the coaches in the Findings section evidenced how the coaches contributed to the personal development of the young people within their programs by adhering to the concepts and dimensions which are explicitly outlined in the CYE model.

5.4 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter presented a detailed overview of how improvements in participant behaviour can be explained. In summary, the coach-participant relationships work in a fluid, yet under tension, counterbalancing act of recognising independence and enabling greater responsibility to be undertaken by the young people. It should be acknowledged that this data and its interpretation is solely that of the researcher, and as such can be seen as just one, out of many, conceptual framework that analyses and explains the data.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE CHAPTER

This chapter will remind the reader of the initial premise of the thesis, summarise the findings, and discuss the implications of the findings themselves. Finally, the chapter will offer some recommendations and conclude the thesis itself.

6.2 INITIAL QUESTIONS

The purpose of the thesis was to investigate the perceptions of community coaches on their roles and what might constitute the effectiveness of sport intervention programmes. In order to do this, nine coaches who are employed to deliver sports programmes in the south east of England were interviewed. With the majority of research in this area using either social capital or quantitative research to explain their findings, a grounded theory approach was used to examine whether these programmes led to appreciable changes in pro-social behaviour.

6.3 SUMMARY

The findings of this research were that the emerged grounded theory of ‘empowerment’ helped identify the way in which the coaches sought to work with young people. In effect, it bridged the gaps between ‘initial resistance’, ‘burgeoning coach-athlete relationships’, ‘pro-social behaviours’, and ‘welfare’ which were identified as category headings. And from this theory of ‘empowerment’, the use of Jennings et al.’s (2006) CYE model for this study can be seen to clearly demonstrate that embedding strategies for empowerment within intervention programmes can lead to wider behavioural change. In using the CYE model, a clear correlation between how the coaches considered the programmes to be more successful, certainly on an individual basis, when offering supported environments and incremental participant contribution was made evident through the observations and

feedback given from the coaches themselves. As a piece of research that has documented the perceptions of coaches from a variety of sport intervention programmes, it is apparent that by using the CYE model as the framework, and measuring gainful participation as the purpose, the study showed that coaches with the foresight or skill to emphasise the development of relationships and trust were more successful in developing pro-social behaviours.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS

This research adds to previous work regarding how sport intervention programmers might be made more successful. It has provided evidence that sport intervention schemes do have the capacity to inspire and change individuals, and even, given correct foresight and strategies, demonstrate long lasting effectiveness. What is of note, however, is that it must be stated that the research has demonstrated that the role of the coach is paramount to the success of these programmes. Whilst sport itself provides the context of where, and how, participants within the social intervention programmes could change, or develop, it is the coaches themselves who have facilitated these changes within this study. Because of this, the findings and the use of the CYE theory have implications for organisations managing interventions and the coaches who will deliver them.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Whilst this study has generated data that is principally theoretical in its approach and has offered another approach to theorise and discuss how positive behaviours can be derived from sport intervention projects, there are other possibilities to be taken from it. The emergence of data that, developed from the coaches' perspective, highlights the similarities of their work to that of youth workers or social workers (see section 4.6), and that emphasises the necessity of developing sound, boundary enabled relationships with

the participants as key to the success of the programmes, means that perhaps some of the findings could conceivably underpin future coach education programmes and contribute to the proposed systems of coaching within the scUK Coach Development Model.

Having said this, it is important to recognise the limitations of this study. Whilst care was undertaken regarding its methodological rigorousness and clear, consistent categories emerged from the data, it is worth remembering that the data came from just nine coaches and, indeed, just one county. Because of this, the results might not be generalisable to other areas. Therefore, whilst these findings might be useful in offering a way of understanding effective coaching in sport intervention settings, it would be worthwhile to develop this research further. Of particular note might be the use of a broader quantitative study. Given that this research sought to capture the ‘voice’ of the coaches, this meaningful data might be extended, and perhaps reinforced, by engaging with far greater numbers through a quantitative study.

6.6 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter reminded the reader of the premise and methodology of the thesis itself. In addition to this the chapter summarised the findings, discussed the implications of them, and offered a short section on possible recommendations.

6.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In summary, the premise of the thesis was that existing literature is insufficient in terms of supporting the use of sport as a means of addressing social problems linked to issues of positive youth development and social inclusion. An example of the awareness of this paucity of evidence is how Sandford et al. (2008:100), when discussing the assessment of behavior improvement projects for disaffected youth, state how “it has been noted that it is notoriously difficult to generate ‘credible’ data in this type of evaluation

research”. Consequently, the addition of the findings of this thesis allows for a different, perhaps more qualitative, set of results that look at the transformation of participants in social intervention sports programmes using the CYE model. As such there has been, potentially, an innovative contribution to research and the understanding of the effectiveness, monitoring, and evaluation of programmes.

CHAPTER 7: APPENDICES

7.1 APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Questions:

This interview guide was solely intended to guide the stories of the coaches themselves. Whilst the intention of the interviews was principally to discuss the extent to which the meeting of social inclusion criteria had been met in the view of the coaches, the intention was to let the coaches discuss their thoughts and give their reflections of their experiences.

Introduction

Outline your job role

- Prompt - Social administration
- Prompt - What was the purpose? How long? Typical sessions?
- Prompt- What formal coaching education have you undertaken?
- Prompt- What skills do you believe are necessary for coaches within disadvantaged areas?
- Prompt - Can you identify the skills and competencies required in coaching in the community
- Prompt- With respect to community coaching, how effective has your formal coaching background been? To what extent has it contributed?
- Prompt- Can you identify the present role of coach education in supporting the work of community coaches?

Session content

- Prompt- Physical activity?
- Prompt- How different were these sessions to 'normal', formalised coaching. Types of behaviours?

Measuring the success of social inclusion programmes

- Prompt- What kind of behaviours do the participants exhibit?
- Prompt- Did you notice a change in behaviour in the participants?
- Prompt- Did their manners and etiquette change?
- Prompt- Can you give any examples of how those young people changed, or any case studies?
- Prompt- Was there evidence of more: emotional evenness, emotional restraint, social standards?
- Prompt- Was there an increase in social pressure on people?
- Prompt- Do you believe it is sport or the programmes that work?
- Prompt- Have you noticed an increase in the following in some of the participants –

1. Friendships
2. Groups
3. notions of trust
4. norms and values

7.2 APPENDIX B: EXAMPLE PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

MPhil (B) Sports Coaching University of Birmingham

A Research Study

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Study Title: Community Coach Perceptions

You are invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully:

1. What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of this project is to examine the skill set of a group of community sports coaches who are employed to deliver a sports programme in the south east of England, and to evaluate the effectiveness of sport being used in a social administrative capacity (i.e. social cohesion, anti-social behaviour) from the coach perspective

2. Why have I been chosen ?

Your name has been put forward by key personnel from your community sports coach program. It is felt that your contribution will add to our understanding and knowledge of the role of sport in areas that have been described as having high social deprivation, and also in establishing further knowledge of the necessary skill set for working in this distinctive environment.

3. Do I have to take part?

The decision to take part in this study is entirely yours. Your participation is voluntary and you can withdraw from the study at any time. You can also withdraw your data from any future analysis and/or publication, if you wish.

4. What will happen to me if I take part?

You will be asked to take part in an interview, and potentially, a focus group over the next 12/18 months. Your decision of whether to participate or not in some/both of the activities is yours and yours only. Likewise, interviews will only be tape-recorded with your permission, and you will have the choice of being taped or not. The anticipated duration of the interviews and the focus groups are approximately one hour.

5. What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The study is designed to promote a better understanding of the role of community coach programmes in enhancing coaching practice. It may have implications for coach education and continuous professional development in supporting sports coaches.

6. Will what I say in the study be kept confidential?

Whatever you say to the principal researcher will stay confidential and will only be used for the purpose of this study. For this reason all data collected will remain under lock and key in his secured office at the university and will only be accessed by the researcher. The confidentiality of the data will be ensured by meeting the requirements of the data protection act, and the data will be encrypted by using password protection for USB sticks. Please note that in respect of the focus groups, confidentiality cannot be assured as this largely depends upon other group members.

7. Will the data I provide stay anonymous?

Every possible effort is made to ensure the participants are not identified. The principal researcher will not use names or identification text in the reporting and analysis of data.

8. What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of the study will go towards the work of the principal researcher's MPhil (B) thesis in Sports Coaching. Data from this may be included in research papers that will be submitted for publication to education and sports coaching journals. Recommendations for the development of coach education and support will be forwarded to SportscoachUK.

9. Who has reviewed the study?

The study has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee of Birmingham University.

7.3 APPENDIX C: EXAMPLE PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

MPhil (B) Sports Coaching University of Birmingham

Consent Form

Please answer the following questions to the best of your knowledge.

Have you:

	Yes	No
1. Read the information explaining the study ?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Had an opportunity to ask questions and discuss this study ?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Received satisfactory answers to all your questions ?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Received enough information about the study ?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

To whom have you spoken ? **Philippe Crisp**

Do you understand:

That you are free to withdraw from the study and free to withdraw your data from any future analysis and/or publication.

- | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| • At any time. | Yes | No |
| • Without having to give a reason for withdrawing | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

I hereby fully and freely consent to participate in a study entitled:

The UK community coaching context: the coach perspective

- I understand the nature and purpose of the research.
- I understand and acknowledge that the data I provide will remain **confidential** to the principal researcher who will use them for no other purpose other than research.
- I understand that **anonymous** quotes from interviews may be used in a final report and/or publications related to this study.
- I understand that the information I provide will only be used for the purpose set out in the information sheet, and my consent is conditional upon the principal investigator complying with his duties and obligations under the Data Protection Act (1998).

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

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